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Gratifications obtained from the mass media and Jung's theory of the types

Patterson, Scott Joseph, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University, 1932
GRATIFICATIONS OBTAINED FROM THE MASS MEDIA
AND JUNG'S THEORY OF THE TYPES

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor
of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

by
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*****

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Any media production, of which this is surely an example, is never the result of any one person’s efforts. This, then, is a “list of credits” for all the persons involved in this project.

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John W. Dimmick - Co-Producer and Production Designer.
Thomas A. McCain - Associate Producer and Special Effects.
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to examine the psychological origins of needs which motivate persons to use particular mass media. This research begins with the presuppositions of the uses and gratifications approach to audience theory. Foremost of these presuppositions is that individuals actively use the media to gratify felt needs. These needs may in part be psychological in origin. This study examines the relationship between Jungian personality type and gratifications obtained from different types of mass media use. 508 Adults of a large mid-western city were contacted via telephone survey interviews in which they completed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and an instrument which operationalized cognitive and affective gratifications obtained from television, books, and the videocassette recorder. Individual difference and media preference hypotheses were tested using both multivariate analysis of variance and multiple discriminant analysis techniques. The results indicate significant main and interaction effects for the Sensing/Intuiting (S/N) and Thinking/Feeling (T/F) dimensions of the MBTI. The findings indicate that Sensing (S) persons demonstrate a preference for television, while intuiting (N) persons report a preference for the VCR. Also, this research demonstrates a Feeling (F) preference for gratifications obtained from the media in general. This study demonstrates the possibility of linking a theoretically established theory of
psychoanalysis to basic concepts of uses and gratifications research. The findings are discussed in relation to the assumptions of the uses and gratifications approach, the utility of the MBTI as a psychographic instrumentation in media research, and the road of linkage between empirical and critical camps of media research created by using Jung’s psychoanalytic theory.

Key Words: Media Audiences, Uses and Gratifications, Personality
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ................................................................. ii
VITA ........................................................................................... iii
ABSTRACT .................................................................................. iv
LIST OF TABLES .......................................................................... ix

CHAPTER PAGE

I. RATIONALE AND AUDIENCE THEORY ................................. 1

Substantive Level: The Importance of User Research .......... 2
Trends in Commercial Audience Research ..................... 2
Definition: Psychographic Audience Measurement ........ 3
The Usefulness of Psychographics ....................................... 4
Criticisms of Psychographics ................................................. 5
The Scope of This Research .................................................. 6
The Focus of This Research: TV, Books, and the VCR ...... 7
Exposure Situations of the Three media ......................... 8
Content of the Three Media ............................................... 8
Attributes and Characteristics of the Three Media .......... 10
Summary - overview of the dissertation ......................... 10

Conceptual Theories of the Audience ............................... 12
Functional Theory ............................................................... 13
Structural/Cultural Theory .................................................. 14
Neofunctional Audience Theory ........................................ 16

The Uses and Gratifications Approach ............................ 19
Types of Gratifications .......................................................... 20
The Application of Gratifications: Medium Preference .... 21
The Origins of Needs and Gratifications ......................... 23
Summary - Chapter One ...................................................... 25

II. PERSONALITY AND MEDIA AUDIENCES ......................... 29

Personality and Audience Research ............................... 29
The Conflict Models ........................................................... 31
Applications of Conflict Approaches ............................... 32
Summary - Conflict Approaches ............................................ 35  
The Fulfillment Models ................................................................. 35  
Applications of Fulfillment Approaches ........................................... 36  
Summary - Fulfillment Approaches ..................................... 39  
The Consistency Models ................................................................. 39  
Applications of Consistency Approaches ........................................... 40  
Summary - Consistency Approaches ..................................... 43  
Summary - Personality and Audience Research ...................... 43  
Jung's Psychoanalytic Theory ........................................................... 44  
Core Concepts ............................................................................... 44  
Periphery Concepts ....................................................................... 47  
Traits ............................................................................................. 48  
The Operation of the Functions ........................................... 51  
The Eight Types ...................................................................... 52  
Summary - Periphery Concepts ........................................... 54  
Post-Jungian Extensions ............................................................ 55  
Summary - Jung's Psychoanalytic Theory .............................. 57  
Recapitulation and Hypotheses ........................................................... 58  
Conceptual Level Rationale I: Audience Theory ..................... 58  
Conceptual Level Rationale II: Personality and Audience Theory ............................................................................ 59  
Individual Differences Hypotheses ........................................... 60  
Media Preference Hypotheses ..................................................... 62  
Summary ....................................................................................... 63  

III. METHOD ........................................................................................................... 64  
Sampling Method .................................................................................. 64  
Instrumentation .................................................................................. 65  
Gratifications Obtained ..................................................................... 66  
Personality Type ................................................................................ 67  
Questionnaire Design ....................................................................... 71  
Administration .................................................................................. 73  
Summary ............................................................................................. 75  

IV. RESULTS ......................................................................................................... 76  
Validity and Reliability ........................................................................... 77  
Reliability and Validity of MBTI-PHONE ............................................... 77  
Summary ............................................................................................. 82  
Reliability and Validity of the Gratifications Obtained Measure ...........................................................................(82)  
TV Gratifications Obtained Factor Results ........................................... 83  
VCR Gratifications Obtained Factor Results ........................................... 85  
Book Gratifications Obtained Factor Results ........................................... 85  
Summary of Gratifications Obtained Factor Results ..................... 88  
Tests of the Differences in Gratifications Obtained ....................... 89
Multiple Analysis of Variance Tests for Individual Differences ................................................... 89
Summary .................................................................................. 97
Multiple Discriminant Analysis of Media Preferences ................................................................. 97
Summary of Results - Hypothesis by Hypothesis ................................................................ 115

V. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION .................................................................................. 122

The Results of This Study .................................................................................. 122
Summary of Results .................................................................................. 122
Why the Differences Emerged .................................................................................. 126
Limitations .................................................................................. 128
Implications for Future Research .................................................................................. 130
The Substantive Domain .................................................................................. 131
The Methodological Domain .................................................................................. 136
The Conceptual Domain .................................................................................. 139
Conclusion .................................................................................. 145

NOTES ...................................................................................................... 147

LIST OF REFERENCES .................................................................................. 150

APPENDICES

A. Telephone Survey Instrument .................................................................................. 163

B. Discriminant Analysis of Sixteen Types: Classification Results ........................................ 174
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Anticipated Gratifications Obtained Dimensions - Entertainment Media</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Anticipated Trait-Level Personality Dimensions MBTI-PHONE</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Alpha Reliability Coefficients for the MBTI</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sample Distributions of Type Scores</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sample Distributions of Trait Scores</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Principal Axis Factor Solution for TV Gratifications Obtained</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Principal Axis Factor Solution for VCR Gratifications Obtained</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Principal Axis Factor Solution for Book Gratifications Obtained</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Main Effects of the MANOVA of Personality by Gratifications Obtained</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect S/N x T/F and Affective Gratifications Obtained from the VCR</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect E/I x J/P and Affective Gratifications Obtained from Books</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect S/N and Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from the TV</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from the TV</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from the VCR 95

15. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from Books 96

16. Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and Affective Gratifications Obtained from Books 96

17. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sensing/Intuiting - Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids 100

18. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sensing/Intuiting - Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix 101

19. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sensing/Intuiting - Classification Results 101

20. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Thinking/Feeling - Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids 103

21. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Thinking/Feeling - Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix 104

22. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Thinking/Feeling - Classification Results 104

23. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Four Functional Types - Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids 107

24. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Four Functional Types - Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix 108

25. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Four Functional Types - Classification Results 108

26. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Sixteen Types - Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids 110
27. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Sixteen Types - Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix

28. Type Table of Group Centroid Scores for the Sixteen Types on Two Discriminant Functions

29. Distributions of Type Scores in Media Occupations

30. Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Sixteen Types - Classification Results
CHAPTER I
RATIONALE AND AUDIENCE THEORY

The study of the personality of media users (or audiences) is an area in which many differing communication research traditions have the potential to merge. This merger allows a better understanding of the uses and effects of the media and telecommunications technology. A first step in assessing effect is to understand the patterns of use individuals have for the media. Indeed, an understanding of the way and means by which people make use of diverse media communication technologies is imperative in this age of rapid change and development of media systems.

There are three audiences for this research. The primary audience are those persons who seek to explore the complex network of relationships between the audience, media, and culture. A second audience for this research are practitioners of applied audience research. Generally, these people are employed by the media industry, the government, or change agents who are seeking to identify and classify the media audience. This identification of the audience increases the likelihood of senders reaching salient audience members. The third audience for this research consists of the users of media and telecommunications technologies. This research could have eventual application in helping the audience become more aware of which media channels have the greatest potential for gratifying their individual needs.
This chapter has three purposes. The first is to outline the importance of audience research in the new media environment. The second is to review the various conceptual-level theories of the audience. The third is to explicate the uses and gratifications approach to understanding the audience.

Substantive Level: The Importance of User Research

Both media systems and telecommunication service providers are seeking to "individualize" or de-massify their audiences and users (Kindley, 1991). These developments in media systems are having two noticeable effects: first is an increasing focus by media and telecommunication systems on the individual user rather than large groupings; second, as unified media systems develop, individual users will become more responsible for self-programming their entertainment. As telecommunication corporations, especially the phone companies, enter the guild of content providers, the media world will evidence both an increase in program diversity and a decrease in preprogrammed media services. Thus, modern media audiences/users face two new challenges: a focus on individual use and an increase in channel/content options. Professional audience/user researchers are adapting their measurement techniques to account for these trends.

Trends in Commercial Audience Research

Understanding who uses the media and when is a multi-million dollar industry. Traditionally, research on the users of media such as television and books has been concerned with simple quantitative accounts of how many people are watching or how many books are sold. In television, the standard of measurement is the rating and almost
always, this quantitative measure is broken down into subgroups based on demographic descriptors (i.e. Women 18-35). The book industry researches its target audience much the same way any product marketing industry would, and traditionally they have also relied on demographic breakdowns of users (readers) in order to better understand their audience (Radway, 1984, Stamm, 1985).

Traditional research techniques cannot keep up with the shift to more personalized telecommunication networks. Alan Wurtzel, senior VP-marketing and research services for the ABC Television Network Group indicates "people don't use the TV in the same way anymore. Clearly, everything is different, and it is causing us problems. The answer (to these problems) is a new way of measuring TV viewing" ("Big 3 Nets," 1990, p. 60). Recently, both the electronic media and the book industry have begun to use psychographic descriptions as a means of improving their ability to understand the audience.

Definition - psychographic audience measurement.

Psychographic instruments classify individuals into groups or clusters which reflect some fairly intransigent, underlying psychological state (Mitchel, 1983). Psychographic instruments can be broken down into four basic types: 1) Buying Patterns -- these measures attempt to classify individuals into certain styles of purchase behavior (i.e. early adopter/appearance-conscious shoppers/carefrees/traditional department store shoppers/apathetic shoppers); 2) Geodemographic -- this type of indicator attempts to understand buying behavior as a function of the region in which a person lives (i.e. the PRIZM indicator which classifies persons into one of 40 different types of neighborhoods); 3) Lifestyle --
these measures explain individual preference and behavior as a function of the particular life stage of persons (i.e. bachelor/newlywed/full nest I/full nest II/empty nest/solitary survivor); and 4) Values -- these measures classify the audience into groups of persons described as having a similar value structure (i.e. moralists/new conformists/forerunners/materialists/retreaters). The psychographic instrument that currently enjoys the favored position among marketing and media researchers is SRI’s VALS-II (Riche, 1989; Reece, 1989; “New Vals 2,” 1989). VALS is a psychographic system designed to combine elements of both the values and lifestyles divisions of the above typology.

The usefulness of psychographics.

The importance of psychographic segmentation of the media audience has been demonstrated in a variety of ways. Couzens (1988) indicates that magazines have improved both their subscription and advertiser base by understanding the psychographic segmentation of their readers. Weiss (1988) indicates that a psychographic understanding of the audience has greatly enhanced the book industry’s target marketing capability. Drucker (1988) indicates that psychographics are necessary in order to understand audience behavior in the fragmented television market place. Frank and Greenberg (1980) conclude that psychographic descriptions of the audience provide different breakdowns of people’s media use than demographics.

Jamison and Campbell (1983) indicate that "advertisers and programmers are very interested in these (psychographic) studies as psychographics may be better predictors of viewing habits and of consumption patterns than age, sex, income, or location" (p. 109).
Finally, Reece (1989) indicates the usefulness of a psychographic understanding of the audience: "(psychographic) research gives you a real good sense of who the advertiser's customer is, how they think and what motivates them" (p.14). If one substitutes "media user" for "advertisers customer" in the above quote, it becomes apparent that psychographics are useful in providing descriptions of individuals that demographic variables miss.

Criticisms of psychographics.

While many advertising and programming officials are embracing the psychographic approach as significantly different from and superior to traditional demographic indicators, psychographic instruments have their limitations. The users of psychographic instruments may be committing the error of the "test-trait" fallacy (Tyron, 1979) in which test-scores (which are not measures of theoretically established traits) are reified into a causal force by converting a dependent variable (the test scores) into an independent variable which is used to explain behavior (defined by lifestyle, purchase patterns, or media use). Thus, the traits receive definition through their correlation with other behaviors rather than through a theoretical understanding of the internal processes and dispositions which give rise to these behaviors. In general, psychographic indicators are operationalizing attitudes toward specific life-styles and not consistent underlying "traits" of individuals. Stamm (1985) provides an account of the importance of theoretical grounding in audience research when he indicates that "it has been difficult to make use of readership studies due to lack of an adequate theoretical model (in which to understand the findings)" (P. xi).
Psychographic research techniques, if they are to be truly effective, should begin to be grounded in a theoretical description of human behavior. In other words, psychographic instrumentation should seek to operationalize an established theory of psychology or personality psychology. This operationalization should then be utilized to understand the media use of the audience/user.

The Scope of This Research

This research seeks to avoid the test-trait fallacy by approaching a psychographic understanding of the audience from within an advanced theoretical approach to exploring, describing, and explaining the behavior of the audience. Also, this research seeks to explore psychographics in relation to a theory of the audience which specifically addresses the role that psychological dispositions play in the media use process. The specific purposes of this research are:

1) To ground psychographic measurement of the media audience in an established, tried and tested theory of personality psychology.

2) To understand the role that psychological variables play in explaining the communication behavior exhibited by members of the media audience.

3) To provide descriptions of audience behavior which are potentially useful not only to audience members but also to advertisers, programmers, producers, campaign coordinators, and government agencies.

In order to achieve these three goals, this research will focus on audience uses of three specific media: Television (TV), books and the videocassette recorder (VCR). The last section of this substantive level
rationale describes the characteristic content, attributes, and exposure situations of these three media.

The Focus of this Research: TV, Books, and the VCR

Katz, Gurevitch, and Haas (1973) examined audience uses for radio, television, newspapers, books and film. One of the results of their research was the notion of a "relationship of circular interchangeability" in which television use was seen as being the most opposite to use of books and newspapers. Since this research seeks to explore individual differences in media use, it makes sense to utilize two contraposed media (TV and books) as differences between persons should be more pronounced.

Also, research has indicated the importance of extending audience theory into the realm of new media technologies (Williams, Philips & Lum, 1985). Klopfenstein and Fergerson (1990, p. 2) indicate that "the study of VCR uses and television audience impacts is especially critical to understanding new forms of mediated communication." Indeed, it is necessary for this research to consider the VCR as an indicator of the new media environment of the future.

The paragraphs below will describe how the notion of gratifications obtained from the media is an indication of audience orientation to the media, such that the higher level of gratification obtained from a particular medium, the greater the preference for using that particular medium. The gratifications obtained construct has been used as an indicator of several media use variables, including media satisfaction, time spent with the media, gratifications sought from the media, media use motivations, and audience activity (Rosengren, Wenner, &
Palmgreen, 1985). In order to establish an argument for individual differences in gratifications obtained, it is necessary to establish the characteristic attributes, typical content, and typical exposure situation for each of the three media utilized in this study along the lines of Katz, et al. (1973).

**Exposure situations of the three media.**

Typically, books are consumed as a solitary activity. Some situations where more than one person may participate in reading a book is if the book is being read to someone (such as a young child) or if the reader is part of an organized group (e.g., a book club) which reads the same book for purpose of discussion (Radway, 1984). Radway also indicates that books can be read anywhere at anytime, the user completely controls the rate at which the information comes.

Television is consumed in a variety of different situations (Heeter & Greenberg, 1988). The only requisite for television viewing is the proximity of a television set. Viewing situations occur alone, in known groups of people (such as families or friends), or even among strangers (as in a bar or restaurant). The VCR has a similar exposure situation to the television because the two media are so highly interconnected.

Books can be seen as more flexible in the location of exposure than television or the VCR, but less flexible in terms of the number of people who can use the medium in a social situation. The criterion for the use of books is the ability to read. The availability of the physical equipment is the primary criterion for the use of the TV or VCR.

**Content of the three media.**

Radway (1984) describes the characteristic content of books as being
written to challenge the viewer to use their imagination to escape from the reality of their lives into a fantasy world. Selection of the content is left entirely up to the specific user. Books are available at libraries, book stores (both new and used), department stores and even grocery markets.

Television content has been classified and analyzed since TV first began broadcasting. Dominick and Pearce (1976) developed a typology of content types in network television programming: news, game show, interview programs, sports, situation comedy, variety, drama, and action/adventure. Similar classifications of television programming have been created by other researchers (Heeter, 1985; Nolan and Patterson, 1990).

The typical content of the VCR is again very similar to that of television. Levy (1987) indicates that the VCR is used to playback prerecorded tapes (such as movies) which are available at rental stores or libraries. The VCR is also used to time-shift regular television programming, or to watch content that the audience member has taped for the purpose of creating a "video-library." Finally, the VCR has the ability to provide unique content in that "home-videos" can be viewed.

The media literature indicates that it is important in discussions of media content to differentiate between entertainment and information uses. Persons often use information media for entertainment purposes and visa versa. For example, even though television news or a dictionary are primarily oriented to the provision of information, it is possible that the audience may use this content for entertainment purposes (to laugh at newspeople or to play a word game). This research is concerned with the audience use of the mass media for entertainment purposes.
Attributes and characteristics of the three media.

McLaughlin and Birinyi (1985) describe the attributes of the media by placing the media in relational space based on two axes. The axes are content/conduit and product/service. The content/conduit axis distinguishes between media that have traditionally viewed themselves as producers of information (content) and those that provide a means of recording information and transmitting it (conduit). The product/service axis represents a traditional economic breakdown of industrial activity. McLaughlin and Birinyi indicate one implication of the product/service axis is consumer dependency, such that the more service oriented the medium, the more dependent is the consumer on the supplying institution. In comparing books and TV, for example, books are relatively content/product while, in comparison, TV is more conduit/service.

McLuhan (1964) broke the media's attributes down into two levels based on the degree of sensory information provided or amount of sensory stimulation. Media are either hot (books) or cool (TV, VCR). Katz, et al. (1973) sought to describe the characteristic attributes of the media in terms of the gratifications associated with those particular media. In their map of the media's helpfulness in gratifying needs, they indicate that all of the media they examined provide two broad types of gratifications (cognitive and affective) but in different ways. They conclude that "books cultivate the inner self (while) films and television give pleasure..." (p. 169).

Summary - overview of the dissertation.

All three of the media that are the focus of this study provide some level of gratification to the audience. Each of these media are
fundamentally different in terms of their characteristic content, attributes and exposure situations. Because of these basic channel differences, individuals should demonstrate different patterns of use. This study proposes that the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (an instrument grounded in Jungian psychoanalytic theory) could be used as a psychographic indicator which is not subject to the test-trait fallacy of current psychographic indicators. Because it is grounded in established theory, this new psychographic description of the audience should allow insight into differential patterns of use that are superior to the descriptions offered by demographic variables alone.

The remainder of this chapter reviews the conceptual theories of the audience in order to provide a framework within which to understand the research conducted here. This research seeks to extend the presuppositions of a neofunctionalist approach to audience theory. The neofunctionalist approach is most concerned with questions of audience activity. Audience activity is a concept that has also been of central concern to uses and gratifications theory.

The second chapter explores one component of the neofunctionalist model in depth. This component is the personality subsystem. The second chapter reviews the literature on media audiences which has incorporated some theory of personality in its research design. The literature is partitioned into three divisions representing different assumptions about the nature of personality made by the audience researchers. The concluding sections of chapter two provide a justification for the use of the personality theory of Carl Jung as the means of understanding the personality subsystem of neofunctionalism.
concludes with several hypotheses linking Jungian personality theory and audience uses for entertainment media.

The third chapter describes the method used to obtain the empirical observations necessary to test the hypotheses. Audience gratifications obtained from the media are operationalized using a set of items developed by Albarran (1990). Personality type is operationalized using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Observations consisted of 508 telephone survey interviews conducted by trained interviewers. The third chapter describes the design and administration of the data collection instrument.

The fourth chapter begins by providing a detailed discussion of the reliability and validity of the two operationalizations used in this study. Both measures (of gratifications obtained and personality type) were found to have acceptable levels of reliability and validity. The remainder of the fourth chapter presents the results of the statistical tests of the hypotheses. Hypotheses were tested utilizing a 4x6 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and multiple discriminant analysis (MDA).

The fifth and final chapter explores why some hypotheses received support and why others did not. Also, several limitations to the design outlined in chapter three are discussed. The dissertation concludes with a discussion of avenues for further research in the substantive, methodological, and conceptual domains.

**Conceptual Theories of the Audience**

McQuail (1987) describes two oppositional views of audience theory: The functional and the structural/cultural. This section outlines these two perspectives and proposes a third view of audience theory which merges key aspects of the other two.
Functional Theory

In the functional perspective, media consumption is "seen as behavior that meets needs generated through an interaction of the individuals psychological dispositions and experience of (their) social situation" (McQuail and Gurevitch, 1974, p. 289). Functional theories of society grew out of the functional systems theories of mathematics, biology, and engineering. Sociologists such as Merton (1957) and Parsons (1961) applied the notion of functions to the question of how individuals and societies relate to each other. In classical functionalism, this relationship is conceived as need fulfilling; social institutions (such as the media) exist to fulfill the needs of individuals and cultures.

Lasswell (1948) and Wright (1960, 1986) were primary in linking functionalism with media communication. These early efforts centered around developing typologies and inventories of functions. Audience research in the classical functionalist tradition understands media use in terms of the needs media use fulfilled for audience members.

While valued for its heuristic simplicity, functionalism was severely critiqued in the 1970's and 1980's. These critiques include: A focus on individuals as the driving force in society; a reliance on quantitative, empirical research analytics; conflict vs. consensus theory; distortion of the classics; conservative or status quo ideological bias; functionalism as an oversocialized or collectivized conception of people; functionalism's unacceptable teleology; a reductionist sociology of knowledge; and a WASP (White Anglo-Saxon Protestant) ethnocentrism (Ang, 1990; Curran, Gurevitch, & Woollacott, 1982; Elliott, 1974; Garfinkel, 1981; Schröder, 1987; Sciulli & Gerstein, 1985). In media communication research, these
critiques were utilized to provide "openings" for structural/cultural theories.

**Structural/Cultural Theory**

The structural/cultural perspective indicates that audience behavior is best understood by the interaction of the patterns of media availability and the customs and norms of society. The roots of structural/cultural theories of the audience emerge from the largely Marxist scholars of the Frankfurt School of post WWI Germany. One primary orientation of the Frankfurt School's research project was to understand the operation of social institutions. Social institutions were proposed to maintain social order through cultural domination. The mass media were seen as a powerful device by which these institutions exerted their "ideological stance" which, when accepted by the public, maintained the status quo.

Structural/cultural approaches to media audiences focus on the role of the mass media in maintaining or altering social order.

Structural/cultural theories of the media can be subdivided into three types: structuralist, political economic, and culturalist. Structuralist approaches focus on the text and the relationship between the text and the reader, this relationship is identified as the process of reception. Structuralist approaches emphasize the decoding process (Eco, 1976; Fiske, 1986; Jensen, 1987; Schröder, 1987; Steeves, 1987). Political economic approaches emphasize the constraints placed upon media communication by the economic system. Understanding of communication is grounded in economic determinism in the encoding of the message. In capitalist societies, the audience is conceived of as being a "creation" of these industrial institutions and exists only to perpetuate
the process of buying and selling (Allor, 1988; Mosco, 1984, 1989; Murdock, 1989). Culturalist approaches seek to combine encoding and decoding through an understanding of the role cultural structures such as class, race, and gender play in the process of media communication (Becker, 1984; Fiske, 1992; Hall, 1980; Morley, 1981).

The primary critique of cultural/structural approaches to the audience revolves around methodological insecurity (Lindlof & Meyer, 1987; Lull, 1988). A second critique of current structural/cultural theory relates to the "watering down" of the critical emphasis in current U.S. cultural studies (Evans, 1990; O'Connor, 1989). The final critique of structural/cultural approaches is that they exhibit a general desire to account for individual-level effects without studying individual processes (Carragee, 1990).

Research in the structural/cultural perspective and research in the functional perspective are at odds as to the power of the media and telecommunications over their audience. Research at the cultural level indicates substantial effects of telecommunications use ranging from cultural imperialism to sub-cultural appropriations of media texts. Functional theories maintain that effects from telecommunications and the media may be limited. The functional theories see the audience not as passive consumers of media materials but as persons who use the media to individual ends.

It is this author's contention that the study of telecommunication and media audiences could benefit by a merging of these two seemingly antithetical research traditions. Blumler (1980) indicates that today, most European social scientists are using a combination of empirical and
critical approaches and Rogers (1982) speaks to the necessity for U.S. research in the behavioral science tradition to open up to the assumptions and techniques of the critical school. One theoretically viable means of convergence is a reconstruction of audience theory via neofunctionalism. **Neofunctional Audience Theory**

Neofunctionalism reverses the classical functionalist assumption of balance as the goal of social action and adopts the structural/cultural position of change and evolution as the goal of social action. Classical functionalism views integration as a fact, deviance only a possibility, and social control a response to it (deviance) while the neofunctionalist orientation starts with social control as a fact, deviance only a possibility, and integration a response (Rothenbuhler, 1987). By integration, neofunctionalists are referring to the process of interdependent need fulfillment as the locus of causation of social action. Rothenbuhler (1987) defines neofunctionalism as:

A product of the rational reconsideration engendered by the critics of the older functionalisms. Neofunctionalism is built on the strengths of the functionalist tradition and is systematically rejecting or revising the weaknesses (p. 68).

The origins of this functional renaissance can be traced back to the work of significant European scholars such as Bershady, Habermas, Münch, and Bourricaud while in the U.S., the work of Alexander has been instrumental. The prime characteristic of neofunctionalism is an emphasis on the work of Talcott Parsons rather than any other functional theorist.
The basis of much of Parsons' work is that social action occurs as a result of the interpenetration of the cultural sub-system, the social sub-system, and the personality sub-system. The neofunctionalist mission seeks to understand how actors (conceived as individuals or collectives) are constrained and/or liberated by the interpenetration of these three sub-systems.

Münch (1982) indicates that:

interpenetration is that form of relation through which opposed spheres or sub-systems can both expand without thereby creating mutual interference...
Interpenetration is the mechanism by which the potential of every system is converted into actuality; it is the mechanism of self-realization and evolution (p. 772-773).

Interpenetration is the mechanism by which the integration of social needs described above occurs. Interpenetration is possible through the concept of "media of exchange." The media of exchange refers to those elements of the total system which are used by each subsystem (e.g. culture) to interpenetrate other subsystems (society and individuals). Parsons considered money to be the ultimate media of exchange while neofunctionalists are apt to follow Habermas and indicate that "values" are the highest order media of exchange. The exchange of values (following Habermas) is understood as symbolic exchange or communication. In neofunctionalism, communication is the tie that binds and all social action can be conceived of as communication.

By examining the interpenetration of the three sub-systems (cultural, social, and personality), Parsons was able to address the
question of individual freedom of action constrained by society. This "irreducible free will or freedom of the individual" Parsons defines as voluntarism and is understood by the interpenetration of the three subsystems. Münch indicates that there must be "a limit on (actors) arbitrariness of action (voluntarism) determined solely by subjective considerations (italics original)" (1982, p. 377). These subjective considerations are reflected by the relative levels of internalization (cultural and social values becoming part of the individual) and institutionalization (individual values becoming part of culture and society) of the media of exchange in a certain situation. Voluntarism is now understood as a function of the interpenetration of the three subsystems. Subsystem interpenetration is described by the degree to which individual and social values interpenetrate in a given situation.

In conducting research in a neofunctionalist perspective, it is important to define the actor's (individual or collective) orientation to voluntary action. Parsons identified five actor orientations to understanding action which he termed the "Pattern Variable Schema." The five pattern variables are: Universalism - particularism; neutrality - affectivity; self orientation - collective orientation; achievement - ascription (or performance - categories);¹ and diffuseness - specificity (this refers to how objects affect an actor). The pattern variable scheme allows the researcher to understand the actor's position (or action orientation) in relation to the situational interpenetration of institutionalization and internalization.

Thus, the PVS operationalizes the interpenetration of internalization and institutionalization. The interpenetration of
internalization and institutionalization operationalizes the interpenetration of the personality, culture, and social sub-systems. The degree of interpenetration of these three sub-systems is an indicator of voluntarism, such that high interpenetration equals low voluntarism. For the purposes of audience research, Parsons' theory can be used to understand the functioning of voluntarism, choice, or activity on the part of actors in society.

In understanding the audience of media communication, the work of Rothenbuhler (1985) has been the only significant investigation of neofunctionalism. In linking neofunctionalism and media use, Rothenbuhler indicates that the route lay through the linking of the PVS to uses and gratifications research. This research continues a neofunctionalist reconceptualization of uses and gratifications by exploring how typologies of gratifications obtained (GO) from the media are linked to the personality sub-system.

**The Uses and Gratifications Approach**

Uses and gratifications is the label given to a set of assumptions that are used to understand audience uses of the mass media and communication technologies. Central to the uses and gratifications approach is the assumption of an active audience. The audience member is seen as the organism mediating the relationship between media stimulus and effect.

The first uses and gratifications studies were qualitative and rich in description of audience uses for the media (Berelson, 1949; Herzog, 1942; Schuman, 1942; Wolfe & Fiske, 1949). The descriptions of early gratifications research were merged with the functional sociology of
Merton, Lasswell, and Wright, the result being Katz, et al.'s (1974) seven-part summary of the approach. Their summary, which guides much of uses and gratifications research, describes the approach as one of functional need fulfillment or need gratification. Uses and gratifications research has explored: the types of gratifications the media are capable of providing; the relationship between gratifications obtained and preference for different media; and the relationship of individual dispositions to gratifications obtained.

**Types of Gratifications**

Dobos and Dimmick (1988) identify and define six gratifications that cover the range of typologies developed in pre-1988 gratifications research (p. 335): surveillance (knowledge or information); communication utility (social interaction, companionship, and interpersonal utility); filling time (passing time or habit); escape (from boredom or problems); diversion (entertainment or excitement); and advice (decision-making or vote guidance). Dobos and Dimmick go on to question the validity of the various typologies, hypothesizing a dichotomy of cognitive and affective gratifications. This idea has been posed but not explored by other gratificationists (Katz, et al., 1973; Levy and Windahl, 1984; Palmgreen, et al., 1980; Weiss, 1971).

Dobos and Dimmick (1988) found substantial evidence to support a cognitive/affective gratification structure rather than the typologies of previous research. They performed three different analyses (a reanalysis of gratifications data collected by Rubin and data collected by Palmgreen, and also an analysis of original data collected by the authors) and found the cognitive/affective structure to be a more valid and parsimonious
interpretation of the dimensionality of gratification items. Dobos and Dimmick indicate that cognitive gratifications include the surveillance, communication utility, and advice gratifications; while filling time, escape, and diversion gratifications are subsumed under affective gratifications.

Dimmick and his colleagues\(^3\) demonstrate that the cognitive/affective gratification structure holds across various media channels and content types. This two-fold structure is decidedly neofunctionalist in tone. Consider Bourricaud's (1981, p. 56) conclusion that motivation or choice (voluntarism) involves both cathetic and affective aspects and Rothenbuhler's (1985) call for integrating the need typologies of uses and gratifications research into the affective/affective neutral component of the Pattern Variable Schema. The next section describes how these typologies are applied to understanding individual uses of the media.


Palmgreen and Rayburn (1985b) investigated the role of gratifications sought and obtained in accounting for media preferences. They compared eight models of the operations of gratifications and an index of preference in a study of 178 undergraduate students. The eight models were: (1) a gratifications obtained model; (2) a modified gratifications obtained model; (3) an expectancy-value model; (4) an absolute value discrepancy model; (5) a simplified discrepancy model; (6) an expectancy-value discrepancy model; (7) a transactional model; and (8) a modified transactional model.\(^4\) Their results indicate that while all models except the absolute value discrepancy model (#4) could predict media preference, the most effective and parsimonious indicator of media
preference is the simple gratifications obtained model (#1). Thus, which
gratifications sought and obtained are both indicators of media use
variables such as channel preference, this study reveals that
gratifications obtained are the best indicators of media use.

Many studies have sought to utilize the gratifications approach as
an indicator of media choice or preference. Katz, Gurevitch, and Haas
(1973) found that different media were utilized by the audience to fulfill
different needs. They found in a survey of adults that television was
selected to provide gratifications related to killing time and sharing time
with friends and family while books were primarily utilized to satisfy
cognitive and affective personal needs such as self-growth or self-
knowledge.

Peled and Katz (1974) in a study of adult audience expectations of the
media in time of war found differences in audience uses for different
media. Specifically, they found that movies were used most often for
escape/diversion while the radio was most often utilized for gratification
related to surveillance of the environment.

Lometti, Reeves, and Bybee (1977) explored the relationship between
gratifications and various media channels. Their study of teenagers and
young adults found that books, magazines, and newspapers (print media)
were used to gratify factual information, companionship, and excitement
needs while radio, television, and film (electronic media) provide
gratifications related to diversion and behavioral guidance.

Lichtenstein and Rosenfeld (1984) surveyed 357 undergraduate
students in exploring the link between gratifications sought and channel
choice. Their results indicate that surveillance gratifications were
obtained primarily from newspapers and magazines, filling time
gratifications were primarily obtained from television, while escape and
diversion gratifications were obtained primarily from film and radio.

Combining current research on the nature of gratification
structures and media preference indicates that an effective way to
conceptualize audience preferences for different media would be to
compare the levels of cognitive and affective gratifications obtained from
the media. Thus, in a study comparing three media (say books, television
and the VCR) the media for which a respondent reports the highest level
of gratifications obtained is the medium of preference, even though
similar gratifications may be obtained from all three media.

Measures of the gratifications obtained from the media are an
indicator of audience member patterns of use of the media. An issue
raised frequently in examining the nature of gratifications is the question
of the origins of gratifications which drive media use. In almost every
study cited here linking gratifications to media preferences, the authors
encourage an exploration of the origins of the needs which underlie
media use as an avenue of clarify the relationship between gratifications
obtained and media use.

The Origins of Needs and Gratifications

The definition of the uses and gratifications approach offered by
Katz, et al. (1974) posits psychological variables as underlying factors in
explaining the behavior of the active audience. They indicate that if
researchers could define these psychological variables, it should be
possible to better explain the use of the media by the audience. In
clarifying the assumptions of the uses and gratifications approach,
Rosengren (1974) describes a media communication process that begins with assumptions about the personality of the receiver which give rise to motivations for media use. These motivations guide media use and also the meaning(s) given to media content by the user. Indeed, Rosengren (1974, p. 273) indicates "that personality variables of some kind must be incorporated into (uses and gratifications) research seems almost self-evident."

There is a call in the literature for the continued exploration of theories of personality psychology in explaining the origins of media related gratifications. Liebert and Schwartzberg (1977) indicated a need for future research incorporating personality theories in descriptions of audience uses of the mass media. Dimmick, McCain, and Bolton (1979) indicate that "Few studies have attempted to measure need states independently of the gratifications derived from the media......hence we know a great deal more about media-based gratifications than about the antecedents of need gratification" (p. 8).

In the first significant response to these calls, McGuire (1974) put forth a detailed explication of the psychological motives for media use. The important implication and conclusion drawn by McGuire is that theories of psychology (particularly consistency theory, attribution theory, complexity theory, and various personality theories) should be utilized to achieve greater understanding of the individual differences in needs and motivations that underlie the audience's use of the mass media.

Conway and Rubin (1991) present the only direct extension of McGuire's work. They used the eight active theories described by McGuire to predict a variety of television viewing motivations. They
linked each of McGuire's eight broad categories to trait-level operationalizations derived from the psychology literature. Their survey of 331 persons indicated support for a link between stimulation theory, tension reduction theory and attraction theory to escape motivations (affective) and a link between expression theory and information viewing motivations (cognitive). The implication of their research is that psychological antecedents are linked in significant ways to audience media use.

One area in which uses and gratifications research has been weak is in exploring the link between needs and gratifications. Indeed, almost no research has linked descriptions of the psychological origins of needs to gratifications. It is possible that media satisfaction and preference (described by gratifications obtained) could be substantively explained by an understanding of the psychological origins of needs. An approach to understanding the psychological origins of needs lies through the application of theories of personality.

Summary - Chapter One

A concern for understanding the audiences/users of mediated communication emerged in the 1930's and 1940's. Early descriptive studies of the audience were soon combined with the tenets of classical functionalist sociology. The result of this merger was the emergence of the uses and gratifications approach to the media audience. From the 1960's to the present, the dominant theory applied to understanding the audience has been the uses and gratifications approach.

Utilizing critiques of classical functionalism as the starting point in their research, Continental scholars applied critical theories of sociology
to an understanding of the audience of media communication. A review of the literature indicates that structural/cultural approaches to the media were able to yield insights into the audience that were not possible using the functional, uses and gratifications approach.

Neofunctionalism is a direct response to the critiques of functionalism raised by the structural/cultural theorists. This first chapter indicates that neofunctionalism should be merged with the uses and gratifications approach in order to improve an understanding of the audience. Uses and gratifications and neofunctionalism share one key concept: activity. Neofunctionalism seeks to describe individual freedom of action as a function of the interpenetration of the social, cultural, and personality systems. Uses and gratifications seeks to account for audience activity through the interpenetration of the audience's social situation, psychological state, and characteristics of the media.

Indeed, neofunctionalism is a sociological theory which begins with the assumption that we are all individuals and attempts to address the question of how we become groups. The existence of individual personality is presumed in neofunctionalism, and as such neofunctionalists never develop an adequate conceptualization of the personality sub-system. The further development of the personality sub-system is essential if we are to understand the uses and gratifications approach in light of neofunctionalism. An attempt to enter neofunctionalism from within the realm of personality theory reverses the sociological assumption and asks the question: given that we are all part of social groups, how do we discover our individuality? This question is important in combining the notions of audience activity in uses and
This research proposes that personality theory could be especially effective as the psychology theory which can bridge uses and gratifications and neofunctionalism. Indeed, both uses and gratifications and neofunctionalist literature has called for or attempted to apply personality theory to their research questions (see especially, Conway and Rubin, 1990; McGuire, 1974; Parsons, 1961; Rosengren, 1985). The major goal of such an undertaking is understanding how personality impacts upon the freedom of action experienced by actors in media communication reception. In addition, an exploration of the links between an established theory of personality psychology and audience uses for different media modalities is a first step in overcoming the test-trait fallacy of current psychographic instruments.

This chapter began by positing a basic conundrum of the process of mediated communication. Namely, how can the producers/makers/senders of media messages come to an understanding of who is the audience/viewer (listener, reader)/user. Traditionally people seeking to understand these unseen receivers rely on quantitative estimates of how many warm bodies are present in any given media communication situation. While often supplemented by breakdowns of the audience's demographic characteristics, the recent trends of modal convergence and individualized media systems have forced commercial audience research to use more individualized, psychographic, indicators to better understand who is watching and when.

While providing descriptions of the audience that are more complete than demographic descriptions, psychographics suffer from a lack of
grounding in any established theory of personality psychology. This research proposes that the same personality theory used to understand audience activity in the systemic interpenetration of individuals, culture, and society can be used to provide psychographic breakdowns which are grounded in an established theory of personality psychology. The theoretical grounding of psychographic instruments should allow media audience research the needed insight into how receivers orient and communicate with their mediated senders.

The next chapter reviews the range of personality theory and explicates the psychoanalytic theory of Carl Jung as effective in providing descriptions of individual dispositions that link with the communication activity of the audience.
CHAPTER II
PERSONALITY AND MEDIA AUDIENCES

To understand how personality may be linked with research exploring the audience of media communication, this chapter has three goals. The first is to establish an understanding of what personality is and how it is applied in media audience research. The second goal is to explicate Jung's psychoanalytic theory. The final goal of this chapter is to outline several specific hypotheses linking Jungian personality theory and media audience research.

**Personality and Audience Research**

While theories of personality have changed much in the last 250 years, some common ground can be identified. Take for example these definitions posed by top personologists:

- The general orientation the psyche will take (Jung, 1926, p. 11).

- The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his (or her) characteristic behavior and thought (Allport, 1961, p. 28).

- A stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behavior of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment (Maddi, 1976, p. 9).
While there is not one agreed upon definition of personality, Mirels (1990) identifies seven assumptions about personality that are consistent across the range of personality theories: (1) behavior can be predicted from dispositions; (2) dispositions can be inferred from behavior; (3) dispositions are stable over time; (4) dispositions impact on behavior in a variety of situations; (5) personality exists as a structure inside people; (6) personality is itself unobservable; and (7) dispositions can be quantified for purposes of comparison. By dispositions, Mirels is referring to the "psyche," "psychophysical systems," or "characteristics and tendencies" in the above definitions.

Maddi (1976) hypothesized that there are two essential elements to any personality: the core and the periphery. The core of personality delineates the things that are common to all people and discloses the inherent attributes of human beings. Most commonly these core elements are statements about the overall directionality, purpose, and function of life. The periphery of personality are statements made about attributes of personality that are much more concrete and tied to behavior. The periphery focuses on individual differences constructs, or how with a similar core structure do we account for the variety of individual behavior. These personality attributes are more commonly referred to in personality research as traits.

The identification of differences between people forms the basis of theorizing about the periphery of personality with its emphasis on personality traits. The identification of similarities among people is the basis of theorizing about the core of personality with its emphasis upon the elements that define human nature. Based upon this core/periphery
description of personality, Maddi identifies three separate models of personality theory: the conflict, the fulfillment, and the consistency. These models are differentiated on the basis of core descriptions. The conflict model specifies that humans are inextricably caught in the opposition of two great forces, one communal and one individualistic. The fulfillment model assumes only one great force of living and success is obtained by vigorous expression of this life force. The consistency models stress the importance of the congruence or fit between a human's notion of the ideal world and their perceptions of what the real world is actually doing. Each model is broken down into two separate versions discriminated on the basis of a generally external or internal locus of behavioral causation.

The Conflict Models

Conflict models presume that the person is continuously and inevitably in the grips of the clash between two great opposing, unchangeable forces. In the first version of this model, the *psychosocial version*, the source of one great force is in the person and the source of the other great force is in groups or societies. An example of this version can be found in the work of Freud (1960). Conflict can erupt when the Superego (society) frustrates the Id (individual).

In the second version of the conflict model, the *intrapsychic version*, both conflicting forces arise from within the person. The work of Jung (1926, 1929, 1964) is categorized into this version. In Jungian theory the personal conscious is in continuous conflict for the governance of behavior with the personal and collective unconscious. Each of these conscious and unconscious minds exist within the person. They
represent varying degrees of individuality (ego mind) and groupness (collective unconscious). Human behavior for Jung is understood as the outcome of the conflict management between individual and group needs, these needs existing only in the perceptions and judgments of individuals. The conflict models have also been titled the psychoanalytic paradigm by other researchers (McGuire, 1974; Rychlak, 1981).

**Applications of conflict approaches.**

The notion of individual behavior having a locus of causation in the conflict between individual and society is the basis of structural/cultural appropriations of psychoanalysis. Structural/cultural theory has attempted to explain the audience response to the media as being a manifestation of the individual/group conflict. Because structural/cultural theories most often utilize Freudian conceptualizations of psychoanalysis, the basis of this conflict is often sexuality or the control of libido energy.

For example, Mercer (1983) in his "The Politics of Pleasure" ties official policy to the control of individual pleasure. His basic thesis is that ideology defines pleasure and thus, ideological texts are pleasurable. Ideologically invested texts and the audience are linked, in his view, through the governance of the pleasure principle as a psychoanalytic construct.

This conceptualization of psychoanalysis provides feminists with theories of gender which can be applied in readings of texts - a structural approach. Steeves (1987) writes:
They (feminists) assume (from Althusser or Gramsci) the importance of cinema or television as cultural factors capable of defining and perpetuating society's ideology of gender and then set out, using Lacan's re-readings of Freud and the semiotic works of Saussure, Barthes, and Levi-Strauss to examine gender implications in spectator-text relations (p. 112).

Feminist uses of psychoanalysis are attempts to unravel the male-centered semiotic structures of media texts. For example, Kristeva (1981) argues that women's language and textual structures are repressed in media content which tends to be linear and non-imaginative. Byars (1987) argues from Lacan's conceptualization of women as abnormal to explain how the female's body is objectified or fetishized by a "male gaze" in film and television. Bettelheim (1977) applied Freudian concepts of typical symbols to an examination of fairy tales in western cultures and argues against the "phallic-centric" nature of such texts.

Structural/cultural theorists have lead the way in application of traditional conflict models of personality to understanding media audiences. These applications are guilty, however, of presuming that the audience is "positioned" by the semiotic structures of gender and sexuality present in media texts. There is, recall, an underlying presumption of passivity of the viewer in structural/cultural research. Other researchers have attempted to apply conflict theories of personality to an understanding of audience activity.

Nolan and Patterson (1990) examined the relationship between Jungian personality type and preference for different television program
content. Their sample of 197 college students completed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and a television program preference instrument. The findings indicated that Sensing (S) individuals demonstrated a preference for four program types: Action/Adventure, Sports, Situation Comedies, and Game Shows, while Intuiting (N) individuals demonstrated no preference for any programming over sensing persons. Thinking (T) individuals demonstrated a preference for Action/Adventure while Feeling (F) individuals demonstrated a preference for Daytime Interview Shows.

A post-hoc analysis revealed that Sensing (S) individuals reported watching significantly more television than Intuiting (N) subjects. The conclusions they draw are that sensing subjects preferred the medium of television itself more than Intuitors, and that the program format containing the highest sensation-seeking value was most preferred. Feeling subjects preferred program content devoted to controversial and emotional "people" topics.

In extending the research of Nolan and Patterson, Patterson (1991) sought to link the periphery descriptions of Jungian personality theory to the gratifications obtained from different media. Patterson administered a paper and pencil survey to 162 college students. To measure personality type, the MBTI was again used and the dependent measure consisted of a set of gratifications obtained items for television, radio, newspapers, books, and movies. A 4x10 MANOVA was performed to test the hypotheses regarding personality differences. Significant main effects were detected only for the extraversion/introversion dimension such that extraverts received more affective gratifications from books than
introverts.

While the results were not statistically significant, an analysis of the means revealed that sensing persons showed a preference for television and intuiting persons a preference for books. Feeling persons reported more gratifications obtained from radio, movies and books than thinking persons. Patterson concludes that the results of this study warrant the further investigation of the links between Jungian personality type and preference (operationalized by gratifications obtained) for different media.

**Summary - conflict approaches.**

The use of conflict approaches in empirical investigations of media audiences have been rare. Structural/cultural theories of the audience often rely on Freudian psychoanalysis in attempts to link the encoded content of media texts to their decoded meanings by audience members. Feminists build upon this conclusion and use the Lacanian notions of repressed female sexuality to understand the disempowerment and objectification of women in media texts. While there exist calls for the applications of Jung’s theory in understanding the active audience, to date only two studies, both involving college student populations, are reported in the literature (Nolan & Patterson, 1990, Patterson, 1991). The results of these two studies indicate the future utility of applying Jung’s theory in media audience research.

**The Fulfillment Models**

The second of Maddi's three categories of personality theory is the fulfillment model. The fulfillment model assumes only one great force or power (e.g., the need to reach self-actualization) guides life and localizes
it in the person. This model construes life as the progressively greater expression of this force.

The actualization version of the fulfillment model defines this great force in the form of a genetic blueprint determining the person's special capabilities. The theory of Rogers (1959, 1961) and Maslow (1962) are typical of the theorizing in this version. Both these researchers describe the core tendency of personality as being (1) the inherent attempt of the individual to actualize or develop all her/his capacities in ways which serve to maintain and enhance life, and (2) the attempt to actualize the self-concept, which is a psychological manifestation of the development of the individual's capacities.

The second version of the fulfillment model is the perfection version. The perfection version emphasizes the ideals of what is fine, excellent, and meaningful in life. The great force here constitutes striving toward these ideals of perfection. Inherent in this version are the works of Adler (the idea that superiority is the ultimate perfection, albeit fictional; 1956), Allport (the theory of propriate functioning; 1955, 1961), and the existential psychology of Binswanger (1963).

Applications of fulfillment approaches.

Although not emerging directly from a uses and gratifications approach, Wober and Gunter (1986) identify two functions of personality in relation to the active audience: (1) Personality may explain patterns of viewing; and (2) the mind (the home of the personality) of the viewer interprets the message and therefore mediates the effects of the media.

Gunter and Furnham (1983) use personality variables (operationalized by the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire) to describe
individual differences in the cognitive effects of perceptions of violent portrayals on television. Correlating the personality measure with analysis of the subjects' perceptions of violence, the research found persons who scored high on the neuroticism scale were more sensitive to violent episodes than were people who scored lower in that dimension.

In further research, Gunter, Furnham, and Jarrett (1984) again used the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire to account for individual differences in delayed memory for television news. Relating retention scores to subject's personality scores on the EPQ, indicated that introverts remembered more than extraverts and that level of neuroticism made little difference to memory performance. This result may indicate a preference for the television medium among introverts.

Wober and Gunter (1988) report that the personality variable of locus of control as defined by Rotter correlates with television viewing patterns. Utilizing a survey administered to 332 adults, the researchers discovered that "people who are more fateful (low levels of locus of control) in their outlook on life generally watch more television and also express cautious attitudes (that are perhaps cultivated by increased media exposure)" (p. 34).

Wazenreid and Woody (1979) categorized rock and country music lyrics into two orientations: extensional and intentional. Extensional lyrics are typified as being fantasy-oriented, while intentional lyrics are seen as reality-oriented. They utilized Cattell's 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire to operationalize the periphery of personality. Subjects were also asked to rate their preferences for different types of lyrics. The data yielded the following insights into lyrical preferences: (1) Males with
a high preference for country extensional lyrics will tend to be
ventursome (socially bold and uninhibited) and forthright (natural,
artless, sentimental); (2) Males with a high preference for rock
intentional lyrics will be suspicious (self-opinionated, hard to fool), self-
sufficient (prefers his own decisions, resourceful), and less intelligent
(concrete-thinking); (3) Females with a high preference for rock
extensional lyrics will be apprehensive (worrying, digressive, troubled);
(4) Females with a high preference for country extensional lyrics will be
assertive (independent, aggressive, stubborn).

Hansen and Hansen (1991) sought to examine the relationship
between personality characteristics and preferences for punk and heavy
metal music. They administered questionnaires to 102 undergraduate
psychology students and their results indicate that individuals who
expressed liking for heavy metal music were higher in machiavelianism
and machismo and lower in need for cognition than nonfans. Also, the
results indicate that punk fans were less accepting of authority than
nonfans. In addition, these preferences still held after controlling for a
variety of variables focusing on social perceptions of good and bad
behavior.

Nordlund (1978), asked the question: do people who have a high
need for interpersonal interaction satisfy their need by "talking back" to
their television sets? The hypothesis examining the relation of the
personality trait of neuroticism (as measured by the EPQ) to parasocial
interaction was that a neurotic disposition would lead to greater use of the
mass media for interpersonal interaction needs. The results supported
this hypothesis showing that high levels of neuroticism correlated
significantly with high levels of parasocial activity.

Miyazaki (1981), in an extension of Nordlund, explored the links between personality theory and use of daytime serials by Japanese housewives. In a field survey of 183 housewives, Miyazaki administered the Maudsley Personality Inventory (MPI), which is similar to the EPQ discussed above, and operationalizes the needs for extraversion, introversion, and neuroticism. Her results indicate that extraverts were less involved with daytime dramas than introverts or neurotics. Again, an introverted orientation to TV seems to be indicated.

In a study of 290 undergraduates, Finn and Gorr (1988) tested the hypothesis that people characterized by higher levels of loneliness are more motivated to consume the television to gratify needs. The findings of their research indicate that the personality trait of perceived loneliness was the highest correlate of television viewing patterns.

**Summary - fulfillment approaches.**

Applications of fulfillment theories of personality have linked media use and need fulfillment. Specifically, the personality theory of Eysenck with its emphasis on introversion and neuroticism has been especially useful. Indeed, it is apparent from this research that there is a significant call for future research that incorporates tried and tested measures of personality in an attempt to explain the underlying need structures which could in part explain the activity of the mass media audience.

**The Consistency Models**

The last of Maddi's three categories is the consistency model of personality. The consistency model places emphasis upon the formative
influence of feedback from the external world. Life is to be understood as the extended attempt to maintain consistency of sensation.

The first version of the consistency model is labeled the cognitive dissonance version. The core tendency of this version is to minimize large discrepancies between expectation and occurrence, while maximizing small discrepancies between expectation and occurrence. The theorizing of Kelly (1955) and McClelland (1951) are categorized into this version.

The work of Fiske and Maddi (1961) and behaviorists such as Skinner (1952) are examples of the activation version of the consistency model. This version places emphasis on consistency or inconsistency between the degree of bodily tension or activation that is customary for the person and that which actually exists at the time. The goal in life is to maintain the level of activation to which a person is accustomed. Behavior is understood as conscious attempts to balance and optimize internal and external sources of stimulation.

Applications of consistency approaches.

Zillman (1991) identifies four groups of findings from research employing a consistency approach. First, there is a significant correlation between television use and the need to unwind or avoid increases in sensation. Second, he indicates that some research links a need for sensory excitement and television use. Third, he indicates a link between arousal caused by the behavior of television use and the transfer of that arousal to cause other behaviors. The fourth finding Zillman identifies is that there is a correlation between arousal from TV use and information acquisition.
Wober (personal communication) sought to identify how individual differences in sensation-seeking (as measured by Zuckerman's sensation seeking schedule) are related to exposure to various television program types. His analysis of 426 diaries and questionnaires revealed that people who are low in their sensation-seeking needs watch more soap opera and action adventure programs while those persons scoring high on the sensation seeking measure tend to prefer sports and comedy programming.

Donohew, Palmgreen, Lorch, Rogers, Helm, and Grant (1989) again utilized Zuckerman's sensation seeking schedule to account for individual differences in response to television anti-drug public service announcements. In an experimental design, 296 persons were exposed to one of three treatments: Television content containing (1) a PSA high in sensation value, (2) a PSA low in sensation value, or (3) no PSA. The results of their study indicated that high sensation seekers are affected most by PSAs with content characterized as high in sensation value.

In an extension of this research, Palmgreen, Lorch, Donohew, Helm, Baer, and Dsilva (1991) linked the sensation-seeking construct to attention to television anti-drug PSAs. Again, experimental manipulation of 318 subjects revealed that high sensation seekers paid greater attention to high sensation value programming and to PSAs embedded in such programming. Low sensation seekers paid greater attention to PSAs embedded in low sensation value programming.

Swank (1979) uses the Personality Research Form (PRF) developed by Jackson (1967) to provide higher level descriptions of the needs of the elderly in relation to the mass media. In interviews with 74 elderly
persons, Swank linked Jackson's Activation Personality theory and media use. She described this relationship as the "activation level" required to motivate media use to fulfill needs.

The gratifications sought from the media were linked to Fishbein and Ajzen's expectancy value theory (Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1982; Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1985a, 1985b). This research indicated that the gratifications sought from the media were a function of the belief that a certain medium could gratify their needs and an evaluation of that medium's ability to provide gratification ($GS_i = \beta_i e_j$). The expectancy-value approach has been successfully applied to accounting for patterns of exposure and media satisfaction.

Donohew, Palmgreen and Rayburn (1987) extended the use of consistency theory in uses and gratifications research by applying the notion of activation theory to medium preferences. Their basic thesis is that individuals with high optimal arousal levels will expose themselves to more novel or varied sources of stimulation while those with low arousal needs prefer the routine. The results of surveys of 257 people revealed that persons characterized by a high need for cognitive activation consumed more media in general than did persons with lower cognitive arousal needs.

Lawrence and Palmgreen (1991) found a significant link between arousal needs and gratifications sought from theatrical films. Their survey of 259 respondents revealed that a six-factor construction of sensation seeking correlated significantly with a nine-factor model of gratifications sought from movies in the theater. Differences in individual level of arousal predicted individual differences in learning
gratifications sought, diversion gratifications sought, and mood control gratifications sought.

**Summary - consistency applications.**

Sensation seeking theories emerge from consistency models of core functioning. Periphery differences were found to exist between people based upon internal dispositions and experimental manipulation of content. In addition, several of these studies have successfully linked consistency models of core functioning to the notions of gratifications sought from the media.

**Summary of Personality and Audience Research**

A review of the literature on media audiences reveals that all three general categories of personality research have been applied. Consistency models have linked audience uses of television to their relative dispositions of arousal and sensation-seeking. Fulfillment models have been applied to understanding individual differences in the effects of television, preferences for popular music, and uses of media for need fulfillment. Conflict approaches have been used to understand the gender structures underlying the text, the processes of decoding, and patterns of individual differences in message and medium preferences.

Two interesting patterns emerge in this review of personality in audience research. First, the majority of these studies have focused on only the medium of television. Virtually no research has undertaken an exploration linking personality dispositions and channel preferences. This gap is especially important given the emphasis on the increasing personalness of media channels described in chapter one.

The second conclusion relates to the combination of the types of
personality theory and the types of audience research. This review reveals that the functional theories of the audience have incorporated consistency and fulfillment models of personality in their research while structural/cultural theories rely on conflict models of personality. Thus, functional theories maintain their emphasis on stability and maintenance of the status quo while structural/cultural theory incorporates personality theory which supports its assumptions of conflict and change.

It is this researcher's contention that conflict theories, particularly the theories of Jung, should be more extensively used as a means for investigating the link dispositions have to the behavior of the audience. McGuire (1974) indicates support for this exploration when he states, "The ego-defensive theories of personality (psychoanalytic theories) lie implicitly or explicitly behind much of the discussion of selective attention of media content" (p. 186). In a neofunctionalist reconceptualization of the activity of the audience, conflict theories should be linked to the functional uses and gratifications approach.

**Jung's Psychoanalytic Theory**

This section will describe both the core and periphery components of Jung's theory. The last part of this section describes neo-Jungian extensions of Jung's periphery theory - his theory of the types.

**Core Concepts**

In Jungian theory, the personal conscious is in continuous conflict for the governance of behavior with both the personal and collective unconscious. The mental structure of the conscious, the (personal) unconscious, and the collective unconscious is the key in understanding
Jung’s theory (CW 16, para. 77).6

The ego is the primary component of the conscious mind and for Jung is that part of the psyche that directs the business of everyday living or the everyday processes that lead to individuation.7 The ego is that part of our personality that we usually think of as ourselves, containing more of our strong than our weak points (CW9, para. 276).

The personal unconscious is comprised of experiences that were once conscious but now are either forced by defenses out of the conscious mind or simply are no longer the focus of attention. It is possible for items in the personal unconscious to become conscious when they become salient to the ego. Residing in the personal unconscious is the shadow. In Jung’s words, "by shadow I mean the 'negative' side of personality, the sum of all those unpleasant qualities we like to hide, together with the insufficiently developed functions and the contents of the personal unconscious" (CW 7, para. 65). The shadow is the side of our personality that we choose to ignore because it represents all those attitudes, temptations, fears of failing, and even immoral and uncivilized inclinations that we have rejected and kept from doing in the past (Samuels, 1985).

The collective unconscious is comprised of archetypes which are a universal form or a predisposition of certain thoughts or feelings. For Jung,

Archetypes are typical ways the psyche has of understanding existence; they are stylized psychic behaviors reflecting the very essence of what the psyche intends to bring about, to learn, accomplish, or express (CW 8, para. 137).
Some examples of archetypes are: the anima/animus -- the anima is the essence of the female that is present in every male (manifested symbolically by a witch or priestess and the animus is the essence of male that is present in every female (manifested symbolically by groups of dangerous men (e.g. pirates) or Byronic Heroes such as Dracula); and the archetypes of unity (represented symbolically by yantra mandalas or a snake with a tail in its mouth) (von Franz, 1964).

The thoughts or feelings of the collective unconscious can never become conscious because they are essences that are understood as images or symbols rather than concrete signs. Archetypes are the linchpin of mental process and they provide the foundation for Jung's conflict-based "Stylized- Meaning- Expression Model" of mental events.

This model implies that individuals express unconscious-to-conscious mental contents as symbols. The symbol emerges from the archetype in the collective unconscious and while the symbolic contents may vary, the archetype under expression by the unconscious remains the same. Conscious consideration of the symbol allows the individual to access the meaning of the archetype under expression. These symbols often make their "first" appearance in dreams, art, and waking fantasies. It is the psychic energy gained from the conscious consideration of the archetypal symbol which provides the motivation of individual action and behavior.

The core structural concepts for Jung are understood to be grounded in the process of stylized meaning expression which is the outcome of the conflict between the conscious and the unconscious. For Jung, the end
result of this conflict is the emergence of the "self." The self is a special archetype which represents the ultimate stage of personality growth in which the contents of the ego and the unconscious mind are completely acknowledged and dealt with by the individual (Rychlak, 1981). A person who has developed a self knows that he or she is both honest (ego) yet dishonest (shadow), socially concerned (ego) as well as selfish (shadow). "The self is the resolution of all the dialectics of the psyche" (CW 6, p. 21). In other words, an individual must come to know both the overt and hidden aspects of her/his personality in order to recognize the "Self." Jung turns to the periphery of personality in order to explain the process by which a person comes to understand the archetype of self. Jung calls the process of understanding the self, the process of individuation.

**Periphery Concepts**

Individuation is the process by which "a person becomes himself, whole, indivisible and distinct from other people or collective psychology, though also in relation to these" (Samuels, et al., 1986, p. 76). Spoto (1989) sheds more light on the process of individuation:

> The individuation process, the business of becoming who one is destined to be in relationship to the world and one's self, takes place when one is able to see 'the way up' as where one is 'now' (ego), but at any time in the journey (of individuation) also recognizing and relating to the way down (the unconscious) as well (p. 33).

Individuation is a process of both conscious and unconscious experience.
through which a person comes to know him or her self. The individuated person still behaves primarily in response to the ego (conscious) mind, but acts with conscious awareness of the unconscious side of her/his personality.

In periphery terms, in order to individuate, a person must become aware of the operation of the dialectics of the psyche. Jungian theory considers one attitude dialectic and two function dialectics. Taken individually, these dialectics describe the trait preferences of individuals. In interaction, these dialectics combine into "types" which provide detailed descriptions of the dispositions which are used to understand individual behavior.

**Traits.**

Jung (CW 6) identifies two attitudes or general orientations a personality can take in relation to reality: extraversion (E) and introversion (I). This dialectic describes how human beings gather their information about reality. This information about reality is conceived of as energy, or the "inputs" of psychic activity.

The extravert's orientation to life is interest in the outer world of people and things. He or she likes to direct both perception and judgment upon her/his outside environment. The extravert has an open, sociable, and active relationship with the outside world. "The typical extravert has a consummate desire to influence others and/or the environment, but is as likely to be influenced by the surrounding conditions of his or her own life as well" (Spoto, 1989, p. 22).

The introvert, on the other hand, is oriented to the inner world of concepts and ideas and directs both perception and judgment upon ideas.
Introverts see the objects in the outer world as draining energy away from the inner world and thus withdraws from the outer world to prevent the loss of energy. Spoto (1989) indicates that introverts are "somewhat more independent and idea-oriented than the extravert, as they get their stimulation from the interior or subjective world" (p. 23).

Jung implies in these definitions that humans have perceptions and make judgments about the information they receive whether it be from the internal or external world. Jungian theory describes two ways of perceiving (sensing and intuiting) and two ways of judging (thinking and feeling).

The perceiving dialectic deals with how humans actually obtain information about reality. Sensing (S) people prefer information obtained through the five human senses. Jung (CW 6, para 461) indicates that "sensation is the psychological function that mediates the perception of a physical stimulus." Sensing types are interested in reality as it is presented to them and thus tend to be “factual and very observant, and they are capable not only of ‘seeing’ but of remembering those facts and details” (Spoto, 1989, p. 37).

Intuiting (N) people perceive by way of the unconscious -- they look beyond the obvious to the potential underlying cause of the perception. Intuition is "that function that mediates perceptions in an unconscious way... a kind of instinctive apprehension, no matter of what contents" (CW 6, para 770). Spoto (1989) sheds light on the notion of intuition:

Intuitive types also seem to be quick to take things in. They have an attraction for complexity, almost for its own sake. They appreciate the odd world of symbols and myth and often feel more at home in that world.
than what their immediate environment may offer. The can see abstract, theoretical, even universal relationships that convey meanings above and beyond the obvious. And, as a general rule, they are not as apprehensive of change or novelty as their sensing-type counterparts may tend to be" (para. 380).

For example, if a sensing person were asked to describe a person who robbed a bank. She/he would most likely provide information such as color of clothes or hair, height, and weight. The intuiting person would provide less accurate descriptive details in deference to describing the criminal as nervous, desperate, or scared; descriptions that are the result of abstractions based on the symbolic content of what was observed.

The judging dialectic refers to the process of how decisions are made about the information that individuals perceive. People who prefer thinking (T) approach the judging process as a logical one in which there is a clear decision to be made based on cause and effect. "Thinking, following its own laws, brings the contents of ideation into conceptual connection with one another" (CW 6, para 830). Thinking emphasizes "logic and objectivity in reasoning through to correct and truthful conclusions. As such, thinking suppresses or subordinates personal values or attachments" (Spoto, 1989, p. 36).

Feeling (F) people, on the other hand, approach the decision making process as an affective process of appreciation or value. Jung describes feeling as "a kind of judgment, different from intellectual judgment in that its aim is not to establish conceptual relations but to set up a subjective criterion of acceptance or rejection" (CW 6, para 724). Feeling persons demonstrate a preference for the personal over the impersonal
and often value harmony and human relationships because of their emphasis on the personal and subjective (Spoto, 1989).

For example, when faced with a choice of whether or not to go to the Wexner Center to see the art display, a thinking person might make the decision to go by rationalizing that "I need to eat lunch on High Street anyway today, so I'll just stop in..." while the feeling person may decide to go because "It is good to be current with the Columbus art scene."

The operation of the functions.

Jung explains the interrelationships between these functions:

These four functional types correspond to the obvious means by which consciousness obtains its orientation to experience. Sensation tells you something exists; thinking tells you what it is; feeling tells you whether it is agreeable or not; and intuition tells you whence it comes and where it is going (Jung, 1964, p. 61).

Ideally all of the attitudes and functions would develop equally and work in harmony with one another. This is seldom the case. Instead, one attitude (e.g., extraversion) and one function (e.g., thinking) become dominant in the conscious mind, and the other attitude (introversion) and the other three functions (feeling, sensing, and intuiting) remain less developed. The result of this dominance is that the undeveloped attitude and functions express the dreams and fantasies of the unconscious. The contents of the unconscious and the archetypes of the collective unconscious are made manifest through the undifferentiated attitude and functions.

Spoto (1989) indicates that the four functions are actually arrayed in
a sort of conscious to unconscious ordering. The dominant function is the one which is most differentiated by the ego component of the conscious mind. The auxiliary function represents the preferred function from the other pair and is used to complement the differentiated function. Thus if a person is described as having differentiated the intuitive function as dominant, the auxiliary function must by Jung's definition be either the feeling or thinking function. The tertiary function is that function that is the direct opposite of the auxiliary function. The inferior function is that function which is directly opposite the primary function (in this case the sensing function). The inferior function represents that aspect of the conscious mind which is closest to the unconscious. Jung's metaphor is that one needs to consider the conscious mind as a room with four doors, one for each function. It is through the fourth door (the inferior function) that the dreams and images of the unconscious mind(s) enter the room of consciousness (CW 6).

The eight types.

By combining the two attitudes and the four functions, Jung described eight different types of personalities. Jung (1964) suggests that the best way to come to an understanding of the types is to try and identify a personal friend, family member, or acquaintance whose behavior closely matches the type description. Listed below are the eight pure types with a brief description of what the person would tend to be like. Thus, a "Thinking Extravert" would be described as having a dominant function of thinking and a preferred attitude of extraversion.
Thinking Extravert. Lives according to fixed rules. Objective and cold. Positive and dogmatic in one's thinking. Feeling is repressed (the inferior function).

Feeling Extravert. Very emotional and respectful of authority and tradition. Sociable person who seeks harmony with the world. Thinking is repressed.


Intuiting Extravert. Decisions guided by hunches rather than by facts. Very changeable and creative. Has trouble staying with one idea very long, rather moves from one idea to another very rapidly. Knows much about one's own unconscious. Sensation is repressed.


Feeling Introvert. Quiet, thoughtful, and hypersensitive. Childish, enigmatic, and indifferent to the feelings and opinions of others. Very little expression of emotion. Thinking is repressed.

Sensing Introvert. Life guided by just what happens. Artistic, passive, and calm. Detached from human affairs since one's main concern is over what happens. Intuition is repressed.
**Intuiting Introvert.** The odd, eccentric daydreamer who creates new but "strange" ideas. Seldom understood by other people, but this is not a source of concern. Life is guided by inner experiences rather than outer ones. Sensing is repressed.

(Jung, CW 6, in Hergenhahn, 1980, p.59)

Jung applied these notions on typology to better understand and relate to his patients during therapy. Jung felt it imperative that the therapist understand how her/his type colors the information both received from and transmitted to the client. In addition, the client's type is vital in defining the psychic conflicts with which the client is dealing.

**Summary - periphery concepts.**

The conscious mind for Jung is the structural location of the periphery of personality. The conscious mind is that aspect of our personality which is essential to understand if the goal is to describe individual variance in behavior. The attitude dialectic (E/I) describes the relative impact of the external situation in generating the energy that causes behavior. The function dialectics (S/N or T/F) describe the processes of channeling energy into behaviors. The ego will differentiate one attitude and one function and conscious behavior can be understood as the expression of these differentiated dispositions. The functions are arrayed in order reflecting the degree to which each function is used in the conscious mind. Post-Jungians interested in Jung's type theory are concerned most with understanding the operations of these four functions.
Post-Jungian Extensions

While questions about the structure and operation of Jung's typology have been raised ( Bradway and Detloff, 1976; Loomis and Singer, 1980; Metzner, Burney, and Mahlburg, 1981), a survey of Jungian analysts by Plaut (1972) revealed that "half of the analysts who replied found typology helpful in clinical practice and three-quarters thought that typology is of importance to Jungian psychology" (p. 84). Murray (1990) provides a contemporary echo when he states that "Jung's theory (of the types) ... provide(s) interesting and provocative patterns that illuminate observations of individual differences in styles of gathering information and reaching decisions" (p. 1199).

In 1942, the psychometricians Isabel Myers and Katherine Briggs (a mother-daughter team) sought to extend Jung's typology beyond the intuitive level by operationalizing Jung's type constructs. In the course of developing the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Myers and Briggs needed to devise a method for determining the ordering (primary, auxiliary, tertiary, and inferior) of the four functions in a person. The method which worked best was based on the creation of a fourth dialectic description of personality: the Judging-Perceiving (J/P) dialectic. Combining this dialectic with those of Jung reveals the sixteen types described by the MBTI.11

In addition to its utility in operationalizing Jung's theory of the types, the J/P dialectic can be used much like the other three as a trait-level indicator of individual difference. Persons with a preference for perception (P) "seem in their outer behavior to be spontaneous, curious, and adaptable, open to new events and changes and aiming to miss
nothing. Judging (J) persons on the other hand seem in their behavior to be decisive, purposeful, and well organized" (Myers-Briggs and McCaulley, 1988, p. 14).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator has become the most pervasive personality instrument in nonpsychiatric applications (DeVito, 1985; Lynch, 1985; Murray, 1990). The manual for the MBTI (Myers and McCaulley, 1985) identifies over 1500 studies which have used the MBTI. The Center for the Applications of Psychological Type (CAPT) has compiled a database containing the results of over 250,000 MBTI records spanning over one thousand different populations (Myers-Briggs and McCaulley, 1985). The MBTI has been praised as "a practical assessment instrument whose constructs have been clarified by extensive research" (Murray, 1990, p. 1195).

The ability to understand the auxiliary, tertiary, and inferior functions more completely has extended the applicability of Jung's periphery model beyond the realm of psychopathology and psychotherapy. Studies have found significant correlations to exist between the MBTI and creativity and esthetic preferences, choice of major study, teaching and learning style, occupational preferences, conflict management behavior, SAT scores, and decision-making behavior (Murray, 1990). The MBTI has been demonstrated to be a psychometric instrument of great utility in a variety of applications (Carlson, 1989; Samuels, 1985). To this point, however, no one has sought to link Jung's theory and its operationalization to describing and explaining the behavior of the media audience.
Summary - Jung's Psychoanalytic Theory

Jung understands the unifying force shared by all people as a conflict between the conscious, unconscious, and collective unconscious. All three of these "minds" exist within the person and reflect varying degrees of individual identity. The result of the conflict caused by the interpenetration of these three minds is the emergence of the self. The self is an archetypal conceptualization of ourselves as a fully integrated person. Individuation (self-discovery) is a process of conflict management and resolution. The media of exchange in this psychic conflict are symbols. A fully integrated person is aware of the operation of the dialectics of the psyche and how these dialectics govern the perception and judgment of symbols.

Jung specifies one attitude dialectic (E/I) and two function dialectics (S/N; T/F). The ego, the primary component of the conscious mind, differentiates one attitude and one function and relies on these dispositions to guide behavior. Post-Jungian extensions have indicated the importance of understanding the relative ordering of all the functions and they have developed elaborate operationalizations which reflect this importance. The most effective and widely used operationalization of Jung's theory is the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

The above section has pointed to the utility of a Jungian theoretical definition of personality within the realm of personality theory. In addition, the MBTI innovation in the quantitative operationalization of the periphery of this personality theory makes it eminently applicable to understanding the media use behavior of the audience. Since trait-level descriptions of personality are closely tied to behavior, there should be
some pattern of individual differences that emerges in relation to media use behavior that can be understood by Jung's theory of the types. In addition, if we are able to link the periphery of Jung's theory to media use, it would warrant further investigation of Jung's theory in relation to core considerations such as the role of archetypal symbols in media content and the processes involved in making meaning of media messages.

Recapitulation and Hypotheses

This section will summarize the rationales for each of the primary constructs of this study. First, this section will review the conceptual level rationale for this research, focusing on the operationalization of neofunctionalism by applying uses and gratifications constructs. Next, statements of hypothesized relationships between Jung's periphery theory and uses and gratifications constructs will be presented.

Conceptual Level Rationale I - Audience Theory

A fruitful means of understanding the activity of the audience and their relative freedom of choice in the new media environment is the theory of neofunctionalism. Neofunctionalism provides the rationale for the importance of understanding the personality system of the audience member in relation to their media preferences. One aspect of the neofunctionalist pattern variable schema which has been reconstructed in uses and gratifications terms is the affective-affective neutral component. This component can be conceptualized as cognitive and affective gratifications obtained from the media.

This research seeks to link the personality and social (media) subsystems through the application a specific theory of personality to the
patterns of gratifications obtained from the media system. Gratifications obtained from the media are an effective indicator of individual preference for and use of various media (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985b). Following the findings of previous research using similar gratification instruments, the following hypotheses are offered:

H1: The entertainment gratifications obtained from television will be of two types: affective and cognitive.

H2: The entertainment gratifications obtained from books will be of two types: affective and cognitive.

H3: The entertainment gratifications obtained from the VCR will be of two types: affective and cognitive.

Conceptual Level Rationale II - Personality and Audience Theory

The second chapter sought to further clarify the components of the personality sub-system in order to identify ways in which personality theories have been applied to the audience-media relationship. Three types of personality theories were identified: Conflict models, fulfillment models, and consistency models. A review of the literature revealed that both the consistency and fulfillment models have been actively applied to understanding media audiences. The conflict models have not been the subject of any significant functional or neofunctional investigation of media audiences.

For psychoanalysts, the periphery of personality describes dispositions that emerge as a result of the psychic conflict between the conscious and unconscious minds. These traits can be used individually to describe human behavior or they can be combined into types. No research however, has linked Jung's theory of the types to the
communication behavior of the active audience. This research seeks to explore hypotheses regarding individual differences in gratifications obtained from the media. The statements of hypothetical relationships are made at the trait and type levels. In addition, this research follows the uses and gratifications assumption (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985b) that measures of gratifications obtained are an effective indicator of media preference. Thus, hypotheses are also presented which attempt to differentiate the media of preference given the descriptions of individual dispositions provided by Jung's personality theory.

**Individual differences hypotheses.**

Recall that media theorists differentiate the media on the basis of physical attributes (Katz, et al., 1973; McLaughlin & Birinyi, 1985; McLuhan, 1964). Thus, differences should exist between people based on links between personality theory and the physical attributes of the media channels. Specifically, sensing people should have a preference (operationalized by gratifications obtained) for the media providing the greatest degree of sensory stimulation and intuiting people should prefer media which require the use of imagination. Thus:

- **H4:** Sensing people will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from the television medium than intuiting people.
- **H5:** Sensing people will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from the VCR than intuiting people.
- **H6:** Intuiting people will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from books than sensing people.

Links between media use and fulfillment theories of personality
indicate a general orientation to the television medium by introverted persons (Gunter, et al., 1984; Miyazaki, 1981). Patterson (1991) indicates that an introverted preference for television emerges in the application of Jung's conflict model of personality. Also, Myers-Briggs and McCaulley (1988) indicate that there is a significant correlation between the introversion scale of the EPQ (used by Gunter et al., 1984) and the E/I dimension of the MBTI. Thus, the following hypotheses are offered:

H7: Introverts will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from television than extraverts.

H8: Introverts will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from the VCR than extraverts.

Recall that the gratifications obtained construct is operationalized by two dimensions: cognitive and affective. While differences in media channels have been hypothetically linked to individual preferences in attitudes (E/I) and perceptions (S/N), the gratifications obtained constructs may be more closely related to the judging process (T/F). Indeed, the gratifications obtained model of media preference is grounded in expectancy-value theory. Expectancy-value theory implies judgment and evaluation, thus a pattern of relationships should exist between differences in judging style and gratifications obtained such that:

H9: Thinking persons will obtain more cognitive than affective gratifications from all three media than Feeling persons.

H10: Feeling persons will obtain more affective than cognitive gratifications from all three media than Thinking persons.

Recall that the trait-level descriptions of individual differences offered by Jung combine into types. The attitudes (E/I) and functions
(S/N; T/F) have been related to either channel preference or gratifications obtained preferences in the above hypotheses. It is a logical conclusion then that if the patterns of individual differences hypothesized above hold, these patterns of trait-level differences should interact to allow predictions of type-level differences which combine the characteristics of the media with the types of gratifications obtained.

**H11:** Intuitive - Thinking types will obtain more cognitive gratifications from books than other types.

**H12:** Intuitive - Feeling types will obtain more affective gratifications from books than other types.

**H13:** Sensing - Thinking types will obtain more cognitive gratifications from television than other types.

**H14:** Sensing - Feeling types will obtain more affective gratifications from television than other types.

**H15:** Introverted-Sensing-Thinking types will obtain more cognitive gratifications from television than other types.

**H16:** Introverted-Sensing-Feeling types will obtain more affective gratifications from television than other types.

**Media preference hypotheses.**

Palmgreen and Rayburn (1985b) indicate that measures of gratifications obtained from different media can be used as an indicator of preference. Following their conceptualization, the medium with the highest level of reported gratifications obtained is the medium of preference. The hypotheses above have attempted to account for patterns of individual differences in gratifications obtained from the media. If these hypotheses hold, it should be possible to differentiate one medium as
preferred to the other two on the basis of periphery descriptions.

H17: People with intuiting as the primary function will prefer books to television and the VCR.

H18: People with sensing as their primary function will prefer television to books and the VCR.

H19: People oriented primarily to the introverted attitude will prefer TV to books and the VCR.

Summary - Preview of Subsequent Chapters

This study links descriptions of individual predispositions provided by Jungian personality theory with a measure of individual preference for various media. This research can help to understand how the individual relates to the social institutions of telecommunication and media industries. The next chapter outlines a specific method for understanding the links between personality and audience activity.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter will focus first on the sample for this research. The second part of this chapter describes the development of the operationalizations of gratifications obtained and personality type. The final section of this chapter describes the administration of the instrument to the sample.

Sampling Method

A telephone survey was used in this study because of the high penetration of telephones in U.S. homes and the effectiveness of telephone surveys to gather data quickly and efficiently (Frey, 1989). The population sampled in this study is defined as adults in Franklin County, Ohio. Respondents were screened for eligibility on the basis of age (Over 18 years of age) and minimum media use. Minimum media use in this study is operationalized to mean the respondent had to use at least two of the three media (TV, VCR and books) at least once a month. A gender balancing procedure was included to insure equal representation of males and females in the sample. To insure a degree of generalizability and to minimize error, a minimum sample size of 400 was determined necessary.

In order to insure equal representation of all elements of the sampling frame, a systematic probability sampling method was appropriate. This
technique has been utilized in other studies of media use in Franklin County (Dimmick, et al., 1987; Albarran, 1990). The sample was drawn utilizing a computer generated sampling procedure which selects a five-digit "root" from those assigned by Ohio Bell (the local telephone company). A set of randomly generated two-digit suffixes are added to each root in order to generate the phone number actually dialed. This procedure enables the sample to represent unlisted telephones in the sampling area. Each resulting combination of root and ten suffixes is referred to as a cluster or a "hit." The number of clusters needed for the sampling frame is a function of the expected cooperation rate in the survey. Albarran (1990) in a similar survey of Franklin County, Ohio indicates the sampling frame should be 3 to 5 times larger than the desired sample size to allow for disconnected phones, busy signals, no answers, initial refusals, and ineligible respondents.

Based on these criteria, it was determined that a sample of 40,000 telephone numbers assembled into 4,000 clusters containing 10 numbers each would be adequate to reach the sample size goal. The computer program used to generate the telephone numbers prints one stem with 10 suffixes per page. When a telephone number within a cluster produced a completed interview, that page was "retired" for the remainder of the study. This technique represents a means of controlling for potential geographic overrepresentation as each stem represents a specific geographic area.

Instrumentation

This section is divided into three parts. The first part describes the operationalization of gratifications obtained from the media. The second
describes the development of the operationalization of personality type. The final part of this section describes the overall questionnaire design. A copy of the final questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

Gratifications Obtained

The gratifications obtained from the three media will be assessed using a set of items established for both traditional and new media technologies in previous research (Albarran, 1990). Each gratification dimension (cognitive and affective) is represented by eight items. The anticipated cognitive/affective factor structure is listed in Table One.

Table 1

Anticipated Gratification Obtained Dimensions - Entertainment Media

Affective Dimension
1. To help you relax.
2. To occupy your time.
3. To relive past times.
4. To put your mind at ease.
5. To forget your everyday cares.
6. To relieve boredom.
7. To help you unwind.
8. To eliminate stress.

Cognitive Dimension
1. To learn about people in other places.
2. To figure out plots and stories.
3. To know characters as if they were your friends.
4. To solve puzzles and games.
5. To witness the competitive challenge of sports.
6. To learn about things that interest you personally.
7. To improve your life.
8. To help you understand other people.
Respondents were asked only the gratification items that apply to those media which are used more than once per month (the minimum use level described above). The eight "affective" items are designed to "represent individual feelings and emotional states" while the cognitive items are designed to measure gratifications related to "acquiring and processing information" (Albarran, 1990, p. 40). As indicated above, the two-level structure of cognitive and affective gratifications has been found to be theoretically and operationally sound in previous research (Albarran, 1990; McGuire, 1974; Dimmick, et. al., 1987).

Respondents were asked to indicate how helpful each of the media are in satisfying their entertainment needs. Their choices were "not at all helpful, only a little helpful, somewhat helpful, or very helpful." The responses were scored on a scale of 1 (not at all helpful) to 4 (very helpful).

**Personality Type**

The measurement of the independent variable, personality type, utilized a set of items derived from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Past research on personality justifies the use of this instrument, as it has been developed, revised and extensively tested and used over the past 50 years (Carlson, 1985; Carskadon, 1977, Briggs-Myers and McCaulley, 1988). Recent reliability studies reported in the MBTI manual yield reliability coefficients of $r > .75$ for all dimensions. Construct validity has been examined most frequently in terms of inter-test correlations with other established periphery-level measures of personality, the details of which are reported in the MBTI manual (Myers-Briggs and McCaulley, 1988).

The length of the MBTI (25 minutes in its shortest form) precludes
the use of the standard instrument in telephone research. The MBTI manual (Myers-Briggs and McCaulley, 1988) indicates that shorter forms of the MBTI can be effective in predicting type, but should only be used in situations where time is a problem. Indeed, the psychometricians at Consulting Psychologists Press (the publishers of the MBTI system) have recently collapsed the original 177 item questionnaire (Form F) into one consisting of 94 questions (Form G - self scorable). Because time is a problem in telephone surveys (Frey, 1989), it was necessary to reduce the number of items in the MBTI Form G even further so that the instrument could be used in telephone survey research. The following paragraphs describe the development of a new version which will be referred to in this research as the MBTI-PHONE.

In developing the original MBTI scales, Myers-Briggs utilized a prediction ratio to determine which items were the most effective in determining type. The prediction ratio method also allowed Myers-Briggs to eliminate or control for socially desirable responses. The prediction ratio scores (0, 1, or 2) can be utilized to determine which items contribute most to the variance of the scale and which items are subject to the confines of social desirability. Responses with a prediction ratio of 2 are most effective in determining respondent type. Responses with a prediction ratio of 0 contribute nothing to the variance of the scale.

A typical MBTI item asks respondents to choose one of two responses as being "representative of how you (they) usually feel or act." This format of a forced choice between two opposites is designed to reflect the notion of opposition which is characteristic of Jung's theory of the types. See Appendix A, questions number 22 to 65 for examples of
Table 2

Anticipated Trait-Level Personality Dimensions - MBTI-PHONE

Extraversion/Introversion
1. Good mixer or quiet and reserved.
2. Join in group talk or talk to one person at a time.
3. Introduce others or get introduced.
4. Broad friendships or deep friendships.
5. Full of news or last to hear.
6. Talk to almost anyone or talk to only a few.
7. Always have fun or get bored at parties.
8. Easy to get to know or hard to get to know.
9. Change subject or turn into a joke, or think days later.
10. Help get things going or let others have own way.
11. Hearty or quiet.
12. Talkative or reserved.

Sensing/Intuiting
1. Teach fact courses or courses involving theory.
2. Like realistic people or imaginative people.
3. Practical person or ingenious person.
4. Both feet on the ground or always come up with new ideas.
5. Common sense or vision.
6. Facts or ideas.
7. Statement or concept.
8. Certainty or theory.
9. Concrete or abstract.
10. Build or invent.

Thinking/Feeling
1. Head rule your heart or heart rule your head.
2. Consistently reasonable person Person of real feeling.
3. Value logic more than sentiment or sentiment more than logic.
4. Conventional or original and individual.
5. Thinking or feeling.
6. Convincing or touching.
7. Analyze or sympathize.
8. Justice or mercy.
9. Foresight or compassion.
10. Benefits or blessings.
11. Determined or devoted.
Table 2 (continued)

12. Critical or uncritical.

**Judging/Perceiving**

1. Plan what to do or just go.
2. Arrange dates in advance or be free.
3. Does following a schedule appeal or cramp.
4. Organize before you start or as you go along.
5. Take time to plan or plunge in.
6. Scheduled or unplanned.
7. Systematic or spontaneous.
8. Systematic or casual.
9. Decision or impulse.
10. Orderly or easygoing.

MBTI-PHONE items.

Thus to create an abbreviated form of the MBTI, the first step was to eliminate from the scale any item containing a prediction ratio of zero (0) for either response. The list was further narrowed by including only those items containing a prediction ratio of two for one of the two responses. Thus, the MBTI-PHONE contains the 43 questions which are indicated by Myers-Briggs and McCaulley (1988) to be the best predictor of type. The items utilized in the MBTI-PHONE and their a priori dimensionality is presented in Table Two.

There is no precedent in the MBTI manual for using the instrument in a phone survey context, thus administration procedures needed to be specially written to insure proper test administration. Two steps were taken to insure proper administration of the instrument, interviewer training and respondent instructions.

Each interviewer was required to take the MBTI Form G during
their training for interviewing. Thus, each interviewer was aware of her/his individual type as well as the general format of the original instrument. Following this, each of the interviewers were trained in the administration style recommended in the MBTI manual (Myers-Briggs and McCaulley, 1988). They were told that the instrument was not designed to measure personality disorders, but rather to measure conscious preferences for "how you like to go about deciding things and how you like to look at things." Second the notion that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions was clearly explained. Third, interviewers were instructed to attempt to get the respondents to answer all of the questions, although they were to encourage the respondents not to take too long to answer any one question. If the respondent could not answer a question, the interviewer was instructed to leave the item blank and unanswered as indicated in the MBTI instructions.

The interviewers were also trained to read a prewritten set of instructions to the respondents prior to administering the MBTI-PHONE. These instructions were written based on the original MBTI Form G instructions and the instructions found in the MBTI manual (Myers-Briggs and McCaulley, 1988). These instructions can be found on page seven of the questionnaire (Appendix A). The MBTI-PHONE also contained a positive, verbal reinforcer half-way through the instrument to encourage and support the respondent's answers.

**Questionnaire Design**

The introductory section of the survey contained information regarding the purpose and origination of the survey (questionnaire pages 1 to 2). In addition, the introductory section contained a set of screens for
age and gender. Respondents were informed that their phone number was selected at random and that their answers were anonymous and confidential. The first full section of the questionnaire contained the screening questions for amount of media use. The minimum use criterion for television, the VCR and books was set at using at least once per month for entertainment purposes. In order to make comparisons between the media in the data analysis, it was determined that for eligibility, individuals should use at least two of the media beyond the minimum use level.

If the respondent used at least two media regularly, the interview proceeded to ask the respondent to identify the typical content consumed for each of the media passing the minimum use levels (questionnaire pages two to three). These open-ended questions were designed as a prelude to answering the gratifications questions to "key" the respondents to thinking about what they watch or read when they use particular media for entertainment purposes. These questions were simply designed to get the respondents to think about their use of the media. This technique may improve the accuracy of responses to the gratification items in addition to providing information for future analysis.

The second section of the questionnaire consisted of the gratification items (questionnaire pages three to six). These items asked the respondents to indicate how helpful each of the media (used beyond the minimum use level) were in satisfying their entertainment needs. Respondents were reminded to think about the different media and content they used when answering the questions. The items were closed-ended and organized randomly. The end of section two sought to
ascertain a rank ordering of the respondents preference for the three media used in this study. Respondents were asked which of the three media they would keep if they could only keep one and which they would most easily give up if they had to give one up (questionnaire page seven).

The third section of the questionnaire contained the psychographic instrumentation derived from the MBTI (questionnaire pages seven to ten). This section is consistent with the MBTI-PHONE described above and contained the phrase choice questions (questionnaire items #22 to 45) and word pair questions (questionnaire items #46 to 65). The respondent did not need to respond to all of the questions in order to be able to determine his/her type.

The fourth and final section of the questionnaire included a set of demographic items deemed necessary for sample confirmation (questionnaire pages ten to eleven). Demographic information was collected on the level of cable penetration, education level, age, gender, and household income. Again all of the questions were closed ended, and steps were taken in the phrasing of the questions to encourage respondent cooperation in obtaining sensitive information such as age and income. Gender was not directly asked, but as the interviewers were asking in the beginning of the survey to ask for a male or female to ensure gender balancing, the gender of the respondent was inferred at this point.

Administration

A pretest of the questionnaire was used to identify any problems associated with the questionnaire or its administration as well as the amount of time necessary to complete an interview. Six interviewers administered the pretest and the respondents (N = 15) were drawn from a
set of hits prepared for the main study. A focus-group interview session with the interviewers was conducted immediately following the pretest. The focus group indicated no modifications were necessary in the instrument. The length of the interviews averaged 15 minutes.

The main study utilized 54 interviewers taking an undergraduate class in media research methods. Participation in the survey was a course requirement and students were graded as part of the evaluation mechanism for the course (10% of final grade). Interviewers were told that they would be rated after each shift (by the shift supervisor, see below) on the basis on three indexes: punctuality, involvement, and quality. Each interviewer had to complete 4, two-hour shifts in order to receive credit for the assignment.

There were a total of eight supervisors for the main study. Three were assigned as graduate teaching assistants in the undergraduate class and had previous telephone survey research experience. Three were participants in a graduate-level survey research methods course. They were required to supervise call shifts but were not graded. One supervisor was the instructor for both the graduate and undergraduate courses and one was the principle researcher.

The survey was conducted during 20 days in the Spring of 1991. Interviewers and supervisors were trained on the survey instrument prior to the start of the main study by the principal researcher. The training included a detailed discussion of the instrument focusing on screens, branches, and respondent instructions. In addition, practice and debriefing sessions were also part of the training. In addition, supervisors were trained in specific techniques for creating and
maintaining a high level of morale among the interviewers.

Verification was completed by the shift supervisors two days after the completion of the main study. A random sample of three of each of the interviewer's completed surveys were recalled by the supervisors (a total of 159 surveys or 32% of the total sample). Upon recontact, respondents were asked to confirm answers on subscription to cable television as well as age and gender of the respondent. If any survey did not verify, all of the interviewer's completed surveys were verified. A total of six surveys were eliminated due to non-verification.

Summary

Telephone survey research procedures were used to gather observations for this study. This survey used a structured, closed-ended format consisting of gratifications obtained items, the personality instrument and demographic variables. A total of 508 completed interviews were collected in this study. These interviews represent adults who use at least two of three different media for entertainment purposes at least once per month.

The next chapter begins with a discussion of the reliability and validity of the measures employed in this study. For the gratifications items, initial validity checks will be done using exploratory factor analysis techniques. Reliability for these scales will be estimated by the use of the measure of internal consistency, alpha. Reliability for the personality instrument will be estimated by alpha parameters. Validity for the personality instrument will be argued on the case of face validity and on the basis of predictive validity.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

This chapter focuses on the results of the statistical tests of the hypotheses presented in chapter one. The first section of this chapter presents an analysis of the validity and reliability of the personality and gratifications obtained measures. The second section of this chapter presents the analysis of individual differences in relation to gratifications obtained from media use based on the personality descriptions.

Listed below are some of the abbreviations used in this chapter:

- TVAFF - The scale of affective gratifications obtained from television
- TVCOG - The scale of cognitive gratifications obtained from television
- VCRAFF - The scale of affective gratifications obtained from video cassette recorders
- VCRCOG - The scale of cognitive gratifications obtained from video cassette recorders
- BKAFF - The scale of affective gratifications obtained from books
- BKCOG - The scale of cognitive gratifications obtained from books

In relation to the personality measure, MBTI-PHONE:

- E - Extraversion
- I - Introversion

76
Validity and Reliability

This section addresses the quality of the measures utilized in this research. Also, the first three hypotheses about the structure of gratifications obtained from the media are addressed in this section.

Reliability and Validity of MBTI-PHONE

To assess the reliability of the personality measure, MBTI-PHONE, Cronbach (1951) alpha estimates of equivalence were computed for each of the trait dimensions of the MBTI. Table Three presents the alpha estimates for both this sample (OSU) and the alpha estimates reported for each dimension of the original MBTI (Myers-Briggs & McCaulley, 1988). The alpha estimates reported in the MBTI manual are based on a sample (N=9,216) of scores for the MBTI Form-F (the form upon which subsequent forms G, G-self scorable, and MBTI-PHONE are based).

In general, the reliability estimates of the sample correspond to the expected reliability levels reported in the MBTI manual. However, the alpha for the Extraversion/Introversion trait was lower than was to be expected in the MBTI manual. Since the MBTI-PHONE was an exploratory measure and the alpha scores represent a lower-bound estimate of the reliability of a scale (Bohrnstedt, 1983), the general conclusion is made that the measure of personality employed in this study
Table 3

Alpha Reliability Coefficients for the MBTI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait Dimension</th>
<th>OSU</th>
<th>MBTI Databank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion/Introversion (E/I)</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensing/Intuiting (S/N)</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking/Feeling (T/F)</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judging/Perceiving (J/P)</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

is sufficiently reliable to warrant further analysis of results.

General guides to assessing validity (APA, 1974; Bohrnstedt, 1983; Carmines & Zeller, 1979) indicate validity can be determined in at least three ways: content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. The validity studies reported in the MBTI manual (Myers-Briggs & McCaulley, 1988) address each of these three realms of validity. By these three criteria, the MBTI has been concluded to be a valid measure of Jung’s theory. In general, Myers-Briggs and McCaulley argue for construct validity:

because the MBTI was designed to implement Jung’s theory of psychological types, its validity is determined by its ability to demonstrate relationships and outcomes predicted by theory. If Jung’s theory describes preferences that do exist, and if the MBTI adequately indicates those preferences, the surface behaviors should be in the directions predicted by the theory (p. 175).

Thus, the best indicator of the validity of the MBTI-PHONE is the degree of predictive validity observed in the subsequent analysis. A validity argument can also be made on the basis of content validity.
The items selected for the MBTI-PHONE were those that best represented the personality traits measured by the MBTI Form G-self scorable (see chapter three). Given that the trait-dimensions demonstrated similar internal consistencies (measured by alpha) between the original MBTI and the MBTI-PHONE, it is argued that the items of the MBTI-PHONE adequately represent the domain of meaning implied in the original MBTI. While content validity addresses validity issues internal to the measure, the use of a "type table" yields additional evidence as the external validity of the MBTI-PHONE.

The MBTI Manual (Myers-Briggs & McCaulley, 1988) indicates that type distributions may be used as an indicator of the validity of the MBTI scales. The general method of presenting information about the distribution of type in a sample (or population) is the "type table." The type table concept is used here to present an estimate of the validity of the MBTI-PHONE. The measure used in this research can be said to have validity, the degree to which the distribution of types in the sample reported here is consonant with the distribution of type in other samples.

Table Four presents the distribution of type in four different samples: The first is the distribution of type found in the initial reliability and validity study reported by Myers-Briggs (1957) on a sample of high school students (Myers H.S.); the second is the distribution of type in the MBTI data bank for the MBTI Form G (MBTIDB); the third is the distribution of type found in a nationwide random sample of 1,105 people completed in 1983 by SRI International (SRI); the fourth is the distribution of type found in the sample of this research (OSU). The distributions for the Myers H. S., MBTIDB, and SRI distributions are taken from the MBTI
Manual (Myers-Briggs & McCaulley, 1988, p. 50-51). One limitation of this technique is that there has been no census taken of the population's personality type, thus the true distribution of type in the population is not known.

Table 4

Sample Distributions of Type Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>ISTJ</th>
<th>ISFJ</th>
<th>INFJ</th>
<th>INTJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myers H. S.(^{a})</td>
<td>6.92%</td>
<td>6.82%</td>
<td>1.79%</td>
<td>2.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBTIDB(^{b})</td>
<td>12.59%</td>
<td>7.46%</td>
<td>3.73%</td>
<td>5.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRI(^{c})</td>
<td>19.10%</td>
<td>15.57%</td>
<td>2.99%</td>
<td>3.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSU(^{d})</td>
<td>8.70%</td>
<td>9.60%</td>
<td>3.50%</td>
<td>3.30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>ISTP</th>
<th>ISFP</th>
<th>INFP</th>
<th>INTP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myers H. S.</td>
<td>4.16%</td>
<td>5.40%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>3.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBTIDB</td>
<td>4.32%</td>
<td>3.66%</td>
<td>5.57%</td>
<td>5.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRI</td>
<td>6.06%</td>
<td>6.70%</td>
<td>3.80%</td>
<td>2.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSU</td>
<td>4.50%</td>
<td>5.90%</td>
<td>6.90%</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>ESTJ</th>
<th>ESFJ</th>
<th>ENFJ</th>
<th>ENTP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myers H. S.</td>
<td>6.52%</td>
<td>9.37%</td>
<td>7.60%</td>
<td>4.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBTIDB</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>4.47%</td>
<td>7.66%</td>
<td>5.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRI</td>
<td>3.98%</td>
<td>5.43%</td>
<td>3.71%</td>
<td>2.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSU</td>
<td>4.70%</td>
<td>5.70%</td>
<td>11.40%</td>
<td>4.30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>ESTJ</th>
<th>ESFJ</th>
<th>ENFJ</th>
<th>ENTP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myers H. S.</td>
<td>14.97%</td>
<td>13.97%</td>
<td>3.61%</td>
<td>3.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBTIDB</td>
<td>11.97%</td>
<td>7.63%</td>
<td>4.62%</td>
<td>6.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRI</td>
<td>9.96%</td>
<td>9.14%</td>
<td>2.26%</td>
<td>3.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSU</td>
<td>8.70%</td>
<td>8.30%</td>
<td>4.50%</td>
<td>4.30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
a) Myers H.S. refers to Myers-Briggs' sample of eleventh and twelfth grade high school students (N=9320).
b) MBTIDB refers to persons in the MBTI data banks whose records were scored between March 1978 and December 1982 (N=32,671).
c) SRI refers to data collected by SRI International (N=1105).  
d) OSU refers to data collected in the current study (N=508).
The distributions of types represented in the above table indicate that 
the MBTI-PHONE obtains roughly similar type distributions to those 
obtained in previous studies. However, this sample contains more INFP, 
INTP and ENFP types than would be expected and fewer ESTJ types. 
Thus, this sample does appear to represent more persons with perception 
and feeling preferences than would be expected. An analysis of the 
sample distributions of trait scores in Table Five confirms this conclusion.

Table 5
Sample Distributions of Trait Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Myers H.S.</th>
<th>MBTIDB</th>
<th>SRI</th>
<th>OSU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>64.85%</td>
<td>52.09%</td>
<td>40.44%</td>
<td>52.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introversion</td>
<td>35.15%</td>
<td>47.91%</td>
<td>59.56%</td>
<td>47.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensing</td>
<td>68.13%</td>
<td>56.32%</td>
<td>75.94%</td>
<td>56.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intuiting</td>
<td>31.87%</td>
<td>43.68%</td>
<td>24.06%</td>
<td>43.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>47.55%</td>
<td>55.21%</td>
<td>50.41%</td>
<td>44.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling</td>
<td>52.45%</td>
<td>44.79%</td>
<td>49.59%</td>
<td>56.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judging</td>
<td>54.63%</td>
<td>59.54%</td>
<td>66.17%</td>
<td>50.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceiving</td>
<td>45.37%</td>
<td>40.46%</td>
<td>33.83%</td>
<td>49.10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the OSU sample is most similar to the distribution of 
MBTI scores found in the MBTI databank. It appears as if the scores on 
the Extraversion/Introversion and Sensing/Intuiting dimensions are 
quite similar between these two samples. While the distribution of trait 
scores on the Thinking/Feeling and Judging/Perceiving dimensions are 
not as similar. Also, in answering a question about the distribution of 
trait scores in the population, Myers-Briggs (1962) concluded that in
general the U.S. population should prefer Extraversion, Sensing, Feeling and Judging. Although her conclusions were intuitive and not supported by data, the distribution of trait scores found in this sample confirm her expectations.

**Summary.**

The basic similarity of distributions of both the trait and type scores on the MBTI-PHONE to those obtained from other samples using traditional MBTI forms can be used as an indicator of the external validity of the new measure. The argument for content validity presented above is an indicator of the internal validity of the new measure. It should be possible to perform a check of criterion validity by administering both the MBTI-PHONE and another personality measure (such as the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire) which has been previously correlated with traditional versions of the MBTI. If the correlations were in the expected direction, an argument for criterion validity could be established. This analysis, however, is beyond the scope of the current project. Construct validity, it is argued, can be determined via the technique described by Myers-Briggs and McCaulley (see above): e.g. if individual differences in attitude or behavior occur according to the predictions of Jung’s theory, the MBTI-PHONE could be considered to have construct validity.

**Reliability and Validity of the Gratifications Obtained Measure**

Responses to the questions related to the gratifications obtained from each media were submitted to a SAS iterated principal axis factor subroutine to determine the number of dimensions undergirding the respondent’s answers. This procedure is consistent with the construct

Squared multiple correlations were used as communality estimates. Initially the program was instructed to retain zero factors. Scree plots of eigenvalues were examined for an indicator of the number of factors to retain and the discontinuity rule was applied to determine the cut-off point between the last factor and the leveling of the scree plot. The result of this analysis indicated that the expected two-factor solution for gratification obtained items did appear in the analysis.

The data were next submitted to a subroutine specifying an oblique rotation, due to the moderate correlations between the factors. The criteria for item loadings were set at .30 (rounded) with a minimum cross-loading difference of .15 on other factors and a minimum of three items loading on a factor. These criteria are consistent with those suggested for exploratory factor analysis by Kim and Meuller (1978a). Once the structure of the factors was determined, reliabilities for the gratifications obtained factors were computed using Cronbach’s alpha. The alpha reliabilities ranged from .75 to .86. The following section presents a detailed discussion of the results of the factor analysis procedures.

**TV gratifications obtained factor results.**

The factor loadings of the respondent ratings for the television gratification obtained items are presented in Table Six. The pattern reflects a clear structure with high loadings on one factor and low loadings on the other factor. All of the gratification items exceed the minimum loading criteria, with seven items comprising the affective
factor and nine items forming the cognitive factor.

The highest loading items on the affective factor are "to help you

Table 6

Principal Axis Factor Solution for TV Gratifications Obtained (N = 507)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help you unwind</td>
<td>.778</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help relieve stress</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td>-.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forget about daily pressures</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td>-.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help you feel less tense</td>
<td>.685</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help occupy your time</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put mind at ease</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To pass time</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand other people</td>
<td>-.074</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about new places</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know characters as friends</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure out plots and stories</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about things</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn to improve your life</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relive events from the past</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solve puzzles</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports and Games</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.357</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability - alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Variance Explained</th>
<th>100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interfactor Correlation</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
unwind" and "to help relieve stress." The items with the strongest loadings on the cognitive factor are "understand other people" and "learn about new places and things." The interfactor correlation for the two factors was .539. This is consistent with the interfactor correlations reported in previous research (Albarran, 1990; Dimmick, et al., 1987; Dimmick, et al., 1989; Dobos & Dimmick, 1988).

**VCR gratification obtained results.**

The factor solution for the VCR items is presented in Table Seven. One item "figure out plots and stories" loaded significantly on the affective factor but failed to achieve a significant \( \times > .15 \) cross-loading difference. The item "know characters as friends" loaded significantly on both factors and also failed to meet the separation criterion of .15 between factors. The affective and cognitive factors for the VCR gratifications obtained items consisted of seven variables each. The VCR factor pattern is generally similar to the TV solution reported above. "Help you unwind" and "help relieve stress" were again the highest loading on the affective dimension while "understand other people" was again the highest loading variable on the cognitive factor. The interfactor correlation of .478 was the weakest found in any of the three media examined in this study.

**Book gratifications obtained factor results.**

Table Eight presents the factor analysis results for the book gratification obtained items. Again the factor analysis results support the presupposition that the structure of gratifications obtained from books is affective/cognitive. One item, "to learn to improve your life" failed to load on either factor. Again, "to help relieve stress" and "to help you unwind" were the highest loading variables on the affective gratifications obtained.
Table 7

**Principal Axis Factor Solution for VCR Gratifications Obtained** (N = 401)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help you unwind</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>-.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help relieve stress</td>
<td>.748</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forget about daily pressures</td>
<td>.704</td>
<td>-.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put mind at ease</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To pass time</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help you feel less tense</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>-.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help occupy your time</td>
<td>.508</td>
<td>.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure out plots and stories*</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know characters as friends**</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>.368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand other people</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solve puzzles</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn to improve your life</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about new places</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about things</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td>.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports and Games</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relive events from the past</td>
<td>.170</td>
<td>.373</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability                           | .83      | .78      |
Common Variance Explained             | 100%     |
Interfactor Correlation               | .478     |

* Item does not meet criterion of .15 between factors
** Item double loads
Table 8

**Principal Axis Factor Solution for Book Gratifications Obtained** (N = 417)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help relieve stress</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>-.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help you unwind</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>-.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help you feel less tense</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td>-.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forget about daily pressures</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help occupy your time</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>-.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To pass time</td>
<td>.496</td>
<td>.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put mind at ease</td>
<td>.481</td>
<td>.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn to improve your life*</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about new places</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relive events from the past</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand other people</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know characters as friends</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure out plots and stories</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solve puzzles</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about things</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>.446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports and Games</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability  

| Common Variance Explained          | 100%     |
| Interfactor Correlation            | .510     |

* Item does not meet criterion of .30

factor. In a slight variation from the factor structures for TV and the VCR, "to learn about new places" and "to relive events from the past"
were the highest loading items on the cognitive factor structure.

**Summary of gratifications obtained factor results.**

Overall, the factor analysis of the gratifications obtained items for each medium produced consistent results in the hypothesized direction. The minor variations in factor loadings were expected given the results of previous studies (Albarran, 1990; Dimmick, et al., 1987; Dimmick, et al., 1989; Dobos & Dimmick, 1988). A limited number of items did not meet the loading criteria set at the beginning of the analysis and these items were dropped from subsequent analysis.

Two dimensions underlie audience gratifications obtained from the media. The affective factor describes those gratifications related to individual feelings and emotional states (e.g. to help you unwind, to help you relieve stress, to help you feel less tense). The second factor, cognitive gratifications obtained, contains variables relevant to information processing activities (e.g. to learn about new things, to understand other people, to solve puzzles).

The two factor principal axis solutions for each medium explained 100% of the common variance. The alpha reliability estimates indicate that in addition to being a valid understanding of the dimensionality of the gratifications obtained items, these factors possess a reasonable level of reliability. In the analysis presented below, scales for the gratification obtained items were constructed by generating a mean scale score for all of the items loading significantly on a factor. This technique of factor-based scoring is consistent with that recommended by Kim and Meuller (1982a, 1982b).
Tests of the Differences in Gratifications Obtained

This section seeks to explore the differences in gratifications obtained from the media as explained by the personality variables. The first set of tests seeks to explore the patterns of individual difference in gratifications obtained. The second set of analyses seeks to identify which medium is the most important in understanding the patterns of individual difference. Upon completion of this second set of analyses, it is possible to evaluate the media preference hypotheses presented in the first chapter. As multiple hypotheses are tested by each analysis, a hypothesis-by-hypothesis analysis is withheld until the summary section (page 115). The next sections present the sum of the analysis from which the hypotheses will be evaluated.

Multiple Analysis of Variance Tests for Individual Differences

This section presents the results of the hypotheses regarding individual differences, defined by personality trait/type, in gratifications obtained from the media. The first step in this hypothesis testing is to explore the pattern of mean differences of scores on a gratification obtained dimension by persons characterized by different personality traits/ types. Recall that the four personality trait dimensions -- extraversion/introversion (E/I), sensing/intuiting (S/N), thinking/feeling (T/F), and judging/perceiving (J/P) -- should be analyzed individually and in combination. These combinations are called types. There are three levels of type analysis that are possible utilizing Jung's theory and the MBTI operationalization. The first level of type analysis identifies individual differences based on combinations of the two functional traits (S/N and T/F) called the functional types (S/T, S/F, N/F, N/T). The second
level of type analysis represents the eight pure types described in chapter two and the third level of type analysis represents the 16 types determined by the interaction of all four trait dimensions.

To test hypotheses at both the trait and type levels, a 4x6 MANOVA was performed with personality trait/type as the independent variables and gratifications obtained as the dependent variables. The statistical procedure was directed to compute a full factorial model which allows the trait dimensions to combine into all possible patterns. While this technique may produce combinations of traits not directly specified by Jung's theory, this test is an exhaustive test of the individual difference hypotheses. Table Nine summarizes the main effects for the MANOVA.

The results of the MANOVA of personality by gratifications obtained from the media indicates significant main effects along the lines predicted by theory. The function traits (sensing/intuiting and thinking/feeling) revealed both significant interaction and direct effects, while the attitude traits (extraversion/introversion and judging/perceiving) showed a significant interaction effect.

The next step in this analysis is to unpack the significant main effects of the MANOVA model by analyzing the significant univariate differences. The main effect for the interaction between S/N and T/F results in significant univariate differences between the four functional types in relation to affective gratifications obtained from the VCR. Table Ten presents the results of the univariate test.
Table 9

**Main Effects of the MANOVA of Personality by Gratifications Obtained**

(DF for all analysis = 6, 1716)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Wilks Lambda</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E/I x S/N x T/F x J/P</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N x T/F x J/P</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I x T/F x J/P</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I x S/N x J/P</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I x S/N x T/F</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/F x J/P</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>.624</td>
<td>.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N x J/P</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>.744</td>
<td>.989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N x T/F</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I x J/P</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I x T/F</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I x S/N</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J/P</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/F</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E/I</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>.962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10

Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect S/N x T/F and Affective Gratifications Obtained from the VCR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensing x Thinking</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.622</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensing x Feeling</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>.717</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intuiting x Feeling</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intuiting x Thinking</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ F = 4.33, \text{df} = 1, 286, p < .01, \eta^2 = .034 \]

The mean scores for each of the function combinations reveals a difference such that persons oriented to intuition and feeling obtain more affective gratifications from the VCR than do other types, followed by S/T, N/F and S/F combinations. Thus, those persons characterized as judging ideas and possibilities based on feeling obtain more affective (escape/diversion) gratifications from the VCR than other types. Those persons using their feeling to make judgments about facts obtain the least amount of gratifications. The eta-squared value indicates that the strength of this difference is relatively weak, explaining just over three percent of the variance.

The main effect for the interaction between E/I and J/P results in significant univariate differences between the two attitude dialectics in relation to affective gratifications obtained from books. Table Eleven presents the results of the univariate test.
Table 11

Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect E/I x J/P and Affective Gratifications Obtained from Books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion x Judging</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion x Perceiving</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introversion x Perceiving</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.617</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introversion x Judging</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.701</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = 9.31, df = 1, 286, p < .01, \( \eta^2 = .032 \)

The results of the univariate test of differences for the main effect E/I by J/P reveals that individuals oriented to the judging function (E/J and I/P combinations) obtain more affective gratifications from books than do persons oriented to the perceiving function (E/P and I/J combinations). In other words, persons who have thinking or feeling as their primary function obtain more affective gratifications from books than do persons who report sensing or intuiting as their primary function. Again the eta-squared value indicates a relatively weak difference exists between people.

The main effect for perceiving function (S/N) results in significant univariate differences between the sensing and intuiting persons in relation to cognitive gratifications obtained from the TV. Table Twelve presents the means and standard deviations of the significant univariate relationships.
The results of the univariate test of differences for the perceiving function (S/N) reveals that individuals oriented to sensing obtain more cognitive gratifications from TV than do persons oriented to intuition. The eta-squared value indicates a relatively weak difference exists between people.

The main effect for judging functions (T/F) results in significant univariate differences between the thinking and feeling persons in relation to cognitive gratifications obtained from the TV, VCR, and books and in relation to affective gratifications obtained from books. Tables Thirteen to Sixteen report the means and standard deviations of the significant univariate relationships.
Table 13

Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from the TV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.569</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = 10.63, df = 1, 286, p < .001, eta² = .036

Table Thirteen indicates that feeling persons report significantly more cognitive gratifications obtained from the television than do thinking persons. The eta-squared value indicates a relatively weak level of difference between people.

Table 14

Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from the VCR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>.591</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>.681</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = 4.79, df = 1, 286, p < .03, eta² = .017

Table Fourteen indicates that feeling persons obtain significantly more cognitive gratifications from the VCR than do thinking persons. The eta-squared value indicates a relatively weak level of difference.
Table 15

Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and
Cognitive Gratifications Obtained from Books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.648</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ F = 3.96, \text{df} = 1, 286, p < .05, \eta^2 = .014 \]

Table Fifteen indicates that feeling persons obtain significantly more cognitive gratifications from books than do thinking persons. The eta-squared value indicates a relatively weak level of difference between people.

Table 16

Univariate ANOVA for Main Effect T/F and
Affective Gratifications Obtained from Books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ F = 16.67, \text{df} = 1, 286, p < .001, \eta^2 = .055 \]

Table Sixteen indicates that feeling persons obtain significantly more affective gratifications from books than do thinking persons. The eta-
squared value for this univariate test is the highest of any of the univariate ANOVAs. In addition, the mean score for feeling persons on the scale "affective gratifications obtained from books (BKAFF)" is higher than the mean score for feeling persons on any other gratifications obtained dimension. This is an indication that feeling persons obtain the most gratifications from books compared to any other media.

Summary.

The results of the 4x6 MANOVA reveal that individual differences based on personality descriptions do indeed exist. The data were analyzed using a full-factorial specification which included all the personality variables and all of the media gratifications obtained variables in the analysis. This specification had the result of limiting the analysis to only the 302 cases which reported using all three media. In order to increase the power of the test, three 4x2 MANOVAs were run as follow up tests. This allowed analysis on a medium by medium basis which increased the cell case count. These follow up tests confirmed the significant individual differences which emerged in the original analysis (although the numbers differed) and no new significant differences were obtained.

Multiple Discriminant Analysis (MDA) of Media Preferences

The MANOVA results indicate that individual differences in gratifications obtained do exist. This analysis seeks to identify the patterns of media preference indicated by the existence of individual differences. Multiple Discriminant Analysis (MDA) is the appropriate statistical test of these hypotheses as the personality measure produces known groups of individuals upon which to classify cases. The MDA reveals which gratification obtained dimension is most effective in
discriminating between the various personality groups and is therefore the most effective in describing the differences between the groups. MDA is the logical opposite of MANOVA, and as such we would expect the MDA to confirm the MANOVA results as well as to provide the inter-media comparisons unobtainable through MANOVA.

The MDA provides a functional structure based on the pooled within-groups correlations of the gratifications obtained items and then assigns a "group centroid" value to each of the classification variables (personality trait/type) on each of the functions. This group centroid value represents a classification variable's relationship to the discriminant function based on normalized scores (i.e. ranging from +1 to -1 with a mean of 0). Thus, the function structure reveals which media gratification obtained dimension best explains the differences between traits/types and the group centroids describe the relationship of the personality variable to the gratifications obtained function.

Discriminant analyses were run at the levels of the traits, the four-functional combinations, the eight pure types and the sixteen MBTI types. While all of the gratifications obtained scales were theoretically important, the goal of the MDA was to determine which gratifications obtained scales best described the group differences postulated by the personality theory. Thus, a stepwise procedure was utilized to select the most useful discriminating variables. The selection criteria used was the "MaxminF" option of SPSSX which enters variables according to their ability to differentiate between groups. If a gratifications obtained scale did not meet the inclusion criteria specified, it was not used in the computation of the discriminant function nor the subsequent
classification analysis. However, structure coefficients for the variables eliminated in the stepwise procedure were computed as they should contribute to the interpretation of the discriminant function (Klecka, 1980).

The SPSSX procedure was instructed to use the default criteria for computing discriminant function and structure coefficients. Wilks Lambda was computed and utilized as the measure of the number and significance of discriminant functions. To determine function structure, structure coefficients based on the pooled within-groups correlations were used rather than the standardized canonical discriminant functions coefficients in order to control for the colinearity indicated by the moderate correlations of the gratifications obtained scales (Lachenburch, 1975). The pooled within-groups correlation matrix is included in the presentation of results as these correlations are used in computing function eigenvalues.

While the eigenvalue is an indication of the discriminatory power of a function, Klecka (1980) indicates that the classification results provide the most "intuitive" measure of discriminatory power. In addition to the "percentage" score, the tau statistic was also computed. The tau statistic is a proportional reduction in error (PRE) statistic derived by Goodman and Kruskal (Blalock, 1979, p. 303). Tau provides a measure of the discriminating variables' ability to account for group differences beyond random probability. Tau allows comparison of the discriminant models on the basis of each model's ability to account for group differences. Significant discriminant functions were computed for the S/N and T/F trait dimensions, for the four functional types and the sixteen MBTI
types. No significant discriminant functions could be computed for the eight pure types or the E/I or J/P trait dimensions. Tables Seventeen to Nineteen present the results of the discriminant analysis of gratifications obtained used to classify sensing and intuiting persons.

Table 17

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sensing/Intuiting Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids

Function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GO Type</th>
<th>.1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>-.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>.441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>-.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks Lambda</td>
<td>.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>11.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Group Centroids

Sensing   .188
Intuiting .212
Table 18
Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sensing/Intuiting
Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TVAFF</th>
<th>TVCOG</th>
<th>VCRAFF</th>
<th>VCRCOG</th>
<th>BKAFF</th>
<th>BKCOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>.513</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td>.459</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.499</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19
Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sensing/Intuiting
Classification Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicted Group</th>
<th>Actual Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sensing</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>67.5%</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intuiting</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>52.1%</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percent of grouped cases correctly classified = 58.28%  tau = .16

The results of the discriminant analysis of the gratifications obtained by sensing and intuiting persons reveals one significant discriminant function to which TV cognitive gratifications obtained and VCR affective
gratifications obtained have the strongest loading. TVCOG gratifications obtained have a negative relationship to the function and the VCRAFF a positive relation. An analysis of the group centroids indicates that sensing persons and intuiting persons can be discriminated on the basis of the gratifications obtained from the media such that sensing persons are best discriminated by a preference for television cognitive gratifications obtained. Intuiting persons on the other hand are discriminated by a negative preference for cognitive gratifications obtained from the TV while reporting a positive preference for affective gratifications obtained from the VCR.

Thus, it can be concluded that use of the television media for cognitive gratifications is more likely among sensing than intuiting persons while use of the VCR for affective gratifications is more likely among intuiting rather than sensing persons. The classification results indicate that a very weak predictive relationship exists. In addition, the extremely low eigenvalue and large Wilks Lambda questions the effectiveness of any of the gratifications obtained dimensions to discriminate between sensing and intuiting persons.

Tables Twenty through Twenty-Two present the results of the multiple discriminant analysis of gratifications obtained by the Thinking/Feeling trait dimension.
Table 20

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Thinking/Feeling

Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GO Type</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>BKAFF</th>
<th>TVCOG</th>
<th>VCRCOG</th>
<th>BKCOG</th>
<th>TVAFF</th>
<th>VCRAFF</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Wilks Lambda</th>
<th>Chi Square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.746</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>.381</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>24.31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Group Centroids

Thinking  | -.332
Feeling   | .255
Table 21

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Thinking/Feeling

Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TVAFF</th>
<th>TVCOG</th>
<th>VCRAFF</th>
<th>VCRCOG</th>
<th>BKAFF</th>
<th>BKCOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.302</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Thinking/Feeling

Classification Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Thinking</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Feeling</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>80.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percent of grouped cases correctly classified = 63.58%  tau = .26

The results of the discriminant analysis of the gratifications obtained by thinking and feeling persons reveals one significant discriminant function to which book affective and TV cognitive gratifications obtained
have the strongest loading. Both of these gratifications obtained types have a positive relation to the discriminant function and book affective gratifications obtained accounts for the majority of the variance in the function. An analysis of the group centroids indicates that thinking persons and feeling persons can be discriminated on the basis of the gratifications obtained from the media such that feeling persons demonstrate a preference for book affective gratifications obtained and TV cognitive gratifications obtained. Thinking persons on the other hand are discriminated by a negative preference for affective gratifications obtained from books and cognitive gratifications obtained from the television.

It can be concluded that use of the book for affective gratifications is more likely among feeling than thinking persons and use of the TV for cognitive gratifications is more likely among feeling rather than thinking persons. The classification results indicate that a weak predictive relationship exists. The tau statistic indicates that the use of gratifications obtained scales do help to understand some of the basic differences between thinking and feeling persons.

The results of the discriminant analysis of the gratifications obtained by the four functional types computed three discriminant functions, two of which were statistically significant. Examination of the two function structure revealed that book affective gratifications obtained (BKAFF) contributed significantly to each of the two significant functions. The second function appeared to be primarily oriented to VCR affective gratifications obtained (VCRAFF). Klecka (1980, p. 35) warns against preference of statistical significance over substantive significance in determining the number of discriminant functions. Given the results of
the MANOVA (which indicated significant differences between the four functional types in affective gratifications obtained from the VCR) the two function solution was deemed superior. The second function is interpreted as consisting primarily of the scores of VCR gratifications obtained (VCRAFF). Tables Twenty-Three through Twenty-Five present the results of the multiple discriminant analysis of gratifications obtained by the four functional combinations: Sensing/Thinking (ST), Sensing/Feeling (SF), Intuiting/Thinking (NT), and Intuiting/Feeling (NF).
Table 23

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Four Functional Types

Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>GO Type</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Eigenvalue | .110 | .047 |
| Wilks Lambda | .853 | .947 |
| Chi Square | 46.980 | 16.130 |
| DF         | 15   | 8    |
| Significance | .000 | .040 |

Group Centroids

| ST  | -.190 | -.006 |
| SF  | .434  | -.177 |
| NT  | -.476 | -.194 |
| NF  | .044  | .331 |
Table 24
Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Four Functional Types

Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TVAFF</th>
<th>TVCOG</th>
<th>VCRAFF</th>
<th>VCRCOG</th>
<th>BKAFF</th>
<th>BKCOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>.492</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25
Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Four Functional Types

Classification Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicted Group</th>
<th>Actual Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) ST</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) SF</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) NT</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) NF</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percent of grouped cases correctly classified = 34.77%  
$\tau = .12$
The first function discriminates between the four functional types on the basis of affective gratifications obtained from books and cognitive gratifications obtained from television. The second significant function discriminates primarily on the basis of affective gratifications obtained from the VCR. The group centroids indicate that sensing/feeling and intuiting/thinking combinations are discriminated best by function one and that intuiting/feeling types are best discriminated by function two. Sensing/Thinking types are not effectively discriminated by any of the functions, which is reflected in the classification results.

It can be concluded that use of books for affective gratifications and the television for cognitive gratifications is most likely among sensing/feeling combinations and least likely among intuiting/thinking combinations. Intuiting/feeling combinations are more likely to receive affective gratifications from the VCR than any other type. The classification results indicate that a weak predictive relationship exists. Tables Twenty-Six through Twenty-Eight present the results of the multiple discriminant analysis of gratifications obtained by the sixteen types. Table Twenty-Eight is an abbreviated version of the classification table, as the size of the table made textual presentation prohibitive. The classification results for the MDA of gratifications obtained by the sixteen types is presented in Appendix B. Again, the analysis computed three discriminant functions, two of which were statistically significant. Here, however, there was a clearer distinction of which function the book affective gratifications obtained (BKAFF) variable belonged. Thus, both substantively and statistically, the two function solution was justified.
Table 26

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of the Sixteen Types

Structure Coefficients and Group Centroids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GO Type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td>.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks Lambda</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td>.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>83.22</td>
<td>42.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Centroids</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ESTJ</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENTJ</td>
<td>-.151</td>
<td>-.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESFJ</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td>-.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENFJ</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESTP</td>
<td>-.642</td>
<td>.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESFP</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENTP</td>
<td>-.712</td>
<td>.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENFP</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 26 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ISTJ</td>
<td>-.219</td>
<td>-.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISFJ</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>-.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTJ</td>
<td>-1.03</td>
<td>-.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFJ</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISTP</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>-.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTP</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISFP</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>-.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFP</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27

Gratifications Obtained: Discriminant Analysis of Sixteen Types

Pooled Within-Groups Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TVAFF</th>
<th>TVCOG</th>
<th>VCRAFF</th>
<th>VCRCOG</th>
<th>BKAFF</th>
<th>BKCOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TVAFF</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVCOG</td>
<td>.508</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRAFF</td>
<td>.586</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCRCOG</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKAFF</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKCOG</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>.341</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>.492</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analysis of the structure matrix indicates the first function is best described by gratifications obtained from books (BKAFF and BKCOG) and cognitive gratifications obtained from TV (TVCOG). The second function is best described by affective gratifications obtained from the VCR (VCRAFF), followed by affective gratifications obtained from TV (TVAFF) and cognitive gratifications obtained from the VCR (VCRCOG).

The group centroids reveal that function one is an excellent discriminator of ESTP, ENTP, and INTJ types. It also appears as if function one is moderately effective in discriminating ESFJ, ENFJ, and ISFP types. Function two is less effective in general in discriminating between types than is function one. Function two is best able to discriminate INTJ and INFJ types while exhibiting a moderate ability to discriminate ESTJ, ENTJ, ESTP, ISTJ, ISTP, ISFP and INFP types. ESFP, ENFP, and INTP types are not effectively discriminated by either function. In order to clarify an understanding of the group centroids and the relation of personality type to the discriminant functions, Table Twenty-Nine utilizes the type-table format developed by Myers-Briggs and McCaulley (1985) to summarize the relationship of personality type to the gratifications obtained discriminant functions.
Table 28  
**Type Table of Group Centroid Scores for the Sixteen Types on Two Discriminant Functions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>ISTJ</th>
<th>ISFJ</th>
<th>INFJ</th>
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<td>Two</td>
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<td>-.293</td>
<td>.311</td>
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</table>

The first pattern that appears on the type table indicates that sensing/feeling types are effectively discriminated by the first discriminant function. Persons who are characterized by being generally sympathetic and friendly are likely to use books to receive affective gratifications. Intuiting/Feeling types on the other hand, are best discriminated by their preference for affective gratifications obtained from the VCR. Thinking/Judging combinations, the logical decision makers, are generally discriminated by a dislike for the media in general, as their centroid scores demonstrate a negative relationship to the functions every case but one. Those Thinking/Judging persons characterized by an extraversion preference do appear to be discriminated from other types on the basis of positive responses to the scale of affective gratifications.
obtained from the VCR.

Feeling/Judging types are generally characterized by a positive relationship to discriminant function one, especially among extraverts. Feeling/Judging types are therefore characterized by a preference for affective gratifications obtained from books. Introverted/Sensing combinations are generally discriminated by a negative preference for affective gratifications obtained from the VCR. Extraverted/Thinking types are discriminated by a negative preference for gratifications obtained from books, while the opposite Introverted/Feeling types are characterized by positive scores on book affective gratifications obtained. Finally, Introverted/Thinking types are effectively discriminated by a negative preference for any of the media utilized in this study.

While being the least effective of any of the MDA's (tau = .07), the 16 type analysis does help to understand the results of the other MDA's. A general sensing preference for television and feeling preference for books is consistently displayed across all analyses. The 16 type analysis reveals that it is primarily the feeling component of personality which can predict an orientation to books, especially affective gratifications obtained from that medium. The notion of opposition in personality is confirmed when, in the 16 type analysis, Thinking persons are characterized by a dislike (a negative preference) for books, especially affective gratifications obtained from the book medium.

Contrary to the hypotheses, it appears as if Thinking and Feeling types are not discriminated by an orientation to type of gratification obtained, but rather the gratifications obtained scores on particular media. This conclusion is supported by the MANOVA results which
indicate that feeling persons report significantly more cognitive and affective gratifications obtained from all media than do thinking persons. It appears as if Thinking types generally report low levels of gratifications obtained from any of the media.

Summary of Results - Hypothesis by Hypothesis

This section concludes the results by presenting the findings of specific tests on a hypothesis by hypothesis basis.

H1: The entertainment gratifications obtained from television will be of two types: affective and cognitive.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis indicate support for the two-factor structure. While the strong two-factor structure emerged, one of the a priori affective items ("to relive events from the past") loaded on the cognitive scale. This aberration was consistent across all three media and did not affect any of the analysis. In addition to construct validity, the TV gratifications obtained scales demonstrated a reasonable level of reliability.

H2: The entertainment gratifications obtained from books will be of two types: affective and cognitive.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis again provides evidence indicating a two-factor solution. Although one item ("to help you learn to improve your life") failed to load on either factor, the general structure of affective and cognitive gratifications obtained from books was supported. The scales of gratifications obtained from books exhibited the highest levels of reliability of any of the gratifications obtained scales.

H3: The entertainment gratifications obtained from the VCR will be of two types: affective and cognitive.
The results of the exploratory factor analysis again indicate a two-factor solution is appropriate. Here however, two a priori cognitive items ("figure out plots and stories" and "know characters as friends") failed to load with certainty on either factor. The two factor structure was readily apparent and the scales again demonstrate acceptable levels of internal consistency.

H4: Sensing people will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from the television medium than intuiting people.

The results of the 4 x 6 MANOVA indicate a sensing preference for cognitive gratifications obtained from television (M Sensing = 2.82, M Intuiting = 2.71; F=4.20, df = 1,286, p<.05). The same trend is not statistically significant in relation to affective gratifications obtained from television (M Sensing = 2.87, M Intuiting = 2.85; F=0.83, NS). The significant difference in cognitive gratifications obtained from television between sensing and intuiting persons was also not particularly powerful (eta^2 = .02). Some statistically significant evidence exists to allow the rejection of the null hypothesis.

H5: Sensing people will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from the VCR than intuiting people.

The results of the MANOVA revealed no significant differences between sensing and intuiting persons and their gratifications obtained from the VCR. While it appears that Intuiting persons do show a preference for affective gratifications obtained when allowed to interact with the Thinking/Feeling trait dimension, no significant univariate differences exist. The null is not rejected and it is concluded that sensing and intuiting persons do not differ in their cognitive and affective
gratifications obtained from the VCR.

H6: Intuiting people will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from books than sensing people.

The results of the MANOVA offer no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. The null is accepted and it is concluded that there is no difference in gratifications obtained from books between sensing and intuiting individuals.

H7: Introverts will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from television than extraverts.

The results of the MANOVA offer no evidence for rejecting the null hypothesis. The null is not rejected and it is concluded that there is no difference in gratifications obtained from television between extraverted and introverted persons.

H8: Introverts will obtain more cognitive and affective gratifications from the VCR than extraverts.

The results of the MANOVA offer no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. The null is accepted and it is concluded that there is no difference in gratifications obtained from the VCR between extraverted and introverted persons.

H9: Thinking persons will obtain more cognitive than affective gratifications from all three media than feeling persons.

The results of the MANOVA provide no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. Indeed, the MANOVA results indicate that feeling persons actually obtain more cognitive gratifications from television (M Thinking = 2.67, M Feeling = 2.85; F=10.63, df=1,286, p<.001), the VCR (M Thinking = 2.11, M Feeling = 2.26; F=4.79, df= 1,286, P<.03),
and books (M Thinking = 3.14, M Feeling = 3.26; F = 3.96, df=1,286, p<.05) than do thinking persons. Thus, acceptance of the null hypothesis of no difference is also unwarranted. Contrary to the hypothesis, the evidence gathered in this research indicates that feeling persons obtain more cognitive gratifications from all three media than thinking persons.

H10: Feeling persons will obtain more affective than cognitive gratifications from all three media than thinking persons.

The results of the MANOVA offer limited evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. Feeling persons report significantly more affective gratifications obtained from books than do thinking persons (M Feeling = 3.46, M Thinking = 3.19; F=16.67, df=1,286, p<.001). The power of this difference ($\eta^2 = .06$) is greater than for any of the significant differences observed between thinking and feeling persons in relation to cognitive gratifications obtained. In addition, although not significant, the mean scores indicate that Feeling persons are likely to report more affective gratifications obtained from TV (M Thinking = 2.80, M Feeling = 2.91) and the VCR (M Thinking = 2.75, M Feeling = 2.87) than thinking persons.

H11: Intuiting - Thinking types will obtain more cognitive gratifications from books than other types.

The results of the MANOVA provide no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. There is no difference between the four functional combinations and gratifications obtained from books.

H12: Intuiting - Feeling types will obtain more affective gratifications from books than other types.

The results of the MANOVA offer no evidence that the null
hypothesis should be rejected. The acceptance of the null hypothesis indicates that there are no differences between the four functional types in relation to affective gratifications obtained from books.

H13: Sensing - Thinking types will obtain more cognitive gratifications from television than other types.

The results of the MANOVA provide no evidence in support of the rejection of the null hypothesis. Accepting the null indicates that there is no difference between the four functional types in relation to the cognitive gratifications obtained from television.

H14: Sensing - Feeling types will obtain more affective gratifications from television than other types.

The results of the MANOVA indicate that we should accept the null hypothesis. The statistical evidence indicates no significant differences between the four functional types in relation to affective gratifications obtained from the television.

H15: Introverted - Sensing - Thinking types will obtain more cognitive gratifications from television than other types.

The results of the MANOVA indicate no significant main effects differences between the eight pure types. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted that there are no significant differences in cognitive gratifications obtained from the television between the eight pure types.

H16: Introverted - Sensing - Feeling types will obtain more affective gratifications from TV than other types.

The results of the MANOVA provide no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. The acceptance of the null hypothesis indicates no significant differences exist between the eight pure types in
affective gratifications obtained from the television.

H17: People with intuiting as the primary function will prefer books to television and the VCR.

The results of the Multiple Discriminant Analysis provide no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. Intuiting types are best characterized by relatively low scores in both cognitive and affective gratifications obtained from books in relation to other types. Instead of accepting the null hypothesis of no preference, the statistical evidence argues that intuiting persons are best described by an aversion to the use of books to obtain gratifications. The strong negative group centroid scores for Intuitive types at both the 4 and 16 type levels provides evidence for this assertion.

H18: People with sensing as their primary function will prefer television to books and the VCR.

The results of the MDA of sensing/intuiting groups provides evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. Cognitive gratifications obtained from television comprised the largest explanatory force in discriminating between sensing and intuiting persons compared to all of the other gratifications obtained scales. The group centroid score for sensing persons indicate that they are best characterized by a preference for cognitive gratifications obtained from television.

H19: People oriented primarily to the introverted attitude will prefer TV to books and the VCR.

The MDA provides no evidence in support of rejecting the null hypothesis. Indeed, the results indicate that extraverted and introverted
persons cannot be characterized as having a preference for any one of the three media in this study relative to the others. The null hypothesis is accepted.

In general, the tests of the specific hypotheses were disappointing. Of the sixteen hypotheses linking personality theory to gratifications obtained from the media, only two (H4 and H10) were significant in the hypothesized direction. While the null hypothesis of no difference was accepted in thirteen instances, the results indicate that significant differences opposite the hypothesized direction were detected in relation to H9. The next and final chapter summarizes these results and provides a rationale for their interpretation.
CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This chapter begins with a recapitulation of the results and a discussion of why these results emerged. The second part of this chapter deals with the limitations of the statistical evidence reported in chapter four. This chapter concludes with a discussion of avenues for further research opened by this dissertation.

The Results of This Study

Overall, it is encouraging to report that the two general propositions of this research were confirmed by the evidence gathered. These two propositions were, first, the existence of a cognitive/affective gratification structure and, second, that there would be demonstrable differences between personality types and their gratifications obtained from the media. The next section summarizes the patterns of findings.

Summary of Results

The results of the exploratory factor analysis were highly supportive of a cognitive/affective, two-factor solution. In relation to all three media, the same factor structure emerged with similar patterns of items loading on a factor. The pattern of items loading on factors represents a relatively simple structure of a clear fit of variables on factors with a variable having a high loading on one factor and a low loading of the other. Adequate testing of the hypotheses relating to gratification structure (H1 - H3)
should be conducted utilizing confirmatory factor analysis. This exploratory analysis is an important first step toward this goal, as this information is essential for the specification search technique utilized in confirmatory factor analysis (Leamer, 1978; Long, 1983).

It was interesting to note that in all cases, the affective factor emerged first. In other words, the majority of the variance of the gratifications obtained items was explained by an underlying "variable" of affective gratifications obtained from the media. Given the bias of principle axis extraction in factor analysis toward overweighting the importance of the first factor (see Kim & Mueller, 1978b), it is especially encouraging that the cognitive items were so clearly differentiated from the affective. In relation to all media, the second factor clearly represented the variance contained in the cognitive gratifications obtained items.

Post-hoc paired T-Tests (Hays, 1988) were conducted on a medium by medium basis to determine the level of difference in cognitive vs. affective gratifications obtained from the media. For all three media, respondents reported significantly more affective than cognitive gratifications obtained. The general conclusion can be made that in relation to entertainment media, people obtain more affective than cognitive gratifications. It is possible that in relation to information media, cognitive gratifications would emerge as the first factor.

The factor analysis results point to the importance of affective gratifications obtained in understanding a person's orientation to entertainment media. Recall from chapter three that the affective gratifications obtained items were designed to measure gratifications
related to individual feelings and emotional states. The cognitive gratifications obtained items were designed to measure gratifications related to acquiring and processing information. Respondents in this study use the entertainment media to obtain primarily affective gratifications.

The results indicate that feeling persons obtained more affective and cognitive gratifications from the entertainment media than do thinking persons. The MANOVA results indicate the importance of the thinking/feeling trait dimension in accounting for differences in the gratifications obtained scores. The significant interaction between E/I and J/P confirms this conclusion. The particular pattern of mean scores from the combination of these two traits (E/J; E/P; I/J; I/P) reveals that the judging function (T/F) was more important than the perceiving function (S/N) in accounting for individual differences.

One reason for this importance of the judging function may be that respondents were asked to make a "judgment" about their gratifications obtained from the media. The gratifications obtained questions required people to exercise their judging function. Thus, the judging function may have emerged as the best differentiator of gratifications obtained as the entire notion of gratifications obtained is grounded in the evaluation model of expectancy-value research. Thus, the importance of the Judging function of Jung's theory of the types in relating to gratifications obtained from the media confirms the general assumption of uses and gratifications research that audience members are active in their evaluation of the media use experience and that they can report their preferences when asked.
The specific tests of the hypotheses indicate a preference by sensing persons for television compared to intuiting persons. Thus, for entertainment purposes, sensing persons obtain more gratifications from television than intuiting persons. The results indicate, however, that sensing persons were no less likely to use the VCR or books for gratifications than intuiting persons. The supposition of the first chapter of significant inter-channel differences based on the physical characteristics of the media receives only weak support in this research.

In understanding the pattern of individual differences between the four functional types (S/T, S/F, N/T, N/F - see Table Ten), the importance of the perceiving function to the personality theory is evidenced. It was indicated above that in general, feeling persons obtain more gratifications from the entertainment media than thinking persons. When combined with the perceiving function (S/N), it was revealed that the judging function (T/F) was mediated by a person's score on the S/N scale in relation to new communication technology. Specifically, intuitive/feelers obtained more affective gratifications from the VCR than sensing/feelers. These two types were most opposite in their gratifications obtained from the VCR.

Thus, it appears that the intuitive preference for new and innovative things (Jung, CW 6) is capable of mediating the dominance of the T/F trait dimension in describing individual differences in relation to new communication technologies. In addition, the multiple discriminant analysis results indicate that sensing/feeling types were discriminated best by gratifications obtained from books while intuitive/feeling types were discriminated by gratifications obtained from the VCR. The
perceiving function appears to mediate the judgment function in relation to new technologies. Indeed, those persons with intuiting as their primary function (ENFP, ENTP, INFJ, INTJ) all demonstrate a preference for the VCR compared to books (see Table 29).

The division between extraversion and introversion was not manifest in differences in gratifications obtained from the media. Thus, media use contributes equally to the ability to obtain gratifications regardless of one's orientation to the external or internal world. Media use can be understood to be both an internally and externally oriented communication activity. Also, no significant differences were obtained between judging and perceiving persons. It can be concluded that equal levels of gratifications can be obtained from media use regardless of whether a person shows a preference for planning (judging) or spontaneity (perceiving).

Why the Differences Emerged

In relation to the perceiving function, there were significant differences detected between sensing and intuiting persons. It appears that the amount of sensory stimulation does make a difference in understanding a sensing preference for television. This result confirms the conclusion of Nolan and Patterson (1990) of a general sensing preference for the television medium. However, the preference of intuiting people for the VCR medium may alter this interpretation.

The intuitive preference for the "new communication technology" indicates that the true reason for this difference between sensing and intuitive people may be on the basis of novelty. Intuitive persons demonstrate an orientation to novelty not expressed by their sensing counterparts (CW 6). Thus, another explanation for these findings is that
television represents a fairly comfortable and understandable media communication technology which appeals to sensing persons both because of its sensory stimulation but also because of its "oldness." Intuiting persons may demonstrate their preference for imagination and the unconscious in a preference for the "new" technologies rather than from an orientation to the type of sensory input.

In relation to the feeling preference for the media in general when compared to thinking persons, it is important to return to an understanding of the gratifications obtained measure employed in this study. This study indicates that feeling persons obtain more gratifications from entertainment media than do thinking persons. Indeed the multiple discriminant analysis of the sixteen types indicates a strong thinking dislike for any media use for entertainment purposes. Thinking persons may see entertainment media use as a waste of time in general, because of its lack of a clear goal orientation. Media use for surveillance (information seeking) however may be especially appealing to thinking persons, thus further research should examine the role of news media in accounting for differences between thinking and feeling persons. In other words, thinking persons obtain significantly less gratification than feeling persons from entertainment media use.

Another explanation for the feeling orientation to the entertainment media may be grounded in the exposure situations of the three media described in chapter one. Media use very frequently occurs in groups of people. Feeling people in general demonstrate a preference for human relationships not exhibited by their thinking counterparts (CW 6). Thus, it is possible that feeling persons use the entertainment media to create
social viewing situations. This supposition is, however, untestable given the evidence gathered in this research.

Limitations

In general, this study was executed according to the standard research procedures for telephone survey research. As an estimate of the representativeness of the sample, the variables of age and income were compared to available statistics for the general population of the Franklin county area (Statistical Abstracts, 1991). In terms of age, 46.9% of the sample were below age 35, 34.7% of the sample were between 36 and 55 years of age, and 18.4% of the sample were aged 56 or above. The median age for the sample was 36 to 40 years of age while the median age for Franklin County Residents was 30.27. Thus, this sample appears to over-represent older persons. In terms of household income, 38.6% of the sample earned less than $30,000 per year, 31.1% of the sample earned between $30,000 and $50,000 per year, and 30.3% of the sample earned over $50,000 per year. The median income for the sample was between $35,001 and $40,000 per year, while the median household income for Franklin County residents was $33,983. Thus, this sample appears to be older and richer than would be expected in a random sample of Franklin County.

A second limitation for this research is in the validity of the personality measure. In chapter four it was stated that the best argument for the construct validity of the MBTI-PHONE would be its relative degree of predictive validity. Given that only 2 of the 16 hypotheses linking the personality measure and gratifications obtained were supported, the validity of the personality measure must be called into question. The failure of the predictive validity test could emerge from one of two sources.
First, it could be possible that in reducing the traditional MBTI instrument, its psychometric properties were sufficiently altered as to make the determination between types subject to the rules of randomness. This is especially important for those already individuated personalities who are highly integrative of each aspect of a given trait dimension. By removing items, it is possible that the only persons correctly classified were those who were most extreme in their preference for one of the trait poles. The subtle differences were not detected.

A second reason for the failure of the personality measure to achieve predictive validity could also be found in the quality of the prediction. The MBTI-PHONE did produce evidence for individual differences that is interpretable in terms of Jung's theory, even if these differences were not as originally hypothesized. Thus, further testing needs to be conducted to determine the validity of the personality instrument.

A third limitation is in regard to the overall significance of the results. In general, no personality trait/type combination could be used to explain greater than 10% of the variance in the scores on the gratifications obtained items. Although no worse than other studies utilizing the MBTI in media use applications (Nolan & Patterson, 1990; Patterson, 1991), the overall ability of Jung's theory to account for individual differences is relatively minor. Thus, the use of advanced multivariate analysis designs may be equivalent to using an electron microscope to see an elephant. There is a great deal more to understanding the origins of gratifications obtained from the media than was captured in the measures employed in this research.

A fourth limitation is in relation to the view of the communication
situation of the audience member imposed in this research. First, the fact that the gratifications obtained items reflected only entertainment uses for the media was a significant shortcoming. The use of the media for non-entertainment gratification was not captured by this study. This is especially important when one considers the expansion of new communication technologies into the areas of information provision. Thus, while television, books, and the VCR may be used primarily for entertainment purposes, the results are not generalizable to the use of these media for other purposes which may better account for patterns of audience orientation to the media.

A second presumption about the communication situation made here is asking respondents to answer the gratifications obtained items in terms of "themselves" (see Appendix A). Much research has pointed out that media use does not occur in isolation (see chapter one). Thus, the measures employed in this study may have artificially placed the respondent in a viewing situation which never occurs for that person. It is possible that persons never use the media alone and the responses to the gratifications obtained items would not reflect this type of "social" media use. Indeed, the original purpose statement for uses and gratifications asked researchers to seek out the "social and psychological origins of needs which drive media use." This research failed to account for the possible social origins of the gratifications obtained from the media.

Implications for Future Research

Brinberg & McGrath (1985) provide an outline of a research process grounded in a theory of validity. They call this process the Validity Network Schema (VNS). Similar in concept to the multi-trait/multi-
method construct validity techniques (Campbell & Fiske, 1959), the VNS implies that for a research program to be considered valid, it must eventually address three domains: the substantive, the methodological, and the conceptual. As with Campbell and Fiske, the VNS "seeks convergence among multiple operations (the three domains) as the main means by which we can increase confidence in our findings" (Brinberg & McGrath, 1985, p. 10). To better understand the future possibilities raised in this research, this final section will address the three domains identified as central to a research program by Brinberg and McGrath.

The Substantive Domain

The substantive domain is defined by Brinberg and McGrath (1985, p. 25) as that realm "containing the phenomena, processes, and focal problems of interest." This research began by positing that a fundamental shift in the domain of commercial audience research is taking place. Channel convergence (e.g. telephone entry into content services) and a focus on the individual (personal communication systems) are forces propelling commercial audience research into new conceptualizations of audience. One of these new moves is a focus on psychographic audience measurement.

While successful in the realm of commercial audience research, these psychographic indicators have suffered in measurement and interpretation because of a lack of grounding in any theory of personality psychology. This research has demonstrated that the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator could be utilized as a psychographic indicator. The personality types described by Jung's theory (and operationalized by the MBTI) do relate in significant ways to patterns of media use. One possibility for
future research in the substantive domain is to encourage the use of personality measures grounded in theory among the practitioners of applied audience research.

The MBTI could provide a radio station programmer, for example, with an understanding of who is listening and why they may be drawn to listen. This information about their audience could be combined with research already in the MBTI data bank which provides rich descriptions of other patterns of behavior (such as employment preferences) which could help a programmer understand why radio is important to a particular "type" of person.

A second possibility is that once an MBTI profile of the audience is obtained, that profile could be matched with the personality type of the persons responsible for sending these media messages. For example, the MBTI Databank (Myers-Briggs & McCaulley, 1988) reports the distribution of type among typical media occupations. Occupations are coded if they were reported on the MBTI answer sheets sent to the Center for the Application of Psychological Type. The coding follows the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (U.S. Department of Labor, 1977). There were four types of media related occupations among cases in the MBTI Data-Bank: writers and journalists; artists and entertainers; media specialists; & public relations workers and publicity writers. The type table in Table Thirty Displays this information.

Intuitive types are more drawn to media occupations than are any other types. It appears, however, as though media specialists (such as broadcast engineers and technicians) appear to be primarily introverted-sensing types. This is consistent with that type's preference for solitary,
detailed work. Writers and entertainers report their type as primarily intuitive, which makes sense given the intuitive

Table 29

Distributions of Type Scores in Media Occupations

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<tr>
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<td>4.34%</td>
<td>3.96%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entertainers</td>
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<td>9.43%</td>
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<td>PR Writers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Writers</td>
<td>1.32%</td>
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<td>13.58%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entertainers</td>
<td>1.92%</td>
<td>1.59%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5.66%</td>
<td>11.32%</td>
<td>1.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR Writers</td>
<td>1.12%</td>
<td>2.25%</td>
<td>3.37%</td>
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<td>17.17%</td>
<td>7.36%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entertainers</td>
<td>1.59%</td>
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<td>PR Writers</td>
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<td>8.68%</td>
<td>5.28%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entertainers</td>
<td>5.56%</td>
<td>1.44%</td>
<td>10.05%</td>
<td>6.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Spec.</td>
<td>7.55%</td>
<td>8.49%</td>
<td>2.83%</td>
<td>7.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR Writers</td>
<td>14.61%</td>
<td>6.74%</td>
<td>7.87%</td>
<td>5.62%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:

a) Writers refers to the persons listing writing or journalism on the MBTI (N=530)
b) Entertainers refers to persons listing artist or entertainer (N=378)
c) Media Spec refers to persons listing media specialist (N=106)
d) PR Writers refers to persons listing public relations workers and publicity writers (N=89)
orientation to creative occupations. Public relations workers and ad writers appear to have an overall orientation toward extraversion as a primary defining characteristic. This is consistent with the extraverted preference for those occupations which require a lot of interaction with other persons such as sales positions.

It is interesting that the judging function (T/F) best describes individual differences in audience orientation to the media while the perceiving function (S/N) best describes the type of people drawn to media occupations. The pattern of relationships present in just this cursory overview of media occupations indicates that it could be a substantial step if further research could link the characteristics of the senders of media messages to the receivers.

An investigation of the personality of the senders of media messages is important at the substantive level because of the potential for guiding persons into careers in the media as well as helping current media practitioners understand how their type relates to that of their audience. Indeed, Myers-Briggs and Myers (1980) indicate that knowledge of how one's own type colors the interactions one has with others is a substantial step toward individuation.

The personality theory of Jung and its MBTI operationalization can be utilized at the substantive level to help understand the role new communication technologies have in shaping organizational communication dynamics. For example, managers utilize knowledge of employee type in the giving of directions, the reduction of interpersonal conflict, and the formation of task groups.

This research demonstrates a link between personality type and new
communication technologies (defined here as the VCR). It could be important to study the impact of personality type on the introduction of new communication technologies (such as electronic mail or audio/video conferencing) to an organization. Since all of the Jungian types exist in any given organization, knowledge of how personality type mediates a person's relationships through these communication technologies could help diagnose the difficulties and uncertainties of new interaction patterns caused by new technologies. Thus, one more substantive-level application for this research would be the examination of personality type and new technologies in the workplace.

A final substantive area which could be addressed by the use of Jung's theory and the MBTI operationalization is in relation to helping individual users of media systems. As major telecommunication organizations introduce personalized communication systems at an increasing rate, individuals will need to understand their sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with these new systems. Thus, when presented with an array of communication options, an extraverted person may realize that a personalized mobile telephone number is exactly what they need while an introverted person may begin to understand their potential dislike for the disappearance of anonymity caused by the advent of caller-id systems.

Indeed, in the design of new communication systems it is important to provide the maximum amount of end user flexibility possible. Telecommunication corporations are building electronic public spaces in which persons of all types will come to interact, and thus should be accessible to all types of persons. This research could be used to help
persuade these telecommunication corporations that it is both good business and good citizenship to build telecommunication systems adaptable to the personal preferences of their users.

There are four areas in which this research may be extended at the substantive level. The first involves the increased use of the MBTI as a psychographic indicator not subject to the test-trait fallacy of current psychographic measures. The second involves the extension of the psychographic understanding of the audience revealed by the MBTI to an understanding of the senders of media messages. The third seeks to extend the MBTI and Jung's theory of the types into understanding the problems caused by the impact of new technologies on the communication patterns of organizations. The fourth relates to an individual-level concern in the design and development of new electronic communication systems.

The Methodological Domain

Brinberg & McGrath (1985, p. 26) define the methodological domain as containing "the methods, designs, and research strategies" used to examine the conceptual and substantive domains. This research has entered the methodological domain from the position of telephone survey research. This move was justified because of the reliance of commercial audience researchers on this particular methodology. Future directions in the methodological domain encourage both the extension of the design used in this study as well as moves to different methodological analytics.

If this study were to be replicated and/or extended utilizing survey research techniques, there are some fairly obvious steps to be taken. The first and most important is to refine the measurement utilized in this
study. While demonstrating moderate degrees of reliability and validity, the measurement could be improved by refining both the gratification typologies and the personality measure. Helping in this task, it would be important to increase the sample size used here by a factor of ten. This would allow the multivariate techniques applied in this study to have increased power. A larger sample size would also make the use of linear covariance modeling techniques such as LISREL possible. The use of LISREL would make it possible to understand the relative impact of many variables (psychographic, demographic, gratifications, and/or content preferences) simultaneously and in combination on individual satisfaction with media communication.

Also, as is recommended in almost all survey research books, the best application of survey research methods in scholarly environments is in longitudinal design. It would be especially interesting to tap a population (either by panel or random sample design) during the entry of a new communication technology into the guild of media industries. In addition to providing more accurate information about the links between personality type and media communication technologies, this research could help to unpack the influence of different types of individuals on the evolution of media industries in the competitive media environment.

In addition to continuing and extending the methods utilized in this research, it would also be fruitful to shift toward more qualitative research analytics. The findings of Nolan and Patterson (1990) indicated that personality type does impact on content preferences. Thus, it would be fruitful to shift to research analytics designed to capture the impact of the message rather than the medium. One avenue here which could still
utilize a survey design would be the use of message discrimination protocols. Personality type may be a variable which mediates messages discriminated from the media just as involvement and topic knowledge.

Also, the original typology was developed by Jung in a succession of in-depth psychoanalytic interviews. This interviewing technique is primarily utilized in clinical applications. It could be possible to conduct such interviews in situations (such as with participants in an audio-conference) to further understand the perceptual gaps caused by the use of a new communication technology. In addition to understanding these gaps, the use of a psychoanalytic interview could help an individual having problems adjusting to new communication technology in overcoming these problems. One psychoanalytic interviewing technique, the sense-making technique, has already been applied to understanding the use of telecommunication technologies (Shields, Dervin, Soller & Richter, 1992).

Another qualitative approach would entail a shift in the level of analysis from the individual to the group. In current cultural studies literature (emerging from the structural/cultural perspective) the use of focus groups derived from snowball sampling techniques are being utilized to capture the essence of certain cultural practices. Thus, these groups are being utilized to generalize to the practice rather than the population. In-depth focus group interviewing with, for example, users of computer bulletin boards could further help understand the role of personality in the communication behaviors of this increasingly important communication practice.

A final move in the methodological domain would be to shift away
from the classical psychometric operationalization of Jung’s theory of the types. For example, Motley (personal communication) has indicated a moderate degree of success in asking persons to identify their trait preferences from a description rather than through a series of forced choice questions. This simplification of the operationalization of Jungian types may make the theory's use in time-limited telephone survey research techniques more manageable.

There are three moves suggested for the methodological domain. The first involves the replication and extension of this research focusing on improvement of measurement, longitudinal designs, and larger samples. The second calls for a shift to more qualitative research analytics which, when combined with the quantitative, allow triangulation of technique. The third suggestion is that the operationalization of personality type be totally reconceptualized in a way which empowers the researched through the ability to identify which type they most feel represents them rather than being "told" which type they are.

The Conceptual Domain

Brinberg and McGrath (1985) define the conceptual domain as containing "ideas, concepts and their relations as well as the philosophical assumptions underlying them" (p. 25). The conceptual domain for this research revolves around the links demonstrated in communication theory between personality theory and social action theory. The basic premise of the conceptual domain is that the audience is a specialized form of social action and as such, theory of the audience is informed by the established positions of social action and human
motivation.

It was posited in the first chapter that neofunctionalist theory is especially important as a theory, grounded in communication postulates, which captures the interdependence of theories of sociology and psychology in understanding human action. An analysis of the literature revealed that past attempts at linking social and personal theory in attempts to understand communication activity have only served to support the inherent biases of each approach. Thus, functional theories of society incorporated personality theory which relied on stability and constancy of condition as sources of motivation and structural/cultural theories of society incorporated conflict based personality theories which supported their assumption of change as the essential element of society.

Neofunctionalism was offered as a theoretical alternative to these traditional views of the audience. In neofunctionalism, personality, society, and culture all interpenetrate to cause/reflect actor action orientations. Thus, in examining the conceptual domain, it is important to consider how a neofunctionalist orientation to the audience informs our understanding of this social phenomena.

One advantage of conceptualizing the audience from the position of neofunctionalism are the ties opened up between neofunctionalism and the established uses and gratifications approach to understanding the audience. As pointed out in chapter one, uses and gratifications and neofunctionalism share a common emphasis on activity as the essential construct. The goal of both approaches is to understand how action occurs in a given situation. Neofunctionalism seeks to understand this at a macro-level of social system interpenetration while uses and
gratifications seeks to understand the micro-level actions of actors in media communication situations.

Recall that the pattern variable schema was posited by Parsons as the means of understanding actor orientation to action in a given situation. The pattern variables describe (in the media communication situation) the activity of the audience. In the first chapter this lead to the use of cognitive and affective gratifications obtained as the operationalization of the affective-affective neutral pattern variable. The trait-dimensions of the MBTI could effectively operationalize the other four pattern variables: self-orientation (introversion) vs. collective orientation (extraversion); diffuseness (perceiving) vs. specificity (judging); achievement (feeling) vs. ascription (thinking); and universalism (intuiting) vs. particularism (sensing). Thus the pattern variables of neofunctionalism (when viewed from the position of the personality sub-system) may be operationalized in media communication situations through the use of gratifications obtained and Jung’s theory of personality types. Future research should attempt to link these operationalizations to other theories of audience activity (see Levy and Windahl, 1984). It is possible that the merger of Jung’s theory and the uses and gratifications approach may provide a theory of audience activity which allows theoretical linkages to the social and cultural levels of analysis that are the focus of audience research in the structural/cultural tradition.

This emphasis on the notion of activity is also important when combined with the impact of new communication technologies on the media environment. New technologies such as virtual reality and digital
video conferencing are fundamentally changing our conceptualization of
the audience. No longer is there just an audience, we now have language
in communication journals speaking of users, viewers, or auditors. It
would seem that one useful means of differentiating between these three
categories of the concept of "audience" is the relative amount of activity
demonstrated by a particular actor. Thus to be an auditor may require
less "activity" than to be a "user." The use of the pattern variables of
neofunctionalism may allow insight into the patterns of actor orientation
which differentiates between these three types of "audiences." Thus, it is
important to combine the concept of activity with the study of the new
communication environment in order to understand how people
communicate.

Next, recall that the media of exchange between the personal, social
and cultural systems in neofunctionalism was conceived of as values.
Following Habermas, these values are conceived of as manifesting
themselves in symbolic exchanges. A further conceptual extension of this
notion is to begin to incorporate the rest of Jung's personality theory.
Recall that for Jung, the theory of the types was the theory used to
understand only the conscious mind. The links between the conscious
and unconscious mind(s) for Jung were conceived of as the exchange of
symbols. It was in the analysis of symbols emerging from the archetypes
of the collective unconscious through which Jung came to understand
human action. The freedom of action was constrained by the nature of the
archetype under expression.

Thus, we can utilize Jung's language as a means of conceptualizing
the operation of the media of exchange in the sub-system interpenetration
of neofunctionalism. Literary critics (Holland, 1990; Wright, 1984) have used the concept of the archetype to understand how literature operates to tie the reader to the larger social structure. Thus, it would be fruitful to understand how the value structures embedded in symbols reflect the institutionalization and internalization of individual and group needs which are the outcomes of sub-system interpenetration.

The symbolic exchange of values by actors is the essential activity of media communication. Communication is understood to be the essential activity which ties individuals to culture and society, and culture to society and individuals, and society to individuals and culture. If however, we are going to attempt to understand human action and motivation from the perspective of communication, this author feels that the importation of Jung’s personality theory in answering these questions is fundamentally flawed.

While Jung’s theory is theoretically rich enough to allow its application to understanding the symbolic exchanges which occur in communication, it will still only understand these exchanges from Jung’s (psychoanalytic) position of conflict as the driving force of action. In order to truly understand the impact of communication, an understanding of the personality sub-system needs to emerge from communication theory rather than personality theory. Instead of a personality theory of communication this research calls for the development of a communicative theory of personality.

Sullivan (1953, 1954) made one attempt at this when he said that personality was not in individuals but rather in the interactions between individuals. Fromm (1989) agreed with Sullivan’s emphasis on
interpersonal exchanges as central, but again tried to incorporate some unobservable element of individuals that impacted upon personality. Lacan (1953) argues that personality exists in the language individuals use in communication. What is needed is a theory of personality which emerges from the neofunctionalist emphasis on the three sub-systems and their interpenetration as the primary agent of human action. One early attempt at constructing a personality theory from the position of social action theory is Leary (1957).

There are four areas of conceptual level implications and suggestions for future research emerging from this study. The first revolves around how the concept of audience activity can be reconceptualized to provide linkages not only to the functionalist uses and gratifications approach but also to the structural/cultural approaches to audience theory. The second revolves around a reconceptualization of what is meant by the term "audience." It is argued that the actor actions being explained in media audience research go beyond the act of auditing and include the actions of viewing and using as well. The third implication of this research revolves around the utility of Jung's theory in understanding the actors in media communication. Working from an emphasis on the media's role in communicating values symbolically, it is hypothesized that the entire body of Jung's work (especially his archetypal theory) could be utilized to understand why mediated communication is important to people. Finally, it is argued here that if a neofunctionalist orientation to the audience is adopted, then the theory of personality utilized to enter into an understanding of actor voluntarism should emerge from communication theory rather than visa-versa. This
research calls for the development of an interpersonal theory of personality which captures the process of sub-system interpenetration that is the cornerstone of neofunctionalism.

Conclusion

This research has investigated the links between individual personality and patterns of audience media use. It was postulated in the beginning of this research that individual differences in personality type would relate to differential patterns of audience activity defined as preference orientations and operationalized through gratifications obtained. Personality was defined utilizing the theory of C. G. Jung and its trait-level operationalization by Myers-Briggs.

The method utilized was telephone survey research. The sample for this study was designed to be representative of adult media users in Franklin County, Ohio. The results indicate that significant differences in media communication preferences do exist between persons described as having different personality types. These results were discussed and conclusions and implications were drawn at the substantive, methodological, and conceptual levels.

There were three goals of this research as presented in chapter one. The first goal was "to ground psychographic measurement of the media audience in an established, tried and tested theory of personality psychology." This research indicates that the use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator as an operationalization of Jung's theory of the types could be used in telephone survey applications, similar to other psychographic indicators. Further, the use of the MBTI allows psychographic audience measurement to be interpreted in relation to a heuristically powerful
theory of personality which allows insight into not only the receivers of media communication but the senders as well.

The second goal of this research was "to understand the role that psychological variables play in explaining the communication behavior exhibited by members of the media audience." This research has provided operational definitions of variables that were directly related to a neofunctionalist reconceptualization of audience theory. Neofunctionalism was offered as a theoretical alternative to the traditional functional and structural/cultural audience theories. The essential aspect of neofunctionalism is the notion of activity which can be extrapolated to mean communication behavior. Thus, this research has helped to understand the role of psychological variables (as understood by personality theory) in explaining audience communication behaviors.

The final goal of this research was "to provide descriptions of audience behavior which are potentially useful not only to audience members but also to advertisers, programmers, producers, campaign coordinators, and government agencies." The most complete test of this goal will be the extent to which the ideas, concepts, and operationalizations developed in this research are utilized in future attempts to understand communication processes and effects. This research has both reduced the uncertainty of understanding unseen receivers and pointed to areas in which future uncertainty on the part of users can be overcome. This research, however, has raised more questions than it has answered. Thus, the third goal of this research was addressed but by no means achieved.
NOTES

1. This variable deals with the evaluation of objects. Objects are social (actors), physical (empirical things located in time and space such as a TV set), or cultural (ideas, beliefs, or attitudes that are capable of being internalized by an actor such as a television program).

2. Katz et al.'s (1974) definition of the uses and gratifications approach is that uses and gratifications research is "concerned with (1) the social and psychological origins of (2) needs, which generate (3) expectations of (4) the mass media or other sources, which lead to (5) differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in (6) need gratifications and (7) other consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones" (p. 20)."

3. These studies include: Dimmick (1990 - book chapter); Dimmick, Dobos, & Lin (1985, 1987 convention papers); Dobos, Dimmick, & Calabrese (1986 convention paper); Albarran (1990 dissertation).

4. The discrepancy approach (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1979; Palmgreen, Wenner, & Rosengren, 1981) seeks to explore the relation between the gratifications sought from a medium in general (TV for example) and the gratifications obtained from one specific component of that medium such as public television or news programs. Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982, 1985a, 1985b) linked the construct of gratifications sought from the media to Fishbein and Ajzen's expectancy value theory. This research indicated
that the gratifications sought from the media were a function of the belief that a certain media could gratify their needs and an evaluation of that media's ability to provide gratifications.

Working from the premises of the expectancy-value theory of gratifications, Wenner (1985, 1986) sought to clarify the role of gratifications obtained. He implies that gratifications obtained from the media are integral in the development of future gratifications sought from the media. Wenner's conclusion is that people tend to return to the media or content which provides the highest return of gratifications obtained. In other words, if an audience member receives more gratifications from television than books, that audience member will be more likely to turn to television than books to gratify their future need for gratifications (gratifications sought).

5. These TV viewing motivations parallel the multi-fold typologies of gratifications and are subject to the same critiques and limitations.

6. This shorthand refers specifically to the Collected Works of C. G. Jung. See List of References.

7. Individuation is the goal of psychic life.

8. A theory of the archetype has been pursued by hundreds if researchers from many fields. The resulting speculation about types of archetypes, functions, symbolic manifestations in dreams and art, and their use in therapy have filled many books. Good reviews can be found in Samuels (1985) and Hillman (1983).

9. The existence of dreams, fantasies, and parapraxis (verbal slips) are used in psychoanalytic theory as evidence for the existence of the
unconscious mind.

10. Symbolic manifestations of this archetype are typified by the union of opposites (e.g. the squaring of the circle in 13th Century alchemy) or by a super-human figure such as a goddess or a wise old man (e.g. Merlin the Magician). The self usually makes a symbolic appearance in dreams at crucial turning points in the dreamer's life (CW 9, 12; von Franz, 1964).

11. The sixteen types are described via the one-letter symbol for the trait-level dialectic preference. Thus a person characterized by: a preference for extraversion (E) over introversion (I); intuiting (N) over sensing (S); feeling (F) over thinking (T); and perceiving (P) over judging (J) -- would be labeled an "ENFP" type by the theory of Myers-Briggs.

12. Specifically, interviewers were given two folders containing call sheets -- one folder for males and the other for females. Interviewers were instructed by the call shift supervisor to begin calling from either the male or female folder. Once a completion from a particular folder was obtained (e.g. a male completion) interviewers switched folders to the other gender (e.g. female) and called from those call sheets until a survey was completed by a female respondent. The interviewer then switched back to the male folder and repeated the process.

13. This particular measurement technique of paired opposites is one of the most frequently critiqued aspects of the MBTI. Loomis & Singer (1981) directly challenge the notion of bipolar opposition in Jung's theory and use a critique of the question structure of the MBTI to provide evidence for their argument.
LIST OF REFERENCES


APPENDIX A: TELEPHONE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Version - 8

ENTERTAINMENT MEDIA USE SURVEY
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION
SPRING 1991
SCOTT PATTERSON/DR. JOHN DIMMICK
292-3400/292-0080

(ENTER CODES)

(DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE)

RESPONDENT CODE
CARD NUMBER

(AFTER COMPLETING INTERVIEW)

RESPONDENT'S TELEPHONE NUMBER

YOUR INTERVIEWER NUMBER

Hello, my name is ( ). I am calling from the Department of Communication at The Ohio State University. We are conducting a survey of people's use of entertainment media such as books, television, and the VCR. I am interested in speaking to a (male/female) person over 18 years of age, would you be that person?

(IF NO) May I please speak with a person who fits this description? (REPEAT THE INTRODUCTION TO THE NEW PERSON IF NECESSARY)

(IF YES) Your phone number was randomly selected for participation in our study. All of your answers will be anonymous and confidential. Would you be willing to take about 15 minutes of your time to answer some questions?

(IF NO) Would there be another, more convenient time we could call you back? (PUT SPECIFIC DATE AND TIME ON CALL SHEET). Thank you very much. Have a good morning/afternoon/ evening.
Great, Thank You. We want to learn more about how people use the media to satisfy their entertainment needs. We are interested in the use of television, the use of Video Cassette Recorders, or VCRs, and the use of books. By television, we are referring to both cable and regular TV. Please answer all of the following questions in terms of yourself. If I ask about "you," I am asking about your own personal use of a medium, not about how other members of your household might use it. Do you have any questions? (IF YES, CLARIFY; IF NO CONTINUE)

1) Do you personally use the VCR for entertainment at least once per month?
   A) Yes
   B) No

2) Do you personally use television for entertainment at least once a month?
   A) Yes
   B) No

3) Do you personally use books for entertainment at least once per month?
   A) Yes
   B) No

(CONTINUE ONLY IF AT LEAST TWO OF THE ABOVE MEDIA ARE USED AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH. IF A RESPONDENT USES ONLY ONE MEDIUM TERMINATE THE INTERVIEW, SAY... I see. Well, our survey concerns those who use at least two of the three media I just asked about, so the rest of the survey will not apply to you. Thank you very much for your time and have a good morning/afternoon/evening.

(IF AT LEAST TWO OF THE MEDIA ARE USED AT LEAST ONCE PER MONTH, CONTINUE -- READ ONLY THOSE MEDIA WHICH ARE VIEWED FOR ENTERTAINMENT PROGRAMMING AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH.) We are also interested in the specific CONTENT of the media you use for entertainment. Some examples of entertainment content would include:
   * particular TV PROGRAMS you watch;
   * examples of types of BOOKS you read;
   * examples of things you watch on a VCR;

4) For ________, ________, and ________, (REPEAT NAMES OF MEDIA WHICH ARE USED AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH), please name some examples of typical content you read or viewed in the last month to satisfy your entertainment needs.
Now, I'm interested in how well you think the media SATISFIES what you look for in entertainment. In this section, I'll read a list of statements, and I'll ask you to tell me how helpful each medium is in satisfying your entertainment needs — the choices are NOT AT ALL, ONLY A LITTLE, SOMewhat, OR VERY HELPFUL. Please keep in mind the specific media content you mentioned earlier for the entertainment media you regularly use.

Do you have any questions? (IF YES, CLARIFY, IF NO SAY...) OK, let's begin.

Remember we want you to answer for _______ and _________ and _________ (NAME MEDIA MEETING MINIMUM USE REQUIREMENTS) and we want you to keep in mind the specific media content you named.

5) To help you feel less tense, how helpful is ...

(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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6) To learn more about things that interest you personally, how helpful is...
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7) To test your ability to answer questions or solve puzzles or mysteries, how helpful is...
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8) To help occupy your time, how helpful is...
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9) To help you relieve stress, how helpful is...
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10) To help you learn how to improve your life, how helpful is...
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11) To help you unwind, how helpful is...
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<td>c) A Book</td>
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</table>

12) To help you understand new and/or different people, places, and things, how helpful is...
(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not</th>
<th>Little</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Television</td>
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<td>b) VCR</td>
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<td>c) A Book</td>
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This is going very well....

13) To pass time when there is nothing else to do, how helpful is...
(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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14) To let you understand why people act the way they do, how helpful is...
(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<td>a) Television</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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15) To give you the opportunity to figure out plots and characters, how helpful is...
(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<td>a) Television</td>
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<td>c) A Book</td>
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</table>
16) To make you feel as if you are participating in the competitive struggle of people playing sports or games, how helpful is...

(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<th>Not</th>
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<tr>
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<td>b) VCR</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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17) To give you the opportunity to relive events and feelings from the past, how helpful is...

(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<th>Not</th>
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<td>a) Television</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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18) To help put your mind at ease, how helpful is...

(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<td>b) VCR</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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19) To let you get to know characters and/or personalities as if they were your friends, how helpful is...

(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<td>b) VCR</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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</table>

20) To help you forget about daily cares, how helpful is...

(READ ONLY THOSE THAT APPLY)

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<td>b) VCR</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) A Book</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
21) Now, suppose you could keep only ONE of the media you use for entertainment. If you had to choose, would you KEEP Television, Books, or the VCR.
   a) Television
   b) Books
   c) VCR

22) Now, suppose you had to give up only ONE of the media you use for entertainment. If you had to choose, would you GIVE UP Television, Books, or the VCR.
   a) Television
   b) Books
   c) VCR

(Do not write in this space)

Thank you, the answers you are giving us are very helpful. In this next section, we are going to ask you to answer questions that will help show us how you like to look at things and how you like to go about deciding things. For example, I'll be asking questions like, "In reading for pleasure, do you... A) Enjoy odd or original ways of saying things, or B) like writers to say exactly what they mean?" There are no right or wrong answers in this section, so please do not think too long about any question. Do you have any questions? (If yes, clarify. If no, continue)

In this set of questions, we would like you to tell us which answer comes closer to telling how you usually feel or act.

22) Are you usually......
   a) a "good mixer," or (___) (___) (___)
   b) rather quiet and reserved?

23) If you were a teacher, would you rather teach...
   a) fact courses, or (___) (___) (___)
   b) courses involving theory?

24) Do you more often let...
   a) your heart rule your head, or (___) (___) (___)
   b) your head rule your heart?
25) When you go somewhere for the day, would you rather...
   a) plan what you will do and when, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) just go?

26) When you are with a group of people, would you usually rather...
   a) join in the talk of the group, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) talk with one person at a time?

27) Do you usually get along better with...
   a) imaginative people, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) realistic people?

28) Is it a higher compliment to be called...
   a) a person of real feeling, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) a consistently reasonable person?

29) Do you prefer to...
   a) arrange dates, parties, etc., well in advance, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) be free to do whatever looks like fun when the time comes

30) In a large group, do you more often...
   a) introduce others, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) get introduced

31) Would you rather be considered...
   a) a practical person, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) an ingenious person?

32) Do you usually...
   a) value sentiment more than logic, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) value logic more than sentiment?

33) Does following a schedule...
   a) appeal to you, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) cramp you

34) Do you tend to have...
   a) deep friendships with a very few people, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) broad friendships with many different people?

35) Do you admire more the people who are...
   a) conventional enough never to make themselves conspicuous, or  (___) (___) (___)
   b) too original and individual to care whether they are conspicuous or not?
36) When you have a special job to do, do you like to...
   a) organize it carefully before you start, or
   b) find out what is necessary as you go along?

37) Among friends, are you...
   a) one of the last to hear what is going on, or
   b) full of news about everybody?

38) Would you rather have as a friend...
   a) someone who is always coming up with
      new ideas, or
   b) someone who has both feet on the ground?

39) When you start a big project that is due in a week, do you...
   a) take time to list the separate things to be done
      and the order of doing them, or
   b) plunge in

40) Do you...
   a) talk easily to almost anyone for as long as
      you have to, or
   b) find a lot to say only to certain people or
      under certain conditions?

41) Is it higher praise to say someone has...
   a) vision, or
   b) common sense?

42) At parties, do you...
   a) sometimes get bored, or
   b) always have fun?

43) Are you...
   a) easy to get to know, or
   b) hard to get to know?

44) When you are in an embarrassing spot, do you usually...
   a) change the subject, or
   b) turn it into a joke, or
   c) days later, think of what you should have said?

45) When you are at a party, do you like to...
   a) help get things going, or
   b) let the others have fun in their own way?
Thank you, this is going very well. In this next set of questions, we would like you to tell us which word in each pair appeals to you more.

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<td>feeling</td>
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<td>uncritical</td>
<td>critical</td>
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</table>

The information you are giving us is very valuable. We have just four more questions to help us process the information you have given us.

66) Do you subscribe to cable television? (___) (___) (____)
   a) yes    b) no

67) Let me read you a list of formal education levels. Please stop me when I reach the highest level of education you completed.
   a) grade school (grade 1 through 8) (___) (___) (____)
   b) some high school
   c) high school graduate (or trade school)
   d) some college (technical school, or 2 year assoc degree)
   e) college graduate
   f) graduate school
68) What is your age, please? _______________

(IF RESPOND HESITATES OR REFUSES) Let me read you a list of age categories.

Please stop me when I reach your age group.

a) under 18 years
b) 18 to 25
c) 26 to 30
d) 31 to 35
e) 36 to 40
f) 41 to 45
g) 46 to 50
h) 51 to 55
i) 56 to 60
j) 61 to 65
k) 66 to 70
l) 71 to 75
m) 76 to 80
n) 81 to 85
o) over 85

69) Finally, I am going to read you a list of income categories. Please stop me when I reach your total household income level.

a) under $5,000
b) between $5,001 and $10,000
c) between $10,001 and $15,000
d) between $15,001 and $20,000
e) between $20,001 and $25,000
f) between $25,001 and $30,000
g) between $30,001 and $35,000
h) between $35,001 and $40,000
i) between $40,001 and $45,000
j) between $45,001 and $50,000
k) between $50,001 and $55,000
l) between $55,001 and $60,000
m) between $60,001 and $65,000
n) between $65,001 and $70,000
o) between $70,001 and $75,000
p) greater than $75,000

Thank you very much. The help you've given us this morning/afternoon/evening will enable us to better understand the ways people use entertainment media. Thanks again and have a good morning/afternoon/evening.

70) (CIRCLE GENDER, DO NOT ASK)

a) male b) female

1) Mark "C" for completed interview on your call sheet.
2) Return to page 1 and fill in respondent's telephone number, and your interviewer number for verification purposes.
3) Look over questionnaire to make sure you circled only one answer for each question for coding.
APPENDIX B

TABLE 30

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS OF SIXTEEN TYPES: CLASSIFICATION RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Group</th>
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<th>3</th>
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Predicted Group

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Percent of grouped cases correctly classified = 13.11%  tau = .07