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/NEWSCASTER PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS/

ITS INFLUENCE ON CREDIBILITY AND INTENTION TO WATCH THE NEWS

by

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A thesis submitted
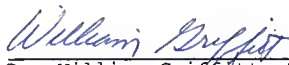in partial fulfillment of the
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Approved by:

Dr. William Griffitt, Ph.D.

To my husband who always knew I would finish,

My mother who never gave up hope,

And my daughter, Arianne, who taught me there
is more to life than academia.

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Physical attractiveness clearly plays an important
role in shaping the way individuals interact with one
another. Most of us learn early in life that it's
better to be attractive than unattractive, though it
was not until the advent of controlled experimental
studies that the pervasiveness of this dynamic began to
emerge.

The physically attractive tend to be favored in a
number of different ways. There is, for instance, a
strong relationship between appearance and liking among
same-sex adults (Miller & Rivenbark, 1970; Perrin,
1921) as well as between opposite-sex people
(Berscheid, Dion, Walster, & Walster, 1971; Brislin &
Lewis, 1968; Byrne, Ervin, & Lamberth, 1970; Byrne,
London, & Reeves, 1968; Huston, 1973; Miller &
Rivenbark, 1970; Perrin, 1921; Stroebe, Insko,
Thompson, & Layton, 1971; Tesser, 1971; Walster,
Aronson, Abrahams, & Rottman, 1966). Not only is this
factor very influential, but people are remarkably
uniform in their determination of who is considered
attractive (Udry, 1965).

Children show parallel tendencies (Dion, 1973;
Dion & Berscheid, 1974; Kleck, Richardson, & Ronald,

1974). The ability to discriminate this factor develops early--somewhere between three and six years of age (Cavior & Lombardi, 1973; Cross & Cross, 1971; Dion, 1973) and children seem to act on these discriminations as soon as they can make them.

Social Benefits

~ Attractive people are particularly favored in social settings, where they are often perceived as more socially skilled (Guise, Pollans, & Turkat, 1982). People also tend to act more sociably toward the attractive (Barocas & Karoly, 1972; Krebs & Adinolfi, 1975; Sroufe, Chaikin, Cook, & Freeman, 1977) and are more apt to offer help to them (Benson, Karabenick, & Lerner, 1976; Harrell, 1978; Sigall, Page, & Brown, 1971; West & Brown, 1975; Zanna & Pack, 1975). Similarly, when in the company of attractive people, individuals tend to be more open about themselves, volunteering more personal information in conversations (Brundage, Derlega, & Cash, 1977; Cash & Soloway, 1975). Thus, it is not surprising to find that attractive people are more often expected to succeed in social situations (Abbott & Sebastian, 1981) and reinforced more frequently for their successes when they occur (Lerner, 1965).

In a similar vein, good looking people are often credited with greater mental health than the majority of the population (Felson, 1981; Jones, Hansson, & Phillips, 1978; Unger, Hilderbrand, & Mader, 1982). When attractive people do show signs of mental disturbances, a given problem is often considered less severe than when unattractive people display the same dysfunctions. Deviant behaviors performed by physically attractive persons are often viewed less negatively than when the same behaviors are exhibited by those of lesser attractiveness (Dion, 1972; Efran, 1974; Marwit, 1982; Rich, 1975; Sigall & Ostrove, 1975). Typically the more attractive person is also expected to have a greater chance for a successful resolution of these problems (Barocas & Vance, 1974; Cash, Kehr, Polyson, & Freeman, 1977).

Trait Attribution

The preceding examples suggest something of the ubiquitousness of the effects of physical attractiveness in our society. This attribute has a particularly strong impact on impression formation. With no more information available to them than a photograph, people will evaluate attractive individuals as more curious, complex, perceptive, careful,

confident, assertive, happy, active, cooperative, amiable, humorous, pleasure-seeking, outspoken, and flexible (Miller, 1970). Physically attractive people also tend to be seen as more socially desirable, to have jobs of higher status, have more competent spouses, and happier marriages (Adams & Huston, 1975; Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972). As Dion, et al. (1972) summed it up:

> These results suggest that a physical attractiveness stereotype exists and that its content is perfectly compatible with the "What is beautiful is good" thesis. Not only are physically attractive persons assumed to possess more socially desirable personalities than those of lesser attractiveness, but it is presumed that their lives will be happier and more successful. (p. 289)

Gross and Crofton (1977) have demonstrated an interesting twist on the "What is good is beautiful" effect. They gave their subjects personality information first, followed by photos of the people. It turned out that those people who were described in favorable terms were subsequently rated as more

attractive than when there was no personality
information given, or if the information given was less
than positive.

Impact on Achievement

The physically attractive are also more likely to
obtain favorable evaluations of their work.   This
effect has been noted as early as grade school.
Attractive children are expected to attain higher
grades and achievement test scores (Lerner & Lerner,
1977; Murphy, Nelson, & Cheap, 1981).   Teachers expect
attractive children to be more intelligent, have
parents that are more interested in the child's
education, progress further in school, and be more
popular with schoolmates (Clifford & Walster, 1973).
When problems are acknowledged, attractive children
then receive more special referrals (Barocas & Black,
1974).

Many of these positive expectations have been
supported in school settings.   Whether this result
comes about through various forms of self-fulfilling
prophecy (such as extra teacher attention to the
attractive pupils), out-right manipulation of the
grading schemes, or what have you, the fact remains
that attractive children seem to fare better in the

present educational system. These children tend to receive higher grades (Lerner & Lerner, 1977; Salvia, Algozzine, & Sheare, 1977; Singer, 1964) and obtain higher achievement test scores (Salvia, et al, 1977) than do less attractive students.

Consistent with the preceding findings, attractive adults are more likely to be successful in the work place as well. They tend to be favored over the unattractive when hiring decisions are made and they tend to receive more favorable work evaluations (Cash, Gillen, & Burns, 1977; Dipboye, Arvey, & Terpstra, 1977; Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wiback, 1975). Additionally: Physically attractive psychologists are perceived as more professionally competent (Cash, Begley, McCown, & Weise, 1975), good looking employees are more likely to be promoted (Ross & Ferris, 1981), and observers tend to have higher expectations for success and job status for good looking female journalists than for their less attractive counterparts (Infante, Rancer, Pierce, & Osborne, 1980).

Tasks performed by attractive persons also tend to be evaluated more favorably than when the same job is performed by less attractive individuals. For instance, Landy and Sigall (1974) found that a

physically attractive female author was rated more positively on her work than when the same material was attributed to a less attractive author. This "halo" bias was, however, rather selective, as it turned up only when males rated female authors (Kaplan, 1978).

Gender Differences

There is a substantial body of evidence which indicates that the sex of a stimulus person affects respondent judgments of physical attractiveness. Physical attractiveness seems to be more important for females than for males. Elder (1969) and others (Hudson & Henze, 1969; Krebs & Adinolfi, 1975; Miller & Rivenbark, 1970; Stroebe, Insko, Thompson, & Layton, 1971; Vail & Staudt, 1950) found that females' physical attractiveness was regarded as a more important factor in dating and marriage aspirations than that of males. Elder suggested that physical appeal was a more salient clue to a female's social status or "worth", since she typically did not have a career or independent financial status. Men, on the other hand, have other attributes which normally figure more directly into their overall social "worth"--such as status, wealth, and career. A woman's "marketability" was based almost solely on her attractiveness, while men benefitted from

factors which they could directly control and which are more objective criteria for determining a person's capabilities.

As Bar-Tal and Saxe (1976) reason:

One explanation for the application of a differential physical attractiveness stereotype can be seen as deriving from the traditional roles that have been defined for men and women in our society. These role assignments are probably best explicated by considering the traditional roles in a family of a husband and wife. Thus, traditionally the woman has been expected to provide her husband with affection, be sexually responsible, to be a good housekeeper, and be the primary parent of the children (cf. Anastasi, 1968; Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Christensen, 1958; Seward, 1946). In contrast, the traditional husband has been expected to provide economic support for his wife and children. (p.130)

Generalizing somewhat, Murphy, et al. (1981) have concluded that when little else is known about the person beyond physical appearance, attractive females tend to be evaluated more positively than males on both

social and academic dimensions. Miller (1970) has reported supporting evidence, and in addition, suggests that "...unattractive males are perceived [as] more adept at compensating for their unattractiveness than are females, i.e., if one must be unattractive, it is better to be male than female" (p. 243). Another group of researchers found that attractive women were seen as more intelligent and moral than unattractive women, while the opposite was found for men (Byrne, et al., 1968).

As noted earlier, Kaplan (1978) reported that an attractiveness halo effect existed for female authors but not for male authors. There were, however, problems with that study (greater variance among the ratings of photos chosen for attractive males than among the photos of attractive females and the absence of a manipulation check on the attractiveness factor for the males) which limited the utility of the findings.

On balance, the research suggests that physical appearance weighs more heavily in forming impressions of females than males. Berscheid and Walster (1974) noted these differences and proposed two broad explanations: (1) different effects of physical

attractiveness for men and women are the result of different stereotypes for the sexes, or (2) the degree to which the stereotype is applied is different between the sexes. On the other hand, it seems likely that the stereotyping process is not completely understood. The evidence indicates that different situations evoke different reactions to physical appearance, depending on such factors as salience, other information about the person, prior expectations, and sex role stereotypes.

The physical attractiveness stereotype seems to be applied more consistently when judging people in traditional situations when no other information about the person is available. Being considered physically attractive provides more of an advantage for men in certain non-traditional circumstances than it does for women. Heilman and Saruwatari (1979) found that attractive women tended to be discriminated against when they applied for business management positions (traditionally male dominated). Unattractive women and attractive men seemed to fare best when attempting to get such higher level positions. Cash, Gillen, and Barns (1977) concluded, "Physical attractiveness affects personnel decisions to the general advantage of

good looking applicants, unless they seek jobs
considered inappropriate for their sex" (p. 309).

This situation specific bias was especially
apparent for physically attractive women applying for
traditionally "masculine" jobs (automobile salesman and
wholesale hardware shipping clerk). Cash et al. (1977)
went on to suggest a sex-relevant attractiveness
dynamic whereby sex-typed characteristics are an
increasing function of the person's level of
attractiveness. Bem's work (1974) partially supports
this hypothesis. She found that as attractiveness
increased, so did the attribution of masculinity for
males and femininity for females. Later work by Gillen
(1981) substantiated this hypothesis.

In recent studies by Heilman and Stopeck (1985A,
1985B) physical attractiveness was an advantage for
male managers, while it worked to the disadvantage of
female managers. Further tests indicated that this
bias stemmed from a connection between appearance and
sex-stereotyped trait attributions. Since managerial
positions are thought to require more traits
traditionally considered masculine (Schein, 1973,
1975), attractive males and unattractive females have
the advantage.

Persuasiveness of the Attractive

It is also frequently assumed that the physically attractive have a positive impact on communicated information. For many people in the advertising industry, "...beauty may only be skin deep, but... that's deep enough to make a considerable impression on consumers [in product] categories as diverse as cosmetics and automobiles, or liquor and cigarettes" (Folkan, 1979, p.S-14). Yet, for all the money that has been spent on obtaining attractive models, promoters, newscasters, and the like, there is little hard evidence that the physically attractive do, in fact, make a significantly greater impact on consumers' decisions (Baker & Churchill, 1977). The research which does indicate that the attractive are more influential in advertising is of dubious quality and therefore questionable utility (Smith & Engel, 1968).

There is limited evidence that the physically attractive are more persuasive in other situations. In a study of children, attractive 5th and 6th graders were more influential among their peers (Dion & Stein, 1978). Chaikin (1979), Horai, Naccari, and Fatoullah (1974), and Snyder and Rothbart (1971) have all found greater immediate attitude change with appealing male

communicators than with less attractive males.   There were no significant differences between the ratings of the communicators' honesty, competence, dominance, personal effectiveness, and personal success (Snyder & Rothbart, 1971).   Norman (1976) found that attractive communicators were more effective at changing peoples' minds than expert sources only when the attractive people made appeals without supporting arguments. Another study found that for female sources, there was a positive appearance effect only if she was not considered an expert (Joseph, 1982).

A number of researchers have found that attractive people tend to be slightly more internal in their locus of control than the unattractive (Cash & Begley, 1976; Cash & Smith, 1982; Miller, 1970).   It is possible that the attractive might also be considered more influential, since they could be viewed as less easily swayed by external sources.   These results imply that appearance has some effect, but that it also interacts with several other variables, such as expertise and sex, in various ways.

The Persuasive Effect of Newscasters' Appearance

The newscaster is one of the most pervasive, and presumably influential communicators in the daily lives

of the American citizenry (Roper Polls, 1979).
Television is the major media source for several types
of information (Keating & Latane, 1976) and the most
believable source as well (Wilson & Howard, 1978). The
newscaster has a central and highly visible role in
this process.

A number of different variables have been found to
affect the audience's perceptions of the newscaster.
Such factors as camera angle (Mandell & Shaw, 1973;
McCain, Chilberg, & Wakshlag, 1977; Tiemans, 1970),
posture and position (Mehrabian, 1969), race (Aronson &
Golden, 1962; Balon, Philport, & Beadle, 1978),
clothing (Douty, 1963; Hamid, 1968, 1969; Hoult, 1954;
Nielson & Kernaleguen, 1976), eye glasses (Manz &
Lueck, 1968; Thornton, 1943), and vocal quality
(Hutchinson, 1982) all seem to influence people's
reactions to TV broadcasters.

Some time ago Sanders and Pritchett (1971) queried
survey respondents about what they liked to see in a
male news announcer and found that the ideal was white,
31-40 years of age, of medium build, and medium height.
(It should be noted that only male newscasters were
studied.)   The most preferred newscaster attire was a
dark coat with a white shirt, glasses, and a watch.

Shosteck (1973-74) also found that viewers held clear
ideas of what they found personally appealing in a
newscaster, but such preferences varied considerably
from person to person. The most consistently important
dimension was vocal quality. This research suggested
that the personality of the newscasters carried the
least weight in determining a preference.

Women As Newscasters

The advent of women in the news room is a rather
recent phenomena. In 1972, 85% of the radio stations
surveyed had no full-time females in their news
departments, while only 50% of the TV stations had any
full-time women (Singleton & Cook, 1982). Until
recently, it was assumed that the audience preferred
men in broadcasting roles. This view was based on the
assumption that males sound more authoritative while
reading the news. News room directors were especially
prone to overestimate this preference for male
announcers (Stone, 1973-74).

Although the number of women employed in news
rooms has increased considerably (in a 1979 study
females constituted 37 out of 180 correspondents or
20.5%), they have typically been left to cover the less
important stories such as weddings, social happenings,

women's interests, and social problems (Singleton &
Cook, 1982). Yet, when actual audience perceptions of
men and women announcers were examined, women were
viewed as more verbal and more qualified than men
(Balon, et al., 1978). Whittaker and Whittaker (1976)
found no statistically significant differences between
male and female broadcasters on judgments of
effectiveness, believability, or acceptance by the
general public.

Surprisingly, the effect of physical
attractiveness on impressions of newscasters,
particularly females, has received little attention
from researchers--though it is a question of
considerable interest and financial consequence to the
television broadcasting industry (MacDougall, 1983).
In the highly publicized situation of Christine Craft
of Kansas City, the general manager stated that looks
were of more importance than journalistic ability in
female newscasters. Craft alleged that she was fired
for being "too old, too unattractive and not
deferential enough to men" (Craft, cited by Adler,
1983, p. 76). She also charged that such privileges
(i.e. growing old and/or becoming unattractive) were
reserved for males.

The question of sexual discrimination aside, the court had to decide if the news director was justified in making an attractive appearance a requirement for the job. According to KMBC general manager Kent Replogle, journalistic credentials and "presentation skills" are both necessary to the job, but the latter is the most important (Adler, 1983). This manager also claimed that looks counted more than journalistic ability for female as opposed to male anchors, admitting this view was based on intuition rather than any scientific evidence. In fact, there does not seem to be any publicly available research that directly addresses the effect of newscaster attractiveness on audience perceptions of newscasters. Many station managers seem content with this lack of information for, as William Dilday of WLBT-TV in Jackson, MS, put it, "We decide who's best on the air--by gut instinct" (MacDougall, 1983, p. 56).

The problem, then, is twofold. First, newscaster personnel decisions are regularly made on the basis of the applicant's attractiveness. Yet there is little or no information as to how the public reacts to this factor, particularly as it influences the credibility of the newscaster. Second, it is well known that for

both the industry and the audience, there is a double standard for men and women in the field of broadcasting. If physical attractiveness does make a difference, is the effect the same for both sexes?

Hypotheses

This literature review along with the results of an earlier pilot study suggest a number of hypotheses. The first question deals with consistency in ratings of physical attractiveness. First, since there appears to be substantially more consensus about the elements of female as opposed to male attractiveness, one would expect a correspondingly greater variance in ratings of male newscasters' attractiveness than for their female counterparts. This will be assessed by comparing the range of scores on the physical attractiveness dimension received by the males versus those received by the females.

Second, once someone has rated a person's attractiveness, how likely is the subject to change the initial rating subsequent to receiving additional information about that person? It is expected that because the person's physical attributes are relatively invariant across a short time span, perceptions of attractiveness should be correspondingly constant

across such a time interval, irrespective of the acquisition of information about the individual.

As the previous literature review pointed out, there is a consistently positive relationship between perceptions of attractiveness and attributions of "good" traits, as well as global liking.   That is, the better looking the person is perceived to be, the more honest, warm, intelligent, and fair-minded that person is thought to be.   Such people are liked overall more than those considered less attractive.   It is expected that these relationships will be stronger when information about the specific traits in question is limited.   Stated in converse fashion, when provided with more information about something like a person's character, the influence of physical attractiveness on judgments of character traits should lessen.

Pilot results suggest that such subject background characteristics as marital status, education level, age, sex, and income, will display only marginal relationships to ratings of attractiveness and newscaster credibility.

Finally, the central issue of the relationship between credibility and attractiveness will be addressed.   Based on previous research which shows a

rather consistent bias in favor of attractive people,
it is expected that overall newscaster credibility will
also be influenced by perceptions of his/her
attractiveness.   In this setting, credibility will be
measured by the amount of attitude change toward a
person being discussed by the newscaster.   It is
hypothesized that a positive relationship exists
between ratings of newscaster attractiveness and
attitude change regarding the subject of the message.
However, since attractiveness is probably not the most
directly relevant aspect of the available information
regarding the newscasters' credibility (i.e. other
personality traits probably have more influence on
this, such as dependability, fair-mindedness, or
honesty) attitude changes ought to be more closely
linked with the perceived levels of the relevant
traits.

Because there seems to be less consensus on what
constitutes male beauty versus what constitutes female
beauty and because attractiveness has been shown to be
more influential when rating women than men, it is
expected that attractiveness will have differential
effects on the credibility/persuasiveness of the male
and female newscasters.   Credibility of the male

newscasters should be less influenced by perceptions of their attractiveness than that of female newscasters. It is, however, expected that people will prefer to watch attractive newscasters more than unattractive newscasters, because of the general reinforcing nature of attractiveness.

METHOD

The method used for examining these hypotheses involved a quasi-experimental design. This approach allowed for manipulating the independent variable while at the same time facilitating external validity, and in particular any ability to generalize to larger populations of interest. The essential difference between this design and a true experimental one was the random assignment of small groups to treatment conditions rather than individuals.

Each group was exposed to two messages: (1) the "treatment" condition, consisting of a short (39 second) message about a fictitious Congressman by the name of Bob Landers and (2) what is often referred to in television news parlance as a "fluff" piece. In this case the fluff piece consisted of a rather innocuous 38 second message about an equally fictitious individual identified as Alan Scott. Scott was presented as the object of some friends' humor involving his fiancee and some puppies his dog had recently given birth to.

The fluff piece served as a control. He was described as a 35 year old bachelor and "local man". Bob Landers, on the other hand, was identified as an

incumbent 38 year old Congressman who had been: (a) recognized by his peers for having the highest attendance rate in Congress for 10 out of the last 11 years, (b) re-elected to the U.S. House of Representatives in the last election with the largest plurality ever received by a candidate from his district, (c) known for his central role in legislation dealing with truth in advertising and campaign reform, and (d) had recently been singled out and publicly honored by his Congressional colleagues for his integrity and accomplishments in that body (see Appendix A).

Substantial precautions were taken to minimize the impact of idiosyncratic responses stemming from particular characteristics of a stimulus individual. Both Scott and Landers were dressed similarly in conservative blue suits. Both men were 35 to 38 years of age, of medium build and similar height (about 6 feet tall) and both men were generally considered of average attractiveness.

The individuals presented as Landers and Scott were each private citizens and both of them were from an entirely different region of the country than the experimental subjects. This served to avoid possible

complications arising from subject recognition of the targets.

To promote authenticity, both scripts were written by a professional television news station manager. The newscasters were professional radio news announcers, from a distant large metropolitan area. There were two major reasons for choosing radio announcers. First, the chosen individuals had the professional cadence typical of experienced broadcasters. This lent additional credence to the "news-clips". Second, they had not appeared on TV, which ruled out any confounds due to prior subject recognition.

Two male and two female newscasters were employed as treatment stimuli. The pilot studies also indicated that mean subject ratings of the physical attractiveness of the same sex newscasters were not significantly different, though there was considerable inter-subject variance. Since subjects might have become suspicious if the news announcers in the study did not fit within expectations of what a typical newscaster looks like, (particularly if the newscaster was considered to be very unattractive), the newscasters were chosen because they seemed to be of moderate physical attractiveness and pilot studies

(which used the same measurement technique in the main study--described later) of the male announcers ($\underline{M}$ = 0.9126) support this contention, $\underline{t}(60)$ =1.70, $\underline{p}<.10$. Later manipulation checks of the female newscasters ($\underline{M}$ = 0.9692) suggest they were not viewed as more attractive than the average person, $\underline{t}(68)$ = 0.50, $\underline{p}<.62$. As with the story targets, the newscasters were dressed in fairly conservative attire, similar to that found on the announcer in a typical evening newscast. Care was taken to maintain reasonable comparability in the observable physical characteristics of the announcers.

Each subject group viewed two announcers: One presenting Landers and another one presenting Scott. For half of the subject groups, Individual A was Landers the Congressman, and B was Scott, the victim of the practical joke. For the other half, the situation was reversed. The same procedure was applied to the newscasters: Half of the time a particular newscaster presented the story on the Congressman and the other half of the time he or she presented the practical joke segment.

The seven image dimensions employed in the study were chosen for a number of reasons. Honesty, fair-

mindedness, and dependability were included because
they were directly referred to in the news message.
The other three personality dimensions, that is,
intelligence, warmth, and strength under pressure were
chosen because of a strong relationship to "likability"
in Anderson's study of 555 personality trait words
(1968) and because they served to disguise the main
focus of the study. Physical attractiveness, as tapped
by "how good-looking" was also included as a global
affective measure.

        Based on results from the pilot study, a second
control group was also included. In the pilot study
Congressman Landers was perceived as much more
intelligent than the average person. It was unclear
whether this was due to attributions about those who
become Congressional Representatives (a role
attribution) or assumptions about the type of person
who would receive such honors from his colleagues and
perform such accomplishments (the amount of influence
of the news clip). Alan Scott, the man presented in
the fluff piece, was rated as significantly warmer
after being presented as the victim of a practical
joke. Based on subjects' comments, it seems that dog
owners are more apt to be considered warm people.

However, there was the possibility that this man was
thought warmer because he had friends who would play
such a joke on him. Overall, it was unclear whether or
to what extent changes in perceptions of the targets
were due to the type of information provided or who
(announcer characteristics) was providing the
information. To help resolve some of the ambiguities,
a second control group was added--one which did not
contain the confounding information present in the
experimental pieces.

Subjects

Experimental subjects.

As mentioned earlier, the desire to avoid relying
exclusively on an indeterminable atypical group of
college students as a sample population led to the use
of a quasi-experimental design. A primary goal of the
study was to obtain as diverse and representative a
sample as possible. To promote this objective,
subjects were obtained by contacting every conceivable
group in the vicinity--from the Rotary to the Jaycees,
Toastmasters, Knights of Columbus, the hospital
auxiliary members, Sweet Adelines, various illness
support groups, etc. As these groups agreed to take
part in the study (almost 80% of those contacted

consented), they were randomly assigned to one of the experimental conditions. A total of 16 groups were used, with an average of 8.6 members in each group. The groups ranged in size from 4 to 13 members. Since the organizations involved were relatively small and randomly assigned to the various treatment conditions, problems that could arise from the lack of individual random assignment were minimized.

The diversity of the experimental subjects' background characteristics was heartening. The subjects were 52% male (n=71) and 48% female (n=65), for a total of 136 participants. Their ages ranged from 18 to 95, with an average age of approximately 46.5 years. More than half of the sample was married (53.3%), while 4.4% were either separated or divorced, 22.6% widowed, and almost 20% single. A majority of the participants had attended a minimum of one year of college (60.1%). Occupationally, the bulk of the subjects were either business owners, managers, or professionals (50.5% of those employed). A large contingent of the subjects were either retired and/or housewives (33.1%). Gross annual household incomes also varied widely. Approximately 31% had incomes less than $18,000 annually, 37.3% earned between $18,000 and

$40,000, and 31% lived on $40,000 or more. Table 1
presents a breakdown of the sample characteristics, as
well as a comparison with the 1980 census data.

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

The subject population successfully captured the
demographic diversity of the area, but also tended to
be somewhat older and better educated with higher
household incomes, and higher occupational status.
Additionally, there were fewer single people and more
widowed persons than a perfectly representative subset.

Thus, the sample provides a wide diversity of
people from virtually every demographic category and is
far more representative of the population than
university students in psychology 101.[1]

The data collections took place wherever and
whenever subject groups met. The settings ranged from
private homes to the back meeting rooms of restaurants,
club houses, hospital meeting rooms, etc. A 21 inch
color video monitor, attached to a 3/4 inch video
recorder was used to present the treatment material.

Control subjects.

The control groups were made up of students from
introductory classes in communication at a major

university in upstate New York. Students were used for these conditions because of the difficulty in obtaining community groups. The local organizations expected the experimenter to present a program on first impressions, which included the presentation of the video tapes of the "news" segments. It was also feared that the group members would discuss the experiment with their friends (though they were asked not to), who might belong to another group seeing the presentation. By keeping the programs fairly similar, it was hoped that subjects would be less likely to discover and communicate information about the different experimental conditions.

As discussed previously, college students are an atypical group. This situation makes it difficult to accurately generalize beyond that particular group. However, pilot analyses which compared students to non-students exposed to the experimental message failed to yield any systematic differences in reactions to the experimental treatments. These findings, along with the considerations discussed above, justified the use of the students as control subjects.

The control subjects were 70 students, 36 females (52%) and 34 males (48%). Most of the students were

single (94.3%) and almost all had yet to complete a 4
year degree. The majority (over 90%) of the students
were between 18 and 24 years of age.

Measurement Technique

The category scaling techniques typically used for
measuring strength of attitudes in psychological
research all share a number of drawbacks. First, there
are a limited number of response options (categories).
This forces respondents to lump some items together,
even if they can distinguish between them. The result
is a loss of information, due to a lessening of the
resolution between the categories (Lodge, 1981). For
example, if a person was presented with 15 different
photos of people and asked to rate these people on a
seven point scale, eventually that individual would be
forced to rate two or more of the people the same, even
if differences were perceived. Additionally, several
studies have shown that people tend to distort
perceived differences between stimuli when using end
points of a category scale (Eisler, 1963, 1968, Marks &
Cain, 1972, Stevens, 1957).

Second, by offering a fixed number of categories,
the experimenter is artificially imposing ceilings on

the range the respondents can use. This range seems to be arbitrarily chosen, with few guides for the researcher, and typically bears little or no relationship to the stimuli being measured (Payne, 1951; Sudman & Bradburn, 1982). This forces the subject to adopt a system of discrimination at some unknown degree of variance with that individual's own internal propensities, preferences, or perceptions, thereby introducing further distortion and error variance.

A third problem that has major consequences for any research has to do with category scale reliability. Test-retest results show low reliability coefficients on category scales for a variety of tasks (Cross, 1982, Poulton, 1968). Opponents of behavioral research often point to this and suggest that the problem stems from trying to measure something as intangible and inconsistent as a response to a perception. It may well be that at least some of the discrepancies come from the type of scaling technique employed, since psychophysical measurements are known to yield reliable, empirically verifiable data (Cross, 1982).

Fourth, category rating is limited because it is only an ordinal scale of measurement. As such, the

researcher is unable to discuss the difference between
a score of a 4 and a 5 or a 3 and a 4 as having the
same one unit difference. This hinders the researcher
in making conclusions about the data in mathematical
and/or statistical terms. There are, for instance,
constraints on the use of many of the more powerful
statistical techniques which theoretically necessitate
at least interval level data.

A final problem revolves around the subjects'
reactions to the chosen category scale range.
Schwartz, Hippler, Deutsch, and Strack (1985) found
that the response scale was not considered merely a
measurement device by subjects but was actively used as
a possible indication of the researcher's knowledge or
expectations about how they "should" respond. Subjects
typically choose category responses which lie somewhere
in the middle of the range supplied, thus using this
arbitrarily chosen range as a frame of reference for
their reactions. Indeed, Parducci (1982), a confirmed
supporter of category scales, wrote that not only are
category scale responses affected by the number of
available categories, but also by the number of stimuli
presented (p. 92).

S. S. Stevens (1957) was faced with similar

problems as he attempted to measure subjective
impressions of the sensory intensity of physical
stimuli. His response to this dilemma was to develop a
new measurement technique--commonly referred to as
"magnitude scaling", for use in assessing perceptions
of physical stimuli. Since that time, the technique
has been successfully adapted to the measurement of a
wide variety of social stimuli (e. g., Anderson, 1970;
Baker, 1977; Gescheider, Catlin, & Fontana, 1982;
Kuennapas & Wikstroem, 1963; Shinn, 1969; Tillinghast,
1980).

While certainly not a panacea for every scaling
problem, magnitude scaling has a number of virtues.
First, it is very sensitive to even the smallest
difference in perceptions. The subject can indicate
his/her feelings without the artificial constraints of
arbitrarily chosen intervals or an externally imposed,
fixed response range.

Additionally, because magnitude scales yield true
ratio scales, ratio assumptions about the data become
justified. Such a scale not only provides much richer
information than the ordinal level category scales
typically employed, it also allows for the legitimate
use of the more powerful statistical techniques. At a

practical level, this means the researcher may talk about meaningful differences in the exact magnitude (10%, 54%, -110%, etc.) of the changes produced by the experimental manipulations. Another strength of this technique is that it is very reliable. One typically encounters correlations ranging from .90 to .9999 for test-retest data and for scores from two different methods of response to the same stimuli (such as measuring perceptions of light intensity by the strength of a hand grip and loudness of a sound).

Another advantage of the technique is the ability to check whether respondents are using the procedures correctly (criterion validity). This allows for the elimination of faulty data that would otherwise only increase the random variation, thereby decreasing the power of the analysis.

Procedure

Experimental subjects.

To help control for undesirable demand characteristics (Orne, 1962; Silverman, 1968), the research was presented as a study on how people form first impressions of individuals they have never met before. Subjects were told that they would view people

who had been video taped from some television programs
in another city.   The researchers emphasized that the
people on the tapes were unknown to them, that there
were no right or wrong answers, and that the subjects
should feel free to respond solely on the basis of
their feelings.   In addition, the subjects were
encouraged to indicate those feelings exactly as they
were, without worry about what the "proper" or socially
desirable response might be, as there was no "correct"
answer.   Finally, subjects were asked to respect other
people's privacy and avoid looking at their neighbor's
responses.

     Following this introduction, an initial practice
pamphlet was handed out.   This pamphlet, titled
Pamphlet A, consisted of a series of lines of varying
lengths.   Subjects were instructed to assign any number
that seemed to "fit" with their subjective impression
of the length of each line.   Any size or type of number
could be used to evaluate the first line.   The initial
line/number pair became the reference.   Following the
'assignment of that first number, the subject was asked
to compare each consecutive line with the first one.
If, for example, the second line looked five times
bigger than the first line, it was to be given a

number five times bigger than the first number.   Each
subsequent line was compared to the first one.

Then practice Pamphlet B was handed out.   This
time, the subjects were asked to perform essentially
the opposite procedure from Pamphlet A.   That is,
instead of lines as the stimuli, each page had a number
typed on the upper middle part.   Respondents were asked
to draw a line that indicated their perceptions of the
"bigness" or "smallness" of each number by a
corresponding "longness" or "shortness" of the line.
Again, the first number/line pair was the reference;
each consecutive number was to be compared to the
first, and the corresponding line drawn relative to the
length of the line drawn for the first number.   (See
Appendix B for a copy of the experimental materials.)

After each subject received a C pamphlet, he or
she was instructed to draw a line for the average
person that seemed to show how much or how little the
respondent thought the average person had of each one
of the traits.   The purpose of each of these lines was
to provide a reference.   All of the people shown to the
subjects were then compared to this average person.
After all the average person lines were drawn, a video
still of person 1 was shown for 90 seconds.   Subjects

were then asked to indicate their perceptions of this
person compared to the average person.   If the
individual was considered to have say, half as much
strength under pressure as the average person, then the
subject was to draw a line half as long as the line
drawn for the average person on that trait.   If the
person was thought to be four times more intelligent,
then the respondent was to draw a line four times as
long as the average person line, and so on.   Persons 2
and 3 were then shown, and also rated as they compared
to the average person on each of the traits.

        The subjects were then asked to decide whether
they generally liked or disliked the average person and
to circle the letter (L or D) corresponding to the
respective emotions.   Subjects were again strongly
encouraged to indicate how they really felt, positive
or negative, without worry about any normative
prescriptions.   (Pilot work demonstrated that many
people did indicate dislike for the average person as
well as one or more of the stimulus people.)   They were
then asked to draw a line the length of which was
proportionate to how much of that feeling they had for
the average person.   The length of the line represented
the intensity of the emotion, while the circled letter

indicated which emotion was felt--like or dislike. The
C pamphlet provided a measure of pre-exposure
reactions.

At this point, the film clips were shown (also
presented in random order). Following that, there was
a third showing of the video stills (45 seconds each)
during which the subjects indicated post-treatment
impressions of the stimulus persons on each of the
traits (Pamphlet D). It was emphasized to the subjects
that they were free to respond on the basis of their
intuition or "gut reaction" and did not need to have
any reason for their evaluations. This was followed by
a last general like/dislike rating and demographic
questions. Finally, the subjects were debriefed as to
the true nature of the experiment and strongly
encouraged to express any additional thoughts or
feelings they might want to share (either verbally or
in writing), and given the opportunity to ask any
questions. The session lasted approximately 40
minutes. An overview of the procedure for the
experimental subjects is presented in Table 2.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

Control subjects.

The control subjects were handled in the same
manner as the experimental subjects up to the point
when the news clips were normally shown. At that
juncture the subjects were informed by the experimenter
that Person 1 was a Congressman in the House of
Representatives and Person 2 was a local man whose
friends played a practical joke on him (or vice versa).
Person 3 was always described as a newscaster. Again,
the order of presentation was random. The subjects
then rated the three people in the same manner as in
the experimental conditions.

Processing of the Results

To determine if the subjects were using the
scaling technique correctly, each line in Pamphlet B
was measured to the nearest millimeter. Each of the
stimulus lines and numbers corresponded in a 1 to 1
manner with the lines. The first line in Pamphlet A
measures 15 cm, and 15 was the first number provided in
the second pamphlet. A correlation was then computed
for the corresponding values of Pamphlets A and B.
Thus, if the subjects understood the use of the scale
and were cooperating, there would be a high correlation

between the length of the lines drawn in Pamphlet B and
the size of the number assigned in Pamphlet A.   The
Pearson Product Moment Correlation between the
responses to Pamphlets A and B became the criterion
validity measurement.

The small average size and multiplicity of
different groups required to complete each experimental
condition of the study had the virtue of helping to
minimize the drawbacks inherent in a quasi-experimental
design lacking random assignment of individuals to
treatment groups. This did not, however, eliminate the
problem.   Therefore, the analyses are based on a
pre-post treatment difference in means strategy that
emphasizes the magnitude and direction of change in the
dependent variables, rather than the initial or final
values.

One final methodological/measurement step involved
the use of the average person as the reference
standard. Recall that subjects were asked to rate each
person compared to their average person evaluation for
that trait. By dividing each of their judgments of the
amount of a given trait they thought the stimulus
individuals had by their corresponding average person
estimate, it was possible to effect a standardization

of all the subject ratings. The average person always
acquired a value of 1, facilitating comparisons across
different individuals.

Criterion Validity

Figure 1 presents the results of the criterion
validity test based on cross-modality matching of the
data from the initial practice pamphlets. If the
subjects understand the scale, the ratio of the means
of the logs (the geometric mean) produced by the number
estimation and the line production should approach the
value of one as well as produce a straight line power
function when graphed on log-log paper (Stevens, 1975).
The two measures should also be strongly related--a
minimum correlation of .95 is expected (Lodge, 1981).

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

As seen in Figure 1, the data obtained for this
study easily meet these criteria. The individual
deltas represent the geometric means (computed from
ratios to the 15 cm standard). Software limitations in
the graphing procedures did not allow for the
production of log-log ruled coordinates (the log values
are plotted and displayed on arithmetically ruled

axes). When plotted on such coordinates, the relationship is linear and a significantly better fit to the depicted straight line than the slightly convex pattern of the deltas displayed in the figure. The slope of 0.91 is within normally accepted limits of variation from the expected value of 1.0 and the cross-modal Pearson Product Moment correlation was .997.

Slightly over 8% (8.2%) of the original group of respondents did not scale individually with a correlation of .866 or better (75% shared variance) and were removed from the subject pool. Of the remainder, nearly 95% generated a number estimation to line production correlation of .93 or better.

RESULTS

Manipulation Checks

Experimental Target

T-tests comparing the pre- and post-treatment
response ratios showed several significant differences,
largely along expected lines. Figure 2 presents a
comparison of the changes in the average ratings of the
Congressman to those of Alan Scott in the fluff piece
for both the experimental and control conditions.

INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

For the experimental group, ratings of the
politician increased significantly on all of the
dimensions (Table 3). Overall, the politician was
liked considerably more after the subjects were exposed
to the information about him. Two positive changes,
involving intelligence and strength under pressure,
seem to be role-related. That is, when the subjects
heard the vocation of Congressman, they assumed that
such a person would possess those traits.[2]
Dependability, fair-mindedness, and honesty were
directly addressed by the news piece and all showed
significant increases. This suggests the experimental
news clip was effective in producing attitude change.

The politician was also rated as significantly warmer
(interpersonally) after the news clip, as well as
better looking. These changes were unexpected.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

The control subjects reacted very differently to
the politician when all they learned about him was his
occupation (Table 3). While experimental subjects
found the politician significantly warmer, more
intelligent, more fair-minded, more dependable,
stronger under pressure, and more honest; control
subjects changed their minds on only two of these
dimensions. They evaluated the Congressman as stronger
under pressure and significantly more dishonest.
Although ratings on warmth, fair-mindedness, and
dependability decreased, the changes were not
statistically significant.

The two control group changes in trait evaluations
which were significant appear to be due to role
expectations. That is, most subjects expected the
Congressmen to be stronger under pressure--about 31%
stronger than the average person. When judging
honesty, control subjects originally evaluated the
composite stimulus person at a mean honesty level 9%

above the average person. Upon learning of his
profession, this rating dropped to 11% less than the
norm, a statistically significant and meaningful
decline of 18%.

Even though there was no change in perceptions of
the Congressman's intelligence, it is interesting to
note that the initial ratings were very high--32% above
the average. The fact that this did not decrease
indicates that people think politicians are
considerably brighter than the average person. This
perception of higher than average intelligence is in
keeping with the ratings given by the experimental
group, who on the average, rated him over 30% brighter
than the norm. On the whole all subjects thought that
Congressional Representatives are considerably more
intelligent and stronger under pressure than most other
people though they are not to be trusted.

Control Target

The "fluff" piece was originally meant to serve as
a control. Subsequent to exposure to the message there
were only two significant changes between the mean pre-
and post-treatment ratings. The first was a decrease
in perceptions of the stimulus person's strength under
pressure and the second was a decrease in his perceived

intelligence (Table 4). It appears that after the
subjects were informed they would be viewing people
taped from TV programs, many subjects assumed that such
people were likely to be more intelligent than the
average person. This contention is supported by the
high initial ratings of all the target stimuli. Upon
hearing that he was merely an ordinary person, Scott's
rating of intelligence (initially 12% higher than the
average person) decreased to a normal level (0.8%
higher than the average person). A similar dynamic
seems to have taken place relative to the decrease in
perceptions of strength under pressure.

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

The initial reactions of the control subjects were
much the same. With this group the biggest change in
evaluations involved Scott's intelligence: Ratings
dropped from 41% above the average to only 18% higher,
a decline of 19% (Figure 2). This is consistent with
the experimental treatment group results and reinforces
the interpretation that the subjects thought people
appearing on television were likely to be smarter than
most others. When they found out he was just an
ordinary person, intelligence ratings dropped

accordingly.

In the experimental condition, average ratings of Scott's warmth increased only 3%, a nonsignificant change. The warmth rating of Landers, the politician, increased significantly in the experimental condition (an unexpected result), but did not change significantly in the control condition.

It appears that the fluff piece did serve some useful control functions. There were no statistically significant increases in any of the ratings which would appear to be attributable to the message. The changes that did occur could have stemmed from the subjects' prior expectations about the type of people likely to appear on television.

Newscaster Ratings

Upon learning of the newscasters' vocation, the experimental group's ratings increased significantly on four traits. Figure 3 depicts the changes in these ratings. (Because the still picture used for the newscasters was contextually different from those of the Congressman and Fluff person, [posture and background] the newscasters cannot be directly compared to either of the other two targets.)

INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

Overall, experimental subjects tended to view the newscasters as warmer, more fair-minded, more dependable, and more honest than the average person (Table 5). These changes were only manifested by those who had the opportunity to hear the newscaster speak. The control groups did not change their minds about any of the trait attributions when they were merely informed of the targets' occupation.

INSERT TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE

Hypothesis 1: Consensus on the sexes' attractiveness

A comparison of the standard deviations of the attractiveness ratings for the male and female newscasters in both experimental and control conditions yields an unexpected finding (Table 6). Contrary to what the literature would suggest, there is virtually no difference in the relative variation of scores for males and females.

INSERT TABLE 6 ABOUT HERE

Correspondingly, $\underline{t}$-test comparisons show no significant differences between mean initial ratings of male and female newscasters under experimental or control conditions, Experimental $\underline{t}(130)$ =1.93, $\underline{p}$ =.110, Control $\underline{t}(66)$ = -1.68, $\underline{p}$ = .196.

Hypothesis 2: Changes in ratings of attractiveness

The objective physical attributes of both the target people and the newscasters were, of course, constant throughout the pilot sessions. Interestingly, this objectively static "trait" was not immune to the subjective influence of personal information. The composite Congressman was judged significantly better looking after subjects learned of his profession and achievements in the House, $\underline{t}(130)$ =3.24, $\underline{p}$ =.004. Yet this effect was found only for the politician. Neither Alan Scott or the newscasters received comparable rating changes. Since all stimulus individuals received an equal number of exposures, the change appears to have been precipitated by the information rather than the experimental procedure of showing the still pictures several times.

A similar result emerged for the control groups. While there were no statistically significant changes

in the perceived attractiveness of the newscaster or Alan Scott, there was a positive increase in ratings of the Congressman's attractiveness $\underline{t}(67)$ =2.45, $\underline{p}$ =.034. The fact that this change was exhibited by both the experimental and control groups suggests that these subjects thought politicians are better looking (more glamorous?) by virtue of the characteristics of people in their occupation.

Hypothesis 3: Appearance, a positive predictor

The third hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between the newscasters' appearance and ratings of their other personality traits and overall appeal. The results support this contention--showing fairly strong positive relationships for the majority of the traits, both before and after viewing the news clips and in both experimental and control conditions (Table 7). Among the correlations reaching statistical significance, $\underline{r}$ values between physical attractiveness and other pre-treatment trait ratings ranged from .31 to .63; post-treatment correlations ranged from .22 to .51.

INSERT TABLE 7 ABOUT HERE

Beyond these initial results, the relationship

between attractiveness and perception of personality
traits becomes more complicated.

The experimental subjects were exposed to much
more information about the broadcasters than the
control groups. The experimental groups saw the
announcer in action--which included hearing the voice
and observing facial and bodily expressions. These
additional factors acted to attenuate the simple
influence of attractiveness. In 5 of the 7 Pearson
correlations, the strength of the relationship between
attractiveness and trait ratings decreased after
observing the newscaster deliver the message. Among
the control subjects, 5 of the 7 correlations were
higher after the message, indicating a stronger
reaction to the person's looks after learning of the
person's vocation and watching the person present the
news.

This relationship between appearance and
perception of personal traits is further complicated
when one compares sex of the announcers (Table 8).
After the experimental subjects had observed the male
announcers in action, attractiveness became a much
weaker cue for making personality judgments. Note that
all pre-treatment correlations were higher than the

post-treatment correlations.

INSERT TABLE 8 ABOUT HERE

The dynamic for female newscasters is different.
For them there were no consistent disparities in the
effect of attractiveness relative to pre- and post-
treatment subject ratings. Important changes did take
place on specific personality dimensions. For ratings
of intelligence, fair-mindedness, and overall liking,
appearance was more important after exposure to the
news clip. Following the news announcement, it was
considerably less important in judgments of warmth and
honesty. In other words, female newscasters rated as
attractive were considered more intelligent, more fair-
minded, and liked more than when they were rated as
less attractive. After exposure to the experimental
message, the advantage of being considered attractive
was lessened--most notably on the dimensions of warmth
and honesty.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between demographic
variables and ratings of personality traits

Hypothesis 4 predicted that demographics would be
only weakly related to persuasibility, if at all. This
expectation was supported. Table 9 shows the

correlations between change in the ratings of the
Congressman's character and age, educational level,
sex, and occupational status of the subjects. Of the
32 correlations presented, only one was significant at
the .05 level, a ratio even less than one would expect
by chance alone. Nor was there any consistent
direction to the correlations. Of the 32, a little
over half were negative.

INSERT TABLE 9 ABOUT HERE

The correlations between demographics and initial
ratings of the announcer's attractiveness are presented
at the end of Table 9. None of these relationships are
significant in any statistical or practical sense. The
differing directions of the relationships are also
consistent with what one would expect when there is no
relationship between the variables--2 are positive and
2 are negative.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between appearance and
credibility

The next hypothesis proposed a positive
relationship between announcer physical appeal and
persuasiblity, as measured by the change in the
politician's ratings. Table 10 presents these

correlations for the experimental group. The $\underline{r}$ values reveal that the broadcasters' appearances were indeed influential in changing the experimental subjects' minds about three of the politician's character traits. The more attractive the announcer was perceived to be, the more the subjects changed their minds regarding the politician's intelligence, dependability, and strength under pressure, in a generally positive direction. While these correlations are statistically significant, they are of little practical use in predicting subject attitude change (explaining between 3.5% and 7.9% of the variance in the change scores, using Adjusted R^2 values).

INSERT TABLE 10 ABOUT HERE

For the control group subjects, none of the correlations were significant (Table 11). This is to be expected when one considers the fact that the newscaster did not deliver any information regarding the Congressman.

INSERT TABLE 11 ABOUT HERE

A series of Multiple Regressions was done on the

experimental groups' data in an attempt to tease out
which of the seven announcer traits was most
influential in determining changes in the politician's
ratings (Table 12). A rank ordering of the results of
these equations (based on the descending strength of
the amount of variance in the dependent variable
accounted for by each of the predictor variables)
suggests that the best predictor of change in the
Congressman's perceived character was the announcer's
perceived dependability. The more dependable the
announcer was thought to be, the more persuasive he/she
was. The broadcaster's perceived warmth was the next
best predictor of how much the experimental subjects
changed their original impressions of the politician's
personality. The only variable systematically related
to the newscaster's appearance was the politician's
appearance and this was not as important as the
announcer's perceived fair-mindedness.

INSERT TABLE 12 ABOUT HERE

When the data are broken down by the sex of the
announcer, different traits become more influential.
When males delivered the message, their perceived
honesty was the most important factor in influencing

the subjects (Table 13). Warmth was the next, followed
by dependability. It is interesting to note that in
this series of regressions seven of the eight equations
had only one variable which contributed significantly
to predictability. For the remaining equation, only
two variables were entered before cut-off criteria were
met. Adjusted R^2s ranged from .05692 to .24795,
indicating that the male announcer traits accounted for
relatively little of the variance in the change scores.

INSERT TABLE 13 ABOUT HERE

When the same Multiple Regression series was
computed on the data from the people who viewed female
newscasters, a very different pattern emerged (Table
14). Only 3 of the equations had any newscaster
variables entered in--changes in the Congressman's
intelligence, warmth, and dependability. These changes
were best predicted by the women's perceived
intelligence, followed by their warmth. Further, these
announcer traits were remarkably important in
explaining the variance of the change scores--they
accounted for 39% to 50% (Adjusted R^2) of the
variation. By way of contrast, none of the female
broadcaster' traits proved useful in explaining changes

in the Congressman's looks, honesty, fair-mindedness,
strength under pressure, and overall likability.

INSERT TABLE 14 ABOUT HERE

It should be noted that the physical appeal of the
newscaster, whether male or female, had virtually no
direct impact on his/her credibility as assessed by
changes in perceptions of the politician. Rather,
perceptions of certain personality characteristics
seemed to play a much more important role in
determining how persuasive a broadcaster is,
particularly for women.

For male newscasters, perceived honesty was the
best predictor of how much attitude change they
effected, while for females, intelligence was the most
important trait. Tables 15 and 16 present the
intercorrelations between the change in politician's
ratings and the newscasters' perceived personality
traits, broken down by the gender of the newscaster,
for a comparison of the differences between male and
female news people.

INSERT TABLES 15 AND 16 ABOUT HERE

Hypothesis 6: Preference for the attractive newscaster

Although most news stations are concerned with
maintaining their credibility, they are at least
equally aware of the need to attract and keep viewers.
To that end, newscasters are picked on the basis of
their appearance and the manner in which they convey
the daily news, since these are the factors that are
assumed to most heavily influence the audience in
making such a choice.

When given only a picture of a newscaster and
asked to state whether they would tune in to this
person for the evening news, control subjects were
strongly influenced by the announcers' attractiveness
(Table 17). Given the opportunity to view the
broadcasters presenting the news clip, the effect of
the announcers' attractiveness decreased, although it
still played a part in intentions to watch him or her.

INSERT TABLE 17 ABOUT HERE

A comparison of the correlations for male and
female newscasters suggests that in this instance
attractiveness may be more important for female than
male viewers. The correlations are higher for females
than for males in both the experimental and control

groups.

      To test this more directly, an ANOVA was done,
using sex of newscaster, attractiveness of newscaster,
sex of subject, and subject placement in either the
experimental or control group as the independent
variables and the intention to watch as the dependent
variable.   Subjects' perceptions of newscaster
attractiveness were blocked into three levels: Those
who thought the announcer was unattractive, moderately
attractive, and very attractive.

      Of the four variables, subject sex and announcer
attractiveness produced significant main effects (Table
18).   Consistent with prior work, newscaster
attractiveness was important in predicting whether a
news person would be watched--as attractiveness
increased, so did the subjects' intention to view that
particular announcer.   While the person's physical
appeal does not necessarily make him/her more credible,
it does appear to influence the probability that the
person will be watched.   Also consistent with past
research done on sex differences was the finding that
women as a group were more favorable toward the
announcers than were the men--a positive bias that has
been well documented (Eagly, 1983, 1978).   Subjects who

heard the announcers present a news piece were no more
likely to prefer them than those who had only a still
picture to react to.

INSERT TABLE 18 ABOUT HERE

Only one of the six 2-way interactions was
significant--announcer sex X experimental group. A
comparison of the means (a rating of the target's
physical attractiveness divided by the average person's
attractiveness) shows that female newscasters in the
control group were favored more $(X=.40)$ than females in
the experimental group $(X=-.01)$ and males in either
group $(X_{control}=.00, X_{experimental}= -.04)$. (None of
the 3 or 4-way interactions were significant.)

The next hypothesis asserted that announcer
attractiveness should be more influential in the
control condition, where there was less information
provided. While the correlations between newscaster
attractiveness and intention to watch were higher among
the control group subjects than for the experimental
group, this difference was not statistically
significant when entered into an ANOVA.

It was also hypothesized that physical appeal
would be more important for female newscasters than for

males. Again, the data do not support this contention.
When placed in the role of newscaster, appearance was
equally important for both sexes, a rather surprising
finding in light of the gender differences found in
previous studies and some of the other analyses in this
research.

Though this study does support the contention that
appearance is important in determining choice of a
newscaster, one might wonder about its impact relative
to the other announcer characteristics.   Multiple
Regressions were done to answer this question (Table
19).   In the experimental condition, the strongest
factor in predicting intention to watch was the
subject's overall reaction to the newscaster.   Liking
accounted for 10% of the variance; the next most
important characteristic was the broadcaster's
appearance, which explained an additional 5% of the
variance.

INSERT TABLE 19 ABOUT HERE

For the control group, the announcers'
attractiveness was the most important factor in
determining who was likely to be watched.   Perceived
honesty of the anchor was the next most important

trait, boosting the explained variance to almost 15%. None of the other newscaster traits met the entrance criteria for the equation.

SUMMING IT UP

The data from this study provides qualified support for the "What is beautiful is good" thesis, an idea which has received a great deal of publicity. Personality attributions are strongly influenced by a person's appearance.

Physical attractiveness, while often important, does not exert a uniform influence as some have assumed. Gross and Crofton (1977) pointed out that people are not entirely objective when deciding who is good looking and who is not. They found that positive or negative information affects people's perceptions of the target's physical appeal accordingly. This study adds another dimension to the type of information which has an effect on such judgments of attractiveness. People apparently expect professionals in certain occupations (such as politicians) to be better looking. It seems that some occupations are viewed as more socially desirable (Kuennapas & Wilkstroem, 1963, Dawson & Brinker, 1971), hence the assumption that occupants of those jobs are inferred to be more attractive. Causal relationships in abeyance, it was surprising to find that politicians fit into this category while newscasters did not.

When judging who is considered attractive, there was as much consensus on what constitutes male appeal as there was for female appeal. This finding is at odds with some research (Miller, 1970; Murphy et al., 1981) which suggests that there are differences between the sexes on the attractiveness dimension. These disparate findings suggest that while people may well have fairly consistent internalized notions of what/who is or is not attractive, the notions may be more clearly articulated for females than for males. Perhaps disparate socialization patterns make it more acceptable/encourage open discussion of women in terms of physical appeal to a greater extent than men (though this appears to be changing, as evidenced by some of the newer television advertising campaigns). This social constraint must certainly influence the ability to verbalize conceptions of male attractiveness.[3]

Despite some arguments to the contrary, when other, more relevant information is limited, attractiveness was just as influential for male newscasters as it was for females among subjects making personality attributions. However, when the subjects were given the more relevant information (in this case, occupation, voice tone, facial expression and body

gestures), the importance of being attractive lessened
(but did not disappear) for the male announcers.   For
female broadcasters, physical attractiveness often
remained just as important after the added information
as it did before, but only for certain trait
expectations.

The newscasters' attractiveness did not influence
their credibility significantly.   This makes sense when
put in the context of some related research. Recall
that both Norman (1976) and Joseph (1982) found
appearance to be an influencing factor in persuasion--
but only when the person was not thought to be an
expert on a given topic.   Newscasters are presumably
the experts in world affairs (Cathcart, 1969-1970;
Lynch & Sassenrath, 1966; Markham, 1968; Williams,
1963), hence they do not "need" to be attractive to be
convincing.   They are believed by virtue of their role
as broadcasters and the ready verification of their
reports (by turning to another news station or media
source).

While appearance does not affect a newscaster's
ability to persuade, certain perceived personality
traits are understandably important in the decision as
to whether to believe an announcer .   Perceived honesty

of the male newscaster was the single most influential
characteristic (of the six considered in this study).
For female announcers, perceived intelligence was the
most important trait in determining their credibility.
Warmth is the second most common factor for both
females and males. It is intuitively clear why honesty
was so strongly related to credibility--if a person is
honest, then by definition, that person can be
believed. It is interesting that honesty was not the
most important factor for women. Why intelligent
female announcers were more credible cannot be
determined from this study. Certainly intelligent
people are considered capable of lying--recall that
Congressmen were thought to be 3Ø-35% brighter than the
average, yet 1Ø-15% less honest. Obviously, this
interaction needs to be studied more before any
plausible explanations can be made.

Television viewers do prefer to watch those news
people they think are more attractive. This holds true
for both males and females, regardless of other
(presumably more salient) information about the person.
When given additional role-related information,
physical attractiveness dropped to second place behind
overall liking of the newscasters. That is, overall

liking was the best predictor of whether a newscaster
would be watched, when subjects had some role-related
information about the broadcaster. When that
information was missing, physical attractiveness took
precedence as the most influential agent. Presumably,
voice quality, facial expressions, body gestures, and
style of delivery influence the overall liking for the
announcer, so it makes sense that the latter factor
would become more important when such additional
information was provided.

    According to Riggio and Friedman (1986),

    "(G. W.) Allport (1961) considered expressive
    behavior the most important element in person
    perception and he gave the example of the rich
    inferences we draw when observing a public
    speaker. These inferences may or may not be
    reliable judgments and they may or may not be
    valid judgments about the speaker's personality.
    However, public settings are especially important
    because they are the places where most initial
    impressions are formed, yet they do not allow for
    much in-depth exploration." (p. 412).

    In fact, expressive behavior is a substantial aid

in the work of impression formation, taking precedence over physical attractiveness (Riggio & Friedman, 1986). The results of this study support their conclusion.

Even though the control subjects were forced to rely on appearance as the primary cues for judging the announcer's personality, they were able to make a distinction between how attractive a person was and how warm, honest, intelligent, etc. That is, a person could look somewhat dishonest or cold and still be considered good looking.

Nevertheless, it remains true that physically attractive people are the recipients of many positive attributions due to their appearance alone. Several researchers have noticed and discussed the reinforcement qualities of physical appeal relative to attraction (Byrne & Clore, 1967; Byrne & Griffitt, 1973; Byrne, London, & Reeves, 1968; Byrne & Nelson, 1965; Johnson, Gormly, & Gormly, 1973; Marks, Miller, & Maruyama, 1981; Moss, 1969).

There also seems to be a very strong connection between physical attractiveness and the assumption of value similarity; that is, those we find physically attractive are expected to hold ideals and opinions more similar to us than those we consider unattractive

(Marks, Miller, & Maruyama, 1981). Additionally, we are strongly attracted to those who express attitudes/ values similar to our own. Stated another way, homophily is also strongly reinforcing (Griffitt, 1968). Thus, we are more interested in being around people we think are physically appealing and have similar attitudes to ours.

The connection to newscasters becomes readily apparent. Given the reinforcing nature of attractiveness, if we're going to spend an hour or more per day watching someone present the news, we would rather that news person be attractive. We expect the attractive announcer to hold values similar to our own and so we make a closer identification with this person. Since we expect the attractive to be more successful (and in some fields they actually are [Dickey-Bryant, Lautenschlage, Mendoza, & Abrahams, 1986]), honest, intelligent, dependable, fair-minded, etc., and we are similar to them, then we must have all those wonderful traits as well.

There are several aspects of the physical attractiveness stereotype which seem to apply directly to newscasters. That is, attractive people are expected to be more competent, hard working, talented,

honest, intelligent, reliable, emotionally stable, independent, and caring (Downs, Regan, Garrett, & Kolodzy, 1982). When given a choice of three or four newscasters, we may pick the one who seems to be the best personification of these traits, that is, the most attractive one.

Although sex differences in the application of this stereotype have been documented, no consistent patterns emerged in this data when subjects expressed a preference for a news announcer. As noted earlier, the area where the greatest degree of discrepancy between the sexes has emerged is in the importance of physical appearance in date/mate selection. Presumably this is due to the traditional sex roles of the male provider and the female breeder. While this is to some extent a current attitude (Buss & Barnes, 1986), the present study suggests that it is limited to situations dealing with interpersonal attraction. Newscasters are different: They are professionals we rely on for their services/information. To the extent that we consider them professionals and not potential companions, traditional appraisals of a person's value as either provider, nest-keeper or sex partner are not applicable. Thus, physical appearance becomes equally

important for both sexes.

Since the role of broadcaster is not one that relies solely on traditionally masculine traits (such as physical strength) or one that deals primarily with male-dominated interests (such as automobile maintenance), women newscasters have been readily accepted by U. S. audiences (Whittaker & Whittaker, 1976). The present study supports the finding that women are as credible as men and equally respected in the role of newscaster but for different reasons.

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APPENDIX A

Experimental Newscast

A local lawmaker has received the highest award
given by the U.S. House of Representatives. Congressman
Bob Landers has been recognized for having the highest
attendance rate of any member of Congress for 10 out of
the past 11 years. The 38 year old Congressman was
elected when he was only 27. He was re-elected last
year with the largest plurality ever received by a
candidate from his district. Landers is known for his
central role in legislation dealing with truth in
advertising and campaign reform. Last month Landers
was named Congressman of the year by his colleagues in
the House of Representatives. That award is given each
year for integrity and accomplishment in Congress.

Control Newscast

Elsewhere in the news, Alan Scott, a local man,
was surprised and more than a bit puzzled this last
week when he started receiving congratulations and well
wishes on the birth of triplets to he and his wife
Mitzie. Scott, a 35 year old bachelor, has never been
married and found these well-wishes a little hard to
explain to his fiancee. As it turned out, Scott

actually was a father of sorts. His dog Missie had just given birth to three puppies and friends had called the information into the paper with some of the pertinent facts slightly altered. Scott was not amused.   .

Appendix B

PAMPHLET A

THIS LITTLE PAMPHLET CONTAINS A SERIES OF LINES OF VARYING LENGTHS. PLEASE PAGE THROUGH IT. WHEN YOU DO, YOU WILL NOTICE THAT SOME OF THE LINES ARE LONGER THAN THE FIRST LINE ANO SOME ARE SHORTER. WE WOULO LIKE YOU TO GIVE US YOUR IMPRESSION OF THE LENGTH OF THESE LINES BY CHOOSING A NUMBER FOR EACH ONE THAT FEELS TO YOU AS IF IT HAS THE SAME AMOUNT OF "BIGNESS" OR "SMALLNESS" AS THE "LONGNESS" OR "SHORTNESS" OF THE LINE. PUT THE NUMBERS YOU DECIDE ON JUST UNOERNEATH THE CENTER OF EACH OF THE LINES. GIVE THE FIRST LINE ANY NUMBER THAT FEELS RIGHT TO YOU. AFTER THAT, GIVE NUMBERS TO EACH OF THE OTHER LINES ACCORDING TO HOW LONG THEY LOOK COMPAREO TO THE FIRST ONE. FOR EXAMPLE, IF THE SECOND LINE LOOKEO AS THOUGH IT WAS 6½ TIMES AS LONG AS THE FIRST ONE, YOU WOULO GIVE IT A NUMBER THAT SEEMEO 6½ TIMES AS BIG. IF IT SEEMED 31 TIMES AS LONG, YOU WOULO GIVE IT A NUMBER THAT SEEMEO 31 TIMES AS BIG. ON THE OTHER HANO, IF IT SEEMED ONLY 1/15 AS LONG, YOU WOULO GIVE IT A NUMBER THAT SEEMEO ONLY 1/15 AS BIG, ANO SO ON.

YOU MAY USE ANY NUMBER THAT FEELS RIGHT TO YOU, NO MATTER HOW BIG, HOW SMALL, OR WHAT KINO -- WHOLE NUMBERS, FRACTIONS, OR OECIMALS. THE IMPORTANT THING TO REMEMBER IS THAT THE LONGER ANOTHER LINE LOOKS COMPAREO TO THE FIRST ONE, THE BIGGER THE NUMBER YOU SHOULO GIVE IT. IN THE SAME WAY, THE SHORTER IT LOOKS COMPAREO TO THE FIRST ONE, THE SMALLER THE NUMBER YOU SHOULO GIVE IT. IT'S ALSO VERY IMPORTANT FOR YOU TO REMEMBER TO CHECK BACK ANO COMPARE TO THE FIRST LINE ANO THE NUMBER YOU GAVE IT EACH TIME YOU GET REAOY TO GIVE A NUMBER TO A NEW LINE.

103

105

O.K., TO GET A LITTLE MORE PRACTICE, LET'S TRY SOMETHING SLIGHTLY DIFFERENT. THIS PAMPHLET HAS SOME NUMBERS OF VARYING SIZES PRINTED IN THE UPPER MIODLE PART OF EACH PAGE. LOOK THROUGH THE PAGES AS YOU OIO WITH THE FIRST PAMPHLET. WHEN YOU DO, YOU WILL SEE THAT JUST LIKE THE LINES, SOME OF THE OTHER NUMBERS ARE BIGGER THAN THE FIRST NUMBER ANO SOME ARE SMALLER. WE WOULD LIKE YOU TO GIVE US YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT THE SIZE OF EACH OF THESE NUMBERS BY DRAWING A LINE FOR EACH ONE THAT STRIKES YOU AS HAVING THE SAME AMOUNT OF "LONG-NESS" OR "SHORTNESS" AS THE "BIGNESS" OR "SMALLNESS" OF THE NUMBERS.

MAKE THE FIRST LINE ANY LENGTH THAT SEEMS RIGHT TO YOU. AFTER THAT, ORAW LINES FOR EACH OF THE OTHER NUMBERS ACCOROING TO HOW BIG OR SMALL THEY SEEM TO YOU COMPAREO TO THE FIRST LINE. FOR EXAMPLE, IF THE NEXT NUMBER SEEMEO SEVEN TIMES AS BIG TO YOU AS THE FIRST ONE, YOU WOULO MAKE THE LINE FOR IT SEVEN TIMES AS LONG. IF IT SEEMEO 30 TIMES AS BIG, YOU WOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR IT 30 TIMES AS LONG. IF IT SEEMEO ONLY 1/17 AS BIG, YOU WOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR IT ONLY 1/17 AS LONG AS THE FIRST ONE, AND SO ON. MAKE EACH LINE ANY LENGTH THAT FEELS RIGHT TO YOU, NO MATTER HOW SHORT, OR HOW LONG. PLEASE TRY TO MAKE THE LINES FAIRLY STRAIGHT, ANO IF YOU FEEL THE PAPER ISN'T LONG ENOUGH TO SHOW YOUR OPINION, GO RIGHT AHEAO ANO ORAW ANOTHER LINE OR LINES UNDERNEATH THE FIRST ONE, JUST AS IF THAT FIRST ONE KEPT ON GOING.

AGAIN, THE IMPORTANT THING TO REMEMBER IS THAT THE BIGGER ANOTHER NUMBER FEELS TO YOU COMPAREO TO THE FIRST ONE, THE LONGER YOU SHOULD MAKE ITS LINE COMPAREO TO THE FIRST LINE. THE SMALLER IT FEELS TO YOU COMPAREO TO THE FIRST NUMBER, THE SHORTER ITS LINE SHOULO BE COMPAREO TO THE FIRST LINE. ALSO, BE SURE TO CHECK BACK ANO COMPARE TO THE FIRST NUMBER ANO THE LINE YOU OREW FOR IT EACH TIME YOU GET REAOY TO ORAW THE LINE FOR ANOTHER NUMBER.

20

9

3

30

23

17

APPEARANCE IS IMPORTANT IN OUR SOCIETY. THE WAY PEOPLE DRESS, THEIR HAIR STYLES, THEIR MANNERISMS, AND OTHER THINGS ABOUT THEM OFTEN GIVE US IDEAS ABOUT WHAT KIND OF PERSON THEY ARE--FOR INSTANCE, WHAT SOME OF THEIR ATTITUDES MIGHT BE, WHAT THEIR CHARACTER MIGHT BE LIKE AND SO ON. WE WOULD LIKE YOUR HELP IN FINDING OUT MORE ABOUT THE KINDS OF THINGS PEOPLE NOTICE OR THINK ABOUT WHEN THEY ARE FORMING FIRST OPINIONS ABOUT OTHER PEOPLE.

INSIDE THIS PAMPHLET WE HAVE LISTED SEVEN TRAITS THAT SOME PEOPLE HAVE TOLD US ARE IMPORTANT TO THEM--ONE PER PAGE. IF YOU TAKE A GLANCE AT THE NEXT PAGE, YOU WILL SEE THAT THE FIRST TRAIT IS _____. PRINTED ALONG THE LEFT HAND SIDE ARE THE DESIGNATIONS, "AVERAGE PERSON", "PERSON 1", "PERSON 2", AND "PERSON 3". PLEASE START WITH THE FIRST DESIGNATION, THAT IS, THE "AVERAGE PERSON", AND DRAW A LINE ON THE PAPER FROM LEFT TO RIGHT THAT SEEMS AS LONG TO YOU AS THE AVERAGE PERSON IS _____. YOU MAY MAKE THE LINE ANY LENGTH THAT FEELS RIGHT, NO MATTER HOW SHORT, OR HOW LONG, JUST KEEP IN MIND THAT THE MORE _____ YOU THINK THE AVERAGE PERSON IS, THE LONGER YOU SHOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR HIS OR HER _____ AND THE LESS _____, THE SHORTER THE LINE SHOULD BE _____.

TRY TO MAKE THE LINES FAIRLY STRAIGHT AND AFTER YOU DRAW YOUR LINE FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON'S _____, GO ON TO THE FOLLOWING PAGES AND DRAW LINES THAT SHOW HOW MUCH OF EACH OF THE OTHER TRAITS YOU THINK THE AVERAGE PERSON HAS. REMEMBER, THE MORE OF A PARTICULAR TRAIT YOU THINK THE AVERAGE PERSON HAS, THE LONGER THE LINE FOR THAT TRAIT SHOULD BE. THE LESS YOU THINK THE AVERAGE PERSON HAS, THE SHORTER YOU SHOULD MAKE THE LINE.

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

NOW THAT YOU'VE FINISHED DRAWING YOUR LINES FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON, WE'D LIKE TO SHOW YOU THE VIDEO PICTURES OF THREE PEOPLE WHO APPEARED ON A TV PROGRAM WE TAPED IN ANOTHER CITY A WHILE BACK. AFTER WE SHOW YOU THE PICTURE OF THE FIRST PERSON, PLEASE TURN BACK TO THE SECOND PAGE AGAIN AND DRAW A LINE THAT SHOWS HOW YOU THINK THE PERSON IS, COMPARED TO WHAT YOU THOUGHT ABOUT THE AVERAGE PERSON. FOR EXAMPLE, IF THE FIRST PERSON STRUCK YOU AS BEING 23 TIMES AS _____ AS YOUR IDEA OF THE AVERAGE PERSON, YOU WOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR THAT PERSON'S _____ 23 TIMES AS LONG AS YOUR AVERAGE PERSON LINE FOR THAT TRAIT. ON THE OTHER HAND, IF THE PERSON SEEMED ONLY 1/18 AS _____ AS THE AVERAGE PERSON, YOU WOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR THAT PERSON'S _____ ONLY 1/18 AS LONG AS THE ONE YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON. PLEASE BE SURE TO COMPARE WITH THE LINE YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON EACH TIME YOU GET READY TO DRAW YOUR LINE FOR THE SAME TRAIT OF THE FIRST PERSON--IT WILL HELP YOU BE MORE ACCURATE IN EXPRESSING YOUR VIEWS. REMEMBER, ALSO, THAT NO TWO PEOPLE ARE EVER EXACTLY ALIKE IN ANYTHING, SO TRY NOT TO MAKE ANY OF YOUR LINES FOR THESE DIFFERENT PEOPLE THE SAME LENGTH EITHER--UNLESS YOU REALLY FEEL THERE IS ABSOLUTELY NO DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THEM, NOT EVEN THE TINIEST PARTICLE! IF THE PAPER ISN'T LONG ENOUGH TO SHOW YOUR IMPRESSION OF HOW MUCH OF A TRAIT THE PERSON HAS COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON, FEEL FREE TO DRAW ANOTHER LINE OR LINES UNDERNEATH YOUR FIRST ONE, JUST AS IF IT KEPT ON GOING STRAIGHT.

ONCE YOU'VE FINISHED DRAWING ALL YOUR LINES FOR THE FIRST PERSON, PLEASE TURN BACK TO THE SECOND PAGE AGAIN AND WHEN EVERYONE ELSE HAS FINISHED, WE'LL SHOW YOU THE VIDEO PICTURE OF THE SECOND PERSON. AFTER YOU'VE SEEN THAT PERSON AND FEEL READY, START DRAWING LINES THAT SHOW HOW MUCH OF EACH OF THE TRAITS THIS INDIVIDUAL STRIKES YOU AS HAVING, COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON. IN THE SAME WAY, WHEN YOU'VE FINISHED WITH THE SECOND PERSON, TURN BACK TO THE SECOND PAGE AND WHEN EVERYONE IS READY, WE'LL SHOW YOU THE PICTURE OF THE THIRD PERSON. AFTER YOU'VE FORMED YOUR IMPRESSIONS, DRAW YOUR LINES FOR HIM OR HER IN COMPARISON TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON THE SAME WAY YOU DID FOR THE OTHERS.

REMEMBER, THE MORE OF A TRAIT ONE OF THE PERSONS STRIKES YOU AS HAVING COMPARED TO YOUR IDEA OF THE AVERAGE PERSON, THE LONGER YOU SHOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR HIM OR HER ON THAT TRAIT COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON. IN THE SAME WAY, THE LESS OF A TRAIT THE PERSON SEEMS TO HAVE COMPARED TO HOW MUCH OF IT YOU THOUGHT THE AVERAGE PERSON HAD, THE SHORTER YOU SHOULD MAKE YOUR LINE FOR HIM OR HER COMPARED TO YOUR

LINE FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON. TRY TO BE AS ACCURATE AS YOU CAN, BUT DON'T WORRY ABOUT IT. THE IMPORTANT THING IS TO RELAX AND DO WHAT FEELS RIGHT TO YOU, WHETHER YOU HAVE ANY REASONS OR NOT.

WE'VE BEEN ASKING YOU ABOUT SOME SPECIFIC TRAITS OF THESE PEOPLE. NOW WE'D LIKE TO GET AN IDEA OF YOUR GENERAL IMPRESSION OF EACH OF THEM. ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE YOU WILL SEE AN L (LIKE) AND A D (DISLIKE) PRINTED NEXT TO THE "AVERAGE PERSON" AND PERSONS 1, 2, AND 3. STARTING WITH THE AVERAGE PERSON, PLEASE CIRCLE ONE LETTER OR THE OTHER TO SHOW WHETHER YOU GENERALLY LIKE THE AVERAGE PERSON OR DISLIKE HIM OR HER. AFTER YOU'VE INDICATED YOUR LIKING OR DISLIKING, DRAW A LINE TO SHOW HOW MUCH LIKING OR DISLIKING YOU GENERALLY FEEL. THE MORE YOU GENERALLY LIKE OR DISLIKE THE AVERAGE PERSON, THE LONGER THE LINE SHOULD BE. MAKE THE LINE AS LONG OR AS SHORT AS YOU LIKE, WHATEVER FEELS RIGHT. IF THE PAPER ISN'T LONG ENOUGH TO SHOW WHAT YOU FEEL, GO AHEAD AND DRAW ANOTHER LINE OR LINES RIGHT UNDERNEATH THE FIRST LINE, JUST AS IF IT KEPT ON GOING.

PROCEED THE SAME WAY WITH PERSONS 1, 2, AND 3, BUT GIVE EACH OF THEM A LINE THAT SHOWS HOW MUCH YOU LIKE OR DISLIKE THEM COMPARED TO THE AVERAGE PERSON AGAIN. TRY TO MAKE THE LINES FAIRLY STRAIGHT AND REMEMBER THERE'S ALMOST ALWAYS AT LEAST SOME DIFFERENCE IN THE WAY WE FEEL ABOUT DIFFERENT PEOPLE, EVEN IF IT IS ONLY A TINY BIT, SO YOUR LINES SHOULD BE DIFFERENT TOO.

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AVERAGE PERSON   L   D

PERSON #1   L   D

PERSON #2   L   D

PERSON #3   L   D

PAMPHLET D

IN A FEW MOMENTS WE'RE GOING TO GIVE YOU A CHANCE TO SEE THE SAME THREE PEOPLE ON THE TV PROGRAM WE TAPED. BEFORE WE PLAY THE TAPES, WE'D LIKE YOU TO INDICATE YOUR IMPRESSIONS OF THE AVERAGE PERSON AGAIN. AS BEFORE, MAKE THE LINE THAT SHOWS YOUR IMPRESSION OF HOW MUCH OF EACH TRAIT THE AVERAGE PERSON HAS ANY LENGTH THAT FEELS RIGHT TO YOU, NO MATTER HOW LONG, OR HOW SHORT. REMEMBER, THE MORE OF A PARTICULAR TRAIT YOU THINK THE AVERAGE PERSON HAS, THE LONGER THE LINE SHOULD BE AND THE LESS YOU THINK THE AVERAGE PERSON HAS, THE SHORTER IT SHOULD BE. PLEASE DON'T WORRY ABOUT WHAT YOU MIGHT HAVE DONE EARLIER--IT'S YOUR FEELINGS NOW THAT ARE IMPORTANT.

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

THE AVERAGE PERSON

PERSON #1

PERSON #2

PERSON #3

O.K., AS SOON AS EVERYBODY ELSE IS FINISHED DRAWING THEIR LINES FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON, WE'RE GOING TO SHOW YOU THE VIDEOTAPE OF THE PROGRAM THE THREE PEOPLE APPEARED IN. AFTER YOU'VE SEEN THE PROGRAM ON THE MONITOR, PLEASE TURN BACK TO THE SECOND PAGE OF THE PAMPHLET. AT THAT TIME WE WILL SHOW YOU THE VIDEO PICTURES OF EACH OF THE THREE PEOPLE SEPARATELY.

AFTER YOU'VE SEEN THE PICTURE OF THE FIRST PERSON, PLEASE DRAW A LINE THAT SHOWS HOW _____ THIS INDIVIDUAL IS COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR YOUR IMPRESSION OF THE AVERAGE PERSON. PROCEED THE SAME WAY FOR THE REST OF THE PERSON'S TRAITS AND DRAW LINES THAT SHOW YOUR IMPRESSION OF HOW MUCH OF EACH OF THEM HE OR SHE STRIKES YOU AS HAVING COMPARED TO YOUR VIEW OF THE AVERAGE PERSON.

ONCE YOU'VE FINISHED WITH ALL OF YOUR LINES FOR THE FIRST PERSON, PLEASE TURN BACK TO THE SECOND PAGE AGAIN AND WHEN EVERYONE ELSE IS ALSO FINISHED, WE'LL SHOW YOU THE VIDEO PICTURE OF THE SECOND PERSON. AFTER YOU'VE SEEN THE PICTURE OF THE SECOND PERSON AND FEEL READY, DRAW LINES THAT SHOW HOW MUCH OF EACH OF THE TRAITS THIS INDIVIDUAL STRIKES YOU AS HAVING COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON. IN THE SAME WAY, WHEN YOU'VE FINISHED WITH THE SECOND PERSON, TURN BACK TO THE SECOND PAGE AGAIN, AND WHEN EVERYONE ELSE IS DONE, WE'LL SHOW YOU THE PICTURE OF THE THIRD PERSON. WHEN YOU'RE READY, PROCEED AS YOU'VE BEEN DOING AND DRAW LINES FOR THIS LAST PERSON'S TRAITS COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR YOUR IMPRESSION OF THE AVERAGE PERSON.

REMEMBER, THE MORE OF A TRAIT ONE OF THE THREE PEOPLE STRIKES YOU AS HAVING COMPARED TO YOUR VIEW OF THE AVERAGE PERSON, THE LONGER YOU SHOULD MAKE THE LINE FOR THAT TRAIT COMPARED TO WHAT YOU DREW FOR THE AVERAGE PERSON. IN THE SAME WAY, THE LESS OF IT HE OR SHE STRUCK YOU AS HAVING COMPARED TO YOUR IDEA OF THE AVERAGE PERSON, THE SHORTER YOUR LINE SHOULD BE. WHEN YOU'VE FINISHED WITH ALL THREE PEOPLE, PLEASE TURN TO THE FOLLOWING LIGHT YELLOW PAGE.

LAST, BUT NOT LEAST, WE'O LIKE TO GET YOUR GENERAL IMPRESSIONS OF THESE PEOPLE NOW THAT YOU'VE SEEN THEM ON THE TAPEO TV BROAOCAST. AS BEFORE, THERE IS AN L (LIKE) ANO O (OISLIKE) PRINTEO NEXT TO THE "AVERAGE PERSON" ANO PERSONS ONE, TWO, ANO THREE. STARTING WITH THE AVERAGE PERSON, PLEASE CIRCLE ONE LETTER OR THE OTHER TO SHOW WHETHER YOU GENERALLY LIKE THE AVERAGE PERSON OR OISLIKE THEM. AFTER YOU'VE INOICATEO YOUR LIKING OR OISLIKING, DRAW A LINE TO SHOW HOW MUCH LIKING OR OISLIKING YOU GENERALLY FEEL. MAKE THE LINE AS LONG OR AS SHORT AS YOU LIKE, WHATEVER FEELS RIGHT.

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AVERAGE PERSON   L   D

PERSON #1   L   D

PERSON #2   L   D

PERSON #3   L   D

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YOUR THOUGHTS

THAT'S IT! WE'O LIKE TO TAKE THIS OPPORTUNITY TO EXPRESS OUR SINCERE APPRECIATION ANO GRATITUDE FOR YOUR
HELP IN THIS PROJECT. WE'VE ASKEO A BUNCH OF QUESTIONS, BUT WE STILL HAVE A LOT TO LEARN, SO WE KNOW
THAT THERE'S A GOOD CHANCE THAT WE'VE MISSED SOMETHING IMPORTANT ABOUT YOUR REACTIONS TO ONE OR MORE OF
THESE THREE PEOPLE. IF WE OIO, PLEASE JOT OOWN YOUR THOUGHTS BELOW. YOUR IOEAS COULO BE VERY HELPFUL
TO US. WE ARE PARTICULARLY INTERESTEO IN FINOING OUT IF THERE WAS ANYTHING YOU NOTICEO OR REACTEO TO
THAT WE OION'T ASK YOU ABOUT, IF YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT ANY OF THESE PEOPLE CHANGEO (IF SO, WHY?), ANO
HOW YOU WOULD OESCRIBE THE PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH.

Footnotes

1. It is true that all of these people shared one common differentiating characteristic--that of belonging to an organization of some sort. Pilot data do not, however, give any indication that this factor exerted any systematic biasing relationship relative to the focus of this study.

2. This contention was supported by comments from the subjects and content analysis of data from the control group.

3. Think of the typical description of a date. For males: she has a nice body. For females: He has lots of personality (Berscheid, Dion, Walster, & Walster, 1971).

TABLE 1
Experimental Group Demographic Characteristics

		FREQUENCY	SAMPLE PERCENT	CENSUS PERCENT	
AGE	18-24	7	5.3	18.1	
	25-34	25	18.9	21.7	
	35-44	15	11.4	14.6	
	45-54	17	12.9	13.9	
	55-64	30	22.7	14.2	
	65 AND OLDER	38	28.8	17.5	
MARITAL	MARRIED/LIV TOGETH	71	53.8	50.9	
STATUS	SEPARATED/DIVORCED	6	4.5	7.8	
	NEVER MARRIED	26	19.7	31.9	
	WIDOWED	29	22.1	9.4	
INCOME	LESS THAN $11,000	18	14.6	31.2*	
	$11,000 - $17,999	20	16.3	22.1*	
	$18,000 - $23,999	19	15.4	16.1*	
	$24,000 - $29,999	11	8.9	10.7*	
	$30,000 - $39,999	17	13.0	10.7*	
	$40,000 - $49,999	20	16.3	5.4*	
	$50,000 AND MORE	19	15.4	3.3*	
EDUCATION	LESS THAN 8TH GRADE	1	0.8	7.8	
	SOME HIGH SCHOOL	3	2.3	15.4	
	HIGH SCHOOL GRAD	49	37.1	35.6	
	SOME COLLEGE	28	21.2	16.5	
	4 YEAR COLLEGE GRAD	20	15.2	11.2	
	POST GRAD TRAINING	31	23.5	13.5	
SEX	MALES	68	51.5	48.0	
	FEMALES	64	48.5	52.0	
					OF THOSE EMPLOYED
OCCUPATION	BUSINESS OWNER MNGR	26	19.8	11.2	30.2
	PROFESSIONALS	18	13.7	15.8	20.9
	TECHNICIANS	5	3.8	4.1	5.8
	MAJOR SALES	14	10.7	9.3	16.3
	ADMIN SUPPORT	10	7.6	24.0	11.6
	SKILLED LABOR	6	4.6	10.7	7.0
	UNSKILLED/SERVICE	7	5.3	24.3	8.1
	FARMER/RANCHER	0	0.0	0.5	0.0
	HOUSEWIFE	13	9.9	---+	NA
	STUDENT	1	0.8	---+	NA
	RETIRED	31	23.7	---+	NA

*Approximate figures--exact ones not available.
+Figures not available.

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TABLE 2
Experimental Procedure

1. Introduction to the research as a study on how people
form first impressions.

2. Practice Pamphlet A
    Practice Pamphlet B

3. Pamphlet C
    A. Draw average person lines.
       View video still of person 1, draw lines on 7 traits
       View person 2, draw lines
       View person 3, draw lines
    B. Decide like/dislike, draw line for average person
       View video still of person 1, evaluate like/dislike
       View person 2, evaluate like/dislike
       View person 3, evaluate like/dislike

4. Pamphlet D
    A. Draw average person lines
    B. View news clips
    C. View video still of person 1, draw lines on 7 traits
       View person 2, draw lines
       View person 3, draw lines
    D. Decide like/dislike, draw line for average person
       Rate person 1 on like/dislike
       Rate person 2 on like/dislike
       Rate person 3 on like/dislike
    E. Answer demographic questions

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TABLE 3
Student's t Test Scores For Changes in Personality And
Attractiveness Ratings of the Politician

	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			
POLITICIAN TRAITS	MEAN PRE	MEAN POST	t	df
ATTRACTIVENESS	0.774	0.895	3.24*	130
WARMTH	0.754	0.990	5.89**	131
INTELLIGENCE	1.058	1.301	4.80**	130
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	0.889	1.088	3.78**	130
DEPENDABILITY	0.919	1.197	4.96**	130
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	0.954	1.286	6.01**	130
HONESTY	0.905	1.067	3.47*	130
GLOBAL LIKING	0.098	0.601	4.69**	123

	CONTROL GROUP			
POLITICIAN TRAITS	MEAN PRE	MEAN POST	t	df
ATTRACTIVENESS	0.707	0.779	2.45+	67
WARMTH	0.885	0.853	-0.63	67
INTELLIGENCE	1.321	1.325	0.06	68
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	1.117	1.014	-0.88	68
DEPENDABILITY	1.238	1.116	-1.45	68
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	1.103	1.306	2.50+	67
HONESTY	1.089	0.896	-2.52+	68
GLOBAL LIKING	-0.155	-0.091	0.64	67

Note. By definition, the average person always received a score of 1.00, except on the rating of overall liking. For this scale, the average person always received a score of 0.00.

+ p<.05   * p<.005   ** p<.0005

TABLE 4
Student's t Test Scores For Changes in Personality And
Attractiveness Ratings of the Fluff Person

FLUFF PERSON TRAITS	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			
	MEAN PRE	MEAN POST	t	df
ATTRACTIVENESS	0.787	0.810	0.61	131
WARMTH	0.833	0.857	0.45	131
INTELLIGENCE	1.119	1.009	−2.07[+]	130
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	0.921	0.922	0.01	131
DEPENDABILITY	0.939	0.938	−0.01	131
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	1.037	0.884	−2.92[*]	130
HONESTY	0.901	0.939	0.89	130
GLOBAL LIKING	0.136	0.185	0.42	123

FLUFF PERSON TRAITS	CONTROL GROUP			
	MEAN PRE	MEAN POST	t	df
ATTRACTIVENESS	0.793	0.839	1.33	67
WARMTH	0.900	1.067	2.78[+]	68
INTELLIGENCE	1.409	1.186	−1.75	68
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	1.202	1.119	−0.87	68
DEPENDABILITY	1.256	1.195	−0.88	68
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	1.106	1.103	−0.04	68
HONESTY	1.220	1.270	−0.62	68
GLOBAL LIKING	−0.572	0.209	2.88[+]	67

Note. By definition, the average person always received a
score of 1.00, except on the rating of overall liking. For
this scale, the average person always received a score of
0.00.

[+] $p < .05$ [*] $p < .005$

TABLE 5
Student's t Test Scores For Changes in Personality And
Attractiveness Ratings of the Newscaster

NEWSCASTER TRAITS	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			
	MEAN PRE	MEAN POST	t	df
ATTRACTIVENESS	0.885	0.889	0.09	127
WARMTH	0.871	0.985	2.41[+]	127
INTELLIGENCE	1.075	1.163	1.62	127
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	0.929	1.007	1.92	128
DEPENDABILITY	0.985	1.105	2.13[+]	129
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	1.126	1.082	-0.78	129
HONESTY	0.911	0.997	2.03[+]	128
GLOBAL LIKING	0.272	0.351	0.62	123

NEWSCASTER TRAITS	CONTROL GROUP			
	MEAN PRE	MEAN POST	t	df
ATTRACTIVENESS	0.919	0.935	0.54	66
WARMTH	1.186	1.146	-0.51	67
INTELLIGENCE	1.212	1.264	0.68	68
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	1.203	1.276	0.97	68
DEPENDABILITY	1.501	1.453	-0.31	69
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	1.175	1.290	1.43	66
HONESTY	1.300	1.323	0.32	68
GLOBAL LIKING	0.359	0.494	1.33	66

Note. By definition, the average person always received a score of 1.00, except on the rating of overall liking. For this scale, the average person always received a score of 0.00.

[+] p<.05   [*] p<.005

TABLE 6
Ratings of Newscaster Attractiveness by Sex of Newscaster
and Group of Subject

| SUBJECT GROUP | NEWSCASTER SEX | | |
	MALES	FEMALES	F VALUE COMPARISON
EXPERIMENTAL			
PRE			
MEAN	0.806	0.969	1.1720
SD	0.465	0.545	p > .05
N	67	63	
POST			
MEAN	0.897	0.881	1.4958
SD	0.528	0.353	p > .05
N	67	63	
CONTROL			
PRE			
MEAN	0.998	0.847	1.1881
SD	0.404	0.428	p > .05
N	32	35	
POST			
MEAN	1.018	0.859	1.0332
SD	0.413	0.417	p > .05
N	32	35	

Note. The F statistic compares the standard deviations.

TABLE 7
Correlations Between Perceived Attractiveness And Other
Personality Traits--Experimental And Control Groups' Ratings
of Newscasters

	GROUPS			
	EXPERIMENTAL		CONTROL	
NEWSCASTER TRAITS	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
WARMTH	.518 p<.0005 t=-1.993*	.367 p<.0005	.170 p=.085 t=1.403	.339 p=.002
INTELLIGENCE	.473 p<.0005 t=0.452	.505 p<.0005	.504 p<.0005 t=-1.196	.375 p=.001
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	.361 p<.0005 t=1.287	.461 p<.0005	.166 p=.088 t=0.673	.249 p=.020
DEPENDABILITY	.393 p<.0005 t=-0.429	.354 p<.0005	.162 p=.093 t=1.725	.388 p=.001
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	.321 p<.0005 t=-0.380	.288 p<.0005	.398 p<.0005 t=0.033	.401 p<.0005
HONESTY	.625 p<.0005 t=-3.555**	.389 p<.0005	.134 p=.137 t=0.781	.223 p=.034
OVERALL LIKING	.322 p<.0005 t=-1.065	.236 p=.004	.312 p=.005 t=2.098*	.458 p<.0005
N	128	128	69	69

*p <.05   **p <.01

TABLE 8
Correlations Between Perceived Attractiveness and Other
Personality Traits of Newscasters By Gender of the
Newscaster

NEWSCASTER TRAITS	MALES		FEMALES	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
WARMTH	.500 p<.0005	.456 p<.0005	.511 p<.0005	.285 p=.012
		t=-0.497		t=-1.840
INTELLIGENCE	.699 p<.0005	.450 p<.0005	.260 p=.018	.526 p<.0005
		t=-2.894**		t=2.096*
FAIRMINDEDNESS	.598 p<.0005	.483 p<.0005	.186 p=.069	.459 p<.0005
		t=-1.232		t=2.370*
DEPENDABILITY	.472 p<.0005	.394 p<.0005	.301 p=.007	.310 p=.007
		t=-0.596		t=0.072
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	.485 p<.0005	.379 p=.001	.200 p=.057	.225 p=.037
		t=-0.965		t=0.179
HONESTY	.644 p<.0005	.460 p<.0005	.588 p<.0005	.340 p=.003
		t=-2.293*		t=-2.308*
OVERALL LIKING	.547 p<.0005	.221 p=.042	.106 p=.202	.286 p=.012
		t=-2.964**		t=1.839
N	62	62	63	63

*p <.05   **p <.01

TABLE 9

Correlations Between Demographic Variables and Changes in
Ratings of the Politician

CHANGE IN POLITICIAN'S RATING	DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES			
	AGE	EDUCATION	OCCUPATION	INCOME
ATTRACTIVENESS	.071 $p=.420$	-.027 $p=.760$	.060 $p=.500$	-.119 $p=.192$
WARMTH	-.051 $p=.558$	.110 $p=.212$	.024 $p=.784$	-.051 $p=.578$
INTELLIGENCE	-.110 $p=.212$	-.103 $p=.244$	-.062 $p=.486$	-.164 $p=.070$
FAIRMINDEDNESS	.076 $p=.386$	-.062 $p=.484$	.126 $p=.152$	.025 $p=.782$
DEPENDABILITY	-.055 $p=.530$	-.003 $p=.970$	-.120 $p=.174$	-.058 $p=.526$
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE	-.189 $p=.030$	-.023 $p=.796$	-.042 $p=.636$	-.0334\ $p=.714$
HONESTY	-.103 $p=.242$	-.073 $p=.410$	.026 $p=.772$	-.108 $p=.238$
OVERALL LIKING	.020 $p=.830$	.050 $p=.582$	-.036 $p=.692$	.118 $p=.210$
NEWSCASTER APPEARANCE	.037 $p=.670$	-.110 $p=.208$	-.133 $p=.130$	.039 $p=.670$

TABLE 10

Correlations Among Newscaster Personality Trait Ratings and Changes in Politician Personality Trait Ratings-- Experimental Group

CHANGES IN POLITICIAN RATINGS	NEWSCASTER RATINGS--POST EXPOSURE[*]						
	LOOKS	WARM	INTELL	FAIR	DEPEND	STRONG	HONEST	GLOBAL LIKING
ATTRACTIVENESS								
	-.050	.114	-.094	.124	-.067	-.057	.025	.092
N	131	127	129	128	129	129	128	124
p=	.284	.101	.144	.082	.226	.261	.388	.154
WARMTH								
	-.078	.319	-.138	.132	-.104	.017	.037	.159
N	132	128	130	129	130	130	129	125
p=	.187	.0005	.059	.069	.121	.425	.339	.039
INTELLIGENCE								
	.210	.199	.441	.338	.455	.172	.371	.142
N	131	128	130	129	129	129	128	124
p=	.008	.012	.0005	.0005	.0005	.026	.0005	.057
FAIR-MINDEDNESS								
	.127	.231	.096	.201	-.047	-.007	.162	.154
N	131	127	129	129	129	129	129	124
p=	.074	.004	.139	.011	.299	.468	.033	.044
DEPENDABILITY								
	.281	.091	.344	.314	.456	.224	.277	.011
N	131	127	129	128	130	129	128	124
p=	.001	.154	.0005	.0005	.0005	.005	.001	.454
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE								
	.189	.129	.154	.176	.159	.264	.131	-.014
N	131	127	129	128	129	129	128	124
p=	.016	.074	.041	.023	.036	.001	.070	.440
HONESTY								
	.106	.196	.018	.219	.057	.096	.250	.083
N	131	127	129	129	129	129	129	124
p=	.114	.014	.422	.006	.259	.139	.002	.179
GLOBAL LIKING								
	.063	.123	.042	.114	.106	.056	.123	.179
N	124	120	122	121	122	122	121	124
p=	.243	.090	.324	.106	.123	.272	.090	.024

[*]Note. Newscaster attractiveness scores were taken from pre-exposure ratings.

TABLE 11

Correlations Among Newscaster Personality Trait Ratings and Changes in Politician Personality Trait Ratings--Control Group

CHANGES IN POLITICIAN RATINGS	NEWSCASTER RATINGS--POST EXPOSURE[*]						
	LOOKS	WARM	INTELL	FAIR	DEPEND	STRONG	HONEST	GLOBAL LIKING
ATTRACTIVENESS								
	.024	.047	.029	.034	.008	.098	-.068	.020
N	67	68	68	68	68	66	68	68
p=	.423	.353	.407	.392	.474	.217	.272	.437
WARMTH								
	.076	.312	.410	.178	.173	.182	.010	.161
N	67	68	68	68	68	66	68	68
p=	.270	.005	.0005	.074	.079	.072	.468	.095
INTELLIGENCE								
	-.033	.280	.413	.285	.256	.247	.040	.102
N	68	69	69	69	69	67	69	69
p=	.395	.010	.0005	.009	.017	.022	.372	.202
FAIR-MINDEDNESS								
	-.098	.208	.154	.266	.037	.018	-.088	.011
N	68	69	69	69	69	67	69	69
p=	.213	.043	.104	.013	.0382	.441	.236	.465
DEPENDABILITY								
	-.028	.258	.064	.220	.129	-.219	-.087	.139
N	68	69	69	69	69	67	69	69
p=	.409	.016	.302	.035	.146	.037	.239	.128
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE								
	.188	.093	.292	.225	.274	.353	.229	.212
N	67	68	68	68	68	69	68	68
p=	.063	.225	.008	.033	.012	.002	.030	.041
HONESTY								
	.015	.340	.280	.244	.100	-.030	.040	.165
N	68	69	69	69	69	67	69	69
p=	.452	.002	.010	.022	.208	.405	.372	.088
GLOBAL LIKING								
	-.168	.345	.188	.243	.066	-.067	-.067	.037
N	67	68	68	69	68	66	68	68
p=	.087	.002	.062	.023	.296	.297	.294	.383

TABLE 12
Multiple Regression Summary: Predicting Change in the
Politician's Personality Traits From the Newscasters'
Personality Ratings--Experimental Group

CRITERION VARIABLES	PREDICTOR VARIABLES	MULTIPLE R	ADJ R^2	OVERALL F	df	p<
POLITICIAN	NEWSCASTER					
ATTRACTIVENESS	FAIRMINDEDNESS	.206	.034	4.92	1,111	.0286
	ATTRACTIVENESS	.300	.074	5.45	2,110	.0055
WARMTH	WARMTH	.345	.111	15.04	1,111	.0002
	INTELLIGENCE	.472	.209	15.77	2,110	.0001
INTELLIGENCE	DEPENDABILITY	.461	.205	29.89	1,111	.0001
	INTELLIGENCE	.493	.229	17.62	2,110	.0001
FAIRMINDEDNESS	WARMTH	.280	.070	9.47	1,111	.0026
DEPENDABILITY	DEPENDABILITY	.494	.238	35.90	1,111	.0001
STRENGTH	STRENGTH	.270	.065	8.75	1,111	.0038
HONESTY	HONESTY	.284	.072	9.72	1,111	.0023
GLOBAL LIKING	NO VARIABLES ENTERED					

TABLE 13
Multiple Regression Summary: Predicting Change in the
Politician's Personality Traits From the Newscasters'
Personality Ratings--Males in the Experimental Group

CRITERION VARIABLES	PREDICTOR VARIABLES	MULTIPLE R	ADJ R^2	OVERALL F	df	p<
POLITICIAN	NEWSCASTER					
ATTRACTIVENESS	INTELLIGENCE	.327	.091	6.60	1,55	.0129
WARMTH	WARMTH	.272	.057	4.38	1,55	.0410
	DEPENDABILITY	.381	.114	4.51	2,54	.0383
INTELLIGENCE	HONESTY	.345	.103	7.43	1,55	.0086
FAIRMINDEDNESS	HONESTY	.511	.248	19.46	1,55	.0001
DEPENDABILITY	HONESTY	.364	.116	8.38	1,55	.0054
STRENGTH	STRENGTH	.413	.156	11.32	1,55	.0014
HONESTY	HONESTY	.405	.149	10.78	1,55	.0018
GLOBAL LIKING	GLOBAL LIKING	.315	.083	6.07	1,55	.0169

TABLE 14
Multiple Regression Summary: Predicting Change in the
Politician's Personality Traits From the Newscasters'
Personality Ratings--Females in the Experimental Group

CRITERION VARIABLES	PREDICTOR VARIABLES	MULTIPLE R	ADJ R^2	OVERALL F	df	p<
POLITICIAN	NEWSCASTER					
ATTRACTIVENESS	NO VARIABLES ENTERED					
WARMTH	WARMTH	.410	.152	10.91	1,54	.0017
	INTELLIGENCE	.637	.384	21.24	2,53	.0001
	FAIRMINDEDNESS	.688	.442	6.55	3,52	.0134
INTELLIGENCE	INTELLIGENCE	.605	.354	31.09	1,54	.0001
	DEPENDABILITY	.644	.393	4.47	2,53	.0392
FAIRMINDEDNESS	NO VARIABLES ENTERED					
DEPENDABILITY	DEPENDABILITY	.645	.405	38.37	1,54	.0001
	WARMTH	.721	.501	11.49	2,53	.0013
STRENGTH	NO VARIABLES ENTERED					
HONESTY	NO VARIABLES ENTERED					
GLOBAL LIKING	NO VARIABLES ENTERED					

TABLE 15

Correlations Between Newscaster Traits and Changes in
Ratings of the Politician--Male Newscasters

CHANGES IN POLITICIAN TRAITS	NEWSCASTER TRAITS							
	LOOKS	WARM	INTELL	FAIR	DEPEND	STRONG	HONEST	GLOBAL LIKING
ATTRACTIVENESS								
	-.031	.285	.189	.273	.056	-.104	.238	.214
N	67	65	66	66	67	66	66	62
p=	.403	.011	.064	.013	.328	.202	.027	.048
WARMTH								
	-.004	.231	.146	.097	-.070	.089	.046	.136
N	67	65	66	66	67	66	66	62
p=	.486	.032	.122	.220	.287	.240	.358	.148
INTELLIGENCE								
	.047	.231	.238	.131	.230	.081	.292	.013
N	67	65	66	66	67	66	66	62
p=	.352	.032	.027	.147	.031	.259	.009	.461
FAIR-MINDEDNESS								
	.201	.441	.376	.460	.205	.218	.465	.266
N	66	64	65	66	66	65	66	61
p=	.053	.0005	.001	.0005	.049	.041	.0005	.019
DEPENDABILITY								
	.263	.278	.284	.257	.298	.300	.319	-.042
N	67	65	66	66	67	66	66	62
p=	.016	.012	.010	.018	.007	.007	.004	.374
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE								
	.267	.280	.358	.218	.163	.409	.220	.007
N	67	65	66	66	67	66	66	62
p=	.015	.012	.002	.040	.094	.0005	.038	.479
HONESTY								
	.271	.318	.257	.329	.212	.217	.379	.219
N	66	64	66	66	66	65	66	61
p=	.014	.005	.020	.004	.043	.041	.001	.045
GLOBAL LIKING								
	-.045	-.006	.159	.206	.176	.151	.241	.344
N	60	62	61	61	62	61	61	62
p=	.365	.482	.110	.058	.086	.123	.031	.003

TABLE 16
Correlations Between Newscaster Traits and Changes in
Ratings of the Politician--Female Newscasters

CHANGES IN POLITICIAN TRAITS	NEWSCASTER TRAITS							
	LOOKS	WARM	INTELL	FAIR	DEPEND	STRONG	HONEST	GLOBAL LIKING
ATTRACTIVENESS								
	-.069	.007	-.272	.016	.091	-.234	-.151	-.080
N	64	62	63	62	64	63	62	62
p=	.295	.480	.015	.452	.238	.032	.120	.269
WARMTH								
	-.130	.390	-.334	.162	-.019	-.073	.028	.186
N	65	63	64	63	65	64	63	63
p=	.151	.001	.004	.103	.440	.283	.413	.072
INTELLIGENCE								
	.334	.174	.583	.515	-.030	.296	.453	.316
N	64	63	64	63	64	63	62	62
p=	.004	.087	.0005	.0005	.406	.009	.0005	.006
FAIR-MINDEDNESS								
	.079	.101	-.073	.008	-.116	-.248	-.091	.045
N	65	63	64	63	65	64	63	63
p=	.266	.216	.282	.476	.180	.024	.240	.363
DEPENDABILITY								
	.296	-.088	.402	.379	.036	.115	.226	.092
N	62	64	63	62	64	63	62	62
p=	.009	.249	.001	.001	.388	.185	.039	.238
STRENGTH UNDER PRESSURE								
	.149	-.001	-.018	.127	-.245	.004	.012	-.058
N	64	62	63	62	64	63	62	62
p=	.111	.496	.446	.163	.026	.488	.465	.327
HONESTY								
	-.064	.087	-.228	.077	-.134	-.142	.056	-.160
N	65	63	64	63	65	64	63	63
p=	.307	.249	.035	.273	.144	.132	.331	.106
GLOBAL LIKING								
	.135	.215	-.082	.024	-.152	-.064	-.020	-.037
N	60	62	61	60	62	61	60	62
p=	.148	.050	.265	.428	.119	.313	.440	.388

TABLE 17
Correlations Between Newscaster Attractiveness and Subjects'
Intention to Watch Them

	GROUP	
	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
ALL ANNOUNCERS	.239 p=.005	.382 p=.001
MALE ANNOUNCERS	.152 p=.119	.420 p=.009
FEMALE ANNOUNCERS	.340 p=.006	.496 p=.001

TABLE 18
Summary Table of ANOVA: Intention of Watching the Newscaster
By Attractiveness of the Newscaster, Sex of the Subject, Sex
of the Newscaster, and Group of the Subject

	SS	df	MS	F	p<
MAIN EFFECTS					
SUBJECT SEX	6.49	1	6.49	7.32	.008
NEWSCASTER SEX	0.93	1	0.93	1.05	.307
ATTRACTIVENESS	7.22	2	3.61	4.08	.019
GROUP	1.24	1	1.24	1.40	.238
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS					
SUBJ SEX X NEWS SEX	1.55	1	1.55	1.75	.188
SUBJ SEX X ATTRACTIVE	0.84	2	0.42	0.48	.623
SUBJ SEX X GROUP	1.72	1	1.72	1.94	.166
NEWS SEX X ATTRACTIVE	0.95	2	0.48	0.54	.585
NEWS SEX X GROUP	4.38	1	4.38	4.94	.028
ATTRACTIVE X GROUP	2.77	2	1.38	1.56	.213
RESIDUAL	140.79	159	0.89		
TOTAL	177.33	182	0.974		

TABLE 19
Multiple Regression Summary: Predicting the Intention to
Watch a Newscaster From Perceived Personality Traits

PREDICTOR VARIABLES	MULTIPLE R	ADJ R^2	OVERALL F	df	p<
EXPERIMENTAL					
FAIR-MINDEDNESS	.295	.078	9.637	1,101	.0025
CONTROL					
GLOBAL LIKING	.5296	.2689	24.173	1,62	.0005

NEWSCASTER PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS:

ITS INFLUENCE ON CREDIBILITY AND INTENTION TO WATCH THE NEWS

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ABSTRACT

The role played by physical attractiveness in
influencing judgments of other people has been extensively
studied and is now well established. Nevertheless, the
potential range of inquiry is very broad, and the impact on
judgments of television newscaster credibility is one aspect
of the general paradigm that has received very little
attention. A quasi-experimental design was used to assess:
1) variation in ratings of male versus female newscasters'
appearance; 2) possible changes in perceived physical
attractiveness when learning of a person's occupation; 3)
the effect of physical appearance on trait attributions when
other information is/is not provided; 4) the relationship
between subject demographics and perceptions of newscaster
qualities; 5) the association between news announcer
credibility and attractiveness; 6) the influence of gender
in predicting newscaster credibility; and 7) the role of
appearance in stating a preference for a newscaster.
Members of a wide variety of social gatherings viewed two of
four news announcers (2 male and 2 female) presenting
stories about a "local Congressman" (experimental piece) and
a "local man" (control piece). Results indicate: 1) For
newscasters, there is as much consensus on male as female
attractiveness; 2) perceptions of attractiveness are
influenced by information about the person; 3) additional
support for the oft-noted positive relationship between
physical appeal and other trait attributions; 4)

demographics are not related to the perceived attractiveness or credibility of newscasters; 5) a weak positive correlation between newscaster attractiveness and credibility; 6) for male newscasters perception of personal honesty was the dominant factor influencing their credibility, while for females perceived intelligence was the most influential; 7) subjects generally preferred to watch attractive newscasters, a preference that applied to men and women equally.

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