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Pixels & the Polls: The impact of female role models in television media on the perceived electability of women

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PIXELS & THE POLLS: THE IMPACT OF FEMALE ROLE MODELS IN TELEVISION MEDIA ON THE PERCEIVED ELECTABILITY OF WOMEN

by
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Submitted to Brigham Young University in partial fulfillment of graduation requirements for undergraduate University Honors

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ABSTRACT

PIXELS & THE POLLS: THE IMPACT OF FEMALE ROLE MODELS IN TELEVISION MEDIA ON THE PERCEIVED ELECTABILITY OF WOMEN

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It’s no secret that women are extraordinarily underrepresented in government and misrepresented in media. To better understand the impact of fictional television media featuring a positive female leader on the public’s perception of the electability of women and on their willingness to support women's campaigns, this study aimed to measure participants’ voting choices after viewing a positive fictional female leader. 104 college-age participants viewed fifteen-minute segments taken from episodes of CBS’s political drama Madam Secretary featuring either a male president or a female Secretary of State as each navigated political challenges. The participants completed vignette election experiences between nonpartisan municipal candidates, a male and a female, to determine how participants would vote following the stimulus. They additionally rated each candidate on their "likability" and "competence" and were shown the profile of a "real" female candidate with the option to donate a portion of their compensation to the candidate’s campaign. The present study found no significant change in the electing of or in the positive rating of female candidates following the women-lead stimulus, nor did it
find any significant change in donation to a woman’s campaign. The findings of this thesis encourage additional study under different conditions, especially with longer and more consistent exposure to the media, to investigate the potential prosocial impacts of television media portraying strong female characters.

Keywords: female political candidates, television media, elections, donations
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Introduction

It’s no secret that women aren’t extraordinarily well-represented in government. Several nonprofit organizations with the aim of preparing women to run for public office, such as She Should Run and Vote Run Lead, have cropped up in recent years, yet public offices nationwide still go to men at unbalanced rates. Yet it’s not just the ballot where women are chronically underrepresented: research has found that women are significantly underrepresented on primetime TV when compared with their male counterparts (Sink & Mastro, 2017). Many gender stereotypes have persisted from decades past, including the common incidence of media depicting women in a sexually provocative or bossy and rude manner—rather than competent, intelligent, and kind.

Previous studies have linked higher levels of sexist portrayals of women in the media with a lower share of women candidates (Haraldsson & Wängnerud, 2019) and gender stereotypes are known to contribute to the mitigation of women’s leadership emergence (Lawson & Lips, 2014). Yet even the mere portrayal of both males and females in leadership positions tends to correlate with female participants feeling more suitable to assume the role (Bosak & Sczesny, 2008). Beyond empowering women to take on leadership roles, political media—especially media with lead female characters—have the potential to increase political engagement (Groshek & Krongard, 2016; Hoewe & Sherrill, 2019; Weinmann, 2017).

We suspect that media which portrays women as competent, capable leaders will in turn increase women’s electability in the eyes of the public. Hoewe and Sherrill’s 2019 study surveyed regular viewers of CBS’s political television drama Madam Secretary, which portrays a non-stereotypical strong-yet-humane female lead, finding that viewing
the show had prosocial implications including increased political engagement. Other research indicates television dramas have the capability to influence political attitudes and behaviors (see Besley, 2006; Tenenboim-Weinblatt, 2009). There are reasons to suspect that viewing a non-stereotypical representation of a female leader may increase a person’s likelihood of voting for a female candidate and/or donating to her campaign. Some understanding of the relationship between positive female representation in the media and willingness to elect women may help inform future research on the topic.
Literature Review

American Women in Politics

As of 2021, the Center for American Women and Politics found that women occupy 26.7% of seats in the 117th Congress, 31.0% of state legislature seats, and 30.6% of state elective executive offices. On a municipal level, women make up 30.5% of officeholders. No level of government is exempt from disproportionate ratios, and these numbers become much worse for Republican women, women of color, and LGBTQ+ women (Center for American Women and Politics, 2021).

Problematic outcomes

The argument that women may be inherently different, perhaps in a way that bars most from being successful politicians, has its place in feminist literature but is highly controversial. In the past, some feminist scholars have doubted and attempted to erase sex differences in behavior, attitudes, and leadership styles (Ashmore & Sewell, 1998; Caplan, MacPherson, & Tobin, 1985; Fischer, 1993; Hollander & Howard, 2000). They expected that demonstrating a lack of real differences between women and men would culminate in equality. Such scholars argue that studies focusing on finding sex differences only serve as “self-fulfilling prophecies” because of researchers’ tendencies to “exaggerate” information that validates their preconceptions (Hollander & Howard, 2000, p. 340). Others, such as Eagly (1995), argued that denying the existence of differences doesn’t aid women in the goal of becoming more equal, and that natural differences do not make women inferior (see also Scarr, 1988). In more recent years, the focus has shifted to societal determinants of gender differences and looked at the inequalities of women as stemming from normative societal beliefs about gender and
gender differences, not the differences themselves (Poeschl, 2021; see also Hyde et al., 2019). If anything, differences should serve to reinforce the need for more women in elected office, as women likely have different and important opinions and experiences to bring to the table (e.g. Dahlerup, 1988;¹ Beckwith & Cowell-Meyers, 2007).

**Potential causes**

Public opinion towards women in politics has generally become more positive over time in the last fifty years (Smith et al., 2018; Eagly & Karau, 2002) (see Fig. 1) and more people indicate they would be willing to vote for a qualified female president than ever (Smith et al., 2018). These numbers, taken alone, should mean that the American public is better able to accept female leaders. Yet these trends don’t match the proportion of actual women in office (Center for American Women and Politics, 2021).

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¹ Dahlerup’s (1988) research explored Scandinavian, not American, women in politics and the issues and policies more frequently brought up by female politicians.
Commonly cited for the deficit is the “incumbency advantage,” or the idea that current officeholders tend to have an advantage in reelection to office (Carroll & Jenkins, 2001; Schwindt-Bayer, 2004). Current officeholders are predominantly male and therefore current male officeholders have an incumbency advantage over female challengers. Additionally, the eligibility pool theory (Fox & Lawless, 2004) could still be a complicating factor. Two decades ago, scholars anticipated the percentage of women in politics to steadily improve as more women entered traditionally masculine pipeline careers, such as law or business (Duerst-Lahti, 1998), yet the number of women officeholders has not increased to match the proportion of women in relevant fields (Center for American Women and Politics, 2021; U.S. Census Bureau, 2018; U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). Sexism against women in the workplace is well documented, including in pipeline professions such as law and business (Baxter & Wright, 2000; Gervais & Hoffman, 2012; Lips, 2018), which could mean that women are experiencing the limiting effects of sexism quite early on the pathway to candidacy, when they are just emerging in their fields.

The key, and current barrier, to getting more women sworn in has been identified as the candidate emergence process—including, crucially, the initial decision to run (Fox & Lawless, 2004, see also Fowler & McClure, 1990; Niven, 1998; Sanbonmatsu, 2002). A large obstacle to women making the decision to run is gender socialization (Fowler & McClure, 1990), defined by Wharton (2004) as processes over the lifetime through which gendered qualities and characteristics are acquired, leading to a sense of self.

Generally, men are more likely than women to be encouraged to run for office, and are also more likely to believe they are qualified than similarly qualified women (Fox
& Lawless, 2004; see also Fowler & McClure, 1990; Niven, 1998; Sanbonmatsu, 2002; Swers, 2002). Fox and Lawless indicate three factors that may impact women’s willingness to throw their hat into the ring: first, balancing family and career (Fox, Lawless, & Feeley, 2001), a burden which disproportionately affects women (UNDP, 2019; see also Fowler & McClure, 1990); second, the political culture of the place in which the woman would run, which can serve to discourage women from candidacy in more traditional and conservative states and municipalities, including in Republican party strongholds and the South (Smith et al., 2018; Hill, 1981); and third, the motivations of the potential candidate, as women are more likely to run if there is a particular policy or policies which they are passionate about (Swers, 2002). Yet Fox and Lawless determined that none of these factors were especially significant in the women they studied—instead, they found that women’s self-perceived qualifications were the strongest predictor of candidate emergence (Fox & Lawless, 2004). Given that media play a large role in gender socialization, it is reasonable to explore the impact of media on women’s self-perception and the attitudes and behaviors towards women of the public at large. Gendered media not only socialize women to think differently about themselves and other women, but also men to think differently about women (Garretson, 2015; Harris & Scott, 2002; Signorielli, 1989).

**Women in the Media**

Though media is far from the only factor influencing gender socialization, it is certainly a contributing one. Women in general are portrayed on television less frequently (39.6%) than their male counterparts (60.4%), with no change since the 1990s (Sink &

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2 Hill (1981) additionally suggests that women’s emergence is greater in states that have a longer history of electing women and don’t have a large income or educational disparity, providing insight into the type of cultures that would be beneficial to women’s emergence as candidates.
Mastro, 2016; Signorielli & Bacue, 1999). Haraldsson & Wängnerud (2018) define media sexism as something which both “reflects sexism in society (media reproducing sexism)” but also “portrays a more gender-segregated picture than reality (media producing sexism),” (p. 524-525). The two create a cycle of reinforcement: stereotypes work their way into media, and the media create additional sexism and perpetuate stereotypes.

**Stereotypes portrayed in media**

Historically, women have been underrepresented in the media, especially in unconventional and vocational roles (Signorielli & Bacue, 1999), aligning with a post-war image of what it means to be a woman (Meyerowitz, 1994). Yet even in fourth-wave feminist times, women are significantly underrepresented on primetime TV (Sink & Mastro, 2017). Many gender stereotypes have persisted from decades past, with female characters typically portrayed in a submissive (Connell, 1987; Sink & Mastro, 2017), youthful (Gerbner et al., 1980; Harwood, 2007; Matthes, Prieler, & Adam, 2016), hypersexualized, or hyperfeminized manner (Sink & Mastro, 2017; see also Harris & Scott, 2002), rather than competent, intelligent, and powerful leaders. These stereotypes persist in media due to traditional and conventional roles for women being emphasized in society and are therefore portrayed—and “exaggerated”—on-screen (Hollander & Howard, 2000, p. 340).

**Media as a stereotype creator**

These stereotypical depictions of women, derived from societal expectations and gender norms, affect real women in two primary ways. First, women are “primed” to

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3 It is worth noting that Sink & Mastro (2017) surprisingly found that men were more likely to be objectified on television than women, a trend they call “hunkvertising” in advertisements and reality television. They note that this does not come close to approaching the level of the sexualization of women in the media (p. 17).
conform to conventional and traditional roles; second, the broader public is “primed” to view women in a stereotypical and conventional manner. Priming theory, which stems from agenda-setting theory, is a mass communication theory which argues that individuals are exposed to certain themes or issues, which changes how they evaluate themselves and others (Weaver, McCombs, & Shaw, 1998; McCombs & Shaw, 1972). For example, young women exposed to sexually objectifying modern media are subsequently associated with higher levels of self-objectification (Fardouly et al., 2015), and women shown portrayals of other women in stereotypical (e.g., homemaking, beauty) fields rather than STEM fields did more poorly on math exams (Luong & Knobloch, 2017). Media exposure also seems to impede women’s aspirations, whether educational or vocational (Davies et al., 2002).

Ambient sexism involves sexism experienced indirectly, through witnessing others be treated in a sexist manner (Bradley-Geist, Rivera, & Geringer, 2015; Glomb et al., 1997). Though not typically applied to television media, the term and its related theories can encompass television media when the female characters are depicted in situations experiencing sexism. Ambient sexism is associated with decreased self-esteem in the viewer, potentially leading the viewer to believe they or others like them are unqualified for their aspirations or ambitions (Bradley-Geist, Rivera, & Geringer, 2015; Glomb et al., 1997). They believe there are additional barriers standing between them and their ambitions, regardless of whether those barriers actually exist (Bradley-Geist, Rivera, & Geringer, 2015). The consistent exposure to messages that reinforce gender stereotypes could be causing women to seek to align themselves with those stereotypes, or at least to avoid deviating from the norm. These trends apply specifically to leadership emergence:
regions of the United States with higher levels of sexist portrayals of women in the media correspond with a lower share of women candidates (Haraldsson & Wångerud, 2019), and gender stereotypes are known to contribute to the mitigation of women’s leadership emergence (Lawson & Lips, 2014).

For the broader public, TV viewing in general—and especially TV viewing of shows that contain very little positive portrayal of women—are associated with more sexist views of women in society (Garretson, 2015; Signorielli, 1989). Beliefs about gender roles, sex, and values are influenced by exposure to such media (Harris & Scott, 2002). While this may not be the “golden age” for women on television that some believe it is (Sink & Mastro, 2017), there is evidence that this could be changing. Increases in positive portrayals of women and minorities have been shown to increase social tolerance (Billard, 2019; Garretson, 2015), and the casting of women in roles which involve outside employment and prestigious occupations steadily increased from the 1970s through the late 1990s (Signorielli & Bacue, 1999) into the current century. Perhaps it is these more positive portrayals of women that could create a sort of reverse ambient sexism; the public viewing competent and intelligent women characters may be more likely to view real women in a positive light.

**Fictional Political Media and its Impact**

Fictional political television media are a type of television drama in which government officeholders are depicted managing state, national, or international crises. Popular American examples include *Scandal* (ABC), *The Good Wife* (CBS), and *Madam Secretary* (CBS), which have been praised for their capable and intelligent female leads (Sink & Mastro, 2017), and also include male-led shows such as *House of Cards* (HBO),
Designated Survivor (ABC), and The West Wing (NBC). Fictional political television shows can often be categorized as entertainment-education as they deal with very real social issues, though often only in hypotheticals (e.g. Madam Secretary season 4, episode 15, “The Unnamed,” which features a female Secretary of State advocating for and seeking to aid the Rohingya people, a minority ethnic group. The episode discusses the issue at length in a hypothetical scenario and follows up with slides for more real-world information and action) (Hall et al., 2018). Entertainment education programs fit within the dual-process model of entertainment experience, posited by Bartsch and Schneider (2014). This model claims that a lasting impression on viewers, including further interest in the issues presented, can be achieved via entertainment that is simultaneously “fun” (or includes hedonic motivation) and also “thought-provoking” (or includes eudaimonic motivation) (Bartsch & Schneider, 2014; see also Weinmann, 2017).

Fictional Political Television’s Effect on Leadership Emergence

Even the mere portrayal of both males and females in leadership positions tends to correlate with female participants feeling more suitable to assume the role (Bosak & Sczesny, 2008). Shows such as Madam Secretary, The Good Wife, and Scandal have been cited as notably featuring strong, intelligent female leads (Russell, 2016; Schwind, 2017) but unfortunately are in the minority of shows that air (Hoewe & Sherrill, 2019; Sink & Mastro, 2017).

It’s possible that positive female representation in political television media would have a stronger impact on increasing women candidates than simply having more women in elected positions (Haraldsson & Wängnerud, 2019), which suggests that fictionalized accounts of women in office may, for now, be a more useful tool to getting
women to run than additional real-world examples. The positive fictional media representation required to effect real change would likely need to steer away from portraying women with less agency, credibility, and space than their male counterparts (Haraldsson & Wängnerud, 2019). The position of power also needs to be perceived as attainable, though this is less significant if the female character and the female viewer are in different fields (e.g., a woman aspiring to election to the school board viewing the portrayal of a female national Secretary of State) (Luong, Knobloch-Westerick, & Niewiesk, 2019). These researchers have identified a loose framework within which television producers can safely expect their show to have prosocial impacts, rather than exacerbating the gap and further deepening divides, while still maintaining creative control.

**Fictional Political Television’s Effect on Voters**

The effects of television viewing on the public’s political opinion and behavior is far from a new field (see, for example, Holbert, Hill, & Lee, 2014; Moy & Scheufele, 2000; Swigger, 2017; Weinmann, 2017). Fictional political media have specifically been shown to have the potential to increase political engagement, in voting as well as campaigning and engaging in political discussion (Hoewe & Sherrill, 2019; Groshek & Krongard, 2016; Weinmann, 2017), indicating that such media have a prosocial impact on their audiences. Television drama has been shown to be capable of influencing political opinions (e.g. Gerbner et al., 1984, Slater, Rouner, & Long, 2006), or at least the audience’s interpretation of the issue discussed (Tenenboim-Weinblatt, 2009). When it does influence actual ideology, the strength of the effect has been found to be dependent
on preexisting ideology and transportation of the narrative (Slater, Rouner, & Long, 2006).

It may be that drama is the key found in fiction, especially when compared with cable news programs, which contributes significantly to the political opinions and understanding of viewers (Gerbner et al., 1984). Holbert (2005) suggests that this may be due to television’s ability to connect the viewer with characters and stories, putting a face on what otherwise might be abstract political issues such as abortion, gender roles, or law enforcement. This theory falls under the umbrella of parasocial relationships and transportation.

Parasocial Relationships & Transportation

Sherrill & Hoewe (2019) define narrative transportation as “the mental process of entering the world of the narrative,” (see also Appel et al., 2015). A viewer finding themselves transported into the world of the narrative is more likely to accept the ideas presented (Sherrill & Hoewe, 2019). Green and Brock (2000) find transportation leading to similar reactions and emotions as would be present in a personal experience. This identification with characters is part of what is known as parasocial relationships, which Sherill & Hoewe (2019) classify as one-sided relationships formed over time spent with a character, for example over the course of a television season or series. Rubin and McHugh (1987) found that the perceived competence of characters was a factor in the development of such relationships, and therefore necessary for a strong effect on viewer’s opinions. Rubin and Perse (1987) hypothesize that a viewer may be just as persuaded by a fictional character with whom they have a “relationship” as they would be in a
conversation with an actual person, suggesting that fictional women leaders may have the power to serve in pseudo-mentor roles, or, at the very least, as opinion leaders.

With or without the presence of parasocial relationships, portrayals of the everyday effects of policy may help the viewer think more deeply and critically about the issues in the polls. It may allow the viewer to develop empathy for the real people affected by certain policies (Mutz & Nir, 2010). Especially among individuals not interested in politics, the emotional connections created by transportation and/or parasocial relationships can serve to get viewers to a baseline level of understanding of the issues (Bartsch & Schneider, 2014). Political television may also allow the viewer to sympathize with the difficulties of holding public office, as they are better able to see the often complex and hidden moving parts behind decisions officeholders must make (see Holbrook & Hill, 2005; Phalen, Kim, & Osellame, 2001).

**Potential Effect of Airtime on Issues**

While a typical local news station may cover issues for typically anywhere between 20 seconds and three minutes, a television series can devote episodes or even entire seasons to political issues and cover them with greater intensity (Holbrook & Hill, 2005). Time seems to play a significant role in the political opinion development of individuals, as researchers found heavy television viewers becoming more moderate rather than ideologically liberal or conservative as they watched an increasing amount of television (Gerbner et al., 1982). More recent research found heavy television viewers’ opinions shifted significantly on political and social issues (Garretson, 2015, and that even more limited exposure—such as a couple of hours—changed viewers’ beliefs on political corruption (Mulligan & Habel, 2012).
Meanwhile, the effects of a high level of consumption time pose a problem as long as television content remains predominantly sexist. In 1989, researchers found heavy television viewers as having more sexist views for the time period, at which time the majority of women characters were fairly traditional (Signorielli, 1989). Not much has changed in thirty years’ time—most women characters on television still tend to fit into categories of submissiveness, hypersexuality, and stereotypical occupations (Sink & Mastro, 2017). As Sherrill & Hoewe (2019) conclude, little has changed over time in women’s representation and that representation’s effects.

**Madam Secretary in the Research**

The CBS television show *Madam Secretary* has been the subject of several studies on the impact of feminist political television media. The series is an American political drama from CBS which ran for six seasons from 2014-2019, amassing a total of 120 episodes. It stars Téa Leoni as Elizabeth McCord, a mother of three, CIA analyst, and political science professor who becomes the United States Secretary of State after the sudden death of her predecessor. Eventually, Secretary McCord successfully campaigns for the United States presidency. A creation of Barbara Hall, the show focuses on international crises and diplomacy, office politics, and the personal lives of McCord and her family (Andreeva, 2014). The show has received academic attention and praise, including for “present[ing] a new model for a fictional political woman…privilege[ing] maternal thinking as a foreign policy strategy,” (Russell, 2016). Another found the McCord character “able to stand up for herself” (Schwind, 2017). Yet some scholars find the show a far cry from where feminist television ought to be. A few find McCord void of necessary flaws and therefore setting “unrealistic standards for actual women who aspire
for political office,” (Schwind, 2017) or “operat[ing] from existing codes that do not let
[her] establish a new image of feminine identity in TV politics,” (Caprioglio, 2018), i.e.
the code of a privileged white upper-middle-class woman.

**Research Limitations and Gaps**

Most of the present paper’s cited studies are limited in scope, which makes them
difficult to generalize to a nation where politics swing widely by county, city, and even
neighborhood lines. It is nearly impossible to study women’s public leadership
emergence as a whole, including diverse and interdisciplinary subjects such as the initial
factors influencing the decision to run, recruiting candidates, campaigns, media coverage
of candidates, public attitudes, and actual elections. Consequently, studies are limited to
mere portions of the process, typically concentrated in specific geographical regions.
Such research is typically of a quantitative nature and may also be missing the lived
experiences of women who have seriously considered running for office but been
dissuaded.

Additionally, beyond studies indicating that viewers may become more politically
engaged due to viewing fictional political television (Hoewe & Sherrill, 2019; Groshek &
Krongard, 2016; Weinmann, 2017)—which also largely assumes that those viewers
weren’t necessarily previously apt to become politically engaged, thus influencing their
decision of television shows to watch—little research has drawn any clear lines between
the direct portrayal of a fictional political female actor and how a viewer of that character
may behave in an election involving both male and female candidates. This is the
intersection of research where this study chooses to focus.
**Research Questions**

The objective of the present experimental study is to understand the impact that a fictional television media featuring a positive female leader has on the public’s perception of the electability of women and on their willingness to support women's campaigns. The researcher poses the following questions:

RQ1: Does exposure to fictional positive female leaders influence a person’s willingness to vote for a female candidate?

RQ2: Does exposure to fictional positive female leaders influence a person’s perception of a female candidate’s likability and competence?

RQ3: Does exposure to fictional positive female leaders influence a person’s willingness to donate to a female candidate’s campaign?

Based on existing research finding a prosocial impact after viewing television media featuring positive female leaders, the present study predicts that viewing the fictional female leader will increase a person’s likelihood of voting for a female candidate, perceiving that candidate as both more likable and more competent, and donating to a female candidate’s campaign. As such, the following hypotheses are proposed (see Figure 2).
H1: Participants who watch the stimulus featuring a female leader will be more likely than the control group to vote for female candidates.

H2: Participants who watch the stimulus featuring a female leader will be more likely than the control group to perceive female candidates as likable.

H3: Participants who watch the stimulus featuring a female leader will be more likely than the control group to perceive female candidates as competent.

H4: Participants who watch the stimulus featuring a female leader will be more likely than the control group to donate monetarily to a female candidate’s campaign.
H5: Participants who watch the control video featuring a male leader will be no more likely than the general population to vote for female candidates and will therefore be more likely to vote for male candidates.

H6: Participants who watch the control video featuring a male leader will be no more likely than the general population to perceive female candidates as likable and will therefore be more likely to perceive male candidates as likable.

H7: Participants who watch the control video featuring a male leader will be no more likely than the general population to perceive female candidates as competent and will therefore be more likely to perceive male candidates as competent.
Methods

Overview

In order to test the previously stated hypotheses, a between-subjects digital experiment was conducted. After initial screening and setting up an in-person appointment in a campus research lab, participants viewed a 15-minute clip of the CBS political drama *Madam Secretary* featuring either a male or female leader coping with international crises. They were then asked to complete five randomized vignette election tasks between similar male and female candidates, rate these candidates on likability and competence, make a choice about donating to a certain candidate’s campaign, and answer several questions for controlling factors.

The selection of *Madam Secretary* was based on similar factors to its inclusion in Hoewe & Sherrill’s 2019 study; that is, its strong political focus and strong lead female character. Sink and Mastro (2017) also note *Madam Secretary* among other popular examples that represent “the exception” rather than the norm in modern programming (p.16). The show deals with real political issues, if in fictional-yet-realistic situations, allowing the viewer to feel a sense of realism and find the show relevant to current politics. The show has been examined as a “new model for fictional political media,” (Russell, 2016) that manages to both humanize and laude a woman for her leadership capacities. *Madam Secretary* has been the subject of choice for a host of research into political, feminist, and political-feminist television media.

Pilot Study

The researcher conducted a pilot study of the two clips used prior to the beginning of research. Two 15-minute packaged clips of *Madam Secretary* were edited, the first a
stimulus containing clips from two episodes (Season 3, Episode 1, “Sea Change” and Season 2, Episode 19, “Desperate Remedies”) with a female leader, character Secretary of State Elizabeth McCord, dealing with climate change and a possible pandemic, respectively. The second clip, the control, was edited from two episodes (Season 3, Episode 1, “Sea Change” and Season 5, Episode 17, “The Common Defense”) with a male leader, character President Conrad Dalton, dealing with climate change and a possible pandemic, respectively. The two videos were edited to be as close in duration as possible (the stimulus is 15:37 in length, the control 16:02) and to contain similar features and contents (e.g. level of excitement/aggression, focus on political issues, conservative or liberal bias). The results of the pilot study indicated that the clips chosen were suitable and had no significant differences in terms of whether the participants found them exciting, enjoyable, boring, interesting, confusing, focused on politics, or containing conservative or liberal bias. Though the difference was not statistically significant, the control (male) clip was rated somewhat more aggressive by several participants than the stimulus (female). As such, we choose to include the same questionnaire asking study participants how aggressive, exciting, enjoyable, etc. the video was in order to be able to control for any factors should they have become significant.

**Recruitment and Timeframe**

This study made use of a convenience sample. Social media and university classes were used to recruit participants. Calls for participants were distributed through the researcher and research assistants’ various social media accounts, and invitation slides were shared by various Brigham Young University professors in their classrooms. The
study was carried out from February 23 to March 24, 2021, following approval in October 2020 by the Internal Review Board of Brigham Young University.

Sample

A sample of 104 participants was collected. It consisted of young adults within the Provo, Utah area, largely attending one of the area’s two universities. Participants were only screened to ensure they were above the age of 18 and that they were willing and able to come to the lab in person, and no participants were excluded for any other reason. Because of the composition of the schools and the community, the sample was predominantly white (84.62%) and politically conservative (48.08%). Participants ranged in age from 18-25 with a median age of 21. Female participants (59.62%) constituted over half of the sample. Male participants (39.42%) made up roughly two fifths of the pool and non-binary participants (1.06%) one percent. The gender disparity may have been due to recruiting taking place largely on social media apps Instagram and Facebook, promoted by primarily female research assistants. Republicans (48.08%) made up roughly half of the sample, Independent and Unaffiliated voters (28.85%) over a quarter, and Democrats (21.15%) approximately a fifth.

Procedure

Participants took part in the study in person at a Brigham Young University research lab supervised by trained undergraduate research assistants. In compliance with CDC guidelines and university policies during the coronavirus pandemic, all RAs wore masks and sanitized computers and other high-touch surfaces in between research participants.
**Informed Consent and Demographic Questionnaire**

Participants first read and completed the informed consent and were asked if they have any questions. They filled out a brief questionnaire asking demographic questions including gender, age, ethnicity, and political party affiliation.

**Control/ Stimulus Applied**

The participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions in the independent-groups design. Each condition involved viewing a 15-minute clip from *Madam Secretary* featuring either a woman leading in political situations or a man, as described previously. The participants viewed the clip on a large flat-screen TV in a darkened and temperature-controlled room, with the research assistant leaving them alone but within earshot to watch the clip.

**Vignette Election**

After viewing the stimulus, half of the participants were randomly assigned to first complete five vignette election experiences with hypothetical candidates. "Elections" were presented between two nonpartisan municipal candidates, a male and a female. In each matchup the information presented for candidates “running” against each other was the same (i.e. each research participant saw the same ages, marital status, number of children, and biography for Candidate A and Candidate B), however, which profile appears first and the gender and name of each candidate was randomly assigned (see Appendix 1). In each case, participants were asked to select for which candidate they would be most likely to cast their vote and then to rate them on their "likability" and "competence" using a 5-point Likert scale of 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) for each individual attribute. This activity was repeated five times with five different matchups of
candidate biographies with randomized genders and names. The candidates in each election were similar in terms of qualifications, life experience, and writing style. Each pairing of contesting candidates remained the same, however, the gender of Candidate A and B randomly switched between male and female, with one traditionally masculine name and one traditionally feminine name in each mock election race (see Appendix 1).

**Donation Task**

Following the vignette election tasks, the participants who were randomly assigned to first complete the vignette elections were then shown the profile of a female who they were led to believe was a real candidate for school board in the Provo area, which included an image and short biography. Participants were asked if they would like to donate a portion of their compensation to the candidate’s campaign, and to indicate the amount they would like to donate, ranging from $0.00 to their entire compensation of $10.00. The remaining 50% of participants completed this task before moving on to the vignette election experience. The compensation in the donation task was not actually subtracted from the participant’s compensation, even in the event they chose to donate. The other half of the research participants were randomly selected to have the "donation" portion of the questionnaire appear before the vignette election experience to counterbalance effects that reading about a "real" female candidate may have on their vote choices.

**Controlling Factors Survey and Debrief**

At the end of the experience, participants were asked to rate the clip they had seen on a variety of factors found to differ moderately in the pilot study. A debriefing at the very end of the survey explained to the participant that no portion of their compensation
was donated, and the reason for the deception and lack of complete information surrounding the study.

Data Analysis

A 2 (condition) x (sex) MANCOVA was conducted to examine video viewed on political support of candidate and financial donation. Age and political party preference were controlled for in the analysis, as were differences found between the stimulus and control videos in the pilot study.
Results

Preliminary Analysis

A series of paired-samples t-tests in a preliminary analysis at the midpoint of the study revealed that participants liked the female candidates more, $t \ (103) = 2.62, p = .01$, but did not find them more competent than male candidates, $t \ (103) = .90, p = .37$. Table 1 shows means and standard deviations for both. Participants were also equally likely to vote for a female as a male candidate, $t \ (103) = 1.35, p = .18$.

Table 1: Means and standard deviations for male and female candidates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Candidate rating</th>
<th>Gender of candidate</th>
<th>Likability (SD)</th>
<th>Competence (SD)</th>
<th>Times voted (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.16 (.50)</td>
<td>4.04 (.48)</td>
<td>2.64 (1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.05 (.49)</td>
<td>4.00 (.58)</td>
<td>1.36 (1.08)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Main Analysis

A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine differences in video on voting preference, candidate likability and competence, and donation amount. Gender and party affiliations were explored as moderators. Variables that differed on the pilot test (aggressiveness, focus on politics, conservative bias, and liberal bias) were used as control variables.

The MANOVA revealed a non-significant multivariate effect of video, $F \ (6, 57) = 1.32, p = .27$, gender, $F \ (6, 57) = 1.58, p = .27$, and party affiliation, $F \ (18, 161) = 1.12$,
p = .33. Additionally, there were no interactions between video and party, F (18, 161) = .59, p = .91, video and gender, F (6, 57) = 1.45, p = .21, or between video, party, and gender, F (6, 57) = 1.44, p = .22. In other words, the gender of the leader in the clips participants viewed did not influence their voting preference, how much they liked or felt a male or female candidate was competent, nor how much they donated to a female candidate.
Discussion

Summary of the Findings

Overall, the stimuli viewed had no significant impact on participants’ willingness to vote for women, find them competent or likable, or donate to a woman’s campaign. These findings ran contrary to the researchers’ hypotheses, which predicted that the participants who viewed the stimulus tape with a strong female lead would be more likely than those who viewed the male lead to vote for women in hypothetical municipal elections, find the women involved in said elections likable and competent, and donate more money to a real woman candidate’s campaign. That is, a member of the public viewing 15 minutes of a strong female character’s leadership would not necessarily be more likely to vote for or support women in a subsequent election. This makes it clear that if any political attitudinal or behavioral change surrounding women is possible with the influence of television political dramas, it will likely need to be under longer or different conditions. Those creating or looking to create dramatic television media with the intention of having a prosocial effect on the audience concerning their opinions of and willingness to elect women would likely best serve their aims by creating content of a longer duration. This will allow the viewer to spend more time with the fictional female leader and have a better chance of developing parasocial relationships with the character or feeling transported into the narrative as a whole.

Though the researcher’s hypothesis expected that, consistent with previous research (e.g. Haraldsson & Wängnerud, 2018, Haraldsson & Wängnerud, 2019; Hoewe & Sherrill, 2019) exposure to non-stereotypical media would result in somewhat lessened bias against female candidates, nonsignificant results are not entirely surprising given the
context of the study. No other research appears to have been conducted with so brief an
exposure to the stimuli (in the case of this study due to the researcher’s limitations, a
mere 15 minutes). Media are also only one factor affecting gender socialization and bias.
Madam Secretary itself may, for some, do more harm than good in this regard; as some
critics find the title character “unrealistic” (Schwind, 2017) or still somewhat conforming
to existing codes and stereotypes (Caprioglio, 2018). A different character entirely may
be needed, as audiences tend to latch on to certain characters over others.

Though there was no significant difference between those who were exposed to
the stimulus and the control, the hypothetical women candidates included in this study’s
vignette elections were voted for in 51% of matchups, a much higher number than
expected by the researchers. This seems to suggest to the researchers that the participants
may not have noticed or considered the gendered names of the hypothetical candidates in
the vignette elections (see Appendix 1). The limitations of this study, its implications, and
the potential avenues forward will be discussed in the following sections.

**Limitations**

A significant problem in this study is the relatively brief exposure to the stimuli.
Each clip was a mere 15 minutes long, which is hardly the amount of viewing time likely
required to make any significant impact on the biases and beliefs of a single voter. The
limited duration was largely due to a lack of resources on the researchers’ part—with
more time and funding, a longer study could have been undertaken. Transportation and
parasocial relationships may take time to develop, and as discussed in the literature
review, time spent with the political dramatic media seems to play a crucial role in the
development and change of political opinions. Mulligan and Habel (2013) were able to
find evidence of change in individuals’ willingness to believe in conspiracies about political corruption after a feature length film; a duration significantly longer and more involved than a 15-minute clip.

This study also may have erred in choosing a television show featuring such a high-level fictional official (the Secretary of State) and asking participants to then vote in municipal elections—the participant may find the necessary leadership qualities and abilities for a woman in each position to be too different from one another to have connected the two.

Due to the study’s location and procedural limitations, the population of the study serves as a significant limitation. Consisting only of individuals 18-25 living in Utah County and the surrounding region, the pool was predominantly white (84.62%), majority female (59.62%), and made up of more political conservatives (48.08%) than any other political ideology. Due to participants being recruited heavily on social media platforms Facebook and Instagram and from there self-selected, only those interested in the study and its compensation would have selected themselves for the research. Especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, some potential participants may have opted not to join the in-person study due to health concerns.

Additionally, during the socially and politically tumultuous year of 2021, several factors may have influenced the decision making of participants. The use of a pandemic as a hypothetical issue in the stimulus and control videos may have influenced the results due to the highly politicized nature of reactions to the COVID-19 pandemic. The election and swearing-in of the first woman United States Vice President, Kamala Harris, just prior to the beginning of the study, also may have influenced participants’ behaviors; they
may have seen women’s representation as less of a problem and thus seen the glass ceiling in politics as more or less shattered, conversely, they could have been inspired by Harris’s real-life example and been more likely to vote for women candidates in the first place. It’s difficult to tell what kind and just how much of an impact these and similar coexisting factors may have had on the results of the study.

Though media are certainly an important factor affecting gender socialization, they are only one factor, and television media make up only a portion of media available today, especially with the prevalence of social media and the recent boom of short video sharing platform TikTok. Additional research will be necessary to measure how popular portrayals on short video sharing platforms will impact women’s gender socialization and leadership emergence as well as voters’ behavior, especially considering the number of teenage and young adult consumers such platforms command. Unfortunately, the nature of most research is merely correlative, as causal studies can be difficult to set up.

Implications and Future Research

Though any number of complicating factors could have contributed to the lack of significant results in this study, the clearest assumption to draw is that fifteen minutes of television, no matter how counter-stereotypical, is not sufficient to change beliefs or biases in voters in the period following viewing. As Billard (2019) suggests, prosocial effects, especially reduction of prejudice, may be more likely to occur over regular viewing over time rather than a “drench” method of viewing a program all at once. Thus, it may be necessary for content creators looking to impact their audiences’ beliefs around and behavior towards women to create content of a longer duration in order to benefit from the effects of parasocial relationships and transportation.
The researcher suggests repeating the experiment with regular, appointment-based viewing of the television program, as well as testing individual participants for voting bias before and after their viewing experience. Additional study also ought to be conducted among more diverse populations, including older populations, non-white populations, and politically liberal populations.

Conclusion

This study found no significant difference in the willingness of the public to vote for women, rate women candidates as more likable or competent, or donate to women’s campaigns following a counter-stereotypical television viewing treatment. However, the prosocial effects of counter-stereotypical political television have been demonstrated by past researchers and yet leave many avenues to be explored. Duration of time audiences spend with positive female characters ought to be considered by dramatic television content creators hoping to positively impact their viewers’ beliefs and behaviors surrounding electing women to office. Though 15 minutes of television may not be enough to change a voter’s mind in the measured instance, evidence exists that a longer duration or regular but spread-out viewing of such media may be able to contribute to the effort to close the gap in women officeholders at all levels of government. With quite a long way to go and no quick progress being made, this research is a step in the direction of identifying possible media solutions.
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Appendix 1: Vignette Election Example

The following is one of the five matchups participants were shown during the vignette election experience. Of the four similar but gender- and name-swapped matchups that follow, participants were randomly shown one before moving on to a new set of matchups.

Matchup 1A

**Candidate A**  
Jason Stevens  

*46 years old*  
*Married, 2 kids (12 and 9)*

I am a parent, entrepreneur, humanitarian and family advocate, and community leader. I and my spouse of 20 years have loved living in Provo for most of our married life and enjoy getting to know our fellow residents in this beautiful city.

**Candidate B**  
Jessica Armstrong  

*51 years old*  
*Married, 3 kids (17, 13, 11)*

I love Provo. Always have. Always will. My spouse and I both attended BYU. After my early career in Wyoming, we decided to raise our family here in Provo because of the high quality of life and the uniqueness of this amazing city. There is no other city in the world quite like Provo.

Matchup 1B

**Candidate A**  
Anna Stevens  

*46 years old*  
*Married, 2 kids (12 and 9)*

I am a parent, entrepreneur, humanitarian and family advocate, and community leader. I and my spouse of 20 years have loved living in Provo for most of our married life and enjoy getting to know our fellow residents in this beautiful city.

**Candidate B**  
Tony Armstrong  

*51 years old*  
*Married, 3 kids (17, 13, 11)*

I love Provo. Always have. Always will. My spouse and I both attended BYU. After my early career in Wyoming, we decided to raise our family here in Provo because of the high quality of life and the uniqueness of this amazing city. There is no other city in the world quite like Provo.
Matchup 1C

**Candidate A**  
Tony Stevens  

*46 years old*  
*Married, 2 kids (12 and 9)*

I am a parent, entrepreneur, humanitarian and family advocate, and community leader. I and my spouse of 20 years have loved living in Provo for most of our married life and enjoy getting to know our fellow residents in this beautiful city.

**Candidate B**  
Anna Armstrong  

*51 years old*  
*Married, 3 kids (17, 13, 11)*

I love Provo. Always have. Always will. My spouse and I both attended BYU. After my early career in Wyoming, we decided to raise our family here in Provo because of the high quality of life and the uniqueness of this amazing city. There is no other city in the world quite like Provo.

Matchup 1D

**Candidate A**  
Jessica Stevens  

*46 years old*  
*Married, 2 kids (12 and 9)*

I am a parent, entrepreneur, humanitarian and family advocate, and community leader. I and my spouse of 20 years have loved living in Provo for most of our married life and enjoy getting to know our fellow residents in this beautiful city.

**Candidate B**  
Jason Armstrong  

*51 years old*  
*Married, 3 kids (17, 13, 11)*

I love Provo. Always have. Always will. My spouse and I both attended BYU. After my early career in Wyoming, we decided to raise our family here in Provo because of the high quality of life and the uniqueness of this amazing city. There is no other city in the world quite like Provo.