PARASOCIAL INTERACTION AND IDENTIFICATION TOWARD MEDIA PERSONAE AND THEIR CORRELATION WITH PATHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY TRAITS AMONG EMERGING ADULTS IN USIU - AFRICA

BY

IAN JUNIOR KAAYO

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY - AFRICA

SPRING 2019
PARASOCIAL INTERACTION AND IDENTIFICATION TOWARD MEDIA PERSONAE AND THEIR CORRELATION WITH PATHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY TRAITS AMONG EMERGING ADULTS IN USIU - AFRICA

BY
IAN JUNIOR KAAYO

A thesis report submitted to the School of Humanities and Social Sciences in partial fulfillment of the requirements for Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology

(MA Clinical)

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY - AFRICA

SPRING 2019
DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented in any other university/institution for consideration. This thesis has been complimented by sources respectfully acknowledged. Where text, data (including spoken words), graphics, pictures or tables have been borrowed from other sources, including internet, these are specifically accredited and references cited in accordance with anti-plagiarism standards.

Signature: ___________________________ Date __________________________

Ian Junior Kaayo (ID 638187)

APPROVAL

This thesis has been submitted for review with approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signature: ___________________________ Date __________________________

Dr. Oscar Githua, Supervisor – Assistant Professor of Psychology, School of Humanities and Social Sciences

Signature: ___________________________ Date __________________________

Prof. Martin C. Njoroge – Dean, School of Humanities and Social Sciences

Signature: ___________________________ Date __________________________

Amb. Prof. Ruthie Rono – Deputy Vice Chancellor, Academic and Student Affairs
COPYRIGHT

All rights reserved. No part of this thesis may be photocopied, recorded or otherwise reproduced, stored in a retrieval archive system or transmitted in any electronic or mechanical means without permission of the USIU-A or the author.

Ian Junior Kaayo © 2019.
DEDICATION

I dedicate this research to the Creator of the Universe, my parents, and my siblings. I also dedicate this to my fellow Clinical Psychology classmates and to all the geeks and nerds around the globe.
ABSTRACT

With expanding internet access, television viewing, cinematic and movie releases, among other entertainment distributions, consumption of media in the 21st century is becoming widespread among the general public, especially young people. It may appear that greater media consumption means that users one way or another connect with favorite characters featured in them. This present study mainly focused on two forms of media engagement among users which are Parasocial Interaction (especially its prolonged derivation termed Parasocial Relationship) and Identification towards both real media personae like celebrities and fictional ones amongst 116 emerging adults, aged between 18 and 25, studying at United States International University – Africa in the Kenyan environment. From a clinical psychological standpoint, this paper attempted to find out the extent to which PSI (particularly the far more enduring PSR) and identification toward a media persona correlated with pathological personality traits. The study used a survey procedure in which a questionnaire included standardized scales such as CPPI to measure PSI/PSR, CPI to measure identification, and PID-5-BF to measure pathological personality traits. To analyze the data, the study tallied the frequency of commonest media personae types while producing mean scores for overall PSI/PSR and identification strengths, overall personality dysfunction and specific pathological personality traits. The study additionally utilized Pearson’s correlation coefficient to find out correlational strengths between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits then between identification and pathological personality traits. Obtained results showed that most students preferred real life media personae like actors/actresses, news anchors, or rappers. Further results found that students had stronger PSI/PSR than identification towards their favorite media personae. The moderate correlation noticed between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits, and then identification and
pathological personality traits might explain how media personae youth admire mold their personality development. Additional analysis showed that gender accounted for the differences in the overall PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits as well.

**Keywords:** parasocial interaction, parasocial relationship, identification, media personae, pathological personality traits, emerging adults
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I wish to acknowledge those who lent a helping hand during the whole period of me strategizing this thesis. I would not have made it far without them. First and foremost, I wish to extend my utmost praises to the Creator of the Universe above for how he/she bestowed upon me determination and grit to persist with life, in spite of the setbacks faced. I also want to show my appreciation for Dr. Oscar Githua whose compassion, wisdom, enthusiasm, guidance and consistent nudging allowed me to explore uncharted areas I am very fascinated by in psychology. I want to especially appreciate both Ruth N. Thuku and Gerald M. Mahuro (both from the Institutional Research University Advancement Division at USIU-A) who were cooperative enough to share the resources needed for this research. I additionally owe a lot of thanks to Gertrude Wawire for her much needed assistance in data collection, Andrew Mwangi for his general advice in installing data analytical software, Rhodah Kithure for inspiring me to not lose hope whenever I felt low, and MaryAnn Wakanya for printing resources. Other people I am grateful towards are Information Technology specialists at USIU-A Esther Moyinoluwa, Brian Omuse, and Beatrice Owino who all provided me with SPSS version 24 and Dr. Michael Kihara who showed me how to obtain a sample. I am extremely pleased by the creators of online websites such as ResearchGate.net, PsycNet.apa, and Sage Publications for letting me acquire online resources found in their archives. Likewise, I am indebted to many university digital repositories (including the USIU-A library) for granting me access to their document databases and the students who chose to become participants in this research. I am most thankful about my family and significant others; mother Juliet Mmbaga, father Ian Kaayo, aunts Rose Mmbaga, Juliana Mmbaga, Grace Musangi, and my cousins; Juliet Mgonja Christopher, Queen Mary Charles Sabuni, John Mmbaga who persevered with me in finishing up this work.
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CPPI – Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale
CPI – Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale
NACADA – National Campaign Against Drug Abuse
NPI – Narcissistic Personality Inventory
PBQ – Personality Beliefs Questionnaire
PDQ-4 – Personality Diagnostic Questionnaire-4
PID-5-BF – Personality Inventory for DSM-5-Brief Form
PSI – Parasocial Interaction
PSR – Parasocial Relationship
SNS – Social Networking Site
SPSS – Statistical Packaging for Social Sciences
USIU-A – United States International University-Africa
# TABLE OF CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TITLE</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPROVAL</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COPYRIGHT</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGMENT</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENT</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER ONE</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION &amp; BACKGROUND</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 Chapter Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Background of the Study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Statement of Problem</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Present Study</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Objectives of the Study</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Research Questions</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Significance of the Study</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Scope of Research</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 Definition of Terms</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 Chapter Summary</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER TWO</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LITERATURE REVIEW</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0 Chapter Introduction</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Parasocial Interaction and Parasocial Relationship</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Identification</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Parasocial Interaction and Identification with Celebrities</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Parasocial Interaction and Identification in Social Media</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Parasocial Interaction, Parasocial Relationships, and Identification with Fictional Characters</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Realistic Media Personae versus Fictional Media Personae</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.7 Theoretical Framework ................................................................. 49
  2.7.1 Symbolic Interactionism ......................................................... 49
  2.7.2 Social Cognitive Theory .......................................................... 51
2.8 Media and Pathological Personality Traits ........................................ 52
  2.8.1 Antisocial Personality Traits ..................................................... 52
  2.8.2 Narcissistic Personality Traits ................................................... 59
  2.8.3 Borderline Personality Traits .................................................... 63
  2.8.4 Schizoid Personality Traits ....................................................... 66
  2.8.5 Avoidant Personality Traits ...................................................... 68
  2.8.6 Schizotypal Personality Traits ................................................... 70
  2.8.7 Miscellaneous Pathological Personality Traits ............................ 72
2.9 Conceptual Framework .................................................................. 73
2.10 Chapter Summary ........................................................................ 73
CHAPTER THREE ............................................................................. 75
RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODOLOGY ............................................. 75
  3.0 Chapter Introduction .................................................................. 75
  3.1 Research Philosophy .................................................................. 75
  3.2 Research Design ......................................................................... 76
  3.3 Target Population ....................................................................... 76
  3.4 Sampling Design ........................................................................ 76
    3.4.1 Sampling Frame .................................................................... 76
    3.4.2 Sampling Technique ............................................................... 77
    3.4.3 Sample Size ........................................................................... 77
  3.5 Study Variables ........................................................................... 79
  3.6 Data Collection ........................................................................... 79
    3.6.1 Demographic Questionnaire .................................................. 79
    3.6.2 Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale (CPPI) .............. 80
    3.6.3 Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale (CPI) ............................. 81
    3.6.4 The Personality Inventory for DSM-5-Brief Form (PID-5-BF) .... 81
  3.7 Research Procedure .................................................................... 82
  3.8 Ethical Considerations .................................................................. 83
  3.9 Data Analysis ............................................................................. 84
  3.10 Chapter Summary ...................................................................... 85
CHAPTER FOUR...................................................................................... 86
RESULTS AND FINDINGS ........................................................................................................... 86
4.0 Chapter Introduction ........................................................................................................ 86
4.1 Results ............................................................................................................................ 86
4.1.1 Response Rate ........................................................................................................... 86
4.1.2 Demographic Characteristics .................................................................................... 87
4.1.3 Types of Media Personae Preferred ........................................................................... 90
4.1.4 Parasocial Interaction/Parasocial Relationship and Identification with Media Personae
............................................................................................................................................ 93
4.1.5 Gender Differences in Parasocial Interaction/Parasocial Relationship and
Identification with Media Personae .................................................................................... 94
4.1.6 Pathological Personality Traits .................................................................................. 95
4.1.7 Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification and pathological personality traits........ 98
4.1.8 Gender Differences in the Correlation among PSI/PSR, Identification and Pathological
Personality Traits ................................................................................................................. 100
4.2 Chapter Summary ........................................................................................................... 104

CHAPTER FIVE ....................................................................................................................... 105
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .................................................. 105

5.0 Chapter Introduction ......................................................................................................... 105
5.1 Summary of the Study ..................................................................................................... 105
5.2 Discussion ....................................................................................................................... 109
5.2.1 What are the types of media personae students will select? ..................................... 109
5.2.2 How will PSI/PSR and identification with media personae rate among emerging adult
students at USIU-A? .............................................................................................................. 111
5.2.3 What are the gender differences in PSI/PSR and identification with media personae
among emerging adult students at USIU-A? ...................................................................... 113
5.2.4 What are the different pathological personality traits among emerging adult students at
USIU-A? .................................................................................................................................. 113
5.2.5. What is the correlation PSI/PSR and identification toward media persona has with
overall pathological personality and/or certain pathological personality trait domains? ... 115
5.2.6. What are the gender differences in the correlation PSI/PSR and identification toward
media persona has with pathological personality traits? ..................................................... 118
5.3 Limitations of the Study .................................................................................................. 120
5.4 Conclusion ...................................................................................................................... 122
5.5 Recommendations .......................................................................................................... 123
REFERENCES ......................................................................................................................... 126
APPENDICES ......................................................................................................................... 147
APPENDIX I ................................................................................................................................. 147
DEBRIEF AND CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION ...................................................... 147
APPENDIX II ............................................................................................................................... 149
Confidentiality Agreement for Co-Researchers ....................................................................... 149
APPENDIX III .............................................................................................................................. 150
Demographic Details .............................................................................................................. 150
APPENDIX IV .............................................................................................................................. 151
Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale ......................................................................... 151
APPENDIX V ............................................................................................................................... 152
Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale ..................................................................................... 152
APPENDIX VI .............................................................................................................................. 153
Personality Inventory for DSM-V-Brief Form .......................................................................... 153
APPENDIX VII .............................................................................................................................. 154
PERSONALITY TRAIT DOMAIN SCORING FOR PID-5-BF .................................................. 154
APPENDIX VIII ............................................................................................................................ 156
Original Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale ......................................................... 156
APPENDIX IX ............................................................................................................................... 157
Original Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale ...................................................................... 157
APPENDIX X ................................................................................................................................ 158
APPENDIX XI ............................................................................................................................... 161
APPENDIX XII ............................................................................................................................... 162
APPENDIX XIII ............................................................................................................................ 163
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Gender Distribution...........................................................................................................87
Table 2: Age Distribution..................................................................................................................87
Table 3: Academic Year distribution..................................................................................................88
Table 4: List of majors.......................................................................................................................88
Table 5: Marital Status.......................................................................................................................89
Table 6: Nationality of respondents..................................................................................................90
Table 7: Media Personae Types..........................................................................................................91
Table 8: Mean PSI/PSR and identification scores for Sample............................................................93
Table 9: Mean PSI/PSR and identification Scores for Male Undergraduate Students.....................94
Table 10: Mean PSI/PSR and identification Scores for Female Undergraduate Students...............95
Table 11: Mean Prorated Score of Overall Personality Dysfunction for Sample.............................96
Table 12: Summary of Sample Cases that were Included and Excluded by PID-5-BF instructions.................................................................................................................................98
Table 13: Mean Prorated Score for Trait Domains............................................................................98
Table 14: Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification, overall personality dysfunction and each trait domain...............................................................................................................................................100
Table 15: Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification, overall personality dysfunction and each trait domain in females.....................................................................................................................................103
Table 16: Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification, overall personality dysfunction and each trait domain in males..................................................................................................................103
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual framework linking PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits.......................................................................................................................... 73

Figure 2: Sample size for precision levels at ±3%, ±5%, ±7%, and ±10% where confidence level is at 95%, P=.5, and a = assumption of population is poor......................................................... 78
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

1.0 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the study, statement of research problem, significance of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, scope, and summary of the chapter.

1.1 Background of the Study

With rising internet access, television viewing, cinematic and movie releases, among other entertainment distributions, consumption of mass media in the 21st century is becoming widespread among the general public, especially young people. It may appear that greater mass media consumption means that users one way or another connect with favorite characters featured in them. Admiration for these characters has pushed people to transform themselves into fans, “who feel very strongly about their favorite celebrities” (Bui, 2015, p. 21).

According to Griffin (2012), today’s electronic age is a fourth period after the print age, literal age, and tribal age preceding it in which media entertainers are put on a pedestal. In fact, Fraser and Brown (2002) believed the higher a celebrity’s fame ranks, the higher the power they bear upon the masses. The dyadic interaction between media users and media characters paved the way for various concepts that allow people to engage with real or fictional media figures by immersing themselves in the media’s story world (a term called transportation), obsessing over or even idolizing the figure(s) (a term called worship), associating themselves with character(s) (a term called identification) and/or forming intimate ties with the character(s) (Brown, 2015). The last concept had been termed Parasocial Interaction.
These two concepts, PSI and identification were developed from communication research’s necessity to understand the influential effects popular media figures had on people who admire them. Besides communication experts, psychologists have continued to study PSI, PSR and identification, arguing they must rightfully learn its parallels between them, mental functioning, behavior and everyday social interactions.

Parasocial Interaction (PSI) according to Donald Horton and Richard Wohl (1956) initially denoted a relationship a viewer struck with a performer during mass media consumption that, “is one-sided, nondialectical, controlled by the performer, and not susceptible of mutual development” (p. 215). A year later Horton and Strauss (1957) added that PSI is, “immediate, personal, and reciprocal, but these qualities are illusory and are presumably not shared by the speaker” (p. 580). The term ‘speaker’ insinuates a dated view where the two authors argued that any media persona should address the audience directly in the flesh to beget PSI (Horton & Strauss, 1957). Nowadays PSI processes cut across a wide range of media figures with or without the original requirement of appearing before an audience.

Parasocial Relationships (PSRs) are PSIs which have longer and durable extent through continual exposure to media personae (Schramm & Hartmann, 2008). Much like PSIs, Parasocial Relationships are typified as being one-sided, occurring singularly on the viewer’s side. Furthermore PSR could either be positive or negative, depending on how much the persona is liked or disliked. The elements to PSI and PSR are their symbolism and one-sidedness, as the personae being admired on the other end usually is not aware of the person’s attachment to them (Horton & Wohl, 1956). This unawareness is what fundamentally constitutes the ‘parasocial’ in PSIs and PSRs, according to Tsay-Vogel and Schwartz (2014). No matter what a viewer does toward the persona, the persona himself/herself/itself, “cannot respond to or reciprocate those
actions” (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014, p. 66). PSI shapes human interface with entertainment when choosing a type of media, evaluating how much of it we consume, and most importantly regarding this present research’s notion the ‘extent of their media effects’ on viewers (Klimmt, Hartmann, & Schramm, 2006).

Rather than characterizing identification and PSI/PSR as a single conceptualization like in older investigations, this study distinguishes the two forms of media engagement processes, thus identification in media is described as, “the process of social influence by which individuals adopt the values and behaviors of a media persona…” (Fraser & Brown, 2002, p. 187). On account of Cohen (2001), during identification a person in the audience, “...imagines him- or herself being that character and replaces his or her personal identity and role as audience member with the identity and role of the character within the text” (p. 251). With identification in mass media, people obtain a persona’s values, interests, behavior—even emotions (Fraser & Brown, 2002).

Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz (2014) proposed identification and PSI as features of how much a media persona sways a viewer. The presence of one or the other facet, the presence of both or even the absence of both differentiate each level of media engagement ranging from moderate engagement, to detachment, to capture respectively (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014). So case in point, when watching a media persona like Kenyan president, His Excellency Uhuru Kenyatta enunciate a speech on food production that draws the attention of the citizens glued to media outlets nationwide, a viewer can be detached to the scenario by showing zero interest, a viewer can be moderately engaged, expressing slight interest in his speech (by either understanding his viewpoint on the topic addressed or connecting closer to him) or be ‘captured’ by listening very attentively, praising his speech and buying into his (and the constitution’s) ideals.
The effects of media on identity and attitudes had been understood in a variety of ways. Hence a wide range of useful theories had been coined to explain PSI/PSR and identification with personae while viewing media. This current research will first use symbolic interactionism which is explained in the theoretical framework of the second chapter. At the same time that symbolic interactionism had been coined by researchers in the field of media psychology to explain PSI/PSR processes, there was social cognitive theory which had been relevant in explaining the process of identification which is also explained in the theoretical framework of the second chapter. The study uses a combination of principles from Symbolic Interactionism and Social Cognitive Theory to comprehend the link between PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits in relation to media personae each student chooses.

Generally speaking, media, “is acknowledged globally as an important vehicle for social, cultural, political and economic development” (Nyutho, 2015, p. 1). On top of this opinion, in a statement by Mwaura (2014) he said, “Different types of mass media could be used either to create awareness, increase knowledge or to change the attitudes and behavior of the targeted customers” (p. 14). The impact of media figures on young viewers like adolescents and young adults cannot be dismissed as mere entertainment in a novelty sense especially when, “vulnerable individuals unequivocally incur unintended serious adverse consequences through exposure to these images” (Becker, 2004, p. 534).

The age range of youth, particularly adolescents has been challenging to standardize. Even aspects like culture determine how exactly to define who an adolescent is based on physical maturity or social roles like readiness to start a job, get married, and raise offspring (Ginsberg, Kariuki, & Kimamo, 2014; Arnett, 2000). The American Psychological Association (2002) argues that although the range is set beginning at 10 years to 18 years old, they recognize
the relevance to embrace groups within the upper ranges of 25 year olds as adolescents. Another psychologist named Arnett (2000) recommended the age between 18 and 25 years old to be termed emerging adulthood instead, especially if those of said age range are living in urban areas. Owing to the industrialized context of Nairobi, Kenya, it has been decided to use the term emerging adult to classify the late adolescents and young adults between 18 and 25 years old.

From a clinical psychological standpoint, this research attempted to find out if the variables of PSI (particularly the far more enduring PSR) and identification correlate with pathological personality traits. The extent to which students relate to and/or identify with their favorite persona may cause their personalities to become pathological as years are spent studying at undergraduate level in a higher education facility (e.g. university or college).

In as much as research on the existing relationship among PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits is hard to come by, there is excessive empirical evidence suggesting connection between media use and psychiatric disorders. In one controlled study conducted by de Wit, Straten, Lamers, and Penninx (2011), it had been discovered that among 2353 participants those diagnosed with major depressive disorder spent more time relaxing in front of a computer. On the other hand people diagnosed with agoraphobia, panic disorder, and dysthymia spent more leisure time watching television among the same number of participants (de Wit et al., 2011). Some of the changes in an individual’s personality can be as result of bonding to or admiring a certain media personae in these media. In light of media consumption, identification has been supposedly linked to certain behavioral pathologies like imitation of aggression and recklessness that violent films and television depict. Aggression and recklessness is one of the several criterial factors fitting under an Antisocial Personality Disorder diagnosis (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Identification especially held a prominent spot for its
responsibility in imparting the social effects of media on to those viewing it (Cohen, 2001). Narcissism, an excessive interest in one self, for example tends to reveal itself in those who worship celebrities (Ashe, Maltby, & McCutcheon, 2005). If these pathological personality traits are not immediately addressed, they can convert into full-scale personality disorders (Bliton, Dowgwillo, Dawood, & Pincus, 2017).

The Personality disorders found in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fifth edition (DSM-V) are categorized in three Clusters: A, B, and C (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Cluster A is a list of ‘odd’ personality disorders like Schizoid, Schizotypal and Paranoid; Cluster B is a list of ‘dramatic’ personality disorders like Antisocial, Borderline, Narcissistic, and Histrionic; Cluster C is a list of ‘anxious’ personality disorders like Obsessive Compulsive Personality, Avoidant, and Dependent (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). It is clear Personality Disorders are associated with professional actors who can be media personae, though it is safer to say that a majority of time the association is with Cluster B types (Davinson & Furnham, 2018). When a study using the DSM-IV (that precedes the DSM-V) examined Personality Disorders in the psychiatric context of Kenya, it showed that the prevalence of these diagnoses was lower than those in Western countries at 20.3% (Thuo, Ndetei, Maru, & Kuria, 2008). Unfortunately obsolescence and generalizability (the study focuses on just inpatients at Mathari Hospital as opposed to the general population) afflicts this study’s relevance today as of writing this research.

Either way, the pathological personality traits typically become diagnosed into personality disorders by adulthood, around 18 years old or even in older years if they have stayed rigid or pervasive beginning in as early as adolescence (Bliton et al., 2017). Consequently in
daily life, personality disorders are a hindrance while performing jobs, learning at educational facilities, and/or socializing with others (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

Parallels are drawn between personality disorders and the five factors trait model of pathological personalities. These traits tend to be organized into five domains which are *detachment, antagonism, negative affectivity, disinhibition, and psychoticism* (Hopwood et al., 2013). Detachment highlights depressive emotions and social withdrawal; antagonism highlights manipulativeness, ‘attention-seeking’ and grandiosity; negative affectivity highlights hostility, angry feelings and emotions that are limited; psychoticism highlights eccentricity and odd behavior; and lastly disinhibition highlights carelessness, tendencies to act on impulse and take risks (Hopwood et al., 2013).

Anderson (2016) showed how each domain could be discrete predictors of certain personality disorders in an undergraduate sample when pairing it with other established personality assessment tests. The correlational and regression analysis with the Personality Diagnostic Questionnaire-4 (PDQ-4), “showed that Antisocial PD was uniquely predicted by PID-5-BF Disinhibition; Avoidant PD was primarily associated with Negative Affectivity and Detachment; Borderline and Obsessive-Compulsive PDs had associations with Negative Affectivity; Narcissistic PD exhibited an association with Antagonism; and Schizotypal PD was associated with Psychoticism” (Anderson, 2016, p. 116). A recent study also confirmed that as far as Schizotypal is concerned, psychoticism correlated with the disorder (Anderson, Sellbom, & Salekin, 2018). The same study also confirmed Borderline, “was uniquely predicted by Negative Affectivity” (Anderson et al., 2018, p. 602).

In another particular study on said traits and personality disorders that compared the Personality Inventory for DSM-V (PID-5) and the Personality Beliefs Questionnaire (PBQ)
traits from Schizoid Personality Disorder and Paranoid Personality Disorder were to found to correlate with Detachment while Histrionic was found to correlate with Negative affectivity and Antagonism.

The same study highlighted a multifactorial approach whereby different domains combined at varying levels could predict certain pathological personality traits such as Dependent and Avoidant traits being correlated with high detachment, negative affect and disinhibition; and Obsessive-Compulsive Personality being correlated with low disinhibition, and high detachment, antagonism, psychoticism and negative affect.

1.2 Statement of Problem

To date, research on the impact of media figures on human psychological makeup in Kenya has been minimal. In fact from the available list of past studies conducted in the nation, researchers took on a broader stance, choosing to examine behavioral effects of mass media as a whole without intensively delving into the elements comprising mass media like media figures for examples (Moses, 2013; Mwaura, 2014; Mukui, 2015). For example Mukui (2015) limited her study to social media, cellphone usage and television viewing, finding they each positively and negatively affected behavior among a sample of 450 students, 40 teachers and 10 principals from public schools in Kitui County.

Figures found in media, also known as personae, incite mental processes such as emotional reactions in people viewing them (Griffin, 2012). PSI, PSR and identification has been used in the study of media effects on people who exploit media outlets in the form of film, television, radio, internet, magazines, books, video games and much more. In one literature he published, Cohen (2001) showed how associating closely with media figures had a notable implication on the psychological processes of learning and, “its contribution to the development
of self-identity” (p. 246). Identity formation during adolescence (including the development of attitudes, values, and habits among other cognitive, emotional, behavioral and social characteristics) has been touched on as part of the psychosocial concept initiated by prominent figures like Erik Erikson which Cohen (2001) stated in his own works. This psychosocial requirement has gone on to be extended into emerging adulthood, when an individual further ponders on “identity alternatives” they commit to ranging from what their fundamental theory of living is, their long-term occupations are, people they want to associate with are going to be, sexual orientation is, religious faith is, etc. that will hopefully remain stable across numerous situations he/she encounters (Schwartz, Zamboanga, Luyckx, Meca, & Ritchie, 2013). Few theorists have made an argument on how learning to adopt the characteristics of authority figures and imitating of such figures reshapes a person’s identity (Schwartz et al., 2013), hence media personae, being among those looked up to, qualify as such initiators.

United States International University – Africa is a private educational institution located in Nairobi city, Kenya, admitting a variety of students belonging to diverse nationalities and age groups, including emerging adults (United States International University Administration, 2018). Mwaura (2014) pointed out young people inhabiting metropolitan areas in Kenya are more exposed to media than those inhabiting countryside areas. Certain aspects of media engagement, for instance media figures or personae that play as role models youth try to copy, may destructively impact their cognition, behavior, affiliations along with other livelihood aspects (Mwaura, 2014). This does not imply the study is trying to encapsulate negative evaluation of media personae for the reason that there many of them out there, both real and fictional, who are promoting prosocial lessons and enlightening massive followers on topics related to health and community outreach (Martin, 2007; Moyer-Guse, 2008; Brown & de Matviuk, 2010).
Owing to taste, various individuals will deem a particular media persona type more appealing than others (Giles, 2002; Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014; Bui, 2015; Coddaire, 2015). Media persona types can come in the existential form of real life figures like actors, scientists, politicians, authors, entrepreneurs, religious leaders or otherwise fictional figures like movie characters, television characters, video game characters, book characters, mythological figures etc. Identifying with a media persona or having a parasocial interaction/parasocial relationship is not without their psychological or behavioral challenges. Outside Kenya, there have been instances where youth gradually exhibit antisocial behavior after being exposed to violent images or sounds on television, film, music or video games (Plaisier & Konijn, 2012). Regarding negative affect among the pathological personality trait domains, Hancock, Gee, Ciaccio, & Mae-Hwah Lin, (2008) had found that media, whether music or movies, teeming with dismal content lead the person enjoying it to adopt negative emotions and it was usually the case one’s favorite media figure or personae is starring in them, probably contributing to borderline personality disorder. Research is limited on the effects of parasocial processes and identification in media on human behavior. Past research has tried to find out the incentive behind why an individual tended to identify with and developed PSI with media personae (Rumpf, 2012). But they have not made any attempts to explore how this relates to others areas of any person’s identity.

Furthermore assessment of personality traits has spanned multiple nations across the globe, establishing evidence for, “the universality of personality traits through cross-cultural studies” (Arasa & Muhuro, 2016, p. 9). Although researchers are currently making an effort to find out the most appropriate way to fit normal personality models within cultures outside Western nations like those in Africa (Arasa & Muhuro, 2016), there were minimal attempts if
any to equally adapt pathological personality trait structure in an African context, or even specifically a Kenyan one.

1.3 Present Study

This present study mainly focuses on two forms of media engagement among users which are parasocial interaction towards (especially its prolonged derivation termed parasocial relationship) and identification with real media figures such as celebrities and fictional ones both collectively termed media personae amongst emerging adults studying at United States International University – Africa in the Kenyan environment. The research proposition is acquiring a scientific understanding of why we become invested in media figures through these two independent variables and their clinical effects in the form of personality dysfunction. Personality dysfunction in the form pathological personality traits is the study’s dependent variable.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The primary objectives of this present investigation are listed below:

1. To name the types of media personae emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A prefer.

2. To explore PSI/PSR and identification with media personae among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A.

3. To explore gender differences in PSI/PSR and identification with media personae among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A.

4. To find out the different pathological personality traits among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A.
5. To examine the correlation PSI/PSR and identification with media personae have with pathological personality traits among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A.

6. To explore gender differences in the correlation PSI/PSR and identification with media have with pathological personality traits among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A.

1.5 Research Questions

The following are a list of inquiries devised in the relationship between media personae, PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits among emerging adult students at USIU-A:

RQ1: What are the types of media personae students at USIU-A will select?

RQ2: How will PSI/PSR and identification with media personae rate among emerging adult students at USIU-A?

RQ3: What are the gender differences in PSI/PSR and identification with media personae among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A?

RQ4: What are the different pathological personality traits among emerging adult students at USIU-A?

RQ5: What is the correlation PSI/PSR and identification with media personae has with pathological personality traits?

RQ6: What are the gender differences in the correlation PSI/PSR and identification with media personae have with pathological personality traits among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-A?
1.6 Significance of the Study

By conducting this study, the researcher intends for government officials and health organizations like NACADA to take advantage of popular media icons in line with entertainment-education programmes in informing youth about caution when using mass media and teaching them to build positive self-representations.

Seeing how previously there is minimal research done on personality disorders listed in the DSM-V in Kenya, this study hopes to broaden knowledge on this psychiatric area and explore a range of pathological personality traits within the youth demographic.

This research aims at being informative to clinical psychologists or counseling psychologists holding bibliotherapy and expressive arts therapy sessions with young students at USIU-A. In the event the student is enduring any kind of psychological issue during the intake, the trained psychologist can either implement his or her favorite media figures to bring about inspiration thus facilitating his or her resilience. However both clinicians and counselors need to be vigilant of said impact on the negative side if the student client who likes mass media exhibits issues on the matter of dysfunctional personality, impaired behaviorism, and poor physical health.

This study is designed to be helpful for students in general to make sound decisions when it comes to following personae observed in any media format such that it does not jeopardize their wellbeing. The discoveries in this research will be valuable to future student researchers in the department of clinical psychology, counseling psychology, business marketing and communications at USIU-A who want to pursue further exploration into media effects on people.

1.7 Scope of Research

This research was limited with respect to the developmental stage and area it surveyed, meaning the scope was restricted to late adolescents and young adults at USIU-A in Nairobi
county, Kenya, between 18 years old and 25 years old whom the study appropriately termed *emerging adults* hence other developmental stages younger than 18 years old or older than 25 years old at the same institution are ignored. PSI/PSR and identification knows no age boundaries, meaning people foster connections with media personae irrespective of age. Additionally in choosing to focus on traits found in personality disorders, the investigation prohibited the inclusion of participant minors below the age of 18 since personality disorders can only be diagnosed by the time a person turns that age according to the DSM-V (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). In spite of this, the same manual has shown certain traits like antisocial ones can start no sooner than an individual turns 15 years old (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

Based on the fact that there are a multitude of ways to engage with mass media besides PSI/PSR and identification such as transportation where the viewer immerses himself/herself in the narrative plots that media figures belong in and worship where the audience member idolizes their preferred media figures (Brown, 2015), this study did not incorporate said ways. Also the study mentioned several factors determining PSI like figure authenticity which are neither incorporated. In spite of this, the literature provided an overview of these determinant factors.

While an individual can admit to admiring more than a single media persona, the current study only accepted one persona lest those findings convolute the analysis. In addition it was stated before that people display PSI and PSR with both media personae they like and despise (Tian & Hoffner, 2010). This study adheres to the liking of a particular media persona, overlooking student’s parasocial processes with disliked or hated media personae on the opposite end of the spectrum.
This study did not investigate maladaptive personality changes among the participants during their transitory phase from adolescence to maturity. A human being’s personality is a very complex construct necessitating in-depth analysis to understand how they develop across a lifetime. It would especially pay to examine these trait acquisitions using Differential Stability, Absolute Stability, Individual Stability and Isaptive Stability that Donnellan, Conger, and Burzette (2007) investigated in other prior studies related to personality development. Differential Stability (Donnellan et al., 2007) measured, “the degree to which individual differences in personality are maintained over time” (p. 238). Absolute stability (Donnellan et al., 2007) is a personality development notion measuring “whether average trait levels increase, decrease, or remain constant over time” (p. 240). When researching personality changes, traits found at the individual level are deemed important hence individual stability assessed, “patterns of change for individual members of a particular longitudinal sample” (Donnellan et al., 2007, p.241). The last measure which is ipsative stability, “examined the development of personality traits within the person” (Donnellan et al. 2007, p. 242).

As clearly captured in the study’s objectives, this study only investigated pathological personality traits instead of full blown personality disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Part of the objectives of the study was meant to broadly assess traits for these disorders in general instead of discretely presenting the relationship between PSI/PSR, and identification within the framework of each personality disorder. The personality disorders found in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder, fifth edition present different criterial impairments on psychological functioning and they include their own unique measures to fully confirm the diagnosis in an individual. Additionally while assessing pathological personality traits using the PID-5-BF, the current study chose to use its five trait domains separately when
predicting traits from personality disorders listed in the DSM-V during data analysis as opposed to extensively combining the different domains together with their scores to predict said traits.

1.8 Definition of Terms

**Parasocial Interaction:** an illusory one-sided connection audience members mutually feel in their social interactions with media personae that the personae themselves cannot return.

**Parasocial Relationship:** a social relationship an individual develops toward personae they know in media, which may form after said individual repeatedly watches them.

**Identification:** the process of social influence by which individuals adopt the values and behaviors of a media persona.

**Media Persona:** an entity existing in any media format that can be real like a celebrity, sports people, actors, musicians and business person or otherwise fictional like a television character, video game character, comic book character, or novel character.

**Celebrity:** a real person who is famous in popular media.

**Personality Disorder:** an enduring pattern of inner experience and behavior that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual's culture, is pervasive and inflexible, has an onset in adolescence or early adulthood, is stable over time, and leads to distress or impairment according to the DSM-V (2013). They are organized into a set of 3 clusters A, B, and C. They include paranoid (where the individual is suspicious of others), schizoid (where the individual is withdrawn from social relationships and has limited range of emotions), schizotypal (where the individual experiences acute discomfort in relationships and is eccentric) in Cluster A. Cluster B contains antisocial (where the individual has no regard for or violates the rights of others), narcissistic (where the individual displays grandiosity and an excessive need for admiration with no empathy), borderline (where the individual has unstable relationships, poor self-image, poor
emotions and acts on impulse), and histrionic (where the individual craves a massive amount of attention). For Cluster C, there is avoidant (where the individual feels inadequate, inhibited socially, and very sensitive to criticism), dependent (where the individual displays clingy behavior and a demand to always be taken care of), and obsessive-compulsive (where the individual is preoccupied with perfection).

**Pathological Personality Traits:** enduring and maladaptive trait patterns of an individual’s emotional, behavioral, and cognitive state that negatively affect him/her while bringing distress within the context of his/her own culture. These traits in the PID-5-BF are organized into five domains called Disinhibition, Antagonism, Detachment, Psychoticism, and Negative Affectivity.

**Emerging Adulthood:** The phase between late adolescence and early adulthood whose age range is 18 to 25 years.

### 1.9 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the popular appeal of mass media among youth in Kenya as a link to behavioral and psychological change is outlined. Thereafter the aspects of PSI/PSR and identification as part of media engagement were introduced. The introduction exhaustively delineates several objectives regarding these two forms of media engagement, personality disorders, and pathological personality traits from which several questions are posited. To conduct this study, the perimeters of how much the study confines itself to increase accuracy are touched on in the scope section. The theoretical lens through which this study investigated these phenomena has been briefly named and were expanded upon in the second chapter of this thesis.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Chapter Introduction

This chapter discussed relevant literature preceding the present research. The prior studies featured here were focusing on the definition of PSI, PSR, and identification, examples of each, the multiple classes of media personae individuals can relate with, and the nature of pathological personality traits in relation to mass media as a whole.

2.1 Parasocial Interaction and Parasocial Relationship

Research on both PSI and PSR received notable attention for the past several years now (Schramm & Hartmann, 2008). For decades, the study on parasocial processes had seen an increasing empirical affinity among those in the field of communication, psychology, and sociology (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014; Rumpf, 2012; Schramm & Hartmann, 2008; Giles, 2002).

Horton & Worton’s (1956) research was the trailblazer that it started it all. PSI to them in their earlier work was simply restricted to ‘spectators’, whom we now refer to as audience members, and any specific media figure called a persona like, “interviewers, talk show hosts, and any other figure that directly addresses its audience” (Jones, 2013, p. 2). Today among communication theorists, the experience of PSI took on a varied notion, “that does not necessarily involve direct address” (Jones, 2013, p. 3). This modern reformation implied that it was not only about the media personae speaking personally to the media users.

Aside from PSI, there were other types of engagement with personae found including transportation (also known as involvement in other sources), worship, and identification (Brown, 2015; Rumpf, 2012). PSI is confined within the single period the individual is viewing the media
After viewing particular media repeatedly, an audience member gains deeper understanding of at least one character on the television screen for example, likely creating an attachment called PSR (Kokesh & Sternadori, 2015). Compared to short-lived PSIs, “PSR, in contrast, extends beyond the time period when the material is being processed” (Hall, 2017, p. 2).

With parasocial interactions and parasocial relationships, it is feasible for ordinary people to have admirations for media figures and people such as celebrities (Gleason, Theran, & Newberg, 2017). Parasocial admirations can even be directed onto sportspersons (Kassing & Sanderson, 2009; Hartmann, 2008) and fictional characters, the latter of which exist entirely in imaginary narratives such as novels (e.g. Kokesh & Sternadori, 2015), television series, movies or video games (Gannon, 2018). History mentions humans parasocially affiliated with, “citizens and major political figures, or even... gods or spirits,” before media turned mainstream (Stever, 2009, p. 5).

Every PSI/PSR around a media persona is endowed with a behavioral, emotional and/or cognitive aspect which shows how it elicits profound thought, intellectual debates on the experience and modification of how human beings act (Sood & Rogers, 2000). Consequently this has led to viewers to go so far as to project their admirations on to fictional personae. For instance, an audience liked a character from the hit television series Lost so much the individual imitated said character (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014). From a social standpoint, they also correspond with the dynamics of how real relationships and communications are built (Jones, 2013).

PSI/PSR can also manifest in the opposite direction where audience members experience a parasocial breakup. In a parasocial breakup, the attachment is terminated (Cohen, 2004). Parasocial breakup with fictional media personae is something which happens whenever a
television show is cancelled unexpectedly (Cohen, 2004). Serious scandals involving real life celebrities may keep admirers from continuing to support their media personae and this can be source of emotional anguish among long-time fans as evidenced, case-in-point, by the extramarital affair of professional golf player Tiger Woods (Hu, 2016). Other scandalous incidents imagined to cause parasocial breakups encompass the meltdown of singer Britney Spears, the sexual assault accusations of Bill Cosby, and the racist remarks of cooking television show host Paula Deene (Watchmojo.com, 2015). It was reported in one previous study, using interviews over the phone and self-administered questionnaires, that when American basketball player O.J. Simpson appeared in court to be tried for his murder case proceedings, fans (mostly African Americans males) that had a strong parasocial relationship with him among the 431 adults diversely sampled across Los Angeles, Hampton Roads, New York Denver could not easily come to terms with him committing said crimes (Brown, Duane, & Fraser, 1997). The regression analysis according to Brown et al. (1997) to support the parasocial relationship hypothesis was $R^2 = .07$, $beta = .34$, $p < .0001$. What is noteworthy about this study is although it relies upon data collection instruments whose reliability for the three Parasocial Relationship questions adapted off Rubin’s Parasocial Interaction Scale (PSI) and two questions regarding Simpson’s innocence were strong, their validity remains unanswered. So a question immediately arose about how certain they were accurately measuring the participants’ involvement with O.J. Simpson. Additionally, the researchers should have stated how the qualitative data analysis for the open-ended questions were arrived at using the SAS version 6 statistical software at the time. Nonetheless from their results it could be hypothesized that fans significantly expect high morality standards from a media persona thus in terms of personality disorders for instance, it might be likely those who had greater PSI/PSR did not display any difficulty in observing the
rights of others seen in Cluster B’s Antisocial Personality Disorder. However the focus on O. J. Simpson is merely a singular specific case of media persona.

Recent research has tried to relate PSI/PSR to developmental psychology. A recent psychological study released by Gleason et al. (2017) expressed interest in exploring parasocial processes among adolescents as opposed to young children for the motive that by this developmental period, adolescents have a notable fondness for many types of media and are preoccupied with their favorite media figures (Plaisier & Konijn, 2012; Giles & Maltby, 2004). Since it is the case individuals around this age prefer consuming media than any other developmental period then an increased chance exists they are influenced by a persona featured in them.

The descriptive analysis for their study revealed that among the 153 adolescent girls and boys there was a greater prevalence for devoting attention to television/film stars among 68% overall. The majority of participants who had parasocial attachments to athletes were boys at 15.1% (Gleason et al., 2017). The parasocial qualities section reported that girls were more likely to view the celebrity as a close friend which the authors termed egalitarian while boys in contrary were likely to have a hierarchical conceptualization, which implied seeing them as older mentors/role models, and generally a majority of boys (at 75.5%) engaged in PSR than girls would (Gleason et al., 2017). This might hint at girls exhibiting stronger PSI while boys exhibited stronger identification with their respective media figures. But note very carefully that there are adolescents who are not easily swayed by the media they consume.

When investigating PSI/PSR, researchers tried paying extensive attention to gender. With respect to females, PSI/PSR theoretically fulfilled an idealized function whereby they fantasized getting along with their favorite media figures because of qualities they noticed in them that they
wish to possess, notably if genders were similar (Wasike, 2018; Greenwood & Long, 2011). Males possibly developed PSR because of how lonely they may feel (Wasike, 2018; Greenwood & Long, 2011). Whereas a certain research revealed females were more likely to foster parasocial relationships compared to male counterparts (Laken, 2009); others revealed no significant differences between either genders (Wasike, 2018; Bui, 2015).

Since younger people were found to form parasocial relationships with their favorite media figures, Greenwood and Long (2011) uniquely contributed to this concept by measuring the degree to which either a single or ‘partnered’ relationship status influenced the outcome of this mediated attachment. Particularly among the 173 undergraduates participating in the study, individuals without a romantic involvement reportedly had stronger parasocial relationships with media figures of the opposite gender. These findings were reportedly found in a similar study by Rumpf (2012, p. 27) who also saw, “individuals who are in a relationship \( (M = 5.11, SD = .80) \) reported less PSI than single individuals \( (M = 5.17, SD = .80) \), \( t(400) = -.70, p = .49, 95\% CI (M \text{ diff}) = (-.21, -.10) \).” However compared to Rumpf’s study (2012) where age was controlled for, Greenwood and Long (2011) did not attempt to recognize distinctions in this concept within the aspect of age.

In essence, there are many underlying principles factoring in to indicate for PSI amongst audience members like figure authenticity or homophily. One thing that differentiates each indicating factor is the rate at which they are either objective or subjective. Figure authenticity is defined as, “degree to which a media character adheres to the laws of the physical world” (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014, p. 67). To put it in layman terms, authenticity is all about how real the persona is. This principle had been found to adhere to the law of objectivity when measuring PSI
strength between an audience member and a preferred persona while a factor like attractiveness leaned more towards subjectivity (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014).

Having garnered approval from previous researchers, Tsay-Vogel and Schwartz (2014) saw it fit to expand on figure authenticity through the invention of a four-way dimension classification scheme of media figures or personae based on whether they were depicted in live action (for example actress Emma Watson, musician Sanaipei Tande and governor Mike Sonko) or animation (for example Mickey Mouse or Marge Simpson); their story was fictitious (e.g. Game of Thrones and Desperate Housewives) or factual (e.g. Oprah Winfrey Show or Tommorow Today on Deustche Welle TV); their form was human (e.g. talk show host and journalist Jeff Koinage and book author Steig Larsson); or non-human (Tyrannasaurus Rex from Jurassic Park or Stingy the Puppet from LazyTown); and their traits were extraordinary (e.g. Marvel/DC’s superheroes/supervillains and Harry Potter’s characters) or otherwise normal (e.g. Joseph ‘Coop’ Cooper from the movie Interstellar and Natalie from the movie Memento).

Next, another component termed homophily affected PSI/PSR and, arguably, this factor should be revised to become extended into identification. Once again, various phrases were coined to be utilized interchangeably with homophily. Similarity or similarity-attraction principle is a synonym used in place of homophily. Homophily when contextualized within PSI is defined as the tendency for people to be drawn to media figures based on matching characteristics ranging from physical attributes, ethnicity, gender, age, personality, interests, outlook etc. Real interpersonal relationships operate just like the characteristic of homophily since communication effectively becomes refined and greater (McCroskey, Richmond, & Daly, 1975). Returning to the aspect of PSI/PSR at hand, the more an individual realized that a persona was similar to them, the easier it became to satisfy, “information seeking and personal identity... since they confirm
self-concept and the information gained can be more easily applied to personal situations” (Rumpf, 2012, p. 13). We know from studies by Hoffner (1996) most male youngsters at 91.1% selected male television personae while half of the number of participating girls (52.6%) chose female television characters. Now turning to a more mature demographic studying at college level, Hoffner and Buchanan (2005) recorded how respondents chose fictional television characters similar to their own race and gender. The problem here is that both studies’ accuracy was called into question after finding out that the researcher(s) boiled the choice of media figures down to TV characters not to mention the sample for college students was primarily White (Bui, 2015). As far as homophily/similarity-attractiveness is concerned, when Bui (2015) carried out a study on PSI and identification using the Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale (CPPI) and Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale (CPI) amongst a sample composed of mostly Hispanics, participants in this ethnic group were not choosing media figures from a similar ethnic background. Bui (2015) hinted the reason probably was because of the negative media portrayals of ethnic groups other than Caucasians.

A cause for concern is the amount of foreign media Kenyans are exposed to. This is hardly surprising considering how Western culture has always been positioned at a superior locale when it comes to the entertainment sector (Mwaura, 2014). A research conducted on television programming by Mwaura (2004) in Kenya revealed 92.2% was filled with foreign content. An implication here might be that in Kenya, an African country influenced by Western culture, a few people may hold a strong interest in Non-Kenyan media personae. Mass media dominated the market on a worldwide scale meaning people from different cultures can develop PSI and/or identification towards a media figure originally from another culture (Hu, Chen, Li, & Zewen, 2017). Nyutho (2015) advocated that local content promotion should start to happen by
creating. “television programming and films [that] are very well suited for uniting the Kenyans through creating fables and mythologies around heroic Kenyans that can assist to give Kenyans a sense of common identity” (p. 6). As a consideration in reuniting Kenya through a joint African identity, more foreign media content may bring about the opposite effect, splitting this sense of cultural homogenization. This could point to problems on cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962) pertaining to cultural inconsistency where an individual experiences psychological discomfort by seeing the non-Kenyan media persona as deserving more admiration even though the individual knows they should relate more with personae of their own national background. Case-in-point, a study using semi-structured interviews on 30 purposively sampled native adolescent girls from the island country of Fiji in the South Pacific Ocean reported that after a 3-year exposure to ‘attractively skinny’ Western models on television, the images provoked them to reform their physical appearances and identity to match them (Becker, 2004). This lead to higher rates of eating disorders among the girls. The fixated focus on Western-inspired physical modifications went against the greater national Fijian values of family and sense of community. Additionally the group exposed to these American role-models had lower self-esteem.

The expectation of Kenyans majorly admiring media personae from their own national background stands reason as well. Hu et al. (2017) blended ethnocentrism and PSI in an experimental study of 156 students attending college in the United States of America to investigate their reception toward characters in television sitcom series originally from Britain and its American reboot. The participants had to watch a show called the Coupling (which they handpicked since it happened to be less popular thus minimizing errors of show familiarity) in its original format, then the American remake in a set of four experimental conditions and record their PSI levels afterward. As highly ethnocentric people cherish their beliefs (including media
figures who are cultural symbols) with pride to the point they believe themselves to be more elite than different cultural groups, the group assumed, “that audiences with high ethnocentrism have stronger PSI with personae from their own culture than with personae from a different culture” (Hu et al., 2017, p. 5). Indeed, when the results surfaced the authors shared that, “American audiences with high ethnocentrism exhibited lower PSI with a male sitcom character played by a British actor than with the same character played by an American actor” (Hu et al., 2017, p. 8). In contrast, “audiences with low ethnocentrism, their PSI with [character] in the British sitcom was higher than that with the character in the American remake” (Hu et al., 2017, p. 8). This reflected the significance of ethnocentrism in the preference for similar media personae; however the main challenge of an ethnocentric attitude is how it interferes with crosscultural identification which helps facilitate intercultural communication among diverse groups (Hu et al., 2017).

Some researchers studied PSI and identification in a multicultural context (e.g. Sood & Rogers, 2000). They challenged the perception where viewers identified with media personae from a similar cultural background, instead turning the tables around to look at how the process was like when attached to those outside one’s own culture. A prominent illustration of such an occurrence is the globalized appreciation of Japanese stylized animations termed anime; an entertainment business surging outside the Asian continent (Otmazgin, 2014). No two cultures give a similar reception to the very same character whom they build PSR with. This is evidenced by a study Schmid and Klimmt (2011) conducted to do a PSR comparison with fictional fantasy character Harry Potter between fans from an individualistic culture like Germany and a collectivistic culture like Mexico. Mexican fans of Harry Potter valued the social attractiveness of the fictional character (cherishing friendly bonds with other characters) and were able to pick out his individualistic tendencies to a certain extent. This tendency had something to do with
Mexico’s indigenous cultural patterns. There was also proof suggesting that PSI might be helpful in limiting bigotry and tolerate diverse cultures if the minority characters starring in television dramas or talk shows were easy to relate with or tailored to the liking of viewers (Hu et al., 2017). Although this current study does not draw any conclusions on how figure authenticity and/or homophily affect an emerging adult student’s preferred selection of a media persona, PSI/PSR and, arguably, identification strengths within the Kenyan cultural setting, later research can take the opportunity to examine the role of said factors in the dynamic.

To assess PSI/PSR, self-report measures are frequently utilized (Jones, 2013). The oldest tool for measuring PSI/PSR was created by Rubin, Perse and Powell (1985), fittingly dubbed the PSI scale. It contains 20 items intended to assess PSI between an audience member and a news reporter. Given the scale originated in journalism, researchers were forced to restructure its questions to make it appropriate for various media personae apart from news reporters despite its high internal consistency rating (Schramm & Hartmann, 2008). Researchers have been constantly improving on the measurement tools. Along came a questionnaire termed the Audience-Persona Interaction Scale (API) gotten from qualitative responses (Auter & Palmgreen, 2000). A big criticism of the API lies in how it was contextualized in the realm of television sitcoms, in an identical vain of the PSI scale in spite of its eminent validity while, “two of the four dimensions, i.e., ‘group identification’ and ‘favorite character problem solving abilities’, seem to be less applicable to parasocial engagement with many other media characters, such as TV newscasters or virtual video game characters” (Schramm & Hartmann, 2008, p. 392). The Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale is the latest universal tool drawn from the PSI scale and API scale preceding it to measure Parasocial Relationship strength for all media figure categories across all mass media outlets (Bocarnea & Brown, 2007).
2.2 Identification

A prominent feature seen in identification is when an individual assumes the same characteristics of the character as if they were putting themselves in their shoes (Cohen, 2001). This can be related to the desire of wanting to escape their own real lives and take on the perspective of their favorite persona so as to gain catharsis (Rumpf, 2012). At times, identification is promoted if the admirer, “see themselves as already sharing values with [the media personae]” (Fraser & Brown, 2002, p. 190). Even viewers enjoying TV shows tended to dwell on their emotional reception towards the characters on screen, including imaginatively experiencing the story events the character tolerated during the time the program is aired (Brown, 2015).

To tell apart identification from imitation, Wollheim (1974) states that imagination, an internal component, is situated at the core of identification yet imitation expresses itself externally. However Brown (2015) finds it more suitable to interrelate imitation with identification, making it an optional attribute.

For famed psychoanalyst Freud (1940/1989) in a sense, identification is, “a nonconscious imaginative process,” produced by, “psychological pressures due to the Oedipal Complex” (p. 76). The child figuratively takes in the parents’ ideals to be part of his/her super ego (Cohen, 2001). Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford (1950) explored parent-child identification. Adorno et al. (1950) found that failure on the child to wholly identify with the parents (meaning self-integrating their beliefs, opinions, identity, and/or values) when they are still young can forge an authoritarian personality type later on by which a man/woman believed in the utter respect for if not submission to authority figures. Other literature on identity development among adolescents has indicated how not only social aspects like relating to parents and peers can dynamically influence personality constructs but are much appropriate to the
prediction of developing a personality disorder (Shiner & Tackett, 2014). Media identification to a particular point could account as a social factor.

For Bettelheim (1943), identification was less of functionally incorporating another’s identity inside one’s self like Freud suggested and more of understanding varying opinions, attitudes, beliefs, standards, goals, values, so on and so forth. He learnt in his text on prisoners who imitated the Geheime Staatspolizei (Gestapo: A Nazi police force) during World War II in how doing just that, we now come to emphasize with then integrate anyone’s view. In his own developmental work on children who grew up listening to story narratives, he found that when children identify with the tale’s protagonist they find out noble acts are justified not only by the antagonist’s defeat at the hero’s hands but also the rewards the hero earned (Bettelheim, 1976).

Cramer (1998) put a different spin on identification, labeling it a defense mechanism if ever a person’s self-esteem is under threat but they never shunned its importance for developing identity from the time when human beings were young children. The defense mechanism component was in similar vein to Bettelheim’s work (1950). Cramer noted a characteristic pattern. Around early childhood, the identification process itself grew until it exerted tremendous effect towards the end of adolescence (Cramer, 1995; Cramer & Gaul, 1988). The instant we are overwhelmed by feelings of weakness, identifying with a more powerful figure is a shield to defend our psyche against the crushing threat (Cramer, 1998). Cramer’s study (1998) on late adolescents aged between 17 and 20 years old proved the defense mechanism application of identification.

Cohen (2001) reconciled identification’s definition, abiding by a progressive angle that collectively assembled Wollheim’s, Freud’s and Bettelheim’s three notions. He was of the belief that:
Identification is an imaginative experience in which a person surrenders consciousness of his or her own identity and experiences the world through someone else’s point of view. Identification leads to the (temporary) adoption of an external point of view and to viewing the world through an alternative social reality. (Cohen, 2001, p. 248)

Moreover, identification with others is related to the consideration of how humans naturally craft their social and personal identities in the course of their lifetime on earth whether directly or mediately through social influence, getting correct aspects off this process that fit into their sense of self, then weeding out inappropriate aspects (Schwartz et al., 2013; Cohen, 2001). Any musician for example, via songs they compose, “provides an opportunity for the expression of identity, and it can facilitate the reproduction and transformation of established social identities” (Lidskog, 2017, p. 25). Identity formation has posed a few psychological issues among young people; often when continuing to search for different identity alternatives—thereafter endeavoring to stick to them—the process subjects young people to a confused state, anxious sate, and a host of depressive symptoms (Schwartz et al., 2013). A comparison across a sample of 1,192 Italian of various age groups revealed certain identity exploration and commitment styles had a positive correlational relationship with Borderline Personality Disorder symptoms (Fossatti, Borroni, Feeney, & Maffei, 2012).

Wishful identification goes a step further to become longer lasting progression (similar to PSR) where identification crosses the boundaries of media engagement, extending into the audience member’s own external life (Rosengren, Windahl, Hakansson, & Johnsson-Smaragdi, 1976). By changing their personality, behavior and appearance in real life, they want to grow to be like the media figure (Hoffner & Buchanan, 2005). Imitation could be theorized as having an
appropriate part in wishful identification. Regardless of how old humans are, they try to copy how prominent figures dress, speak, express themselves, etc. Racially diverse loyal fans impersonating Elvis Presley are such a case as evidenced by an ethnographic study done in a period of 5 years on 35 of those who had strong identification towards the deceased American singer (Fraser & Brown, 2002).

Again, akin to PSI/PSR, people closely identify with celebrities like famous sportspersons, film/television stars, musicians, fashion models (Sun & Guo, 2013) or political figures overseeing a nation’s affairs (Fraser & Brown, 2002). A study conducted in 2015 by Bui though released two years later contrasted PSI alongside identification among 188 college students (139 females and 49 males) to see if the two variables impacted their choice of a celebrity (i.e. Johnny Depp or Sandra Bullock) based on how similar they were to them in gender, race and age. Overall the respondents showed a less inclination to develop identification than PSI (Bui, 2015). Additionally according to the results detailing identification, males (M = 57.02, SD = 17.23) exhibited stronger identification with their respective celebrity unlike their female counterparts (M = 50.83, SD = 15.01).

While certain researches in the past suggest that identification is deposited underneath PSI as a subcategory such as Boon & Lomore’s (2001) which will be explained later, other researches have attempted to keep the two processes separate, along with other variables like wishful identification described earlier (Moyer-Guse, 2008; Murphy, Sun, 2010; Frank, Moran, & Patnoe-Woodley, 2011). Boon & Lomore (2001) wanted to examine the identity formation principle of parasocial interactions among the demographic of late adolescents and young adults. Their study took a combined perspective, collecting data on both parasocial interactions and identification simultaneously i.e. the concepts were not treated with the distinction seen today in
modern research. This double take on these two forms of media engagement was a product of its time when PSI and identification were not stripped from each other.

Boon & Lomoe (2001) built on research for PSI and, unintentionally, identification by finding out what information, “**determine the degree of influence young adults attributed to celebrity idols when asked to judge the extent to which such idols had affected both their sense of identity and their feelings of self-worth**” (p. 433). The choice of young adults is symbolic since it is expected that creating a permanently stable identity progressed into adulthood and beyond (Fadjukoff, Pulkkinen, & Kokko, 2016). The authors assert that young adulthood is a definitive developmental stage where a person is able to weigh how much a persona (in this case a celebrity) molds their identity and, “**feelings of self worth (at least to some extent)**” (Boon & Lomore, 2001, p. 433).

Results showed that most young adults between the age of 17 and 35 admired idols who represented the area of acting at 38.7%, followed by musicians at 30.7%, then athletes at 14.7%, authors at 4.0% and miscellaneous (scientists, photographers, entrepreneurs, a motivator etc.) at 12.0%. Based on their findings (Boon & Lomore, 2001, p. 448), parasocial connections (both personal and emotional) with celebrities were more fervent if the young adult spent, “**more time, more money, and serious thought,**” on their associations. Contrary to their hypothesis (Boon & Lomore, 2001, p. 448), the personae these young adults were strongly attracted to were not thought of as, “**particularly influential either in motivating change in various aspects of their lives,**” nor were the investment and perceived intimacy ratings substantial. Despite low ratings, a closer inspection for personal change items among participants revealed that 14.7%, “**altered their physical appearance to appear more like their idols. 25.3% “indicated that they had engaged in efforts to change aspects of their personality to bring it more in line with that of their**
favorite idol,” while close to 60%, “reported that their idols had influenced their attitudes and personal values” (Boon & Lomore, 2001, p. 445).

The findings of a different survey done by Wen (2017) on both PSI and identification (this time being distinctive concepts) among 555 student attending college in Singapore used path analyses to show both processes intervened indirectly in their, “attitudes toward cosmetic surgery” after being exposed to media figures on various media outlets like television, movies, magazines, or internet (Wen, 2017, p. 1235). These attitudes were described and measured along the dimensions of accepting cosmetic surgery, intending to go for general cosmetic surgery and intending to go for specific cosmetic surgery. As a matter of fact according to the results, identification by itself bore no outcome on these youth’s cosmetic decisions unless PSI was involved in the mix, meaning if there were stronger feelings of close attachment to a media figure, this would more likely bring about the, “young fans’ adoption of the behavior promoted or modeled by the celebrity, such as undergoing cosmetic surgery” (Wen, 2017, p. 1245). In turn, the research proved how young people learn certain behaviors or beliefs from media personae which pose a huge impact on how they perceive themselves, which specifically in the case of plastic surgery for enhancing body image is usually hazardous to health physically and psychologically (Wen, 2017). In any case, crucial clarification still remains missing on the extent to which the adoption of the media persona’s values, beliefs or attitudes may cause distressing or maladaptive instability in the youth’s personality variations which must be answered since not every one of these personal aspects may be considered positive.

On a healthier note, identification especially among media fandoms has led to ‘extraordinary achievements’ like boosting positive self-esteem in most cases (Groene & Hettinger, 2016). A field-based identification and PSI survey investigation on a football player
named Diego Maradona and his avid football fans revealed that the moral nature of a famous
sports player adored by many fans possesses the potential to encourage or otherwise discourage
healthy behaviors when variables like gender and age were controlled for (Brown & de Matviuk, 2010). Maradona gave in to illicit substance use in his career as football player for Argentina and
this behavior negatively affected his image, then going on to dramatically downgrade his worth
amongst fans (Brown & de Matviuk, 2010). This aspect can also work in favor of the athlete
should he/she strive to clean up the harmful habit i.e. Maradona fought a long battle to
rehabilitate himself, thereby becoming a source of inspiration of other drug using football fans
who identify with him to likewise quit substance use (Brown & de Matviuk, 2010).

However in wanting to associate with a personae, some fans overdo it producing
unhealthy consequences (Groene & Hettinger, 2016). For example, when J.K. Rowling’s final
installment in the Harry Potter franchise Harry Potter & The Deathly Hallows came out it was a
daunting experience among hardcore Harry Potter fans to suffer from “DSM–IV… addictive
symptoms such as depression, motivational disturbances, and withdrawal,” as evidenced by a
study Rudski, Segal, & Kallen (2009) released.

In order to assess identification, the Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale (CPI), devised
by Brown & Borcanea (2007), is particulary resourceful for accomplishing this task. In spite of
its valid and reliable nature, the CPI tool is considered rather new and only a few studies so far
have utilized it to find out how a person changes their social attitudes, personal beliefs, and/or
behavioral characteristics to associate themselves with their preferred media persona compared
to the tools for measuring PSI/PSR used for far longer (Wen, 2017; Bui, 2015; Fraser & Brown,
2002 ). This is unsuprising when recognizing the fact how identification in mass media was only
recently examined, starting with the groundwork fleshed out by Cohen hence this current study sought to contribute additional knowledge to this novel psychological concept (2001).

2.3 Parasocial Interaction and Identification with Celebrities

By far the most cited type of media personae in research seen on media effects and parasocial processes is the celebrity icon. A celebrity is generally defined as a real person who is famous in conventional media though in all fairness the definition assumed several semantics in the eyes of many researchers (Laken, 2009). The real specification of a celebrity contributes to the denial of characters in television drama series to be such a kind of figure. Neither do media groups like bands owing to the individualized factor; but actors/actresses portraying these characters and the members comprising any musical band count as celebrities (Laken, 2009). Actors, comedians, athletes, presidents, authors, dancers, news reporters et cetera qualified to fit the status of a celebrity who media coverage popularize to varying extents of public attention (Laken, 2009).

Spitzberg and Cupach (2007) confirmed that a large proportion of students at 74.6% attending college admired at least one media figure type, irrespective of how high they ranked in the fame department. Among the sports fan community, PSR and identification with professional players have been accounted for (Sun & Wu, 2012; Brown & de Matviuk, 2010; Sun, 2010; Kassing & Sanderson, 2009; Hartmann et al., 2008; Mowen, 2000). Research revealed that it is through attending contests, viewing sports-related television channels, buying sports-related merchandise (e.g. jerseys, posters, action figures, souvenirs etc.) and watching advertisement commercials showcasing sports celebrities that people grow closer to their favorite athletes (Brown & de Matviuk, 2010; Sun, 2010). Such attachments can even make use of sports teams (Sun, 2010). Football fans for example feel they are deeply involved with their ideal football
teams such that in the event of either winning or losing a match, they mutually revel in the victory or loss (Brown & de Matviuk, 2010).

It has been previously shown that expression of PSI toward sportspeople changed in adapting to modern mass media consumerism:

“Due to the repetitive nature of sporting events, a player or team can become a constant virtual companion in a person’s living room on a weekly or even daily basis. Today’s sports coverage has undergone a shift from mere event reporting to in-depth pregame and postgame features, interviews, frequent commentaries provided by different experts, up-close profiles of individual athletes and their private lives, etc.” (Hartmann et al., 2008, p. 26).

At an elemental level, Sun (2010) tested parasocial relationships with favorite athletes and fan identification with preferred sports teams through the hierarchal structure of Big-Five personality traits which are extraversion, neuroticism or emotional instability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. In addition, the author investigated fans’ approach and avoidance coping strategies during a stressful match. His findings showed that neuroticism and agreeableness influenced empathy. This in turn directly affected parasocial relationship with favorite sportspersons in a positive direction (Sun, 2010). Thereafter Sun and Wu (2012) attempted a tweaked format, integrating a full hierarchal model (drawing inspiration from their precursor’s model and the Big-Five factors) in discovering, “individual differences in the propensity to develop a parasocial relationship with sports celebrities” (p. 137). The results were a fundamental breakthrough for the sports media market in proving how, “interest in sports spectatorship was associated positively with competitiveness and need for body resources and
The traits symbolized a positive correlation between parasocial relationships sports fans had with sports celebrities. The need for body resources naturally entailed attention given to a person’s appearance plus their health according to Mowen (2000). This trait occasionally involved, “a comparison between one’s body and the bodies of others (e.g. mediated sports celebrities)” (Sun & Wu, 2012, p. 139). Such an implication enhanced insight into why sports fans (i.e. football fans) switched their food intake around, seeing that after a team suffered a crushing defeat they ate higher albeit unhealthier intakes of saturated fat and calories (Cornil & Chandon, 2013). Whenever a team was a loser or victor, sports fans internalized the outcome converting it into detrimental acts of unhealthy eating, suffering from psychosomatic ailments, and instigating chaotic clashes (Cornil & Chandon, 2013).

For results on self-esteem, the team discovered that fans coping with low self-esteem fostered parasocial relationships with sports icons to pick themselves up (Sun & Wu, 2012). Materialistic audience members tended to target sports icons in order to form a parasocial relationship with them, “possibly because they may view the celebrity as an asset that is valuable, expensive, luxurious and nice to have” (Sun & Wu, 2012, p. 144).

Examining modern day celebrity icons much further, there are always those inspiring followers to live fruitful lives i.e. to achieve meaningfulness, to maintain nobility, and to gain positivity. American football celebrity, Tim Tebow citing his core Christian religious beliefs teaches fans the importance of working hard to attain one’s personal goals (Parker & Watson, 2015). Research on basketball player Magic Johnson, upon declaring to the public about his positive HIV status, revealed that those who felt more connected to the sports icon in their PSI empathized with AIDS sufferers following the disclosure and appealed to increase awareness
about safe-sex practices (Brown & Basil, 1995). The long term impact of this implication in health is another story.

In as much as there are celebrities who communicate messages intended to benefit others role-modeling them, the integrity of several observed in media indeed has been called into doubt. Under both prosocial and antisocial tendencies these media personae displayed now and then, scholars concluded that celebrities are merely human displaying flaws akin to the average folk with also down-to-earth flaws, not the saints people hope for (Fraser & Brown, 2002). They fear that more often than not, a celebrity’s image in the limelight is short-lasting. The reputation of even the most well-intentioned celebrity can vanish so long they are no longer credited or imitated by observers for years to come in the future (Fraser & Brown, 2002). These shortcomings stagger the opinion on how nearly all celebrities accept being role models to identify with and learn from.

2.4 Parasocial Interaction and Identification in Social Media

Before applying PSI/PSR and identification in the context of social media, it should be noted that these websites are valuable computer technologies, most of which, “can offer adolescents deeper benefits that extend into their view of self, community, and the world, including opportunities for community engagement through raising money for charity and volunteering for local events, including political and philanthropic events” (Mukui, 2015, p. 11). Humanity has gotten more dependent on accessing social media. The fascinating feature about it is how after registering, young and mature users can upload creative content in the form of art, music, videos or word posts to be approved by social entities. They can customize blogs and notably get in touch with family and friends who are familiar to them or be acquainted with a
plethora of other online users from various cultural settings with whom they may share identical interests (Mukui, 2015).

Returning to PSI/PSR and identification: although these kinds of media engagement with media figures originated in the realm of television, Social Networking Site (SNS) platforms like Facebook, Twitter, Youtube, Tumblr et cetera grant the chance for users signing up to get close with personae remotely (Yuksel & Labrecque, 2016; Baek, Bae, & Jang, 2013) or vice versa where media personae intimately get in touch with their fans, which is a common custom among celebrated athletes (Kassing & Sanderson, 2009) and musicians (Baym, 2012) for example.

Moreover, Ballantine and Martin (2005) justified the concept of PSI on online social platforms by reasoning that the ratio of media persona to user admiring him/her (in extent, this can also apply to users themselves connecting with other platform members) can be so vast that, “it is unlikely that an individual user would be able to directly interact with all other users online” (p. 199). According to Ballantine and Martin (2005), formation of parasocial interaction online is based on a number of theories, one being personal construct theory. Personal construct theory provides an impression on the vicarious relations stirred by utilizing, “interpersonal construct systems to the parasocial context,” such that users, “develop a sense of ‘knowing’ media characters” (Ballantine & Martin, 2005, p. 199).

Celebrities on Youtube, a video hosting website, like comedian Ethan Marrell (also known by his stage name Ozzy Man on his video channel Ozzy Man Reviews) are claiming fame (Ozzy Man, 2017). According to Rasmussen (2018), a Youtube celebrity in layman terms is, “a video blogger with a large following” (p. 281). These digital celebrities have convinced more than a million users to subscribe to their video channels. Their influence does not just stop at an online boundary; Youtube celebrities have capitalized on their renowned status to cooperate with
powerful business firms and public figures in real life like Covergirl, a major cosmetic company and Barack Obama, former president of the United States of America, respectively (Rasmussen, 2018). The partnership between Youtube icons and companies purposefully serve to let them promote branded products among subscribers (or regular viewers if they are unwilling to apply for membership), winning them over as potential customers. Through this incentive, viewers/subscribers, “socialize with Youtube celebrities…,” ergo, “in a sense, Youtube celebrities become friends sharing their opinion” (Rasmussen, 2018, p. 281). From the studies seen so far, the relationship between social media personae and their viewers seem appealing to the marketing research department who seek to exploit the viewers’ devotion to a social media persona by advertising products via them (Rasmussen, 2018). Rasmussen (2018) found that parasocial interaction did happen between viewers and popular Youtube beauty video logging celebrities among 270 American females aged from 18 to 27 years old and they felt as if the celebrity was a companion.

These personas are not loyal to just this social media platform alone because they, “are on other social media platforms like Twitter, Facebook, and Snapchat” (Rasmussen, 2018, p. 291). Rasmussen (2018) argues that because of multiple social media platform alliances, the celebrities erected a, “web of interactivity that could quickly intensify parasocial interactions and the development of parasocial relationships” (p. 291).

Celebrities opening up to their fans pose a vulnerable threat. Along with these celebrity-fan interactions on websites has come a maladaptive habit termed stalking on the part of the user (Sptizberg & Cupach, 2008). A concept pertaining to stalking has been investigated in so-called ‘celebrity worship’ by Maltby, Houran, and McCutcheon (2003). To describe celebrity worship as purely obsession would be making it an understatement. The relationship evolves to an
unsettling point of the fan being too close to the celebrity for comfort. In her interview with several musicians, Baym (2012) found that many of them have to deal with fans, “who are inappropriately emotional” especially those who, “feel too connected to them” (p. 305). The emotions generated from enjoying media content can be directed to the real life personae themselves causing these audience members who illusively identify with them to become ‘mentally unstable’ (Baym, 2012). A number of these unwanted negative behaviors of fans might come across as being symptomatic of borderline personality disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

People may imagine themselves as being acquainted with the celebrity but this is no way equal to an authentic friendship. Baym (2012) distinguished fan relationships from friendships, arguing that most qualities observed in friendships like empathic understanding and personal disclosure do not hold here. In our normal lives, we are capable of picking friends; with respect to fandoms, it is beyond the power of celebrities such as musicians to be provided a choice about who specifically should follow them (Baym, 2012). These two relationships differ in a myriad of fashions concerning mutuality where it is expected that both parties need to display qualities like supportiveness, authenticity and loyalty to mention but a few (Baym, 2012). Fans might offer these expectations but on the celebrity’s part, he/she is unable to consort with every fan.

2.5 Parasocial Interaction, Parasocial Relationships, and Identification with Fictional Characters

Previously PSI/PSR and identification were reserved for real life figures but the attachment to media figures has moved on to fictional characters too. The purpose these two media engagements serve in fictional media is to heighten the general outcome of the story broadcasted—to move the viewer—to provoke their emotional state (Hall, 2017).
Gannon (2018) sees this form of involvement with fictional characters as a way to combat isolation. Doing her own literature review to integrate parasocial relationships in expressive arts therapy for clients who view media, she identifies several reasons why attachments to fictional media figures occur. In her own words (Gannon, 2018), she looks at how, “a client might be going through a similar experience as a character,” or how a, “character could have traits they admire, such as bravery or strength” (p. 4).

Gannon (2018) argues that parasocial relationships with fictional characters specifically possess utility whenever a psychologist conducts therapy sessions. Clients with strong media identifications and PSR can bank on these to metaphorically learn to process their issues and persevere during a bibliotherapy or expressive arts session if the client themselves do wish for that (Gannon, 2018). When a person is facing difficulty i.e. dealing with stress, he/she feels the need to turn to his/her favorite media figure (whether it is by watching them, listening to them or reading about them), vicariously rely on their own narratives of how they overcame their struggle and feel they are there for them despite the fact the media is imaginary (Gannon, 2018). Gannon (2018) references the horror movie *It* released in cinemas worldwide in 2017 whose plot revolved around a creature named after the title that terrorized a gang of children. The children at the movie’s finale learn to overcome their worst phobias so as to defeat the titular monster. Translating the movie’s message to real life, this may be helpful in person settling his/her fear-inducing problems (Gannon, 2018). To put this bluntly, it becomes a therapeutic privilege. Clients who enjoy consuming media can display unrequited attachment to any character that these media’s story presents. Likewise, a person’s identity can be built around these relationships as well. Being nothing more than a literature review, a glaring gap riddling Gannon’s research is how in a practical sense it neither operationalized PSI/PSR towards fictional characters as a
fieldwork attempt nor gathered statistical data from appropriated clients on its actual application in an art therapeutic session, meaning this media engagement concept still needs plenty of empirical verification.

During untold millennia on earth, human beings recounted fairytales, mythologies and folklore which according to Jungian psychology houses universal archetypes including the protagonist (hero), the sage (wise old man), the parent (mother/father), the youngster, the trickster (antagonist) and godmother that resonated with the collective unconscious (Saldana, 2008). Each story may be unique to each culture, for example the legend of the fierce fighter *Luanda Magere* imparted by the Luo people of Kenya (Omtatah, 1991), the legend of the prosperous *Gikuyu* and his wife *Mumbi* imparted by the Kikuyu people of Kenya (Gakuo, 1993), the legend of the wise deity *Chebetchechochemataw* imparted by the Kalenjin people of Kenya (Kipkorir, 2008), the legend of the omnipotent divinity *Were* imparted by the Luhya people of Kenya (Bulimo, 2013), the legend of the mournful *Leeyio* imparted by the Maasai people of Kenya and Tanzania (Sherman, 2003) however whenever they are retold in various formats like cartoon shows, graphic novels, movies, theatricals, or video games we heed them and universally identify with the symbols including mythological figures found in them because of their valuable lessons. They teach us how to resolve if not take real life obstacles in stride no matter the complexity (Saldana, 2008).

PSI/PSR toward fictional characters is more than just an admiration. It hinges on an emotional provocation whereby a real infatuation among other feelings surface. These feelings are most likely to be expressed through so-called ‘fandom’, fan groups devoted to a media type and media character whether real or otherwise fictional (Gannon, 2018; Cohen & Seate, 2017). Similar to real life celebrities, fans cannot resist discussing about these fictional characters, going
even much further to exchange theories with other fans that predict a character’s fate in a fictional story (Gannon, 2018). Once again, this is tied to their enduring parasocial connections seen whenever a person enjoys a piece of media (Adachi, Ryan, Frye, & McClurg, 2018).

When fans of all popular media culture band together to form these large-scale communities, the benefits from such admirations are elevated to a point where they reap positive fulfillments ranging from empowerment, social integration, belonging, and far greater entertainment (Cohen & Seate, 2017; Groene & Hettinger, 2016). Nonetheless being part of a ‘fandom’ following, especially a ‘geeky’ fantasy-related (e.g. Harry Potter, Game of Thrones, Chronicles of Narnia) and a science fiction-related (e.g. Star Wars, Doctor Who, Marvel/DC superhero comics) one comes at a cost: “fans can also be stigmatized socially” (Cohen & Seate, 2017, 193). The stigma is understandably existent in noting how society labeled them as immature, generally inept and downright eccentric. Taking into account how fans push their obsessions over the edge, it has been warned their acts come near to matching psychological pathologies and this can interfere with how they live (Stever, 2011; Ashe et al., 2005). A recent study that compared acceptability and stigmatization between sports fans and science-fiction/fantasy fans found that the stigma in the latter affected male geek members who are seen as less socially desirable or attractive and that the female geek members (who in an objectification’s sense were more physically appealing) had no significant impact in increasing the desirability though the female fan members were stigmatized less than the male members (Cohen & Seate, 2017). This can contribute to fans feeling they are social outcasts if they are looked down upon by the rest of society (Cohen & Seate, 2017).

Today, one of the media forms we are able to manipulate to our heart’s content is video games. The video game industry embodies a huge number of genres like adventure games, action
games, first-person shooters, stealth games, arcade-style games, simulations, puzzles, role-playing games, sports games to mention but a few (Kuss & Griffith, 2012). Playing any excellent video game releases pent-up stress. Currently video games are developed to cater to males and females in its every-growing popularity, though a majority of the players are stereotypically thought to be youthful males (Hanus & Dickinson, 2018). Playing video games fosters identification (Hefner, Klimmt, & Vorderer, 2007) and PSI/PSR at greater depths than simply viewing a film/television series (Gannon, 2018). And with video games coming up successfully on the Social Networking Site platforms on the internet, the effect has been multiplied (Kuss & Griffith, 2012). The key explanation for this is how at the push of a button on a console’s controller video games let the player be in control of the main character (Gannon, 2018; Hanus & Dickinson, 2018; Kuss & Griffith, 2012). By customizing virtual profiles on computers termed avatars, players open up doors to secondary lives online through these characters (Hanus & Dickinson, 2018). Prior to certain video games like role-playing genres launching, players have the option on the menu to choose the gender, appearance, and qualities to resemble themselves or not. Hanus & Dickinson (2018) discovered in a survey of 379 male and female video game players, “those who play games place more value on desirable aspects of a character’s identity” (p. 7). During gameplay, the players are prone to identifying with the virtual character since they may, “pull aspects of the game character into their own self-concepts” (Hanus & Dickinson, 2018, p. 4), especially when they were designed by game developers to be realistic physically and personality trait-wise (in terms of goals, attributes, desires etc.) or be set in a captivating story world. This was a strong implication of how video game players were able to become aggressive by identifying with an aggressive video game character.
Another genre of fictional media that has been attaining a popular reception throughout the modern times has been those on superheroes. It is striking how, “superheroes have been a part of popular culture since the early 1930s” (Brown, Nasiruddin, Cabral, & Soohoo, 2015, p. 625). Leaping out of comic books, superheroes further rose to fame since the release of blockbuster movies like X-men, Spiderman, and Batman Begins in the early 21st century (Martin, 2007). Many of these superhero films seemed to be a hit amongst young and old cinema-goers alike. As far back as 17 years ago, “there have been more than 70 films with superheroes depicted...” (Bauer, Georgeson, McNamara, Wakefield, King, & Olympia, 2017, p. 1293). At a cinema called Century IMAX found in Garden City, a Kenyan shopping mall, recent years saw the release of Avengers: Infinity War, Black Panther, Antman & the Wasp, Incredibles 2, Black Panther, Wonder Woman, Justice League, Deadpool 2 to mention but a few which goes to show how the superhero genre and its characters have attained popularity in the urban settings of Kenya (KenyaBuzz: A Nation Media Group Company, 2018). Many modern superheroes, which are traditionally familiar to American audiences in large part due to mega-franchising by companies Marvel and DC Comics (Ioannidou, 2013), have likewise become acknowledged by moviegoers in countries outside the United States of America.

Superheroes today are still worthwhile characters from fiction who demonstrate respected personal values like virtuousness, ambition and good will (Brown et al., 2015; Winterbach, 2006). According to Tyree and Jacobs (2014), “the superhero stands for what is ‘right’, upholds justice and is a crime fighter” (p. 2 & p. 3). The likability of superheroes (and superheroines) has not only to do with their extraordinary abilities, “but also flaws, virtues, and origin stories that make them relatable” (Brown et al., 2015, p. 625). As such, this makes them worthy contenders in the media effects investigation of PSI/PSR and identification between these fictional personae
and aspects of both children and adult’s behavior. For example Martin (2007) studied the effect of superheroes on moral attitudes among 42 children in fourth grade classes, finding significant correlations in more boys than girls while Young, Gabriel, and Hollar (2012) examined the influence of PSR on men’s body image between male groups who were familiar with Batman and Spiderman and those who were not, revealing those who saw the character’s muscular images and had strong PSR with the characters felt stronger (t(32)= 1.90, p=.07, ηp2=.16) after they were subjected to pressing a dynamometer gadget.

The popularization of the superheroes has led them to become role-model icons among the male population (Young, Gabriel, & Hollar, 2012). Masculine characteristics were attributed to superheroes in the sense that their profile was usually tough, collected, and full of energy (Tyree & Jacobs, 2014). Male youngsters, “grow up watching superhero cartoons, reading comic books, and playing with superhero action figurines” (Young et al., 2012, p. 173). For adults in particular, “they reconnect with their favorite superheroes through the world of cinema” (Young et al., 2012, p. 173). For avid readers of comic books, superheroes are an ‘ego ideal’ (Avery-Natale, 2013). Within the Freudian psychoanalytical field, Salman Akhtar (2009) defines ego ideal as the image inside a person aspires to be. A crucial reminder of such fictional media personae is how they represent a Jungian archetype discussed before: the Protagonist.

The media genre does possess a downside however. The prominent feature about the superhero genre that should be noted is, “that it frequently portrays violence (Bauer et al., 2017, p. 1295),” and the characters appear nonchalant about brawling criminals with or without weapons. During the writing of one journal article, Bauer et al. (2017) unearthed bullying and torture, a negative theme, in 30 superhero film contents following a content analysis. Martin (2007) found that those who disfavor superheroes fear that youth (e.g. children) can end up
imitating their brutal antisocial actions, “because children know that heroes are often rewarded for aggressive or violent behavior” (Martin, 2007, p. 240). The author spoke otherwise and went on to reason that there is more to the life of a fictional superhero to learn about while relating to them or copying them rather than exchanging fisticuffs i.e. “the values superheroes promote” (Martin, 2007, p. 240). An example referencing a more constructive influence superhero media personae exert is an experimental study by Betzalel and Shechtman (2017) on 187 orphan youth raised in foster care. The results indicated significant positive changes in their aggression, violent behavior, planning for ahead and anxiety among the group where bibliotherapy revolving around superheroes was conducted, compared to the two other control groups receiving regular bibliotherapy and no bibliotherapy at all (Betzalel & Shechtman, 2017).

### 2.6 Realistic Media Personae versus Fictional Media Personae

Note that Rumpf (2012) posted the question on his research study about, “whether there would be more real or fictional media figures identified by the participants” (p. 33). His research’s findings showed a greater percentage of participants at 89.8%, “listed real characters as their favorite media figure and individuals who identified with fictional characters had lower levels of PSI than individuals who identified with real characters” (Rumpf, 2012, p. 33). At first glance, it would normally be automatic if future investigations on PSI/PSR and identification disregarded fictional personae, however the media effects of them should not be underestimated. As a matter of fact, Tsay-Vogel and Schwartz (2014) were not shunning less authentic media figures’ significances in PSI either when structuring the dimensional classifications for figure authenticity discussed before.

Categorization for a broad spectrum of media personae, from real-life celebrities like sportspeople, singers, actors/actresses, social media icons to fictional movie, book, and video
game characters, is also used to great effect in a study by Coddaire (2015). This choice welcomed an assorted range of media figures an individual can relate to. Gleason et al.’s study (2017) and Boon & Lomore’s study (2001) mentioned earlier restricted their choice of media figures to realistic classes such as actors, athletes, musicians, and general celebrities. This present study however seeks to follow in the tracks of Coddaire (2015) and Rumpf (2012) by including miscellaneous possible personae apart from real life celebrities to sufficiently understand how far each media persona type plays in parasocial processes and identification for a sample of emerging adults studying at university.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This research is guided by symbolic interactionism pioneered by George Herbert Mead, and Social Cognitive Theory by Albert Bandura.

2.7.1 Symbolic Interactionism

Two scales set the standard for any communication between or amongst people, namely non-symbolic interactionism where there is a ‘conversation of gestures’ and symbolic interactionism (Mead, 1934). A sociological phrase devised by Mead (1934) the founder behind the theory propounded that our interactions in society are based on the *meanings* we attach to whatever objects we encounter. On account of Mead (1934) a person’s social self is formed through social meetings with others. In particular, an individual existing in society depends on numerous interactions to figure out what responsibilities and roles they fulfil.

Coutu (1949) felt compelled to challenge Mead’s sociological theory. His statement is largely a critique of his work, arguing that taking these roles in society and assimilating them into our identity is not as easily achievable reason being we may not grasp the true meanings behind these roles, not correctly interprete them, or not have adequate skills to accommodate
them (Coutu, 1949). It would be erroneous to assume that human beings go on automatic to accept these roles rigidly, since to him they are modified according to how the individual responds (Coutu, 1949).

In response to Mead’s idea, Blumer (1969) stepped in to expand on symbolic interactionism. The author proposed that when socially engaging with elements around us (whether they are people, situations or items) in the environment we obtain some meaning out of them. Thereafter in a reciprocating fashion the same meanings of said elements around us determine our actions towards them (Blumer, 1969). These meaning-related processes are determined by the unique nature through which an individual chooses to interpret them (Blumer, 1969).

Scholars have come to an understanding that symbolic interactionism is definitely one theoretical justification accounting for PSI/PSR, “being that PSIs resemble social interactions (though they occur in a mediated context),” therefore, “meanings ascribed to media figures and the relationships viewers develop with them are indeed constructed” (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014, p. 67). These denotations conveyed out of PSI/PSR toward media personae like celebrities for example, “can in turn influence both perceptions of the viewers and those of the world in which they live” (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014, p. 67). In such a kind of context, it is safe to assume PSI/PSR inadvertently shaped an individual’s own distinctive personal qualities. For instance Sun and Wu (2012) drew on Brown and Basil’s study (1995) on basketball player Magic Johnson’s HIV status, arguing that most audience members were able to emotionally relate to and become sympathetic toward a famous icon such as him, in turn heightening a serious perspective about what living with the disease meant.
2.7.2 Social Cognitive Theory

To explain identification, social cognitive theory is proposed. Many years ago Bandura (1977) conceived social learning theory to establish that behaviors are also learnt intentionally or unintentionally by observing those around us as opposed to reinforcement and punishment typified by operant conditioning. Nearly a decade later, Bandura (1986) redefined social learning theory, extending it into social cognitive theory. It is worth remembering that he gave special prominence to the function of exemplary models in the socialization process based on how information like values, cultural customs, religious rituals, political penchants are passed down to generational descendants through them (Bandura, 2001, 1977).

Four processes are needed to engage observational learning. First is the fact that the learner, who is an audience member, must pay attention to the model (Bandura, 2001). Often attractive and similar models are paid closer attention to (Bandura, 2001). Secondly, the information observed ought to undergo retention where it is stored in human memory. This takes us to the third process called production that sees the learner acting out the learned behavior and information. The last process being motivation causes the learner to repeat said behavior based on the outcome that follows. In identification (Pajares, Abby, Chen, & Nabi, 2009), similarity in terms of personality traits, attitudes, physical appearance, and demographics like gender or age is key to how much an audience member identifies with a media figure. Consequently identification is linked to stronger observational learning. The principles of social cognitive theory were extensively applied in the field of mass media effects (Bandura, 2001). The primary goal of observational learning is for us to acquire facts, “from extensive modeling in the symbolic environment of the mass media” (Bandura, 2001, p. 271). Bandura’s theory was used to explain how the youth, particularly adolescents are inspired by role models to adopt certain behaviors as part of their identity. After all, Erikson (1968) reasons that adolescence is a critical
developmental period whereby the individual encountered a psychosocial crisis surrounding identity and identification which needed to be resolved. The adolescent individual moves his or her process of identification from the significant others he or she depended during younger years to peers and media icons serving as inspiration, learning intentionally or involuntarily from them so that their identity became definite (Cohen, 2001; Erikson, 1968). Sun and Wu (2012) argued that, “to young adults, celebrities can be their role models and significant socialization agents”, possessing enough persuasive capacity to, “affect their self-views” (p. 136).

2.8 Media and Pathological Personality Traits

Due to a scarcity in literature on the relationship PSI/PSR with media personae and identification with media personae have with personality disorders or pathological personality traits, the following section went a more generalized route involving accounts of the relationship between mass media as a whole and personality disorders.

2.8.1 Antisocial Personality Traits

By far, the most widely referenced pathological personality traits in media are those having to do with Antisocial Personality Disorder. A description in the DSM-V includes a wide set of diagnostic criterial symptoms, “such as irresponsibility, irritability, a history of lying or conning, aggressiveness, lack of remorse, trouble with the law or reckless behavior that puts his life or others’ lives in danger” (Căndel & Constatin, 2017, p. 11).

Most media content nowadays have dramatically adopted antisocial acts (Plaisier & Konijn, 2012). Forms of media showcasing risky acts like fighting, cursing, theft, and binge drinking are a viewed staple among the youth (Den Hamer, Konijn, & Bushman, 2017). The content in antisocial media seems to impair their wellbeing as an effect, bringing about poorer negative development (Plaisier & Konijn, 2012). This has agonized significant others close to
them like family members and the community. Actors, sportspeople, and musical artists observed by youth as role models committing such acts warp their normative expectations about these detrimental behaviors, increasing the probability of them doing the same (DuRant, Rome, Rich, Allred, & Woods, 1997).

For many years, research in psychology and communication has constantly shown that violent video games, television, and films were related to higher aggressive/antisocial behavior, thought, not to mention emotion (e.g. Plante, Sweet, & Groves, 2018; Greitemeyer & Mügge, 2014; Paik & Comstock, 1994). Violence shown in media is particularly relevant to understanding aggression. Evidence from, “multiple metanalyses have shown that violence in media is associated with aggressive behavior” (Bauer et al., 2017). Linking this to the DSM-V, the fourth diagnostic criteria for antisocial personality disorder states, “irritability and aggressiveness, as indicated by physical fights or assaults,” that was found to be correlated with violent television (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 659). Aggression online between rival fan followings of particular media or icons they feature usually takes the form of cyber-bullying where information is sent to a computer user to deliberately attack them (Gannon, 2018). It is a regrettable experience which is, “quite common, can occur to any young person online, and can cause profound psychosocial outcomes including depression, anxiety, severe isolation, and tragic suicide” (Mukui, 2015, p. 25). It goes without saying that antisocial personality disorder is alternatively known as psychopathy (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Those who have antisocial behavior express characteristics from a pathological personality trait domain called disinhibition (Morgado & da Luz Vale-Dias, 2016).

A person diagnosed with antisocial personality disorder (psychopathy) can be dysfunctional in terms of empathy and a guilty conscience, giving them the ability to commit
heinous crimes without feeling any remorse (Rogstad, 2011). Although antisocial traits are typically associated with run of the mill criminals, a newer way of looking at them is that they are highly popular characteristics among top corporate leaders admired in business organizations (Gudmundsson & Southey, 2011). This psychopathic temperament in their craving for success seems to predispose them to use their physical and social charm to manipulate associates, act overconfidently by taking commercial risks, shun criticism, scheme deceptively and maliciously threaten subordinates (Gudmundsson & Southey, 2011). Even business researchers argue that these characteristics are fittingly appropriate for the business world where the name of the game is competition (Westerman, Bergman, Bergman, & Daly, 2011). Worst of all, this acceptance can be traced down to the education sector where young students in business schools learn there are no repercussions for becoming an uncaring manager, hence Gudmundsson & Southey (2011) argue academic institutions should implement programmes where they are taught emotional skills, looking to role model leaders who serve as positive moral inspiration.

Adolescence is a high-risk time, isolated from other developmental stages, where deviant behavior is widespread. A review by Blonigen (2010) on the link between age and crime pinpointed an age-crime gradient revealing that antisocial personality pattern rose swiftly mid-adolescence, reached its pinnacle during late adolescence then went on to dip by the time an individual was already a young adult. Although deviant behavior started declining by young adulthood, it goes to show that the behaviors were still present. At each life stage, personality changes (which develop jointly with deviancy) were par for the course during the transition from adolescence to adulthood (Blonigen, 2010).
When studying the factors causing susceptibility to antisocial media, it is important to be grounded in the fact how, “not all adolescents are influenced in similar ways by media, in particular by media portraying antisocial, risky, and immoral behavior” (Plaisier & Konijn, 2012, p. 1165). Certain situational conditions and personality makeups are complementary risk factors that should be reckoned with when knowing how such media influence is increased (Krcmar & Kean, 2005). Plaisier and Konijn (2012, p. 1170) found in their randomized experiment that being shunned by peers produced, “higher levels of anger and frustration, which were related to a more lenient moral judgment of antisocial, risky, and immoral media content” among adolescents. The younger the adolescent’s age was, the harder it was for them to cope with the negative emotions like anger following peer-rejection. Conversely, the older the adolescent became, the more cognitive resources they acquired to sort out peer-rejection properly (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006). Interestingly, both adolescents and a psychiatric sample among the adult demographic chiefly resorted to more ‘unadaptive coping strategies’ such as blaming themselves, magnifying the terror of what circumstances the individual endured and overly thinking about the emotions associated with the negative event (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006). These coping strategies were fundamental in, “reporting of symptoms of psychopathology” (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006, p. 1668).

Simultaneously from a cross-cultural perspective, antisocial behavior and its link with media have attained noteworthy recognition. Within Kenya, a report released by the National Campaign Against Drug Abuse, also known as NACADA, showed that criminal behavior including substance use is becoming a norm among adolescents (Mwaura, 2014). Mwaura (2014) sampled 482 male and female students aged between 15 and 21 years from 8 secondary schools across Nakuru County, Kenya to investigate the connection between media use and deviant
behavior such as illicit drug abuse, interpersonal conflicts, risky sexual behavior and physical violence. A chi-square test was executed on the Statistical Packaging of Social Sciences (SPSS) software to analyze each null hypothesis. Out of 105 students viewing media for a period within 21 hours, 14 abused drugs more often while out of 55 students viewing media for 28 hours, 6 abused more often and they would all do so if they were previously hooked on drugs. In terms of interpersonal conflict, a measly 48 out of 482 students reported interpersonal conflicts when being exposed to media, proving lesser media use hours meant more interpersonal conflict. 72 out of 123 students, 59 out of 105 students, and 41 out of 57 students who were exposed to media for 14 hours, 21 hours and 28 hours partook in sexual acts which put them in danger of unwanted pregnancies or getting a sexual transmitted disease. This finding was an indication there was a correlation between media use and risky sexual behavior. Last but not least, for physical violence against parents, peers and teachers, 76 out of 184 viewing media for less than 7 hours admitted they were aggressive, 57 out of 117 viewing media for 14 hours admitted they were aggressive, 59 out of 103 viewing media for 21 hours were aggressive, and 33 out 57 viewing media for 28 hours were aggressive.

The entire results in Mwaura’s view (2014), proved, “levels of exposure to mass media seems to influence students’ deviant behaviors” (p. 110.). So while Mwaura (2014) may recognize the antisocial effects as he is relating media use with adolescents in Kenyan culture, he has yet to delve into the elemental component of media figures themselves in this very trend.

DuRant et al. (1997) analyzed the content of music videos of five music genres (namely rap, adult contemporary, country music, rock, and rhythm and blues) on television depicting alcohol and tobacco usage across networks like MTV (Music Television), CMT (Country Music Television), Video Hits One (VH1), and Black Entertainment Television (BET). The percentage
of alcohol and tobacco use was found to be highest on the MTV channel at 26% and 27% in that order. In addition, the authors identified stronger references to eroticism in the BET channel. Breaking the music video’s contents down (DuRant, et al., 1997), “the lead singer or performer was twice as likely to smoke (this occurred in 19% of the videos and three times as likely to drink (in 18.8% of the videos as a background singer or musician (10% and 6%, respectively)” (p. 1133). The ambience going on in the music video while these acts occurred was nothing short of upbeat. This fed into the reward potential of indulging in such risky behaviors at a young age (DuRant et al., 1997). Fast forward to the 21st century, the number of substance use portrayals in the visual aesthetics plus lyrics of music videos remained statically high (e.g. Cranwell, Murray, Lewis, Leonardi-Bee, & Dockrell, 2014). Music videos hosted by websites nowadays like Youtube are popular enough to watch amongst youth. In their study which quantified music video content and viewing among British adolescents within the age range of 11 and 18, Cranwell et al. (2014) had given an overview on how western musical artists appearing in the music videos like Beyonce, Jay-Z, Lorde, Bastille, Vance Joy to mention but a few endorsed particular alcoholic brands. This gave the team further evidence that exposure to these harmful behaviors would increase an adolescent’s propensity to imitate them. The article did not however document the extent to which these celebrities impacted on this emulation. A study by Moses released in 2013 purposively sampled 180 students, 99 teachers, and 10 head teachers from public secondary schools in Mombasa County, Kenya who filled out a questionnaire in order to establish what factors contributed to drug usage. His results established that among the respondents 58.6% found media influence to be a major contributor to drug abuse among the student (Moses, 2013). Doubly so, 68% responded that media transmitted, “vices to promote drug abuse among students in public secondary school” (Moses, 2013, p. 61).
Starting from a tenderer age when we watch television, Huesmann, Lagerspetz, & Eron (1984) noted that, “the more the child identifies with actors who are aggressors… the more likely is the child to be influenced by the scene, believing that the behaviors are appropriate and to be expected” (p. 749). In their study, identification with television actors was selected to be an intervening variable that mediated the, “relation between violence viewing and aggressiveness” (Huesmann et al., 1984, p. 747). Consuming violent media has been shown to be, “positively associated with trait aggression” (Plante et al., 2018, p. 79). Even certain theoretical frameworks (Hall, 2017) propose that the sense of identification with media personae who act aggressively in fictional narratives can bring about ethical disengagement, “which may lead to more acceptance of real-world immoral behavior” (p. 2). For example, the fictional protagonist Dexter from the titular television series who real life American actor Michael C. Hall portrays is a serial killer (Jonason et al., 2012). Unlike most villainous serial killers in fiction, he has a justified cause for his murders since in, “the popular, antihero appeal of the show Dexter…he kills those who arguably deserve to be killed” (Jonason et al., 2012, p. 194). Identifying with a murderous character can cause cognitive dissonance (Cohen, 2001).

Importantly, it must be emphasized again that antisocial traits such as violence are not a product of violent media exposure alone but of multitudinous aspects which come together and interact with each other in due course (Morgado & da Luz Vale-Dias, 2016; Huesmann & Taylor, 2006). Other factors to look out for include socioeconomic status where, “those from households lower in SES both engaging in more aggressive behavior and viewing greater amounts of violent entertainment” (Comstock, 2008, p. 1185), not to mention internal traits like self-control (Morgado & da Luz Vale-Dias, 2016). Similarity in terms of racial profile, age, and gender shall affect this identification with an antisocial character. However this was not fixed since on the
contrary, people may imitate the behavior of a media figure that was older and of a different race as was the case in a study by Neely, Hechel, and Leichtman (1973) on African American children. Typical studies have been assessing these traits gotten during exposure to their favorite media from a holistic standpoint rather than breaking the specific content apart to their elemental components like viewers attachment or identification with characters featured in to see how much of a contributive role they fulfill.

2.8.2 Narcissistic Personality Traits

Now than ever before, narcissism has become an extensive occurrence according to Twenge and Campbell (2009). Worse still, at the time of their investigation college students were reported to have received higher scores than their cohorts 20 years prior on the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI), a measurement used for assessing narcissistic traits (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Before the exploration of the relation between narcissistic personality disorder and media commences, an inquiry of what its traits center on must be addressed. This sort of personality disorder falls under the Diagnostic Statistics Manual’s Cluster B disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). One primary aspect of a narcissistic individual is their typical focus on maintaining worthiness about themselves. The criteria condition of Narcissistic Personality Disorder is outlined in the fifth edition of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) which is described as, “a pervasive pattern of grandiosity, need for admiration, and lack of empathy that begins by adulthood and is present in a variety of contexts” (p. 670).

What stands out about grandiosity is, “an unrealistic sense of superiority which is not necessarily reflected in outward behavior” (Afek, 2017, p. 231). Investigation on narcissism and narcissistic personality disorder has been of interest within the clinical psychology, social-
personality psychology and psychiatric fields for several years now (e.g. Fossati, Pincus, Borroni, Munteanu, & Maffei, 2014; Miller, et al., 2016; Stanton & Zimmerman, 2018). Although researchers believe that those with narcissism tend to have more positive self-esteem (Sedikides, Rudich, Gregg, & Rusbult, 2004; Namrata, Patel, & Tiwari, 2015) which is a sign of better mental health, on the flipside this trait among narcissists has been found to destabilize feelings of remorse in other correlational studies (Brunell, Staats, Barden, & Hupp, 2011). This leads to them having a higher risk of committing immoral acts like gambling, drug addiction, money-spending recklessness, and infidelity (Can, Anlı, Evren, & Usta, 2017; Karakoula & Triliva, 2016; Lakey, Rose, Campbell, & Goodie, 2008; Foster, Shrira, & Campbell, 2006). In educational facilities where students are pushed to strive for excellent grades, those who are narcissistic will break school rules by cheating in order to perform better than other classmates (Brunell et al., 2011). In addition, a study measuring narcissism among 560 undergraduate adolescent and young adults studying psychology and business discovered that the mean level of narcissism was higher among the latter (t(530) = 3.83, p < .01) and further results showed that highly narcissistic business students were overconfident, thinking they would attain job easily (Westerman, Bergman, Bergman, & Daly, 2011).

The shy narcissist has the same signature grandiose characteristic that they liken to the grandiose narcissist (Afek, 2017). It was most probable that all was not always what it seemed with the shy narcissist since he/she, “too unrealistically perceives himself[herself]as superior to others, although his[her] grandiosity is often fantasized about rather than displayed in overt behavior” at the same time maintaining his/her outward shyness and vulnerability (Afek, 2017). A rich theory started emerging about how those displaying an inferior form of narcissism latch onto those who are more successful than them to make up for their internal faults (i.e. a lady who
feels inadequate could, “go for men with a high social status, who represent their own grandiose ego ideal” (p. 232). Perhaps a self-absorbed man or woman who believes he or she is not handsome or beautiful enough to others may resort to identifying with models posted in a fashion magazine to compensate for the perceived lack of sex appeal (Sun & Guo, 2013).

Young and Pinsky (2006) opined celebrities like musicians, comedians, and actors are preoccupied with fame attained such that it self-generated a certain level of narcissistic propensities. Through narcissistic attitudes, celebrities are often found to be selfish and apathetic (Young & Pinksy, 2006). In earlier studies on the role of gender in narcissistic tendencies, celebrities who were women were found to exhibit narcissistic traits more often than celebrities who were men which contradicted previous findings where narcissistic celebrities were predominantly male (Young & Pinksy, 2006).

Another very important observation relates to fictional media personae like the popular Batman by American company DC Comics youth read. Although Batman is a superhero saving citizens, certain scholars argue the character is an antihero thanks to his antisocial conduct when dealing justice to criminals terrorizing Gotham City (Jonason, Webster, Schmitt, Li, & Crysel, 2012). The superhero character Batman also displays narcissistic traits when relying on the fact that he (Jonason et al., 2012), “feels that he is special and entitled (e.g., he believes the rules do not apply to him regarding his vigilantism)” (p. 193). Besides there was a recent superhero comic book study conducted by Das-Friebel, Wadhwa, Sanil, Kapoor, and Sharanya (2017) examining how normal people imagined themselves possessing either 3 positive (flight, healing, and invulnerability) or 3 negative superpowers (fear inducement, poison generation, and psychic persuasion) akin to a superhero/supervillain and whether they would engage in altruistic acts to benefit others with said superpowers or else resort to egoistic acts to benefit themselves,
ultimately fulfilling a more selfish motivational drive. The study used a mixed methods design, incorporating a quantitative and qualitative approach, to recruit 572 international respondents in India; the final sample number fell down to 302. The respondents had been subjected to a screening whose foundation was on each individual’s fluency in English, prowess to be honest, and ability to be attentive (Das-Friebel et al., 2017). The measures included a Superpowers questionnaire that had been piloted beforehand and a Reynolds Short Form A of the Marlowe–Crowne Social Desirability Scale that had assessed social desirability. The quantitative and qualitative results section revealed that 94% desired to hypothetically have a superpower. Although more people voted for positive superpowers to support their fellows in need over negative ones superpowers like ‘poison generation’ to try to harm others, a majority wanted them to personally benefit themselves. So it is possible that in a sense fans imagining themselves as fictional media personae like superheroes may fantasize owning the superhero character’s super-ability to, “use them more for personal gain,” in their identification or PSI which contradicts the expectations of a superheroic idol adhering to a strict moral if not altruistic code (Das-Friebel et al., 2017, p. 18). The double variables of wanting an excessively powerful skill and an egoistic end to its mean may be attributed to the grandiose and entitlement aspects of narcissism.

A study by Lull and Dickinson (2018) hypothesized that exposure to certain television media genres shapes personality traits. For their research published recently, they sought to explain, “effects of media exposure on one specific personality trait: narcissism” (Lull & Dickinson, 2018, p. 47). The duo found that enjoying specific media genres like reality TV promoted the narcissistic kind of traits (Lull & Dickinson, 2018). Traits like antagonism, extraversion, and psychoticism had a closer relation to Narcissism. There was also proof that sports media displayed narcissism at a threshold rivaling that from reality TV and viewers who
preferred watching such genres reflected narcissism to a degree (Lull & Dickinson, 2018); this references the study by Sun & Wu (2012) mentioned earlier when discussing PSI/PSR and identification with sports celebrities using the Big Five Factor Model.

Viewers who endorsed, “preferences for political talk shows, reality TV shows, sporting events, and suspense/thriller/horror shows were related to higher NPI scores…” (Lull & Dickinson, 2018, p. 53). Furthermore if one has ever investigated the personality profile of successful political and business leaders such as former American president George W. Bush or magnates David Geffen and Bill Gates (Rosenthal, 2006), they, “display narcissistic tendencies” (Hudson, 2012, p. 17). Since research has taken the opportunity to describe the link found between media and narcissistic traits, they should go an extra mile to investigate an individual’s engagement processes with the figures featured in them as well to observe how much they influence the probability of developing narcissism.

### 2.8.3 Borderline Personality Traits

The traits for Borderline Personality Disorder are included in the DSM-V’s Cluster B section. The symptomatic description is rather broad, addressing criteria such as:

“Frantic efforts to avoid real or imagined abandonment...A pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships characterized by alternating between extremes of idealization and devaluation...Identity disturbance...Impulsivity in at least two areas that are potentially self-damaging...Recurrent suicidal behavior, gestures, or threats, or self-mutilating behavior...Affective instability due to a marked reactivity of mood...” (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 663).
The description of borderline traits cannot be done proper justice without mentioning its prominent affiliation with either adolescent or young adult demographics (Kaess, Brunner, & Chanen, 2014). Using longitudinal research methods, Borderline traits were observed to be frequently diagnosed among 1.4% of youth population by the age of sixteen and this percentage increased to 3.2% by the age of twenty two when individuals were young adults (Johnson, Cohen, Kasen, & Skodol, 2008).

One criterial aspect stating clients who have Borderline traits experience problematic relations with others close to them has go on to be uniquely studied in media engagement processes. Admiring media personae is liable to crossing over to an extreme incidence, “whereby persons with assumed intact identities become virtually obsessed with one or more celebrities—similar to an erotomaniac type of delusional disorder” (Maltby, Houran, & Mccutcheon, 2003, p. 25). This peculiar occurrence has become very commonly known as celebrity worship discussed in brief previously.

At a tamer threshold, this phenomenon is meant to simultaneously satisfy our social and amusement desires, nothing more (Maltby et al., 2003). It is said that in many cases media consumers only want to figure out the latest scoop on what their celebrities are up to. But Maltby et al. (2003) said that celebrity worship taken too far leads to overly dramatic if not psychotic deeds on the admirer’s part such as stalking, self-injurious bodily harm if he/she is displeased by what the personae committed, and communicating threats (Baym, 2012). When the celebrity-fixation is this severe, it is now primarily referred to as ‘borderline-pathological’ (Maltby et al., 2003).

Celebrity worship at levels lower than borderline pathological was positively associated with self-esteem in one study; however at a borderline level itself, the two factors negatively
correlated such when someone took a huger interest in a celebrity’s life the lower their self-worth was found to be (North, Sheridan, Malthy, & Gillet, 2007). Lower self-esteem in turn was associated with psychological disorders, not to mention thoughts of committing self-injurious acts like cutting wrists among adolescents and young adults (Greydanus & Shek, 2009).

Borderline-pathological celebrity worship is not a standalone occurrence since the cause for it is associated with an unstable mental disposition to begin with. In fact Maltby et al. (2003) were tasked with investigating the relationship between the celebrity worship levels and the Eysenckian personality theory’s neuroticism, psychoticism, and extraversion domains among British university students. Neuroticism (similar to the trait domain Negative Affect) comprised of traits like anxiety, moodiness, being overly emotional and depression (Hopwood et al., 2013). Psychoticism here comprised of traits like isolation, cruelty, aggression, and apathy. Lastly, extraversion comprised of traits like optimism, being carefree and sociability. On scrutinizing results, they found that celebrity worship was evidently prevalent at 36%, although they admitted that the convenient sampling technique employed, “does not allow us to generalize” (Maltby et al., 2003, p. 27). Along with prevalence rate, they established that aspects of celebrity worship were connected with neuroticism which in turn has a link to anxiety and depression disorders. Overall, their research proved that celebrity worship contributed to personality aspects which are borderline-pathological.

What is going to be counter-intuitive to the research above are the findings from a longitudinal observational study conducted for over a 27-year period interacting with dedicated fans by Gayle (2017). The author spent that time attending musical concerts hosting popular singers like Celine Dion, Michael Jackson and Josh Groban. He also arranged meetings at fantasy and science fiction conventions for Star Trek fans to record their behaviors. If there is
one unearthed fact that remains is how, “women and men who had shown signs of serious attraction and commitment to Michael Jackson as evidenced by attending multiple concerts, traveling some distance to concerts, and pursuing an encounter with Jackson...,” “fans encountered in Star Trek fandom beginning in 1993...followed over a period of more than 20 years...,” and, “Josh Groban fans interviewed and surveyed beginning in 2005 up to the present time...” collectively went on to pursue normal lives setting goals, raising a family whilst holding a steady job in spite of their persistent devotion to these popular media icons or franchises (Stever, 2017, p. 99 & 100). This is evidence that some fans who worship celebrities are clearly functional in the domains of behaviors and cognition as time continues.

**2.8.4 Schizoid Personality Traits**

Schizoid traits were introduced to define those who are indifferent toward social relationships (or sexual ones to boot), usually having a preference to stay isolated even when partaking in their hobbies, not care at all for the remarks other people have about them and are noticeably aloof (Căndel & Constantin, 2017; American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The DSM-V’s criterial section acknowledges that to have schizoid personality disorder diagnosis, an individual evidently has, “a pervasive pattern of detachment from social relationships and a restricted range of expression of emotions in interpersonal settings, beginning by early adulthood and present in a variety of contexts...” (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 652).

Previous research has been established saying how those absorbed in media outlets like computers also display symptoms observed in schizoid personality disorder (Rosen et al., 2013). Although up until this point, research has not been attempted to establish a direct link between schizoid traits and PSI/PSR or identification, Coddaire’s findings (2015) contributed moderately
to this domain. According to Coddaire (2015), engaging in PSI is a way to make up for ‘social deprivation’. This meant that PSI could serve in the place of absent real friendships, an example of a behavioral characteristic common to a schizoid client. Social Deprivation possessed several constructs with regard to its term such as the already mentioned loneliness/isolation and social anxiety whose inquiries were historically traced to the 1970s and held a great significance to this very day (Coddaire, 2015).

Therefore Coddaire (2015) did a study whose primary aim was to correlate PSI along with feelings of loneliness, social anxiety and attachment styles. Her own correlational research sampled 307 diverse workers between the ages of 19 and 73 (174 males and 122 females) among a total of 50,000 recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (Coddaire, 2015).

Her study supported how PSI was negatively correlated to loneliness, implying the more a person heavily engaged in PSI, the less isolated they tended to feel. The fact that finding out engaging in PSI with a preferred media persona then not feeling lonely may come across as nothing short of counter-intuitive to expectation of how those heavily involved with media would be detached from others, Coddaire (2015) still claimed that these connections are partial to say the least hence, “if someone who participates in parasocial interaction also lacks adequate social interactions, he or she would still experience loneliness—even if the loneliness is what drove him or her to engage in parasocial interactions in the first place” (p. 5). There were other researchers that claimed solid evidence existed to support the positive relationships between PSR and loneliness (Baek, Bae, & Jang, 2013). What is unsatisfying about these studies is they did not mention whether they measured loneliness from a personality trait aspect.
2.8.5 Avoidant Personality Traits

Moving ahead to avoidant traits, the DSM-V states that, “the essential feature of avoidant personality disorder is a pervasive pattern of social inhibition, feelings of inadequacy, and hypersensitivity to negative evaluation that begins by early adulthood and is present in a variety of contexts” (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 673). Similar to Schizoid clients, Avoidant clients experience trouble forming interpersonal connections but unlike the former, here it is mostly due to the nervousness they perceive throughout any social situation, since they are afraid of being turned down or embarrassed.

Connecting these pathological personality traits to media engagement in general, avoidant traits were observed in adolescent internet gaming addicts (Kuss & Griffith, 2012). Simultaneously tied to avoidant traits was the evidence that people with social ineptitude (i.e. afraid to speak to someone in person) might resort to online communication instead (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

An associated psychological issue accompanying clients diagnosed with Avoidant personality disorder is social anxiety which the DSM-V manual and other studies acknowledge (Dawood & Pincus, 2017; American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Equally found in Coddaire’s results (2015) is how anxiety is likely to have a negative correlation with parasocial interaction, similar to loneliness. However if the study by Greenwood (2008) proved anything is how stronger parasocial interactions were associated with social anxiety, in a more positive direction because after all an individual who is inclined to fear disapproving evaluation from real people will search for solace in illusive PSRs instead where they will not feel judged. On the other hand a lower self-esteem was somewhat connected with higher identification strengths (Greenwood, 2008). Also people who had social anxiety tended to use the internet to maintain socialization needs (Shepherd & Edelmann, 2005).
In a study mentioned earlier when discussing relationships between marital status and PSI/PSR, it was found single relationship status participants who, “experience anxiety about and within the context of their close relationships,” predicted far greater outcomes of forming PSR (Greenwood & Long, 2011, p. 292). Such a finding is important due to the fact about how anxiety in relationships has already been observed among people diagnosed with Avoidant Personality Disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

Besides anxiety, psychological research on PSI has provided insight into adult attachment style. Likewise, attachment styles have been investigated within Avoidant Personality Disorder. A cross-sectional multisite research on 99 Norwegian adult patients diagnosed with Avoidant Personality Disorder and Social Phobia (70 of whom specifically had Avoidant) found out, after multiple regression analyses, those who had this personality disorder were likely to have higher scores in Anxiety for abandonment (Eikenæs et al., 2016). Hence the finding indicated they were more likely to have a Fearful attachment style. Further research argued a fearful attachment style positively correlates with loneliness (Kasomo, 2013). A pattern of loneliness within the prospect of Avoidant Personality Disorder can relate to social inhibition where an individual chooses to avoid interacting with others.

Given three attachment styles (namely Secure, Anxious-Avoidant, and Anxious-Ambivalent) from another model by Bowlby used at the time of originally conducting their research, Cole & Leets (1999) specified how higher PSI/PSR strengths was consistent with anxious-ambivalent style among adults. It goes without saying these three attachments bear different terminologies from the four attachment styles psychologists recognize today amongst adults, namely Dismissive-Avoidant, Fearful-Avoidant, Secure, and Anxious-Preoccupied (Eikenæs et al., 2016). Regardless, on account of Cole & Leets (1999) adults who bear anxious-
ambivalent are insecure about themselves, often doubting the faithfulness of their romantic relationships and are prone to abusing partners. Cole and Leets (1999) concluded that the, “manifestation of their desire for intimacy,” facilitated the PSI engagement amongst adults with anxious-ambivalent attachment style (p. 507). However a high score for avoidant factors in secure attachments was also correlated with greater PSR (Cole & Leets, 1999).

2.8.6 Schizotypal Personality Traits

Historically, clinical psychologists used the term ‘schizotypy’ to denote a client who has a probable likelihood of developing psychotic symptoms, a number of which are observed in patients suffering from schizophrenia (Batey & Furnham, 2008). A diagnostic criteria written in the DSM-V states that schizotypal personality disorder has, “a pervasive pattern of social and interpersonal deficits marked by acute discomfort with, and reduced capacity for, close relationships as well as by cognitive or perceptual distortions and eccentricities of behavior, beginning by early adulthood and present in a variety of contexts...” (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 655).

Currently there is no official research to prove any found relationship between schizotypal personality disorder and media use, however within PSI/PSR and identification a proposed hypothetical basis focuses on a psychotic tendency which may occur when an individual is overly preoccupied with an attachment or an imitative idealization toward a media figure. Tackling this basis inductively, research showed individuals fantasize about being in some type of bond with a media figure during PSI/PSR which is typically characterized as ‘preoccupied attachment’ (Wasike, 2018; Greenwood & Long, 2011). Preoccupied attachment slightly correlated with the psychosis component of schizophrenia (Harder, 2014).
Likewise, psychologists have debated the relationship between creativeness and schizotypal personality disorder. This presents an interesting consideration, since the ability to exhibit creative talent is admired by society. After all creatively gifted people find intriguing solutions to challenges the world faces in the field of art, technology, and health (Feist, 1998). If sufficient room is granted to people being as creatively free as their character allows it then they will acquire, “positive personal properties such as flexibility, openness, courage, or high ego strength” (Cropley, 2010, p. 2). As is the personal benefits, there are exterior benefits i.e. helping people lead more positive lives for instance in the workplace (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000). Feist (1998) argues that youth and figures like scientists and artists are downright the most creatively inspirational categories of people who have been catching personality researchers’ attention, though again depending on each individual’s personality characteristics, the results of whatever projects they produce may be up for analytical dispute in terms of their creativity aspect. The study on creativity in the realm of personality psychology has been qualitative though focus lately has adopted a quantitative approach (e.g. Fink, et al., 2014; Feist, 1998). Different measures of creativity are unnecessarily tied to schizotypy (quasi-schizophrenic or psychotic symptoms) but to an extent (Batey & Furnham, 2008). Nelson and Rawlings (2010) found symptoms of schizotypy like magical thinking were highly connected to creativity. A neuroscientific scheme to assess the relationship between the two variables among 517 university students using psychometric tests, stimulative exercises and a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) revealed how a section of the brain called the right precuneus (from the parietal lobe) did not ‘deactivate’ quickly in the normal creative group (the research team referred to the originality component of creativity where people easily invented novel ideas) and also the highly
schizotypic group (Fink, et al., 2014). In any case, Davinson and Furnham (2018) predicted higher schizotypal personality disorder scores in male actors (p. 41).

Respective to the detrimental link between schizotypal traits and creativity addressed beforehand, an experimental research suggests those who think creatively are more likely to violate ethical conduct as they invent new unconventional methods to solve a problem (Gino & Ariely, 2012). Though by declaring such a finding, heated controversy came about as more researchers argued otherwise (Keem, Shalley, Kim, & Jeong, 2018). As a matter of fact, Keem et al. (2018) in their two-part study among employees and students found those who are high in both dispositional creativity and sense of morality being important to the person were far less likely to be dishonest so much so they were able to use their limitless imagination to crack ethical challenges.

2.8.7 Miscellaneous Pathological Personality Traits

Premium film actors and television celebrities may also have obsessive-compulsive personality traits reason being some aspire to completely dedicate themselves to their art (Davinson & Furnham, 2018). It is valuable to consider that in terms of mass media, histrionic traits have been found among professional actors whose occupation is within film and television (Davinson & Furnham, 2018). The explanation for this can found in an actor’s need to impress. Then again the acting environment itself is a hotbed for over-the-top performances (Davinson & Furnham, 2018). Individuals with histrionic personality traits possess an insidious thirst to be the center of attention (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). On the whole, these traits may be vicariously contracted by people admiring these celebrities at an internalized level through identification or parasocial processes. Furthermore for the probable link between histrionic traits and media, a study intended to explore how much time devoted to Social Networking Sites like
Facebook was related to loneliness, need for belonging, parent-child relationships and attention-seeking behavior in 471 emerging adults attending college found histrionic traits to be an underlying factor in the interplay (Berryman, 2014). The questionnaire included a Brief Histrionic Personality Scale in order to measure these traits. Through, “inviting others to ask more about a personal situation the user is alluding to…,” those seeking social and emotional reassurance from other close users online would show instances of bearing these traits (Berryman, 2014, p. 23).

2.9 Conceptual Framework

![Conceptual Framework Diagram]

*Figure 1. Diagram of a conceptual framework linking PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits.*

2.10 Chapter Summary

The literature review specified the breakthroughs in PSI/PSR and identification within the area of communication, sociology and, chiefly relevant to this current study, psychology. As written in the materials dug up, people have varying degrees of attachment to a media persona who is symbolic whereby they imagine the figure as an ally or, beyond that, they regard themselves as sharing in their beliefs, values, opinions, and attitudes. Such a phenomenon is notably prominent during the developmental period between adolescence and adulthood when an
individual is affirming their unique sense of who they wish to be in life. This chapter portion of the research exhaustingly set the grounds on which there are several types of media personae across several media platforms an individual can feel a sense of connection towards.

In learning from these figures in media, the study explored both positive behavioral, emotional, and psychological consequences (in the form of emotional encouragement, inclusive belonging, self-esteem improvement, resilience and social/health education) and those consequences that are detrimental (in the form of pathological personality traits which are antisocial, borderline, histrionic, schizotypal or narcissistic) using descriptive, explorative, and experimental findings from previous works. From a multivariate perspective, where other factors besides effects of media is included, having such traits may have the potential to render decisions in daily life counterproductive as mass media consumption expands within the youth population in Kenya too. At this time of conducting the study, there is no data relating PSI/PSR and identification in media to the development of pathological personality traits. This current research however sought to assess the relationship between the variables defined.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODOLOGY

3.0 Chapter Introduction

This chapter explains the research methods and tools used to assess PSI/PSR and identification with media personae, and pathological personality traits among older adolescent and young adult students between 18 years old and 25 years old at United States International University - Africa (USIU-A) termed emerging adults. The following pages discuss the research philosophy, research design, target population, sampling frame, sampling technique, sample variables, data collection instrument, validity and reliability of the scales, research procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations when acquiring data.

3.1 Research Philosophy

The most suitable research philosophy for this current study was positivism. Positivism has been formulated to describe a highly scientific methodology whose emphasis is on an objective perspective of the natural world we study (Levin, 1988). Positivism aims at discerning variables and quantifying variables. Knowing PSI/PSR and identification with any media persona and pathological personality traits were measurable using specific scales, a positivist approach was supported for this study. Moreover the intentions of this study were to establish what correlational effect PSI/PSR and identification with media personae had on the outcome of pathological personality traits; hence positivism was a means to grasp the nature of this relationship.
3.2 Research Design

This was a descriptive and correlational study focusing on emerging adult undergraduate students sampled from United States International University - Africa in Nairobi County, Kenya. The Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale (CPPI) developed by Borcanea & Brown (2007) was utilized to determine PSI/PSR toward a media persona, Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale (CPI) by Brown & Borcanea (2007) was utilized to determine identification toward a media persona, and the Personality Inventory for the DSM-V Brief Form (PID-5-BF) by Krueger, Derringer, Markon, Watson, & Skodol (2013) was used to determine overall personality dysfunction and specific pathological personality traits observed in five trait domains, namely: Detachment, Negative Affect, Psychoticism, Disinhibition, and Antagonism. A survey research design was integrated to collect data in the field within a quick time period while additionally accommodating for minimum financial resources the researcher had to his name. Data was gathered within the month of January 2019.

3.3 Target Population

The population targeted was undergraduate students aged 18 years old to 25 years old. The sample size consisted of 118 students, pooled out of a 2976 student population falling under the age range (United States International University Administration, 2018). Explanations for arriving at this sample size are detailed further under the Sampling Design section.

3.4 Sampling Design

3.4.1 Sampling Frame

Prior to selecting a participant sample, the entire student population enrolling at USIU-A was divided into undergraduate and graduate subgroups. According to the USIU-A Student Fact Sheet (2018), a total of 6503 students enrolled during the course of Summer 2018. The number
of students at USIU for the entire population who were Kenyan by nationality (85.0%) outweigh those who were foreign (15.0%). A total of 5064 students comprised the undergraduates (77.9%). The undergraduate group was selected and further subdivided according to different age groups. Out of these students (United States International University Administration, 2018), 2976 students were aged between 18 years old and 25 years old (58.8%). The 2976 students was this study’s target population (N).

Students younger than the age of 18 years or older than the age of 25 years were rendered unfit to participate in this study since they did not satisfy the appropriate developmental stage of emerging adulthood. Furthermore the students aged 18 years old to 25 years old who enrolled in either the graduate program or the doctorate program at the time of this research was conducted were excluded.

3.4.2 Sampling Technique
Since the sample specifically focuses on characteristics related to age, a purposive sampling technique was utilized. As long as the participant studied at USIU-A, was at an undergraduate level and fell under the age range of 18 years old to 25 years old, they were eligible to be included in the study.

3.4.3 Sample Size
A formula for proportions by Yamane (1967) was used to sample participants (n) from the population of 2976 aged 18 to 25 with the confidence interval established at 95% where the finite population was known. See Figure 2 on the next page.
Figure 2. Table showing sample size for precision levels at ±3%, ±5%, ±7%, and ±10% where confidence level is at 95%, P=.5, and a = assumption of population is poor. Adapted from Statistics: An Introductory Analysis, 2nd Edition (p. 3), by T. Yamane, 1967, New York: Harper and Row. Copyright 1967 by the University of Michigan. Reprinted with Permission.

The researcher set the margin of error (e) at 9% to accommodate a feasible sample size. Therefore the sample size needed for this study is: Sample size (n) = Population (N)/ [1 + N(e)^2]

\[ n = \frac{2976}{1 + 2976(0.09^2)} \]

\[ n = \frac{2976}{1 + 2976(0.081)} \]

\[ n= 2976 / 25.1056 \]

\[ n=118 \text{ students} \]
3.5 Study Variables

PSI/PSR and identification towards media persona were the independent variables in this research. The media persona the student named could either be from real life (e.g. celebrities like actors, authors, musicians, sportspersons, bloggers, tycoons, innovators, politicians etc.) or otherwise be fictional (film characters, tv show characters, video game characters, novel characters, mythical characters etc.) so long as they originated in mass media.

The dependent variable in this research revolved around pathological personality traits which are linked to personality disorders found in the fifth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual. The fifth edition is currently the go-to manual whenever clinical psychologists provide a psychological assessment.

3.6 Data Collection

A questionnaire had been drafted containing 10 questions, 3 of which were built on items of specific measurable scales whose psychometric properties had already confirmed. The students were approached and inquired on whether or not they were willing to complete a questionnaire that lasted about 15 minutes. A debrief and informed consent form was printed separately with the questionnaire instructing the respondent on what the study was about and asking for the participants’ permission to answer the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to each student respondent upon signing a consent form.

3.6.1 Demographic Questionnaire

This was a questionnaire designed to capture six aspects of the sample surveyed such as gender, age-range, marital status, undergraduate year, major and nationality.
After filling out their demographics, participants were asked to name their favorite media persona by the seventh question. A crucial notice was the term ‘media persona’ was changed to ‘media figure’ to correspond with the questions in the CPPI and CPI measurement tools. When filling out this question in particular, participants had the opportunity to present one media persona they mostly admired. Much emphasis was put on this question since the student was required to produce a media persona through which PSI/PSR and identification were measured. Groups ranging from musical bands to political parties, in unison, were not eligible since they were composed of multiple figures, however the student was allowed to mention one member among them. The informed consent form took special note of this exception.

3.6.2 Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale (CPPI)

By the eighth question, the participants filled out the items found in the CPPI. Developed by Borcanea & Brown (2007), this was an expansion of the original PSI scale used for soap opera characters and API scale used for television shows. The CPPI was a 20 item questionnaire participants answer, rating on a Likert scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The term ‘Celebrity or Media Personae’ had been unified and altered to ‘Media Figure’ for each item to ease the comprehension of each statement declared. This amendment did not alter the condition of the question asked. The CPPI was designed to measure the strength of parasocial relationship towards their favorite media persona. The score ranged from 20 (the lowest) to 100 (the highest) (Bui, 2015). Brown and de Matviuk (2010) demonstrated that the CPPI had an adequate reliability, the Cronbach’s alpha measuring at .92. The validity was also adequate with the coefficient alpha measuring at .80 to .90 (Brown & de Matviuk, 2010).
3.6.3 Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale (CPI)

By the ninth question, the participants filled out the items found in the CPI. The CPI was a measurement tool containing 20 items used to measure how much those who utilize media identified with their favorite persona be they celebrities or fictional characters using a Likert Scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) (Brown & Bocarnea, 2007). The scores range from 20 (the lowest) to 100 (the highest) (Bui, 2015). Also for this tool, the term ‘Celebrity or Media Personae’ had been unified and altered to ‘Media Figure’ for each item to ease the comprehension of each statement declared. Likewise, this amendment did not alter the condition of the question asked. With a Cronbach alpha score at .87 or higher, the CPI had been established to be very reliable and a number of studies have established its validity as well (Brown & Bocarnea, 2007).

3.6.4 The Personality Inventory for DSM-5-Brief Form (PID-5-BF)

By the tenth question, the participants filled out the items on the PID-5-BF. The PID-5-BF was a self-report measurement tool designed by Krueger et al. (2013) for assessing personality traits linked to personality disorders found in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, fifth edition. The scale held a total of 25 items, measuring overall personality dysfunction and 5 personality trait domains, namely detachment, negative affect, disinhibition, psychoticism, and antagonism. The inventory was a shorter form developed from its two original longer inventories: the PID-5 and the PID-5-SF (Short-Form) containing 220 items and 100 items each. The PID-5-BF does not portray the original 25 scales seen in PID-5, implying it is, “proposed as a means of broadly capturing personality pathology” (Korycinski, 2017, p. 14).

The scores on PID-5-BF ranged from 0 (lowest) to 75 (highest) while each trait domain carried a score ranging from 0 (lowest) to 15 (highest). PID-5-BF demonstrated sensible validity
(Anderson et al., 2018) and a good reliability with a Cronbach Alpha score at .83 (Fossatti, Somma, Borroni, Markon, & Krueger, 2017) in its short release. The discriminant validity was at a moderate level (Anderson et al., 2018).

3.7 Research Procedure

Students around USIU-A campus belonging to the age range specified were approached. Before handing out the questionnaire, the researcher inquired if the student was between the age of 18 years old and 25 years old. Secondly, the researcher asked if they were undergraduates. Thirdly, the researcher asked if they had a favorite media figure. If the student responded yes, saying they fell under both criteria asked, and that they had a certain media persona/media figure they admired, then the researcher politely informed them about the nature of the study, its purposes and whether they would like to become participants who would fill out the questionnaire. If thereafter they voluntarily agreed to partake in the study, the researcher handed out a debrief and anonymous informed consent form for them to read through thoroughly and sign at the end, showing agreement they understood the research and that they were willing to freely participate.

None of the students who agreed to participate in the study were coerced into doing so. For the students who faced difficulty understanding the nature of the research as stated on the debrief and informed consent form, the researcher took time to clarify any queries. Once they had their signature inscribed along with the present date they were doing the study, the questionnaire was administered to each voluntary participant.

In order to speed up data collection among the large sample within a short time period, the researcher cooperated with a single co-researcher to assist with the distribution of questionnaires. The co-researcher herself was briefed about the study’s objectives at hand,
including the special requirement to sign a confidentiality form for co-researchers (see Appendix X). The co-researcher as well had been given information about the necessity to ask if the students participating were within the age range specified, at an undergraduate level, and willing to voluntarily participate. Finally the researcher told the co-researcher about the particular requirement to return all filled-out questionnaires, signed debrief and informed consent forms back to him. Upon the participant finishing each questionnaire, the researcher reclaimed then stored them away in way such that confidentiality was observed. Each student took roughly 15 minutes answering each questionnaire.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Before beginning data collection, the researcher obtained a research permit (see Appendices XI & XII) off the United States International University-Africa’s Institutional Review Board. During the selection procedure, it was mandatory the students asked to partake in the research were neither forced nor coaxed into filling out the brief questionnaire. Each student accepted to take and answer the questionnaire on their own accord. The researcher notified the students voluntarily invited to fill out the questionnaire that the information they provided was purely for study purposes.

Due to the sensitivity of the research topic at hand on media effects, all the students were assured of their responses being treated confidentially through having them read and sign an anonymous informed consent form. This form asking for consent clearly stated the information they disclosed on their demographics, preferred media personae they named, how much they related to their preferred media personae, how much they identified with their preferred media personae and their assessment of pathological personality traits would never be given to or seen by entities other than the principal researcher and co-researcher(s) who solemnly guaranteed not
to disclose the information either through a separate confidentiality form. Likewise, all questionnaires given out by co-researchers to students were returned to the principal researcher indefinitely.

Additionally should the student express hesitation in answering the survey about halfway through then it would not hurt for them to withdraw with no negative consequences. As a measure of caution, any student perturbed by the content on the questionnaire were strongly advised to visit a mental health professional at the USIU-A Counseling Center.

When inputing the questionnaire responses as data in SPSS for analysis, only a single workstation was utilized to store said data which entities such as the principal researcher and/or co-researcher(s) were solely permitted log-in access to. Efforts to further protect the welfare of the students was enhanced by discarding all data with no possibility of retrieval whether they were answered questionnaires or respective data fed into SPSS software for analysis once the whole research reached its conclusive stage. This utter disposal of all sensitive information was executed by manually tearing and incinerating every last questionnaire while permanently deleting electronic data saved in SPSS on the workstation.

3.9 Data Analysis

The quantative data collected was compiled on IBM Statistical Packaging for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 statistical software. Descriptive statistics was used to evaluate the results. The mean score of each measure for the respondents was tallied to estimate the strengths of PSI/PSR with media personae, and identification with media personae among each age group. It was expected that for every media personae’s name written, the Google search engine would serve of informative utility in coding the type of media persona they were (Rumpf, 2012). The
type of media persona was tabulated on SPSS to establish the commonest media personae respondents favored the most.

In order to answer one research question in particular, Pearson’s correlation coefficient was used to calculate correlations for PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits based on the conceptual model drawn earlier in this study while independent sample t-test was used to find out the significant differences gender exerted on the scores. First, linear correlations was estimated for the relationship between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits. Secondly, linear correlations was estimated for the relationship between identification and pathological personality traits. Depending on not only how much the respondents averagely scored but also the domains where they averagely scored more in the PID-5-BF, the research estimated which type of personality disorder trait they were hypothetically inclined towards. The results were depicted in tables.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the methods by which data was collected from emerging adult students at USIU-A where the study shall be set. Positivism was the chosen philosophical paradigm overseeing this research’s objectives. With the number of the sample size estimated at just 118 undergraduates out of the target population aged between 18 years old and 25 years old while sampling technique being purposive, a questionnaire containing tools designed to record their demographics, favorite persona, PSI/PSR, identification, and pathological personality traits from the DSM-5 was issued to those willing to participate once the consent form was read. Once data was gathered, it was entered into IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 to conduct an analysis and attain much needed results that answered the research’s questions.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.0 Chapter Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the research, in accordance with the six objectives and six questions arranged in the first section Chapter One, were presented after gathering data on PSI/PSR and identification toward media personae, pathological personality traits, and their correlations amongst emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-Africa. The demographic characteristics of the students surveyed, such as gender, age group, year of study, marital status, nationality, and major were shown in the form of tabulations.

4.1 Results

4.1.1 Response Rate

Prior to analysis, the researcher calculated the survey’s response rate in order to determine the percentage of participants who answered the questionnaire. The response rate was determined by dividing the total number of responded survey questionnaires returned over the total number of survey questionnaires distributed. Due to the fact that measurement of PSI/PSR and identification hinged on the seventh question asking for the student’s favorite media persona (restated as ‘media figure’), two students were excluded due to one leaving that particular question blank and another writing the Kenyan musical band Sauti Sol which, when considered as group composed of more than one celebrity, did not qualify as a media persona. Therefore:

\[
\text{Response Rate} = \frac{116}{118} \times 100\%
\]

The response rate was 98.31% which satisfied the validity of the research data gathered.
4.1.2 Demographic Characteristics

The majority of undergraduates within the emerging adult student sample were female at 53.45% in Table 1.

Table 1

*Gender Distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Across the undergraduate emerging adult sample, the age which occurred most frequently was 21 years old in Table 2.

Table 2

*Age Distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of academic year, junior level rated highest (at 34.5%) followed by sophomore (at 24.1%) then senior (at 21.6%) and finally freshman (at 19.0%) in Table 3.

Table 3

*Academic Year distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>116</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the sample surveyed, the highest percentage of students took International Relations as their academic major at 23.3%, followed by International Business Administration at 18.1%, Applied Computer Technology at 16.4% and Journalism at 12.1% as seen in Table 4.

Table 4

*List of majors*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Computer Technology</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal Justice</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Film Production</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel &amp; Restaurant Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Systems and Technology</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The aspect of being single overshadowed the other marital statuses by a landslide (98.3%) as recorded in Table 5. Marital status was important for this investigation due to the fact that one previous study showed single people had far greater PSI/PSR strengths (Greenwood & Long, 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>97.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>116</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When it came to nationality recorded on Table 6, Kenyans composed the majority (at 81.9%, n = 95) though the survey managed to capture several other students of international backgrounds. Table 6 illustrates these nationalities.
Table 6

Nationality of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivorian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyan</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>81.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyan/British</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyan/Pakistani</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyan/Rwandese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigerian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwandese</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sudanese</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzanian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ugandan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>116</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.3 Types of Media Personae Preferred

Out of the 118 students surveyed, 116 students responded appropriately to the questionnaire by naming one media personae they preferred the most hence only this sample number was considered. The remaining 2 questionnaires distributed were excluded due to the fact the section where they had to name their favorite media personae was left empty or had a musical band, implying they did not comprehend the intention of this research. The names of these media personae selected are on Appendix X. Real names were written in the table beside those who mostly relied on their stage names. Certain media personae were picked more than once by different participants.
From the list of media personae in Appendix X, the researcher could determine media persona types by typing each media persona’s name into the Google Search Engine similarly to the deductive method done in a study by Rumpf (2012). In typing the names into the search engine, their first occupation or (for the case where there were fictional characters) summarized biographical depiction, seen describing each was the one that came into consideration when entering data in Table 7. Real-life media personae types such as actors/actresses (10.3%), rappers (8.6%), singers (8.6%), news anchors (6.0%), media executives (4.3%), football players (4.3%), technology entrepreneurs (3.4%), media personalities (3.4%), television hosts (2.6%), business magnates (2.6%), comedians (2.6%), journalists (2.6%), socialites (1.7%), pastors (1.7%), television personalities (1.7%), and writers (1.7%) were a few which appeared prominently, showing most emerging adult students were more likely to prefer media persona of these types. However the results also revealed superheroes (1.7%) were a popular choice of fictional media personae type among a few students as well.

Table 7

Media Personae Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Persona Types</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actress</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty Vlogger</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadcaster</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Magnate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businesswoman</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancer Cell Biologist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comedian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disc Jockey</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evangelist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashion and Lifestyle Blogger</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashion Model</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminist Activist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fictional Cartoon Mage</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fictional Doctor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fictional Pyrokinetic Prince</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fictional Superhero</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fictional Video Game Fighter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former CIA Employee</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming Youtuber</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gospel Singer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair Vlogger</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalist</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karate Competitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial Artist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Executive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Personality</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musician</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim Cleric</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim Scholar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News Anchor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newscaster</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Commentator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politician</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Basketball Player</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Footballer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Relations Person</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race Driver</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio Presenter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapper</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reality Television Personality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rock Climber</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singer</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialite</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken Word Artist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology Entrepreneur</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television Evangelist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television Host</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television Personality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.4 Parasocial Interaction/Parasocial Relationship and Identification with Media Personae

To calculate the total score on the Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale (CPPI), three ‘negative’ items needed to undergo reverse-coding. These items were number 16 “I do not have feelings about the media figure”, number 26 “I feel I have very little understanding of the media figure as a person” and number 28 “I am not really interested in the media figure”.

Among the 116 students the mean CPPI score for PSI/PSR rated at 70.46 (SD = 10.19) in Table 8. Once the section on the Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale (CPI) was completed, the mean score was estimated at 65.69 (SD = 12.85) for identification in Table 8. These results showed on average that emerging adult participants displayed parasocial attachments toward and identified with their favorite media persona though they were more likely to convey greater PSI/PSR than identification toward their favorite media persona.

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CPPI Scale</th>
<th>CPI Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>70.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n sample size

SD Standard Deviation
4.1.5 Gender Differences in Parasocial Interaction/Parasocial Relationship and Identification with Media Personae

In order to distinctly figure out the likely differences in PSI/PSR and identification due to gender for further analysis an independent sample t test was run. For PSI/PSR, t (114) = -.540, p = 0.590 meaning no significant difference in parasocial interaction and relationship between males and females. The PSI/PSR mean score for males was 69.91 with a standard deviation of 10.39 in Table 9 whilst the mean score for females was 70.94 with a standard deviation of 10.07 in Table 10.

The mean scores on identification for males was (M = 65.94, SD = 14.31) in Table 9 while for females was (M = 65.47, SD = 11.57) in Table 10 although the t-test t (11) = .197, P = 0.844 revealed no significant difference between the two genders.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CPPI Scale</th>
<th>CPI Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>69.91</td>
<td>65.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>10.391</td>
<td>14.305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. n Sample size  
SD Standard Deviation
Table 10

*Mean PSI/PSR and identification scores for Female Undergraduate Students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CPPI Scale</th>
<th>CPI Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>n</strong></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Valid</strong></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Missing</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td>70.94</td>
<td>65.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td>10.068</td>
<td>11.568</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. n Sample size  SD Standard Deviation*

### 4.1.6 Pathological Personality Traits

The highest possible score attainable for overall personality dysfunction is 75 while the lowest possible score is 0. Before tallying up the total scores, seven items had to be reverse-coded. These items were question 3 “*Even though I know better, I can’t stop making rash decisions*”, question 6 “*I’m not good at planning ahead*”, question 7 “*My thoughts often don’t make sense to others*”, question 14 “*I’m not interested in making friends*”, question 16 “*I don’t like to get close to people*”, question 17 “*It’s no big deal if I hurt other people’s feelings*”, and question 18 “*I rarely get enthusiastic about anything*”. The instructions section in the PID-5-BF clearly underlines how if a client taking the assessment skips 1 to 6 items, then the clinician is supposed to rely on the prorated total score. The prorated total score is gotten by the formula:

\[
\frac{\text{Partial Raw Score} \times \text{Number of items on PID-5-BF}}{\text{Number of items actually answered}}
\]

The prorated score for any participant who answered all 25 items obviously remains unchanged hence for this study it was acceptable to use the sample’s prorated total score in order to maintain consistency. Any participant whose PID-5-BF contained 7 or more unfilled items, the personality dysfunction score was not calculated (n = 3). Average scores for personality
dysfunction were neither calculated nor used for this study owing to two reasons: consistency with the CPPI and CPPI scores and the use of prorated mean scores. PID-5-BF did not specify how to calculate average scores for clients whose prorated mean scores were to be utilized alternatively. Therefore the mean prorated score of the sample for overall personality dysfunction is estimated at $M = 33.54$ $SD = 6.92$ in Table 11, indicating moderately low personality dysfunction. This result implied, on average, emerging adults were less likely to display overall symptoms from the DSM-V’s personality disorders.

Table 11

*Mean Prorated Score of Overall Personality Dysfunction for sample*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Missing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>n</strong></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td>33.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td>6.918</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. n Sample size  
SD Standard Deviation*

In addition to overall personality dysfunction, there are five personality trait domains whose total needed to be calculated, namely Negative Affect, Detachment, Antagonism, Disinhibition and Psychoticism. Five items each listed in the PID-5-BF were specific to a particular domain. The highest possible score in any trait domain peaks at 15. Again due to the expected fact that not all participants rated each item, the prorated domain trait score had to be used. The prorated domain score is gotten by the formula:

\[
\text{Partial Raw Domain Score x Number of items on the Trait Domain} \\
\text{Number of items actually answered}
\]
When calculating the domain scores for PID-5-BF, students with 2 or more missing items needed to be ignored according to its instructions, implying in the Negative Domain 2 students were rejected, in the Detachment domain 4 students were rejected, in the Antagonism domain 4 students were rejected, in the Disinhibition domain 3 students were rejected and in the Psychoticism domain 3 students were rejected as seen in Table 12. Likewise for the trait domains, their average scores were rejected for this study owing to similar reasons stated before: consistency with the CPPI and CPI scores and the use of prorated mean scores.

The mean prorated score of the entire sample for the Negative Affect domain was moderately low $M = 6.07$ $SD = 3.80$, for the Detachment domain was moderately high $M = 8.63$ $SD = 1.90$, for the Antagonism domain was moderately low $M = 5.24$, $SD = 2.34$, for the Disinhibition domain was moderately low $M = 6.52$ $SD = 1.80$, and lastly Psychoticism domain was moderately low $M = 7.05$, $SD = 2.71$ as seen in Table 13. Therefore for the Detachment domain, the result implied that emerging adults were generally predicted to have more instances of being diagnosed with either schizoid traits or paranoid traits. For the Negative Affect domain, the result implied that they were generally predicted to have fewer instances of being diagnosed with borderline traits, avoidant traits, obsessive-compulsive traits, or histrionic traits. For the Antagonism domain, the result implied the emerging adults were generally predicted to have less instances of being diagnosed with narcissistic traits. For the Disinhibition domain, the result implied they were generally predicted to have less instances of being diagnosed with antisocial traits. Lastly for the Psychoticism domain, the result implied they were generally predicted to have less instances of being diagnosed with schizotypal traits.
Table 12

Summary of Sample Cases that were Included and Excluded by PID-5-BF instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Included</th>
<th>Excluded</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Affect Domain</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>98.3%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detachment Domain</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>96.6%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antagonism Domain</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>96.6%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinhibition Domain</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychoticism Domain</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n sample size

Table 13

Mean Prorated Score for Trait Domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Negative Affect Domain</th>
<th>Detachment Domain</th>
<th>Antagonism Domain</th>
<th>Disinhibition Domain</th>
<th>Psychoticism Domain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>8.63</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>7.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>3.797</td>
<td>1.894</td>
<td>2.341</td>
<td>1.803</td>
<td>2.709</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n Sample size

4.1.7 Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification and pathological personality traits

To find out if there was any relationship between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits and then between identification and pathological personality traits, Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient was calculated.

The correlation between PSI/PSR and pathological personality was weak and positive $r = .18$, $p > .05$ (0.062) but not significant. The results went on to imply that the more PSI/PSR an emerging adult student developed toward their favorite media persona, the more the likelihood for them to generally have traits of personality disorders from the DSM-V increased. There was a
significant weak positive correlation between identification and overall pathological personality $r = .27$, $p < .05 (.003)$ as seen in Table 14. Seeing how the correlation was higher for identification than PSI/PSR, this went on to imply identifying with a media persona created a greater probability of generally having symptoms of personality disorders from the DSM-V.

Results in Table 14 have shown a weak negative correlation between PSI/PSR and Negative Affect $r = -.002$, $p > .05 (.985)$, a significant weak positive correlation between PSI/PSR and Detachment $r = .19$, $p < .05 (047)$ and Disinhibition $r = .19$, $p < .05 (.041)$. Additionally a weak positive correlation was seen when correlating PSI/PSR and Antagonism $r = .13$, $p > .05 (.163)$ and also Psychoticism $r = .11$, $p > .05 (.250)$. Therefore on the Negative Affect domain, the more PSI/PSR participants reported with their favorite media persona, the likelihood for them to have borderline traits, avoidant traits, obsessive-compulsive personality or histrionic traits decreased. However for the remaining four domains namely Detachment, Disinhibition, Antagonism, and Psychoticism, there was a chance that emerging adults could have pathological personality traits respective to them, as mentioned previously, the more PSI/PSR they reported with their favorite media persona. The significant correlations seen with Detachment and Disinhibition showed the participants could have more chances of displaying schizoid or paranoid traits and antisocial traits respectively in their PSI/PSR with their favorite media personae.

On the other hand, in Table 14, identification had a weak positive correlation with Negative Affect $r = .14$ $p > .05 (.145)$, Detachment $r = .03$, $p > .05 (.729)$ and Disinhibition $r = .13$, $p > .05 (.175)$. There was a significantly weak positive correlation with both Antagonism $r = .21$, $p < .05 (.028)$ and Psychoticism $r = .23$, $p < .05 (.006)$. So there existed likelihood that the participants predictively displayed personality traits common to each respective domain when
they reported higher identification with their favorite media persona. However with the
Antagonism and Psychoticism domain’s correlation being significant not to mention higher than
the rest, identification predicted more chances of having Narcissistic traits and Schizotypal traits
respectively.

Table 14

*Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification, overall personality dysfunction and each trait
domain*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PID-5-BF</th>
<th>Negative Affect Domain</th>
<th>Detachment Domain</th>
<th>Antagonism Domain</th>
<th>Disinhibition Domain</th>
<th>Psychoticism Domain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPPI Scale</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.188*</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.192*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
<td></td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPI Scale</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.273**</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.208*</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
<td></td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05 Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)
**p < .01 Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*r* Pearson Correlation

*n* Sample size

*Sig* Significance

**4.1.8 Gender Differences in the Correlation among PSI/PSR, Identification and
Pathological Personality Traits**

Further analysis in Table 15 revealed for females, PSI/PSR had a weak positive
correlation with overall personality dysfunction \( r = .10, p > .05 \) \((0.385)\). For males in Table 16,
PSI/PSR had a weak positive correlation with overall personality dysfunction \( r = .25, p > .05 \)
\((0.077)\) which appeared higher than their female counterparts. This meant for both genders, the
more PSI/PSR increased with their favorite media persona, the more the likelihood they would
generally display traits common to personality disorders from the DSM-V increased, however said likelihood would even be higher among males.

For females in Table 15, a weak negative correlation is seen between PSI/PSR and Negative Affect $r = -.07 \ p > .05 \ (0.569)$ and a weak negative correlation is seen with Psychoticism $r = -.05, \ p > .05 \ (0.709)$. Then there was a weak positive correlation with Detachment $r = .24, \ p > .05 \ (0.069)$ and Antagonism $r = .18, \ p > .05 \ (0.371)$. There was also a significant weak positive correlation with Disinhibition $r = .26, \ p < .05 \ (0.042)$. The results showed among females, the more PSI/PSR they had with a favorite media persona increased, the more the chances of having borderline traits, histrionic traits, obsessive-compulsive personality traits or avoidant traits in the Negative Affect domain or schizotypal traits in the Psychoticism domain decreased. However with Detachment domain, Antagonism domain, and especially the Disinhibition domain, the more PSI/PSR increased, the more the chances of having schizoid traits or paranoid traits, narcissistic traits and antisocial traits increased respectively.

With PSI/PSR among males in Table 16, a weak positive correlation is seen with Negative Affect $r = .07 \ p > .05 \ (0.602)$, Detachment $r = .12 \ p > .05 \ (0.386)$, Antagonism $r = .16 \ p > .05 \ (0.276)$ and Disinhibition $r = .11, \ p > .05 \ (0.440)$ though the correlations were not significant. A significant weak positive correlation is seen between PSI/PSR and Psychoticism $r = .30, \ p < .05 \ (0.030)$. The results implied that for each domain, males could display pathological personality traits common to them when their PSI/PSR with their favorite media persona increased with the most notable traits being schizotypal ones from the Psychoticism domain.

Paired against identification in Table 15 female students had a weak positive correlation with overall personality dysfunction $r = .10, \ p > .05 \ (0.464)$ that was insignificant however among males in Table 16, this variable had a significant moderate positive correlation with
overall personality dysfunction $r = .43$, $p < .05$ (0.002). The results indicated that in both cases of males and females, the more they identified with their favorite media persona the more likelihood of them having pathological personality traits of personality disorders from the DSM-V increased, however this likelihood proved notably stronger among males.

For identification among females in Table 15, a weak positive correlation is seen with Negative Affect $r = .02$, $p > .05$ (0.911), Antagonism $r = .07$, $p > .05$ (0.611), Disinhibition $r = .10$, $p > .05$ (0.465), and Psychoticism $r = .17$, $p > .05$ (0.200) in Table 17. Only Detachment had a weak negative correlation $r = -.11$, $p > .05$ (0.386). In addition, the correlations were not significant. The results indicated the more females identified with their favorite media personae, the more the chances of them having traits common to their respective domains increased. However with the Detachment domain, the more identification increased, the more the possibility that they would display schizoid or paranoid traits decreased.

For identification among males in Table 16 on the other hand, an insignificant weak positive correlation was seen with Detachment $r = .19$, $p > .05$ (0.181) and Disinhibition $r = .17$ (0.238). Additionally there was a significant weak positive correlation with Negative Affect $r = .29$, $p < .05$ (0.037), Antagonism $r = .37$, $p < .05$ (0.008), and Psychoticism $r = .36$, $p < .05$ (0.010). These results indicated that among males, the more they identified with their favorite media persona, the more the likelihood of them displaying schizoid or paranoid traits and antisocial traits for the Detachment domain and Disinhibition domain respectively increased. Likewise the more males identified with their favorite media persona, the more the chances of displaying Borderline, Histrionic, Obsessive-compulsive personality traits or Avoidant traits in the Negative Affect domain, Narcissistic traits in the Antagonism domain and Schizotypal traits in the Psychoticism domain increased.
Table 15
Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification, overall personality dysfunction and each trait domain in females (n = 62)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PID-5-BF</th>
<th>Negative Affect Domain</th>
<th>Detachment Domain</th>
<th>Antagonism Domain</th>
<th>Disinhibition Domain</th>
<th>Psychoticism Domain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CPPI Scale</strong></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>-.074</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>.261*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.569</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CPI Scale</strong></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>-.113</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>.464</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05 Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)

r Pearson Correlation
n Sample size
Sig Significance

Table 16
Correlation among PSI/PSR, identification, overall personality dysfunction and each trait domain in males (n = 54)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PID-5-BF</th>
<th>Negative Affect Domain</th>
<th>Detachment Domain</th>
<th>Antagonism Domain</th>
<th>Disinhibition Domain</th>
<th>Psychoticism Domain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CPPI Scale</strong></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CPI Scale</strong></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.431**</td>
<td>.290*</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>.368**</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05 Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**p < .01 Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

r Pearson Correlation
n Sample size
Sig Significance
4.2 Chapter Summary

By writing the fourth chapter, the researcher produced then analyzed results from the survey questionnaires answered. In choosing to find out whether or not the data collected was valid enough for data analysis, the response rate was calculated at 98.31%. This response rate was found to be satisfactory. The researcher then relied on descriptive statistics to analyze demographic characteristics such as gender, age groups, undergraduate year, major, nationality, and marital status. As per the research objectives, these same descriptive statistics helped assess a number of media personae categories the participants would prefer, the mean PSI/PSR and identification scores the sample reported. The objective of determining pathological personality traits first involved analyzing mean scores for overall personality dysfunction and then secondly each of the five trait domains, namely Detachment, Antagonism, Disinhibition, Negative Affect, and Psychoticism. Pearson’s correlation coefficient was used to obtain correlational relationships between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits and between identification and pathological personality traits. In addition to general analysis, further analysis was conducted to find out how PSI/PSR and identification would differ according to gender while also determining gender differences for correlations among the variables and pathological personality.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Chapter Introduction

The purpose of this research was to find out the nature of PSI/PSR and identification with figures in the media termed personae and their correlation with pathological personality traits among emerging adult undergraduate students at USIU-Africa. In this chapter, the results from the questionnaire were discussed about in detail according to the research questions conceived so as to arrive at an explanation for their occurrence. The discussion kicked off with the research question on what media personae types the participants chose, then progressed to the second question about the nature of PSI/PSR and identification in general, then explained the differences with respect to gender in the third question, then explained the various pathological personality traits observed among the participants in the fourth question and set the seal by inferring the correlations among the variables mentioned generally in the fifth question then with respect to gender differences in the sixth question. All this was achieved while alluding to studies done before that helped support or otherwise deny the findings. The chapter mentioned limitations that might hinder the credibility of the results. Thereafter this research was summed up by preparing a final word and ideas for deeper inquiries in the form of recommendations when the topic will be turned over to future researchers.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The present study focused on emerging adult undergraduate students at United States International University - Africa. The study involved six objectives whose data was collected from 116 willing participants through a survey questionnaire. The first objective was to find out what media personae types emerging adult undergraduate students preferred. Findings revealed
emerging adults were more likely to select real-life media personae such as actors/actresses (10.3%), rappers (8.6%), singers (8.6%), news anchors (6.0%), media executives (4.3%), football players (4.3%), technology entrepreneurs (3.4%), media personalities (3.4%), television hosts (2.6%), business magnates (2.6%), comedians (2.6%), journalists (2.6%), socialites (1.7%), pastors (1.7%), television personalities (1.7%), and writers (1.7%). The second objective of the current research was to measure PSI/PSR and identification with media personae among emerging adult undergraduate students. Findings showed that PSI/PSR mean scores (M = 70.46 SD = 10.19) were higher than identification mean scores (M = 65.69 SD = 12.85) meaning on average that emerging adult participants did display parasocial attachments toward and identified with their favorite media persona though they were more likely to convey greater parasocial attachments than identification. For the third objective in regards to gender differences in PSI/PSR and identification, findings revealed the PSI/PSR mean score for males was 69.91 (SD = 10.39) while the mean score for females was 70.94 (SD = 10.07) though the scores were insignificant. On the other hand, the mean scores on identification for females was 65.47 (SD = 11.57) while for males was 65.94 (SD = 14.31). However gender differences in regard to both PSI/PSR and identification were reportedly insignificant as well.

Going to the fourth objective on pathological personality traits, results revealed how 33.54 (SD = 6.92) was the mean score for overall personality dysfunction, indicating moderately low personality dysfunction in turn showing on average, emerging adult participants were less likely to display overall symptomatic traits from the DSM-V’s personality disorders. Additionally, results for the trait domains revealed the mean score of the entire sample for the Negative Affect domain was moderately low (M = 6.07 SD = 3.80) showing that they were generally predicted to have lower instances of being diagnosed with Borderline traits, Avoidant
traits, Obsessive-compulsive personality traits or Histrionic traits. For the Detachment domain the mean score was moderately high (M = 8.63 SD = 1.90) showing that emerging adult undergraduate students were generally predicted to have more instances of being diagnosed with either Schizoid or Paranoid traits. In the Antagonism domain, the mean score was moderately low (M= 5.24, SD = 2.34), implying the emerging adult undergraduate students were generally predicted to have less instances of having Narcissistic traits. For the Disinhibition domain the mean score was moderately low (M = 6.52 SD = 1.80), indicating the emerging adults were predicted to have less instances of being diagnosed with antisocial traits. Finally in the Psychoticism domain, the mean score was moderately low (M = 7.05, SD = 2.71), implying they were generally predicted to have less instances of exhibiting Schizotypal traits.

The fifth objective sought to correlate PSI/PSR with pathological personality traits and to correlate identification with pathological personality traits. Results found a weak positive though insignificant correlation between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits, indicating that the more parasocial attachment an emerging adult student developed toward their favorite media persona, the more likely it was for them to generally have symptoms of personality disorders from the DSM-V. The weak positive correlation between identification and overall pathological personality was significant; showing how identifying with a media persona created a higher chance of generally having traits of personality disorders from the DSM-V. With regard to each trait domain for PSI/PSR, there was a weak negative though insignificant correlation between the variable and the Negative Affect domain hence when an emerging adult participant reported higher parasocial attachment, the less likely it was for them to have histrionic traits, obsessive-compulsive traits, borderline traits or avoidant traits. As for other domains, there was a weak positive correlation between PSI/PSR and Antagonism and between PSI/PSR and Psychoticism.
Notably there was a significant weak positive correlation between PSI/PSR and Detachment and also between PSI/PSR and Disinhibition. Hence for these specific domains, there was a chance that emerging adults could have personality traits respective to them if they had a higher PSI/PSR toward their preferred media persona.

Identification conversely had a weak positive correlation with Negative Affect domain, Detachment domain, Antagonism domain, Disinhibition domain and Psychoticism domain, implying the participants around this age could display traits common to each personality disorder for each respective domain when they reported higher identification with their favorite media persona. Notably with the Antagonism and Psychoticism domain having a higher and statistically significant positive correlation compared to the rest, identifying with a media persona predicted more chances of having Narcissistic and Schizotypal traits, in that order.

Data analyzed for the last objective regarding gender differences indicated that for males and females, PSI/PSR had a weak positive though insignificant correlation with overall personality dysfunction, signifying that both genders would have a greater chance of having traits from the personality disorders listed in the DSM-V, the more parasocial attachments with their favorite media persona increased.

A weak negative though insignificant correlation was noted between PSI/PSR and Negative Affect domain for females and also between the same variable and Psychoticism domain. However a weak positive correlation was seen with the remaining three domains of Antagonism, Detachment, and Disinhibition in the same gender. Noticeably, PSI/PSR had a significant weak positive correlation with Disinhibition, implying the more PSI/PSR females had with their favorite media persona increased, the more the chances of exhibiting Antisocial traits increased. With males on the other hand, there was a weak positive correlation seen among
PSI/PSR and each of the five domains. Noticeably, the weak positive correlation between
PSI/PSR and Psychoticism was significant, implying the more PSI/PSR males had with their
favorite media persona increased, the more the chances of having Schizotypal traits.

Among males, identification had a significant moderate positive correlation with overall
personality dysfunction compared to an insignificant weak positive correlation seen among
females; implying males who identified more with their favorite media persona had a greater
chance of trait symptoms common to personality disorders from the DSM-V.

Among females, a weak positive correlation was seen between identification and
Negative Affect, Antagonism, Disinhibition, and Psychoticism, implying the more they
identified with their favorite media persona, the more the chances of having their respective
pathological personality traits increased. The Detachment domain had a weak negative
correlation with identification, indicating how the more females identified with their favorite
media persona, the more the chances of having Schizoid traits or Paranoid traits decreased.
However all correlational scores were not significant. For males on the other hand, a weak
positive correlation was seen between identification and all traits domains. Notably the weak
positive correlation seen in Negative Affect, Antagonism and Psychoticism were significant,
implying the more they identified with their favorite media persona, the more the chances of
having Borderline traits, Avoidant traits, Obsessive-compulsive personality traits or Histrionic
traits increased respectively.

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 What are the types of media personae students will select?

As seen in previous studies done on PSI/PSR and identification, a majority of the
emerging adult undergraduate sample had a preference for real media personae such as news
anchors, actors/actresses, media personalities, singers and rappers which seems to support evidence found before (Gleason et al., 2017; Bui, 2015; Rumpf, 2012; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007; Boon & Lomore, 2001). Furthermore the selection of professional basketball players and footballers supports previous studies showing PSI/PSR and identification could develop with sportspeople (Sun, 2010; Brown & de Matviuk, 2010). Boon and Lomore (2001) pointed out how young adults mostly favored singers/musicians and actors. For the current study, the categorization was heavily specific such that singers, musicians, and rappers were recorded distinctly though this was done according to the descriptive information Google provided. Still, these media personae categories that featured prominently supported their findings on favorite media personae types or ‘idols’ (as they put it) youth were more likely to select. Similar to Gleason et al. (2017), participants tended to select media personae such as actors/actresses and singers the most. But compared to their findings where athletes (i.e. sportspeople) were rated higher than others like media hosts, here news anchors had gotten a higher billing than sportspeople like basketball players or football players. It can be hypothesized that the high selection of news anchors might have to do with a high number of emerging adult undergraduate participants pursuing Journalism in this current study, however additional analysis is needed to address how choice of media persona differs according to major. Moreover, the differences noted in selection of media personae types could be related to age demographic where Gleason et al. (2017) focused on youth in their early adolescence instead.

It is also important to note that although minimal in number, some emerging adults also mentioned bloggers, vloggers and Youtubers as their favorite media personae, giving support to the research done in several studies before on social media as an area where PSI/PSR could
potentially develop with the expansion of the internet (Rasmussen, 2018; Ballantine & Martin, 2005).

However when the study openly allowed emerging adult undergraduate students of this developmental stage to select any media persona from whichever platform, although minimal in number as well of course, there were distinguished cases who wrote down superheroes, characters from cartoon shows, a character from television drama, and a character from a video game, indicating that there were those who displayed PSI/PSR and identification with fictional characters as well (Gannon, 2018; Coddaire, 2015; Rumpf, 2012).

An explanation accounting for the reason a majority of emerging adult undergraduates preferred real media personae over fictional ones can be traced to a statement by Rumpf (2012) who argues that compared to fictional types, it is much more possible for an individual to meet for instance celebrities in real life. Fictional characters can only be connected with in an imaginary or non-realistic level hence individuals may put their selection of such media personae on the back burner (Rumpf, 2012). Moreover some individuals may not like to admit liking a fictional character due to self-conscious reasons in the sense that they, “would not want to tell others that they are interacting with a fictional character and have that part of their image” (Rump, 2012, p. 15).

5.2.2 How will PSI/PSR and identification with media personae rate among emerging adult students at USIU-A?

Before comparing the findings on PSI/PSR and identification in the current study with past research, a crucial notice should be on how the types of media persona selected by participants may potentially play a role in PSI/PSR and identification outcomes. While multiple
studies seen so far focused mostly on real media personae like celebrities, this study sought to include a variety of media personae hence the outcome of results may vary owing to this factor.

In line with studies done prior, participants reported PSI/PSR with a media persona thus supporting the findings on PSI/PSR rates in this study (Wasike, 2018; Rasmussen, 2018; Gleason et al., 2017; Coddaire, 2015; Bui, 2015; Rumpf, 2012; Boon & Lomore, 2001). To quote Rasmussen (2018, p. 289), “*respondents expressed feelings of knowing the [media persona] and feeling as though the [media persona] was their friend.*” Despite reporting their findings in the form of percentage instead of mean scores (in line with their own brief survey that utilized their own unique scales), Boon and Lomore (2001) pointed how 75% of youth in their study felt strongly attached to their favorite celebrities.

Equally, studies done before indicated how an individual is capable of identifying with a media persona as well (Wen, 2017; Bui, 2015; Brown & de Matviuk, 2010; Sun, 2010; Boon & Lomore, 2001). The emerging adults in this study tended to see themselves as sharing certain aspects with their favorite media persona. However PSI/PSR with their favorite media personae had been reported to a higher extent than identification hence undergraduate students between the age of 18 and 25 were more likely to feel their favorite media personae was a figure they knew and were emotionally or personally close to (Bui, 2015). They ended the process there and not so much as tried to model after them in the identification process (Bui, 2015). In as much as Boon and Lomore (2001) mentioned in their study that 60%, “*reported that their idols had influenced their attitudes and personal values,*” which is expected during identification, the mean identification toward media personae here in this research showed on average it had not gotten to a point whereby it was, “*particularly influential either in motivating change in various aspects of their lives*” (p. 448). Nonetheless the presence of PSI/PSR, identification or both simultaneously
have been shown to serve as psychological functions for youth to learn about the kind of
individual they want to be in life (i.e. personality makeup) when looking up to their favorite
media personae as role models.

5.2.3 What are the gender differences in PSI/PSR and identification with media
personae among emerging adult students at USIU-A?

In terms of gender differences, the PSI/PSR rates did not vary significantly, supporting
findings from Wasike (2018) and Bui (2015). Gleason et al. (2017) showed more adolescent
boys tended to develop parasocial relationships than girls but the argument for their study’s
outcome can be based on age demographic, considering they included those in their early
adolescence as well.

By comparison to a study where, “males…had significantly higher identification scores
than females,” the scores males displayed here in the current study though slightly higher than
females by a few decimal points were not as significant (Bui, 2015, p. 26). An explanation for
this insignificant outcome can be boiled down to how Bui’s larger sample size of 188 had a
larger ratio of females to males which might have played a role in the outcome of the results.

Due to the fact that almost the entire sample consisted of students bearing single
relationship statuses in Table 5, no variations in PSI/PSR or identification could be inferred
based on this factor.

5.2.4 What are the different pathological personality traits among emerging adult
students at USIU-A?

Having noted such low scores in terms of overall personality dysfunction, the implication
was enough to suggest that the personality of most emerging adult students in the sample was
relatively stable. This in turn may show that a higher number of undergraduate emerging adults
at USIU-A were unlikely to have combined traits from the majority of personality disorders generally described in the DSM-V. Their personality was not classified as maladaptive or overly unusual, “from the expectations of the individual’s culture...,” with respect to how they felt, thought or interacted with others (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 646). Although a previous study done in Kenya used a clinical inpatient sample to assess personality disorders within the nation, the research showed how low the prevalence of personality disorders was thus partially supporting this present study (Thuo et al., 2008).

All trait domains on average showed moderately low scores. Detachment appeared to be the highest domain out of all five, followed by Psychoticism, then Disinhibition, then Negative Affect and then lastly Antagonism.

Detachment domain was outlined earlier by characteristics such as depressive emotions and social withdrawal which are usually attributed to Schizoid or Paranoid traits. Psychoticism domain was outlined earlier by characteristics such as eccentricity and odd behavior seen in Schizotypal traits. Disinhibition domain was outlined by characteristics like being impulsive, risk-taking, and acting carelessly seen in Antisocial traits. Negative Affect was outlined by characteristics such anger, hostility, and emotions that are limited which are mostly attributed to Borderline traits, Obsessive-Compulsive traits, Avoidant traits and Histrionic traits. Antagonism domain was outlined earlier by characteristics like grandiosity, manipulativeness, attention-seeking behavior most of which are seen in Narcissistic traits (Anderson, 2016).

One of the major problems encountered when discussing the greater prevalence of Detachment and Psychoticism in the sample is the unavailability of literature on Schizoid, Paranoid or Schizotypal traits among young people. For Disinhibition, a plausible justification for the domain comes from a review Blonigen (2010) published which argued that adolescents,
even as they transitioned into young adulthood, were still at risk of exhibiting antisocial behavior. Respective of Negative Affect, an example of pathological traits most common to this domain is Borderline which previous research revealed is widespread during earlier stages of adulthood (Kaess et al., 2014; Johnson et al., 2008). However the fact that Antagonism which is mostly associated with Narcissistic traits came last goes against the previous findings by Twenge and Campbell’s study (2009) where they found scores on narcissism among students going to college were greater than ever before two decades ago. That being mentioned, narcissism, on average, still prevailed within the student sample (Westerman et al., 2011).

5.2.5. What is the correlation PSI/PSR and identification toward media persona has with overall pathological personality and/or certain pathological personality trait domains?

The weak positive correlational association between PSI/PSR and overall personality dysfunction implied that when the student felt a parasocial attachment to their favorite media persona, the more unstable their personality makeup would turn out and the more likely they would exhibit pathological personality traits. However this correlational strength was significantly highlighted even more so with the variable of identification meaning it was a stronger predictor. Literature on identity development among young people has argued how the social aspect i.e. parental interactions, peer relations, and media engagement to a certain point dynamically influences personality constructs and is much more appropriate for the chances of developing a personality disorder (Shiner & Tackett, 2014). Tying this in with identification, it is hypothesized the act of adopting the views and beliefs of certain media personae they had an admiration for might interfere with the personality structure of whoever the emerging adult student truly aspired to be (Schwartz et al., 2013).
Switching over to the relationship between PSI/PSR and trait domains, the results showed that the more PSI/PSR with the media personae decreased or increased the more likely it was that the Disinhibition and Detachment trait domains would significantly do the same although the chance of this occurring was very slim judging by the weak correlation. This implied that for instance the more a student invested in their perceived attraction toward a media persona, it was more likely they could display antisocial characteristics which might contribute to findings from studies on media and antisocial behavior (e.g. Plante, Sweet, & Groves, 2018; Greitemeyer & Mügge, 2014; Plaisier & Konijn, 2012; Paik & Comstock, 1994) and from a national perspective, Mwaura’s study on deviant behavior among Kenyan youth (2014).

For the Detachment domain, it meant the emerging adult students tended to become depressive or made less effort to socialize with others. In fact, hypothetically speaking, a high detachment may symbolize how lonely a person was and this had been observed among the criteria for Schizoid traits. Nevertheless this current study partially supported other research on the relationship between parasocial interaction and loneliness (Rubin, et al., 1985; Chory-Assad & Yanen, 2005; Coddaire, 2015). As far as this domain in terms of personality disorders associated with it is concerned, they could display either already mentioned Schizoid or Paranoid traits on the off chance. Additional research should be in order to account for the plausible explanation feeling connected to media personae has with either Schizoid or Paranoid traits. In spite of this roadblock, past research had shown how those clinically addicted to media usage display a number of criteria seen in Schizoid personality disorder (Rosen et al., 2013). Another study had examined the existence of these two mentioned personality disorders among certain media personae themselves: professionals working in the acting industry, revealing, “Those who
desired fame were older, Narcissistic, and low on Paranoid PD” (Davinson & Furnham, 2018, p. 40).

Another significant observation to note was the positive correlation between identification and Antagonism, meaning the more an emerging adult ‘saw himself/herself in the same shoes’ as their favorite media persona, the more it was likely they would display egoistic or self-obsessive traits found under a narcissistic personality disorder diagnosis. Cohen (2001) spoke of how identification heightened the appeal for favorite characters more so than the point they conveyed; in turn this psychological process was, “likely to increase enjoyment, involvement, and intense emotional responses...” (p. 260). Not only did they feel good (i.e. boost their self-esteem) but they may feel as if they were indulging in an identical lifestyle of their favorite media persona for example if the case is the persona was a celebrity. This aspect may happen to coincide with the excessive sense of self-importance clients with narcissistic personality disorder show. When Lull and Dickinson (2016) conducted their own research to find out how watching television as a whole everyday promoted a narcissistic streak among students attending college, the duo addressed how, “personality types commonly represented on TV might be adopted by viewers via abstract modeling” (p. 48) thus those who strongly identified with those observed in media may slowly go down the path of following a materialistic and egotistic attitude and/or behavior common among people displaying symptoms of narcissism. But unless analysis is run on the extent to which the media persona categories like singers, news anchors or entrepreneurs speak volumes to this connection, similar to how Lull and Dickinson (2018) had a goal of seeing what TV genres like reality TV or political talk shows correlated with narcissism, there is no way to deduce that an admiration for particular media personae could be associated with this trait.
For the emerging adult undergraduate students who had higher identification scores, the more likely it was they could display higher chances of having Psychotic traits which is related to the unconventional behavior observed among people with Schizotypal disorder. A suggested explanation for this significant relationship comes from a study on the case of Elvis Presley impersonators, where it might be considered unorthodox to want to specifically imitate a popular deceased musician’s fashion sense, singing, or other habits (Fraser & Brown, 2002). Likewise the notion of the existent relationship between identification and Psychoticism is that shared values may cause a person to lose a sense of whoever they really are, depending on the extent to which, “individuals reconstruct their own attitudes, values, or behaviors in response to the images of people they admire, real or imagined, both through personal and mediated relationships” (Fraser & Brown, 2002, p. 189).

5.2.6. What are the gender differences in the correlation PSI/PSR and identification toward media persona has with pathological personality traits?

PSI/PSR showed a significantly positive correlation with the Disinhibition domain among female students, describing a possibility that their illusory closeness to preferred media personae is marked by behavior typical in an individual with antisocial personality traits. One behavioral tendency that underlies Disinhibition was impulsivity which could be fueled by how PSI/PSR occurs instantly in that supposed imaginary connection (Hartmann, 2016).

Although not significant, female emerging adult undergraduate students who scored high on PSI/PSR would see their Detachment domain level decrease as well. This seemed to be more consistent with Coddaire’s (2015) general findings on PSI associations with loneliness where the direction appeared negative. Hence to feel less lonely, a female undergraduate student around
this age needed to engage in PSI/PSR in order to fight feelings of isolation; however her study related loneliness as a standalone factor without referencing schizoid personality disorder. The reason for this is explained by Hartmann (2016), media persona, “trigger immediate social responses” that can be traced back to normal everyday interactions human beings hold (p. 134). Additionally females are said to, “more likely to form personal connections with media figures” (Stever, 2016, p. 99).

On the other hand, differential analysis according to gender revealed male students were the source of the significant positive correlational strength between Antagonism and identification. The more male undergraduate emerging adult student identified with their favorite media persona, the more they would be Antagonistic though again on a slim chance, indicating the more male students cognitively shared the same perspective with their preferred media persona, there was clear likelihood they would experience narcissistic tendencies. This made it seem they may want attention and act pretentiously (Hopwood et al., 2013). In a broader sense, male students were usually depicted as being more narcissistic than female students (Westerman et al., 2011).

Increased identification by male students with their favorite media personae also significantly correlated with increased Negative Affect, implying there were higher cases of them turning out having Borderline, Avoidant, Histrionic or Obsessive-compulsive personality traits. Specifically regarding Borderline traits for example, one criteria under borderline personality disorder mentions ‘identity disturbance’ whereby an individual having such a diagnosis may not hold a true self-concept (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). It is theorized males perceiving themselves as being similar to their favorite media persona might interfere with the process of discovering their own authentic sense of identity. Besides previous
studies have shown how people who went overboard with their admiration for celebrities hovered on the brink of becoming borderline-pathological (Maltby et al., 2003). However the dissimilarity with Maltby et al.’s research (2003) was how they were exploring the concept of celebrity worship which is somewhat distinct from parasocial processes the current study investigated. Additionally another study claimed how celebrities like actors had OCPD traits like striving for perfection in their skills (Davinson & Furnham, 2018) which in this case the student may be acquiring in their liking for their favorite persona according to Social Cognitive theory.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

Several limitations existed in this present study, the majority of which centered on empiricism. Despite there being evidence verifying the relationship between mass media and certain personality disorders, the current study found itself struggling to obtain whatever relevant literature or data possible directly addressing PSI/PSR, identification and their relationship with pathological personality traits both at an international level and especially at a national Kenyan level hence the comparisons were overgeneralized and somewhat minimum.

The study did not employ any qualitative methods to coincide with the application of mostly quantitative tools despite finding that measurements like Celebrity-Persona Interaction Scale and Celebrity-Persona Identification scale were strong self-report tools that did an efficacious job of measuring PSI/PSR strength and identification respectively. Neither did the study recognize the duration in terms of years in which the participants had been familiar with a particular media persona they prefer during PSI/PSR or identification. It has been argued that to capture the fullest extent to which the participants feel attached to the media personae of their choice, a qualitative design is recommended to record the reactions of fans to media personae they have known so well (e.g. Stever, 2017; Hall, 2017; Groene & Hettinger, 2016; Agee, 2014).
The use of the brief form of the PID-5 complicated the assessment of the traits linked to the personality disorders discussed. As stated before from previous studies, the original PID-5 captured 25 trait facets that uniquely account for their appropriate personality disorders (Thimm, Jordan, & Bach, 2016). Going for the 5 main superficial domains forced the research to only broadly define what personality disorders were observed. While on the PID-5-BF traits domains, the study did not merge the domain to give a clearer measurement of the pathological personality traits the participants showed. For instance, a combination of Detachment and Negative Affect could specify if a client predictively had Avoidant traits while a combination of Antagonism and Negative Affect could specify if he/she predictively had Histrionic traits (Anderson, et al, 2018; Anderson, 2016; Hopwood et al., 2013).

An issue was encountered in the cross-cultural validity of the PID-5-BF. The PID-5, PID-5-SF, and PID-5-BF were just recently conceived therefore clinical researchers are still in the process of improving its application for pathological personality traits assessment in non-Western context such as Kenya.

A huge margin of error used to obtain a smaller practical sample size decreased the power of the study. What’s more the heterogeneity of emerging adult students attending USIU-A may impeach the ability to generalize results to emerging adults outside the university.

To use a correlational design required negating any causal inference among the independent variables and dependent variables outlined for this investigation on media effects, meaning the study could not justify how PSI/PSR and identification cause these pathological personality traits.
5.4 Conclusion

The primary goal of conducting this research was to find out the correlation among parasocial interaction/parasocial relationship with media personae, identification with media personae, and pathological personality traits among undergraduate emerging adults in the context of United States International University – Africa, Nairobi, Kenya. It seems that up until recently no research has simultaneously investigated these three variables listed in the study on effects of media among the youth, specifically emerging adults. From the objectives the research set out to accomplish, it had been indicated that a majority of undergraduate students between the age of 18 and 25 preferred real life media personae types ranging from news anchors, actors/actresses, media personalities, singers to rappers and had greater mean strengths in PSI/PSR than identification experienced with media personae in a nutshell which seemed to support previous studies before. The differences in terms of gender were not found to be significant.

In addition, results showed that the pathological personality trait domain with the commonest occurrence was Detachment then Psychoticism leading to the conclusion that undergraduate emerging adult students may dissociate themselves from others and have manifestations of impaired thought or emotion.

A relationship arose first between PSI/PSR and pathological personality traits and secondly between identification and pathological personality traits from the findings. Apart from overall personality dysfunction that the scale measured, the domain traits namely Antagonism, Psychoticism, Detachment, Negative Affect and Disinhibition also appeared to be associated either PSI/PSR and/or identification. For instance, higher instances of feeling a parasocial attraction toward a media persona implied the student could have a higher Detachment domain or Disinhibition domain implying they could display Schizoid traits where they rarely interacted with others or Antisocial traits where they acted impulsively or even had little regard for societal
norms. Furthermore the study covered each association in terms of gender differences. For example, female students who viewed the media persona as someone close were more likely to have lower levels of Detachment which highlighted the crux of how PSI/PSR prevents them from feeling loneliness which is evident in those with Schizoid traits. Male students who identified more with their media personae appeared to have a higher Antagonism domain, indicating they were likely to have either Narcissistic or Histrionic traits with the chance being greater for the former.

In a nutshell, this study described media personae as having an impactful psychological influence in the personality development for youth living in urban areas of Kenya. Given this influence, members in society who advocate media usage in whatever format must advice emerging adult users to cautiously monitor their involvement with media personae.

5.5 Recommendations

A glaring weakness of this study was how the level of precision had to be decreased to accommodate a manageable sample size hence the sample itself was not adequate enough to show the variances in the factors given. Expanding the number of participants could paint a clearer picture on the interaction among the variables that were fundamental to this research project, including marital status. Any further research could target students at graduate level and with respect to developmental stages, reach out to adolescent college-going student demographic below the age of 18 and more mature student demographic above the age of 25 since studies have shown PSI/PSR and identification is detected in people regardless of how old they are.

The study set a restriction to how far certain demographic characteristics like nationality, academic year and major affected the three variables due to constraints personal to the researcher
however there is room to enrich this investigation by examining said characteristics in PSI/PSR, identification and pathological personality traits.

Noteworthy was how several media personae listed had more than one occupation or role attached to them hence this study was riddled with the challenge of not exactly knowing which role played a more significant part during the student’s media engagement processes. Additional investigation using qualitative tools like interviews should be in order, aiming at grasping what specific roles they were and why the student developed a particular liking for the media persona.

Further analysis should be in order to investigate PSI/PSR and identification strengths respective of each media persona type listed. Furthermore correlational relationships between PSI/PSR strengths and pathological personality traits then identification and pathological personality traits must be based on the dimensions outlined in the figure authenticity factor (Tsay-Vogel & Schwartz, 2014). Further still, future research should be concerned about the effect miscellaneous PSI factors like homophily has on the choice of a media persona. Homophily begs the question of if each student would select a media persona based on similar gender, similar age, or similar nationality.

There was a problem encountered with the distribution of the Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale (CPPI). While this tool possessed strong validity and reliability, that did not save it from the fact that certain items were geared more toward modern-day real celebrities not fictional media personae who might not even appear on a single media outlet i.e. television, which a few respondents found challenging to answer. More proficient steps ought to be taken in wording the CPPI to make the tool a lot more generally appropriate for everyone with either a real life or fictional media persona to fill out.
Media personae are merely one element compiling the media world youth enjoy and the other content types plus media engagement processes such as transportation or celebrity worship must be taken into account by researchers if they are to grasp core of how media shapes their behavior.

The structure of PID-5-BF tool is significantly shorter than the two original tools: The PID-5-SF and PID-5. The American Psychiatric Association generated the Brief form in interest of capturing a client’s five broad personality trait domains in the shortest most convenient time available. Future extensive studies should apply the 220-item PID-5 which has the original 25 trait facets in order to streamline the prediction of any personality disorder observed. For instance in one study, Paranoid traits were claimed to be, “strongly related to Suspiciousness…” (Thimm et al., 2016, p. 9). Compared to Detachment domain trait alone for instance, this could prove handy in pinpointing if students scoring highly in PSI/PSR were more likely to have paranoid beliefs as opposed to bearing traits from schizoid personality disorders.
REFERENCES


Tsay-Vogel, M., & Schwartz, M. L. (2014). Theorizing Parasocial Interactions Based on Authenticity: The Development of a Media Figure Classification Scheme. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture, 3* (2), 66-78.


Dear fellow student,

Please read this form thoroughly. My name is Ian Junior Kaayo. I am a student pursuing a graduate degree in Clinical Psychology. I am inviting you to participate in a brief survey to understand your views and opinions regarding any figure in the media you relate closely and/or identify with.

The media figure of your choice can be from any media platform and can be real like a celebrity, comedian, a sports player, a scientist, an author, a musician, a politician etc. or fictional like television series character, novel character, video game character, cartoon character, mythical figures etc. Groups like music bands or organizations do not apply but a member from such does. This will be relevant in rating how much you feel connected to them and how much you feel like them while simultaneously seeing how much they impact aspects of your own personality in life.

Your signature is required for this participation to show you have voluntarily agreed to answer the questionnaire. Should you choose to partake in this research then you must first sign the consent form to demonstrate your agreement. You must be at least 18 years old to provide consent to participate in this research. For inquiries concerning the study, kindly reach me at kianjunior@ymail.com. My supervisor is Dr. Oscar Githua, an Assistant Professor of Psychology at United States International University – Africa, Nairobi. Kenya.

Will the information contained in the study be kept confidential?

Precisely. Aside from the principal researcher and any co-researchers involved, the data collected in this study will not be revealed to the university or anyone else in accordance with the Ethical Act hence you can answer as honestly as you like. The informed consent forms are only signed. No names are written on them. The forms are also prepared separately and shall not be attached
to the questionnaire you fill out, thereby ensuring further confidentiality. Your identity shall not be exposed to the public in any way whatsoever. The co-researchers will have signed the study’s confidentiality agreement to strictly avoid sharing any information you write to the public on their end. Due to the fact the questionnaire is anonymous (i.e. your names or ID numbers shall not be written down), neither the researcher nor anyone else will identify which responses belong to whom. After the research is through, your questionnaire and the responses shall be destroyed without them ever being reclaimed.

**What if I am harmed by the study?**

The questionnaire is not intended to harm you either physically or mentally. That being said, the questionnaire will make you reflect on your liking for a preferred media figure who has been an inspiration to you and may make you ponder on the nature of your personality. It should be recognized that the items on the personality traits section may appear explicit to you. The policy of the Department of Psychology is that all research participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any moment, without force, should you object to the nature of the research. For any assistance in regards to the emotional, psychological or physical discomfort you may feel after doing the questionnaire survey, visit the counseling center at the Student Block opposite the Science block to reserve a therapeutic appointment with a counselor. The USIU-A counseling center email is counsel@usiu.ac.ke. The telephone number is +254 730 116. If you reside on campus grounds, reach them at extension 743 or 797.

**THANK YOU FOR READING THE ABOVE INFORMATION AND TAKING THE TIME TO SHARE YOUR VIEWS ON THIS RESEARCH TOPIC.**

Student Signature……………………………………………………………………

Date………………………………………………………………………………
APPENDIX II

Confidentiality Agreement for Co-Researchers

This form may be used in the event that co-researchers, excluding the principal researcher himself, are invited to conduct specific tasks such as collecting, entering or analyzing data at USIU-A.

Thesis Project Title – *Parasocial Interaction and Identification toward Media Personae and their correlation with Pathological Personality Traits among Emerging Adults in USIU – Africa.*

I, ................................................................................................................., (specific role description in this research), have been hired to..........................................................................................

In partaking in this research, I agree to the following ethical guidelines:

1. All research information shared with me shall be held confidential by not discussing or sharing the research information in any form with anyone other than the researchers.
2. All research information shall be kept secure while in my possession.
3. All research information shall be returned indefinitely to the principal researcher when the research task has been finalized.
4. All data related to this research in any format shall be erased after consulting with the principal researcher.

Co-Researcher Name..........................................................................................................................

Co-Researcher Signature..................................................................................................................

Date.............................................................................................................................................

The proposal for this research thesis has been reviewed for its adherence to ethical guidelines and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at United States International University – Africa.
**APPENDIX III**

**Demographic Details**

**Instructions:** Please read the following questions and answer them honestly. For the question on any media figure you prefer the most, write down only one. Media groups like musical bands or parties are not accepted; however selecting one member you prefer in them is accepted.

1. Gender
   - Male
   - Female

2. Age
   - 18
   - 19
   - 20
   - 21
   - 22
   - 23
   - 24
   - 25

3. Academic Year
   - Freshman
   - Sophomore
   - Junior
   - Senior

4. Marital Status
   - Single
   - Married
   - Divorced

5. Nationality

6. Major

7. State the name of your most favorite media figure

.................................................................
### APPENDIX IV

**Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale**

8. Please read the following questions carefully and answer them as openly as you can, placing the number of your choice in the blank boxes to the left of each question.

Based on a scale of 1 – 5, please indicate a number on the right boxes whether you agree or disagree with the next statements, where:

1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Checklist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media figure makes me feel as if I am with someone I know well.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If media figure appeared on a TV program, I would watch that program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I see the media figure as a natural down-to-earth person.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I saw a newspaper or magazine about the media figure, I would read it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to meet the media figure in person.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I understand the emotions the media figure experiences.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find myself thinking about the media figure on a regular basis.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have feelings about the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to watch the media figure on television.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whenever I am unable to get news about the media figure, I really miss it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning about the media figure is very important to me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been seeking information in the media to know more about the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes go to the Internet to obtain more information about the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes I feel like calling or writing to the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media figure understands the kind of things I want to know.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes make remarks to the media figure while watching television.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am very much aware of the details of the media figure’s life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel like I have very little understanding of the media figure as a person.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward to seeing the media figure on television or in the print media.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not really interested in the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX V

Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale

9. Please read the following questions carefully and answer as candidly as you can, placing the number of your choice in the blank boxes to the left of each question. Based on a scale of 1 – 5, please indicate on the boxes to the right whether you agree or disagree with the next statements, where:

1=Strongly Disagree,  2=Disagree,  3=Neutral,  4=Agree,  5=Strongly Agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The media figure and I share many of the same values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is important to the media figure is important to me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to model the behavior of the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to do the things I believe the media figure would do.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media figure has shown me the best way to live my life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about the same things the media figure cares about.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look to the media figure as a role model.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I support those who support the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to be more like the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media figure has set an example for me of how to think and act.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to learn from the media figure as much as I can.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe many of the same things the media figure believes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I am in unity with the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have often thought about what it would be like to be the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I aspire to become the kind of person the media figure is.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The qualities I see in the media figure are the same qualities I seek to develop in my own life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching the media figure has helped me to make decisions in my own life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I advocate the same things that the media figure advocates.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The things that make the media figure upset makes me upset.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes imitate the media figure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**APPENDIX VI**

**Personality Inventory for DSM-V-Brief Form**

10. This is a list of things different people might say about themselves. Describe yourself as honestly as possible. Take your time and read each statement carefully, selecting the best response by ticking on a scale of 0 – 3, where:

0) Very False or often false,  1) Sometimes or somewhat false,  2) Sometimes or somewhat true,  3) Very true or often true

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People would describe me as reckless.</th>
<th>Very False 0</th>
<th>Sometimes False 1</th>
<th>Sometimes True 2</th>
<th>Very True 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel like I act totally on impulse.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even though I know better, I can’t stop making rash decisions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often feel like nothing I do really matters.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others see me as irresponsible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m not good at planning ahead.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My thoughts often don’t make sense to others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I worry about almost everything.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get emotional very easily, often for very little reason.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I fear being alone in life more than anything else</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get stuck on one way of doing things, even when it’s clear it won’t work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have seen things that weren’t really there.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I steer clear of romantic relationships.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m not interested in making friends.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get irritated easily by all sorts of things.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t like to get close to people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s no big deal if I hurt other people’s feelings.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I rarely get enthusiastic about anything.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I crave attention.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often have to deal with people who are less important than me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often have thoughts that make sense to me but that other people say is strange.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use people to get what I want.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often ‘zone out’ and then suddenly come to and realize that a lot of time has passed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Things around me often feel unreal, or more real than usual.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easy for me to take advantage of others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX VII

PERSONALITY TRAIT DOMAIN SCORING FOR PID-5-BF

FOR CLINICIAN USE ONLY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Trait Domain</th>
<th>PID-5-BF items</th>
<th>Total/Partial Raw Domain Score</th>
<th>Prorated Domain Score</th>
<th>Average Domain Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative Affect</td>
<td>8, 9, 10, 11, 15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detachment</td>
<td>4, 13, 14, 16, 18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antagonism</td>
<td>17, 19, 20, 22, 25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinhibition</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 5, 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychoticism</td>
<td>7, 12, 21, 23, 24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instructions to Clinicians

This Personality Inventory for DSM-5—Brief Form (PID-5-BF)—Adult is a 25-item self-rated personality trait assessment scale for adults age 18 and older. It assesses 5 personality trait domains including negative affect, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, and psychoticism, with each trait domain consisting of 5 items. The measure is completed by the individual prior to a visit with the clinician. If the individual receiving care is an adult age 18 and older with impaired capacity and unable to complete the form, a knowledgeable informant may complete the informant version of the measure (the PID-5-IRF). Each item on the PID-5-BF asks the individual receiving care to rate how well the item describes him or her generally.

Scoring and Interpretation

Each item on the measure is rated on a 4-point scale (i.e., 0=very false or often false; 1=sometimes or somewhat false; 2=sometimes or somewhat true; 3=very true or often true). The overall measure has a range of scores from 0 to 75, with higher scores indicating greater overall personality dysfunction. Each trait domain ranges in score from 0 to 15, with higher scores indicating greater dysfunction in the specific personality trait domain. The clinician is asked to review the score on each item on the measure during the clinical interview and indicate the raw score for each item in the section provided for “Clinician Use.” The raw scores on the 25 items should be summed to obtain a total raw score. The scores on the items within each trait domain should be summed and entered in the appropriate raw domain score box. In addition, the clinician is asked to calculate and use average scores for each domain and for the overall measure. The average scores reduce the overall score as well as the scores for each domain to a 4-point scale, which allows the clinician to think of the patient’s personality dysfunction relative to observed norms. The average domain score is calculated by dividing the raw domain score by the number of items in the domain (e.g., if all the items within the “negative affect “ domain are rated as being “sometimes or somewhat true” then the average domain score would be 10/5 = 2, indicating moderate negative affect). The average total score is calculated by dividing the raw overall score by the total number of items in the measure (i.e., 25). The average domain and
overall personality dysfunction scores were found to be reliable, easy to use, and clinically useful to the clinicians in the DSM-5 Field Trials.

**Note:** If 7 or more items are left unanswered on the measure (i.e., more than 25% of the total items are missing), the scores should not be calculated. Similarly, if 2 or more items are left unanswered on any one domain, the domain score should not be calculated. Therefore, the individual should be encouraged to complete all of the items on the measure. However, if 7 or more of the total items on the measure are left unanswered but 4 or 5 items for some of the domains are completed, the raw or average domain scores may be used for those domains. If for the overall measure 1 to 6 items are left unanswered, or for any domain only one item is left unanswered, you may prorate the total raw score or domain score by first summing the number of items that were answered to get a partial raw score. Next, multiply the partial raw score by the total number of items on the measure (i.e., 25) or in the domain (i.e., 5). Finally, divide the value by the number of items that were actually answered to obtain the prorated total or domain raw score.

Prorated Score = \( \frac{\text{Partial Raw Score} \times \text{number of items on the PID-5 BF}}{\text{Number of items that were actually answered}} \).

If the result is a fraction, round to the nearest whole number.

**Frequency of Use**

To track change in the severity of the individual’s personality dysfunction over time, it is recommended that the measure be completed at regular intervals as clinically indicated, depending on the stability of the individual’s symptoms and treatment status. Consistently high scores on a particular domain may indicate significant and problematic areas for the individual receiving care that might warrant further assessment, treatment, and follow-up. Your clinical judgment should guide your decision.
APPENDIX VIII

Original Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale

Celebrity-Persona Parasocial Interaction Scale

Borcanea & Brown 2007

Survey: English Version

Please read the following questions carefully and answer as candidly as you can, placing the number of your choice in the blank to the left of each question.

Based on a 1-5 scale, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the next statements, where:

1) Strongly disagree  2) Disagree  3) Neutral  4) Agree  5) Strongly agree

1. [celebrity or persona] makes me feel as if I am with someone I know well.
2. If [celebrity or persona] appeared on a TV program, I would watch that program.
3. I see [celebrity or persona] as a natural down-to-earth person.
4. If I saw a newspaper or magazine story about [celebrity or persona], I would read it.
5. I would like to meet [celebrity or persona] in person.
6. I feel that I understand the emotions [celebrity or persona] experiences.
7. I find myself thinking about [celebrity or persona] on a regular basis.
8. I do not have any feelings about [celebrity or persona].
9. I like to watch [celebrity or persona] on television.
10. Whenever I am unable to get news about [celebrity or persona], I really miss it.
11. Learning about [celebrity or persona] is important to me.
12. I have been seeking out information in the media to learn more about [celebrity or persona].
13. I sometimes go to the Internet to obtain more information about [celebrity or persona].
14. Sometimes I feel like calling or writing [celebrity or persona].
15. [celebrity or persona] understands the kinds of things I want to know.
16. I sometimes make remarks to [celebrity or persona] while watching television.
17. I am very much aware of the details of [celebrity or persona]’s life.
18. I feel like I have very little understanding of [celebrity or persona] as a person.
19. I look forward to seeing [celebrity or persona] on television or in the print media.
20. I am not really interested in [celebrity or persona].
APPENDIX IX

Original Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale

Celebrity-Persona Identification Scale

Borcanea & Brown, 2007

Survey: English Version

Please read the following questions carefully and answer as candidly as you can, placing the number of your choice in the blank to the left of each question.

Based on a 1-5 scale, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the next statements, where:

1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Neutral 4) Agree 5) Strongly agree

1. [celebrity or persona] and I share many of the same values.
2. What is important to [celebrity or persona] is important to me.
3. I try to model the behavior of [celebrity or persona].
4. I try to do the things I believe [celebrity or persona] would do.
5. [celebrity or persona] has shown me the best way to live my life.
6. I care about the same things [celebrity or persona] cares about.
7. I look to [celebrity or persona] as a role model.
8. I support those who support [celebrity or persona].
9. I would like to be more like [celebrity or persona].
10. [celebrity or persona] has set an example for me of how to think and act.
11. I want to learn from [celebrity or persona] as much as I can.
12. I believe many of the same things [celebrity or persona] believes.
13. I feel that I am in unity with [celebrity or persona].
14. I have often thought about what it would be like to be [celebrity or persona].
15. I aspire to become the kind of person [celebrity or persona is].
16. The qualities I see in [celebrity or persona] are the same qualities I seek to develop in my own life.
17. Watching [celebrity or persona] has helped me to make decisions in my own life.
18. I advocate the same things that [celebrity or persona] advocates.
19. The things that make [celebrity or persona] upset makes me upset.
20. I sometimes imitate [celebrity or persona].
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Persona</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alex Honnold</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrew Wommack</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyiko Owoko</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashley Graham</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baraka (from Mortal Kombat)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batman</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben Affleck</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben Shapiro</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty Kyaloo</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bill Gates</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billie Eilish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryson Tiller</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caroline Mutoko</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catherine Nyambura</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chloe Kardashian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cristiano Ronaldo</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deepika Padukone</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demi Lovato</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donnie McClurkin</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Amina Y.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. House (Gregory House)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Mohamed Arifi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake (Aubrey Drake Graham)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwayne Douglas Johnson</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edward Snowden</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellen Degeneres</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elon Musk</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eminem (Marshall Mathers)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Felix Kjellberg</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry Cavill</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huddah Monroe</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Cole (Jermaine Cole)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackie Chan</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JackSepticEye (Sean McLoughlin)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamila Mohammed</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janet Mbugua</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jay-Z (Shawn Carter)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy Clarkson</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joe Ageyo</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Allan Namu</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John F. Kennedy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julie Gichuru</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kari Jobe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kevin Hart</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kevin Spacey</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kim Kardashian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebron James</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee Taemin</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lewis Hamilton</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lionel Messi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lulu Hassan</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mariah Carey</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Marsai</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Zuckerberg</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew Perry</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michelle Obama</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mindy Kaling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Rose Marie</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mo (Samwel Muraya)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mufti Menk</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myles Munroe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naptural85 (Whitney White)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasty C (Nsikayesizwe Ngcobo)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natsu Dragneel</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nimrod Taabu</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Octopizzo (Henry Ohanga)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oprah Winfrey</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter Tosh</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince EA (Richard Williams)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rafael Aghayev</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ragnar Lodbrok</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renee Yohe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rihanna</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandra Brown</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sean Diddy Combs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selena Gomez</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is ESS (Sharon Mundia)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shivaay Singh Oberoi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steve Jobs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steven Furtick</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamera Mowry-Housley</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tinashe</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony Stark</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trevor Noah</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troye Sivan</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyra Banks</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanessa Mdee</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria Beckham</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria Rubadiri</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wabosha Maxine</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waren Buffett</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YaraShahidi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yvonne Okwara</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zuko (from Avatar The Last Airbender)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX XI

Confidentiality Agreement for Co-Researchers

This form may be used in the event that co-researchers, excluding the principal researcher himself, are invited to conduct specific tasks such as collecting, entering or analyzing data at USIU-A.

Thesis Project Title – Parasocial Interaction and Identification toward Media Personae and their correlation with Pathological Personality Traits among Emerging Adults in USIU – Africa.

I, ___________________________, have been hired to collect data.

(specific role description in this research), have been hired to collect data.

In partaking in this research, I agree to the following ethical guidelines:

1. All research information shared with me shall be held confidential by not discussing or sharing the research information in any form with anyone other than the researchers.

2. All research information shall be kept secure while in my possession.

3. All research information shall be returned indefinitely to the principal researcher when the research task has been finalized.

4. All data related to this research in any format shall be erased after consulting with the principal researcher.

Co-Researcher Name: ____________________________

Co-Researcher Signature: ____________________________

Date: ____________________________

The proposal for this research thesis has been reviewed for its adherence to ethical guidelines and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the United States International University – Africa.
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.

10th January, 2019

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH – IAN JUNIOR KAAYO
STUDENT ID. NO. 638187

The bearer of this letter is a student of United States International University (USIU) -Africa pursuing a Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology.

As part of the program, the student is required to undertake a dissertation on “Parasocial Interaction and Identification toward Media Personae and their Correlation with Pathological Personality Traits among Emerging Adults in USIU -Africa” which requires him to collect data

Please note that information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for academic purposes.

Kindly assist the student get the appropriate data and should you have any queries contact the undersigned.

Yours Sincerely,

Prof. Amos Njuguna,
Dean – School of Graduate Studies, Research and Extension
Tel: 730 116 442
Email: amnjuguma@usiu.ac.ke
APPENDIX XIII

9th January, 2019

Ian Junior Kaayo
School of Humanities and Social Sciences
United States International University - Africa
kianjunior@ymail.com
USIU-A/IRB/42-19

Dear Mr. Kaayo,

IRB-RESEARCH APPROVAL.

The USIU-A IRB has reviewed and granted an ethical approval for the research proposal titled “Parasocial Interaction and Identification toward Media Personae and their Correlation with Pathological Personality Traits. among Emerging Adults in Usiu-Africa.”

The approval is for twelve months from the date of IRB. A Continuing Review application must be approved within this interval to avoid expiration of IRB approval and cessation of all research activities. A mid-term report and a final report must be provided to the IRB within the twelve months approval period. All records relating to the research (including signed consent forms) must be retained and available for audit for at least 3 years after the research has ended.

You are advised to follow the approved methodology and report to the IRB any serious, unexpected and related adverse events and potential unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others.

Should you or study participants have any queries regarding IRB’s consideration of this project, please contact irb@usiu.ac.ke.

Sincerely,

Prof. Amos Njuguna,
IRB chair and Dean – School of Graduate Studies, Research and Extension
Tel: 730 116 442
Email: amnjuguna@usiu.ac.ke