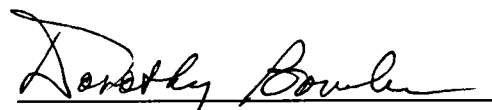
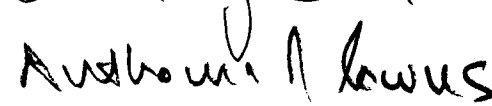


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Lee Greenwood Scurry entitled "Attention to and Attitudes toward Alternative Media in the 1996 Presidential Campaign." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Communications.


Dorothy Bowles, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

**Attention to and Attitudes toward Alternative Media
in the 1996 Presidential Campaign**

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Lee Greenwood Scurry
May 1997

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Abstract

This study used exit interviewing to survey voters at the election polls regarding their attention to alternative and traditional media, and their attitudes toward the role of alternative media in the 1996 presidential campaign. The way this study conceptualized alternative media was exhaustive and, thus, unique. Cross-tabulations and t tests compared the dependent variables — media attention and attitudes — by the independent variables — media reliance and demographic characteristics.

Findings support the notion that alternative media play an increasingly important role in political campaigns as a source from which voters gather candidate information. Especially respondents aged 18-34 and political conservatives showed a preference for alternative media over traditional media.

Nonetheless, most survey respondents continue to look to the traditional media for their primary source of candidate information in a presidential campaign. When media are compared individually, respondents paid the most attention by far to the evening television newscasts and daily newspapers. However, morning news/talk shows and political talk shows on television were not far behind. When respondents were asked which one media source they relied on the most for candidate information, television talk shows were mentioned the third most often — just behind the evening news and newspaper articles. Additionally, other alternative media, such as the Internet and talk radio, grab the attention of certain segments of voters. Among Internet users, for

example, those interested in minor or third-party candidates were most likely to find the Internet very useful.

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I. Introduction

In the history of presidential campaigns, several years stand out as turning points — elections in which a new way of campaigning emerged. The classic examples include 1924, the first election reported on radio; 1952, the first election with television coverage; and the 1960 televised debates. The 1992 campaign may well be remembered as another turning point in our history.

In 1992, the political arena began to change radically and expand in ways that were previously unimaginable. Who could have predicted that serious presidential candidates would appear on “Good Morning America,” “Donahue,” “The Arsenio Hall Show” and MTV? Or that campaign issues would be so hotly debated on talk radio shows and in Internet discussion groups?

As the media’s role becomes an increasingly important factor in political campaigns, the media are also becoming a necessary variable in election research studies.

The underlying theory of this study is that the media have multiple effects on public opinion. Early research indicated that political campaigns in the media only had minimal effects on people’s opinions (Lazarsfeld, Berelson & Gaudet, 1944; Berelson, Lazarsfeld & McPhee, 1954); but, in the last decade, researchers in the fields of mass communications (Kennamer, 1987; Chaffee et al., 1994; Lowden et al., 1994) and political science (Bartels, 1993; Finkel, 1993) have argued otherwise. These theorists

contend that media influence people indirectly through learning, agenda setting, framing, and persuasion (Ansolabehere, Behr & Iyengar, 1993; Pfau et al., 1995; Wayne, 1996).

But how is the term 'media' to be defined? In many election studies, the media are defined only as network television news and daily newspapers. However, the recent influx of alternative media in political campaigns raises the following questions: How do alternative media fit into the multiple effects theory? What are the predictors associated with attention to alternative media among voters? Do voters have positive or negative attitudes toward alternative media in the context of a presidential campaign? What are the predictors associated with attitudes toward alternative media among voters?

Studies of the 1992 election are abundant, and many use media theories within their research models; but, few conceptualize media as clearly and broadly as may be necessary. None of the current literature sufficiently addresses the full spectrum of media, and few define media in a clear enough manner so that survey respondents can provide relevant data. Many studies have blurred the lines too much — for example, considering radio, but not distinguishing between radio news and radio talk shows. Seldom do researchers consider the Internet, magazines or radio. Furthermore, there remains disagreement as to how much of a role the media play.

Nonetheless, the combination of politics and alternative media continued as a trend during the 1996 presidential election. For example, Al Gore is said to have had two "breakthrough moments" during his first year as vice president — his appearance on David Letterman and his debate with Ross Perot on "Larry King Live" (Clift, 1994).

Gore ... used both appearances to reinvent himself. The formats capture the feistier and lighter side of Gore in a way that the Brinkley show and the other establishment-media Sunday morning talk formats don't. ... *USA Today* bannered a front-page story celebrating Gore's newfound hipness as much as the 'Reinventing Government' project he was publicizing. Later in the fall, Gore's one-on-one debate with Ross Perot, moderated by Larry King, not only drew the largest ever cable audience ... but was widely credited with creating the climate for the biggest victory of Clinton's first year — congressional passage of NAFTA. (Clift, 1994)

This example reveals a few reasons why considering alternative media is important: 1) alternative media may engage different audiences than those that traditional media attract, and 2) candidate appearances on alternative media may contribute to voters' overall evaluation of the candidate's image.

Additionally, traditional media will often rebroadcast or report on candidate appearances on alternative media — spreading the effect (if there is one) to even larger audiences of people who do not normally pay attention to alternative media. Consider how many people read about or saw at least an excerpt of Republican nominee Bob Dole being interviewed by the "Today" show's Katie Couric regarding the tobacco industry.

Furthermore, with the increased role of alternative media in the 1992 campaign, there was also simultaneous increases in voter turnout. Voter turnout, which had been declining in the 1980s, took an upswing in the 1992 presidential election. According to the *Statistical Abstract of the United States* (1994), 61.3 percent of the voting-age population voted in 1992; this was an increase from 57.4 percent who voted in 1988. It was the

greatest turnout in any U.S. presidential election since 1968. At the same time, the role of alternative media in the 1992 election was very substantial. For example, Smillie & Davis (1993) found that Bill Clinton and Ross Perot combined made 29 appearances on network morning talk shows in the first six months of 1992 (Clinton: 19, Perot: 10).

Thus, the purpose of this research is to examine the role of alternative media in the context of the 1996 presidential election and identify the predictors associated with attention to alternative media and voters' attitudes toward alternative media.

Research questions

RQ1: What are the predictors associated with attention to alternative media among voters?

RQ2: Do voters have positive or negative attitudes toward alternative media in the context of a presidential campaign?

RQ3: What are the predictors associated with attitudes toward alternative media among voters?

The dependent variables are attention to media and attitudes held toward alternative and traditional media. Multiple independent variables will be considered, including: media reliance, interest in the campaign, as well as demographic variables (sex, age, race, and household income), political ideology, party identification and election vote. Likelihood of voting will be held constant since only voters are being interviewed.

II. Literature Review

Theory

Kennamer (1987) wrote that “when communications variables are included in models of voting behavior, they often turn out to be important.” This is the essence of the multiple effects theory, which emphasizes the effects of the media on public opinion. Such theorists contend that media influence people indirectly through learning, agenda setting, framing, and persuasion; and, attention to media can increase information gain, name recognition, and ‘opinionation’ (Ansolabehere, Behr & Iyengar, 1993; Pfau et al., 1995; Wayne, 1996; Joslyn & Ceccoli, 1996).

J. McLeod, Kosicki and D. McLeod (1994) argue the same point, yet they call their theory the political communication effects theory. They identify four major classes of individual effects: opinion formation and change, cognitive changes, perceptions of the political system, and political participation.

In a similar vein, the uses and gratifications theory adds that audiences use the media to gather information. Both the multiple effects theory and the uses and gratifications theory “seek to explain the outcomes or consequences of mass communication such as individual attitudes and perceptions (e.g., cultivation), behavioral changes (e.g., dependency), and societal effects (e.g., knowledge gaps). Uses and gratifications does so, however, recognizing the potential for audience initiative and activity” (Rubin, 1994).

Uses and gratifications theorists contend that people pay attention only to media messages that are personally relevant and gratifying — messages that do not contradict personal beliefs. Graber (*Mass Media and American Politics*, 1993) explains:

People pay attention to stories that help them in making political decisions, such as voting or participating in protest demonstrations. ... Media stories help people to know what is happening in their political environment and to take part in discussions with friends and co-workers. They feel gratified if the media reinforce what they already know and believe.

Lowden et al. (1994) used a model termed media dependency, which identifies the “relationship between an individual and the media, such that information contained in the media is necessary for the satisfaction of individual goals, desires, and effective collection action.”

These theories are especially relevant during political elections because political information disseminated through the media is used by voters to “determine candidates’ stands on issues, their personal qualities, and candidates’ chances of winning both the nomination and the general election” (Lowden et al., 1994).

The multiple effects and uses and gratifications theories have been fairly widely accepted among communications scholars. However, only recently have political scientists picked up on the importance of such theories.

Recently, Finkel (1993) and Josslyn and Ceccoli (1996) argued the significance of the media reinforcing an individual’s pre-existing attitudes, previously thought of as a

“minimal” effect. Finkel conducted a panel survey and found that a media campaign can “activate” existing political predispositions and make them electorally relevant. This can happen through daily campaign reports in the media that “prime” an individual with specific information about the candidate and the issues, in turn “affecting viewers’ understanding of political issues and altering the criteria on which they judge candidates” (Josslyn & Ceccoli, 1996).

“Indeed, by enhancing the probabilities that individuals will vote in congruence with their underlying predispositions, information disseminated by television news does not merely produce minimal effects but rather generates a dynamic that underscores the power of the medium” (Josslyn & Ceccoli, 1996).

Along these same lines, Bartels (1993) asserts that opinion formation is heavily dependent upon media exposure.

Concepts

The theory of multiple media effects remains constant throughout this literature review; but, there are differences in how researchers conceptualize and operationalize media as a variable. First, a distinction must be made between traditional and alternative media.

■ **Definition of alternative media.** Because alternative media are such a new phenomenon, there is not yet a single universal term for it. Some researchers use the term

alternative media, but others use non-traditional media or new news.

Miller et al. (1993) defined new news as “public affairs information in such forums as radio and television talk shows, tabloid news, music television, and even rap music and situation comedies.”

Hollander (1995) summed it up well when he compared the consistencies between MTV, Larry King and Arsenio Hall: “a focus on entertainment over information, easy questioning by hosts, call-in access by ‘average’ citizens, and the availability of public-candidate interaction.”

McLeod et al. (1996) defined three elements that distinguish alternative media from traditional news forms:

First, they represent a more direct connection between candidates and voters, less mediated by journalists. Second, they tend to allow for direct citizen input into the campaign process, as the rhetoric of common speech substitutes for that of the politician and the journalist. Finally, their diversity may result in a varied set of reactions to candidates rather than a common issue agenda developed by the traditional media.

For the purposes of this study, alternative media included all the following media forums: the Internet, “Larry King Live,” MTV, morning news/talk shows (like “Good Morning America,” CBS’s “This Morning” and “The Today Show”), daytime talk shows (like “Donahue” and “Oprah”), late night tv shows (like David Letterman, Jay Leno and “Saturday Night Live”), popular magazines (like *Rolling Stone*, *Spin*, *GQ*, *Esquire*, *Ebony*, *Jet* and *Working Woman*), and talk radio shows (like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver

North and Mario Cuomo).

Political talk shows (like “Nightline,” “This Week with David Brinkley,” “Face the Nation,” and “Meet the Press”) share some elements of both alternative and traditional media. However, in this study they will be considered alternative media for the following reasons: a) political talks shows — like morning news/talk shows — allow for live, unscripted interaction among candidates, which adds an entertainment flavor to the shows; b) candidates are able to talk more-or-less unfiltered, which represents “a more direct connection between candidates and voters;” and c) shows like “Nightline,” for instance, on occasion include access for the average citizen through live focus groups.

■ **Traditional media.** Conversely, traditional media are easy to define, and include: the evening news (network and CNN), daily newspapers, weekly news magazines (like *Newsweek*, *Time* and *U.S. News and World Reports*), and National Public Radio (NPR) news programs.

■ **Importance of considering alternative media.** It is important to consider alternative media for several reasons:

1) First, alternative media may engage audiences different from those who attend to traditional media. Thus, it is necessary to determine whether there are unique predictors associated with attention to alternative media.

2) Because a candidate’s appearance on alternative media often may be reported in the traditional media, it is necessary to determine voters’ attitudes toward candidate

appearances on alternative media.

3) Because, along with the increased role of alternative media in 1992 campaign, there was also simultaneous increases in voter turnout.

Traditional media

Attention to traditional media — newspapers and television news — is significantly related to interest in the campaign, knowledge about the campaign, and voting behavior.

For example, Erikson and Tedin (1995) studied 1992 National Election Study data and observed a high correlation between regular television viewing and high interest in the campaign, and between regular newspaper reading and high interest. They concluded: “All this fits with common sense. Interest in the campaign should make one want to follow the campaign more closely both in newspapers and on television; perhaps, following the campaign either in newspapers or on television also makes one more interested.”

Miller et al. (1993) found that respondents who had high attention to daily newspapers, magazines and CNN — all of which were associated with campaign knowledge — also were likely to agree that the campaign is “exciting.” They concluded that: “The best interpretation of these findings is probably not that attention to these media causes interest. It is more likely that people who find the campaign interesting and exciting probably turn to these relatively information rich media.”

Kenamer (1987) identified intention to vote as a dependent variable along with multiple independent variables, including education, party identification strength, interest in the campaign, television attention, newspaper attention, interpersonal discussions, cognitions, and strength of candidate choice. He used a path analytic approach and found that attention to media — especially attention to television — showed both direct and indirect effects on intention to vote.

In a study conducted during the 1992 presidential primaries, Pfau et al. (1995) argued that television exerted the most influence on voter perceptions. “Television news is more intimate than newspapers ... and therefore more influential during the distant phase of primary campaigns. Television news, even more than newspapers, permits voters to glimpse candidate persona.”

Finkel (1993) examined vote choice and found that the changes produced by the media served mainly to strengthen the probability that the individual would vote. “Further, there may be significant effects of the campaign on voter *turnout* that could also alter electoral outcomes under certain conditions,” he said.

Unfortunately, Finkel, Pfau et al., and Kenamer did not conceptually distinguish between traditional and alternative media.

The few studies that consider alternative media suggest that respondents pay a greater amount of attention to newspapers and television news and comparatively lower attention to alternative media (Cavanaugh, 1995; Weaver & Drew, 1995; Miller et al, 1993).

For instance, Cavanaugh (1995) conducted a panel study with 18 respondents. He

found the following: 32.6 percent of those who watched television news reported that they paid much attention to election news stories; 21.7 percent of newspaper readers said they paid a great deal of attention to election articles. However, only 11.6 percent of radio listeners said they listened to a good many campaign discussions or speeches on the radio; and only 10.9 percent of magazine readers said they paid a great deal of attention to campaign stories in magazines.

Weaver and Drew identified distinctions within television formats and found that simple correlations suggested that attention to newspaper and television news — as well as attention to morning talk/news shows — were significantly correlated with greater intention to vote. However, these correlations became non-significant when the demographics and interest in the campaign were controlled statistically in the regression equations.

Alternative media

Despite studies that indicate that respondents pay more attention to traditional media than alternative media, the public's dissatisfaction with the press is on the rise and may cause ever increasing attention to alternative media (Fallows, 1996).

Thomas Rosenstiel, a *Los Angeles Times* reporter in Washington who covers the media and politics, has been quoted as saying: "The public was gravitating to shows like Larry King and Phil Donahue because they were rejecting the ways in which the

traditional press operated — formats that cut up the news into little bites, the press' focus on attack tactics, horse race and politics and the press' boredom with policy" (Jost, 1994).

Following the 1992 election, a survey conducted by the Times Mirror Center for the People and the Press (1993) found that more than one in three people felt that the traditional press was doing a "fair" or "poor" job of campaign coverage. Furthermore, the Center concluded: "Television and radio talk shows emerged not only as a new platform in political campaigns in 1992, but as the dominate mode of discourse between candidates and voters."

In support of this view, *CQ Researcher* (Jost, 1994) reported on a Center for Media and Public Affairs study that found "television talk shows carried proportionally more 'substantive' coverage of the 1992 presidential campaign than the traditional media" between Labor Day and Election Day. The talk shows studied were "Good Morning America," "The Today Show," "Larry King Live," and "Donahue." The traditional media were ABC, CBS and NBC evening news programs, CNN's "Prime News," PBS's "News Hour," *The Wall Street Journal*, *The New York Times*, and *The Washington Post*.

Some researchers (Diamond et al., 1993) note that growing economic concerns and a third-party candidate in 1992 probably brought more voters to the polls than did the alternative media. But Graber ("Making Campaign News User Friendly," 1993) suggests that the use of alternative media made the 1992 campaign more user friendly, which in turn increased campaign interest. She asserts that when questions are asked by ordinary citizens, most people can identify much more readily with the questioners and the

answers than when journalists ask the questions. Graber also submitted that people like to watch the candidates, listen to them briefly, and infer candidate capabilities from observed behavior.

In support of Graber's view, Levine (1993) brought to light a CJR/Roper public opinion poll taken just before the 1992 election (2,000 voters were polled) that asked which was preferred — questions put to the candidates by ordinary citizens or those asked by journalist. It found that 40 percent of respondents preferred questions asked by non-journalists, explaining that citizens posed the questions for which they wanted answers. Only 20 percent preferred “harder to dodge” questions asked by reporters. The remaining 40 percent expressed no preference.

Additionally, television talk shows may reach more voters than traditional media when candidate appearances generate news and are covered by newspapers and evening news broadcasts (Wayne, 1996). In an election study conducted by Pavlik and Szántó (1993), Larry King was found to be the most frequently mentioned “opinion leader” in major news media between July 1 and November 3, 1992. King was mentioned 1,528 times in print and broadcast news stories about the campaign. The runner-up was journalist David Brinkley of ABC, who was mentioned less than one-third as many times (442 times). Almost on the amusing side, conservative journalist George Will and late night host Arsenio Hall tied for fourth place, mentioned 287 times each. It should be noted that Ross Perot later used Larry King's show as a non-traditional forum to announce his candidacy; however, this event did not take place during the time period Pavlik and Szántó surveyed.

■ **Television.** While the evening news consistently is the predominant source for information among voters (Media Studies Center, 1996), alternative media are nonetheless attracting substantial attention from audiences. The Media Studies Center found that 41 percent of voters aged 30 and older watch Sunday political talk shows frequently; 34 percent watch morning news/talk shows frequently.

Hollander (1995) compared late night shows, MTV and talk shows, and found talk shows received the highest amount of attention among respondents.

As expected, younger voters (those under 30 years old) pay more attention to MTV and late night talk shows than do voters aged 30 and older. Yet, younger voters still pay more attention overall to traditional media than they do to alternative media (Media Studies Center, 1996; Miller et al., 1993). The Media Studies Center found that 35 percent of the 18-29 age group watch late night talk shows frequently (compared to 18 percent of the 30+ age group) and 29 percent of young voters watch MTV frequently. Nonetheless, an even larger percentage of young voters (61 percent) watch the national news frequently.

Miller et al. asked college students about attention to media within the context of the 1992 presidential election. Respondents reported paying the highest amount of attention to daily newspapers, followed by CNN, network news, campus newspaper, magazines, live comedy like "Saturday Night Live," MTV, nighttime talk shows like Jay Leno and David Letterman — all averaged above 3 on a 5-point scale, where 3 = sometimes. Situation comedies like "Murphy Brown" and daytime talk shows like "Donahue" and

“Oprah” scored the lowest.

Miller et al. found that along with daily newspapers, magazines and CNN, respondents who paid attention to MTV were likely to agree that the campaign is exciting; however, attention to MTV was not positively associated with campaign knowledge. Here, it seems plausible that attention to MTV caused greater interest in the campaign, not vice versa. Nonetheless, causation is always difficult to prove.

Using a sample of 504 Indiana residents and not controlling for age, Weaver and Drew (1995) found that respondents paid slightly more attention to morning talk/news shows (like “Good Morning America,” etc.) than daytime talk shows (like “Donahue” and “Oprah”), and that these morning shows correlated with greater intention to vote. In the end they concluded, however, that alternative media did not contribute significantly to greater knowledge of candidate issue positions, greater intention to vote, or higher levels of interest in the campaign, and that their frequencies “support the idea that nontraditional media had little influence.”

In contrast, Bare (1993) found evidence that infrequent newspaper readers who said they paid more attention to talk shows were more likely to say they intended to vote. But, he did not control simultaneously for any other variables, which is a rather significant limitation.

Of those who normally pay attention to alternative media, they rarely “tune out” when the topic turns to politics. Weaver and Drew found that of the people who watched morning news shows, only 19 percent said they paid little or no attention to candidate

appearances on these venues. In other words, 81 percent either paid attention to candidate appearances or were uncertain.

Moreover, information from case studies reveals that when Donahue hosted a discussion between Bill Clinton and Jerry Brown on April 6, 1992, it attracted a larger than normal audience — 8 million viewers (Smillie, 1993).

MTV's 90-minute forum with a live 200-member audience, "Facing the Future with Bill Clinton," attracted a televised audience of approximately 1.5 million viewers in its first airing (Smillie & McKay, 1993). MTV aired that political forum five additional times over five days. It is estimated that more than 3 million viewers saw the program. MTV's nightly news report, "The Day In Rock" usually averages 500,000 to 1 million viewers.

Smillie (1993) found that the benefits of talk show politics may include longer exposure to candidates whom voters would ordinarily see less of, potentially sparking greater interest and involvement in the political process. Talk shows also benefit the public via the call-in format, allowing listeners and viewers to become part of the interview. Smillie concluded that the impact of candidate appearances on talk shows has thus far produced positive results for the public.

Alter (1992) also supported the positive effects of alternative media. Further, he concluded that candidates seek out appearances on alternative media because more people — more voters — are likely to see them on shows like NBC's "Today Show" and MTV. "After all, most voters don't watch MacNeil-Lehrer," Alter said.

As far as variables that predict attention to alternative media, Newhagen (1994) found self-efficacy and race to be “particularly strong indicators” associated with call-in television talk shows, like “Larry King Live.” Black respondents reported watching call-in talk shows more than white respondents, and they said they learned more from the shows than whites reported. Newhagen also found that “social class, a traditionally strong indicator of news media use, ... did not do well as a predictor of call-in use.”

■ **Radio.** Talk radio listeners have been described as being predominately white, male, Republican and earning upper incomes (Media Studies Center, 1996; Hollander, 1996). They are also younger, more politically active, more likely to read newspapers and having greater feelings of political self-efficacy than non-listeners (Hollander, 1996). Although talk radio rarely appears as a variable in research, a Media Studies Center/Roper poll found regular political talk radio listeners make up about 16 percent of all voters.

Weaver and Drew (1995) found attention to radio coverage of the campaign to be “a surprisingly strong predictor, perhaps a function of public radio and the numerous talk programs on the radio that undoubtedly focused on the election.” They conceptualized radio programming as a traditional media; but, it could be argued that if they included talk radio shows, it would qualify as an alternative media. Hofstetter et al. (1993) reached similar conclusions. Overall, however, very little research has been done on talk radio.

■ **Internet.** It noteworthy in itself that by mid-1995 more than 25 million people in

the United States — 14 percent of the adult population — were connected to the Internet (Graber, 1996). Furthermore, Thalhimer (1992) cited reports that most on-line users are well-educated and affluent; and, 90 percent of Prodigy users voted in elections (note: Prodigy is a commercial on-line service).

A survey of registered voters conducted by the Freedom Forum (Media Studies Center, 1996) found that 26 percent of voting-age Americans have access to the Internet, and 4 percent have visited political WWW sites. Those who have visited political sites were found to “have higher levels of education and higher salaries than other voters. Their political affiliation is split equally between Republicans and Democrats. Two out of five political Web site visitors are female, casting doubt on the assumption that ‘netizens’ are overwhelmingly male.” They were also representative of registered voters in terms of race.

Regarding use of the Internet in campaign politics, Ivry (1995) asserted that computer-based media will complement traditional media to create a system of political communication that will engage all sectors of society. She cited two projects of the Minnesota Electronic Democracy Project that engaged people in an on-line debate between gubernatorial and senatorial candidates. In one group, discussion topics included the candidates, negative political advertising, and the relative importance of voting. On days leading to the election, some 700 subscribers reportedly logged on to follow the debate. Additionally, the debate was accessed through other computer sites some 25,000 times.

Unfortunately, there is little data in regard to how much attention people pay to candidate information on the Internet, or whether the Internet has any indirect influence on interest in the campaign and voting turnout.

Limitations of the literature

Many of the studies mentioned here are weak in how they conceptualize and operationalize media. Several of the common survey questions do not allow the researcher to distinguish between alternative and traditional media. For example, when Weaver and Drew (1995) asked about attention to radio programming they categorized it as traditional media; yet, their description of radio includes both NPR and radio talk shows.

Similarly, when Hollander asked about attention to television talk shows, he did not provide the names of specific shows as examples. This could result in respondents — who may not consider “Larry King Live” in the same category as “Donahue” and “Oprah” — not understanding the question. Thus, it is a limitation for research studies that do not carefully operationalize media.

Furthermore, few studies even address radio, the Internet, or magazines. None of these media may pull as large an audience as television and newspapers; but, radio, magazines and the Internet combined can play an important role in the cumulative influence of the media.

For instance, a recent *Time* article cited a 1993 poll in which 44 percent of respondents named talk radio as their chief source of political information (Corliss, 1995). This is not surprising, considering that Rush Limbaugh then reached a whopping 20 million listeners a week on approximately 660 stations nationwide (Corliss, 1995). As far as the content of talk radio, a trade publication, *Talkers*, reported that during the 1992 campaign season the most talked about subject on talk radio was the election, followed by the economy, the health care crisis, and foreign affairs (Hoyt, 1992).

The number of popular magazines that cover presidential elections continues to grow. Magazines like *Rolling Stone*, *SPIN*, *Working Woman* and *Ebony* all ran feature stories either about the candidates or the campaign in general during the 1996 primary season.

A November 1994 Roper Organization survey asked Americans, "Where do you usually get most of your news about what's going on in the world today?" (multiple responses allowed). Their results were: 72 percent said television, 38 percent said newspapers, 18 percent said radio, and 8 percent said magazines. A steady increase for television, radio and magazines was shown consistently from 1988 to 1990 to 1992 to 1994. The exception was newspapers, which declined from 1992.

III. Research Method

Research questions

RQ1: What are the predictors associated with attention to alternative media among voters?

RQ2: Do voters have positive or negative attitudes toward alternative media in the context of a presidential campaign?

RQ3: What are the predictors associated with attitudes toward alternative media among voters?

Data collection

A survey questionnaire, designed for exit interviewing, was administered through personal interviews on the March 12 primary election day, and the Nov. 5 general election day in Knoxville, Tenn. A total of 24 interview locations (12 for the March primary and 12 for the November election) were selected randomly within the city limits of Knoxville to yield a diversified population of city voters. Thus, the population for this study is Knoxville voters.

In the city of Knoxville, a total of 54 voting locations are open for 12 hours — from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m. — on election day. Nearly half (24) of the total voting locations were selected for surveying during either the primary or the general election.

A random procedure was followed by choosing every fourth location from a list provided by the Knox County Election Commission. For the March primary, every fourth location, starting from the top of the list, was selected. For the November general election, every fourth location, starting from the end of the list, was selected. This procedure resulted in 24 different precincts that were well distributed throughout the city with diverse socio-economic areas represented.

The Knox County Election Commission provided advice on state regulations regarding surveying voters. Surveyors were required to stand no closer than 100 feet from the polling place. Additionally, citizens could only be approached after they had voted, hence, exit interviews.

For each of the chosen locations, a two-hour time block was assigned for surveying. From the top of the list (listed in ascending order, by precinct number), two-hour time blocks were assigned in sequential order, starting with 8-10 a.m. This method allowed for each time block to be represented by two different locations.

At each location, the objective was to have one graduate student surveying for the entire two-hour block and two to three undergraduates surveying in one-hour shifts. The graduate student at each location was also in charge of supervising the other students to ensure proper procedure. All surveyors were advised ahead of time regarding procedure. They were instructed to approach all voters leaving the polling place and not to discriminate in any manner.

■ **Pilot study.** A pilot study was conducted in the fall of 1995 with a preliminary

questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to 63 communications students (juniors, seniors and graduate students) at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Students filled out the questionnaires either during a class period or prior to a class period.

Organizational and language changes were made based on observations during the pilot study. The final questionnaire was submitted to the University of Tennessee Office of Research and certified on March 7, 1996, as exempt from review by the Institutional Review Board.

■ **March primary.** The first round of exit interviews was conducted during the March 1996 primary election. Subjects were approached at voting locations on primary day and asked to complete a written survey. The questionnaire was three pages long and took approximately six minutes to complete (see Appendix A). Surveying resulted in 200 completed questionnaires.

Between the March primary and the November general election, additional changes were made to the questionnaire to ensure clarity. Specifically, response options were formatted differently.

■ **November general election.** The same interview format was used to conduct the second round of surveying during the November general presidential election. A slightly revised questionnaire was used (see Appendix B). Surveying on Nov. 5 resulted in 554 completed questionnaires. Thus, the total sample comprised 754 Knoxville voters.

■ **Quality of measures.** It is necessary to ensure that the measures — the questions

themselves and the method of administering the survey — are reliable and consistent. Many of the survey questions use established question wording, culled from the American National Election Study (NES) and other media studies (Miller et al., 1993; Weaver & Drew, 1995; etc.).

Other questions that were designed for this study — for instance the media attitude questions — were pretested in a classroom situation and tested in the March primary. Changes and improvements were made along the way to ensure clarity and reliability.

Validity indicates the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Predictive validity can be used in part. For example, the percentage of respondents who said they voted for a particular candidate can be compared to the percentage of the population that actually voted that way. Measure will be applied to see how highly these correlate, and thus, the degree of confidence in the measures. This validity method can also be used to ensure respondents' demographic characteristics are representative of the population. However, predictive validity cannot be used to measure confidence in the media attention and attitude questions.

Operationalization

■ **Attention to media.** To measure attention to media, one survey question asked:

In the past month, how often did you watch, read, or listen to each of the following ...

Response options were: a) evening news (network or CNN), b) a daily newspaper, c)

news magazines (like *Newsweek*, *Time*, *U.S. News*), d) National Public Radio (NPR), e) “Larry King Live,” f) MTV, g) political talk shows (like “Nightline,” “This Week with David Brinkley,” “Face the Nation,” “Meet the Press,” “Crossfire”), h) morning news/talk shows (like “Good Morning America,” CBS’s “This Morning,” “The Today Show”), i) daytime talk shows (like “Donahue,” “Oprah”), j) late night talk shows (like David Letterman, Jay Leno, “Saturday Night Live”), k) popular magazines (like *Rolling Stone*, *Spin*, *GQ*, *Esquire*, *Ebony*, *Jet*, *Working Woman*), and l) talk radio shows (like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver North, Mario Cuomo), and the Internet.

Originally, during the March surveying, responses were coded as: 5 or more days per week = 4, 3-4 days per week = 3, 1-2 days per week = 2, 1-3 days per month = 1, and never = 0.

Changes were made, however, so that in November, the two magazine categories — news magazines and popular magazines — were broken out separately. Ultimately, responses were coded as follows: every week = 3, twice a month = 2, occasionally = 1, and never = 0.

For analysis, attention to traditional media and attention to alternative media were broken into two separate indexes.

Attention questions pertaining to the evening news, daily newspapers, National Public Radio and news magazines, were combined into an index by adding together the coded points for the four attention categories — the minimum score being 0 if the respondent never paid attention to any of the four media, and the maximum score being 16 if the

respondent always paid attention to all four of the media. The respondent population was then divided into thirds. Approximately one-third of the respondents scored between $0 \leq 6$ and thus were described as having “low” attention; respondents who scored in the middle third ($7 \leq 9$) were described as having “medium” attention; and, respondents who scored between $10 \leq 16$ were described as having “high.”

The same index procedure was applied to alternative media, which included “Larry King Live,” MTV, political TV talk shows, morning news/talk shows, daytime talk shows, late night TV shows, talk radio, popular magazines, and the Internet. The descriptions of low, medium and high attention were applied in the same manner.

It should be mentioned at this time that the changes made in response coding affected analysis for the two magazine categories when studied individually; however, it did not have any affect on the indexes.

■ **Attitudes toward media.** To measure attitudes toward the media, one survey question asked how the respondent felt about six listed statements. That question is as follows:

For each of the following statements, indicate where you fall on a scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

- a) When a candidate appears on MTV or in *Rolling Stone* magazine, it trivializes the political process.
- b) The evening news and daily newspapers don’t provide any useful information for

candidate evaluations.

c) Talk show hosts, like Donahue and Larry King, ask the candidate better questions than reporters.

d) Citizens on televised town-hall meetings ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.

e) The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.

f) Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidate as his answers to any given issue question.

A five-point Likert scale was used for coding each response. Response options were coded as strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, neutral = 3, disagree = 2, strongly disagree = 1.

■ **Influence of alternative media on candidate evaluations.** To measure the influence of alternative media on candidate evaluations, one survey question asked:

How much does a candidate interview ... on each of the following ... contribute to your overall evaluation of the candidate's image?

a) "Larry King Live," b) MTV, c) political talk shows (like "Nightline," "This Week with David Brinkley," "Face the Nation," "Meet the Press" and "Crossfire"), d) morning news/talk shows (like "Good Morning America," CBS's "This Morning" and "The Today Show"), e) daytime talk shows (like "Donahue" and "Oprah"), f) late night talk shows (like David Letterman, Jay Leno and "Saturday Night Live"), g) popular magazines (like *Rolling Stone*, *Spin*, *GQ*, *Esquire*, *Ebony*, *Jet* and *Working Woman*), and h) talk radio

shows (like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver North and Mario Cuomo).

Response were scaled from “very much” to “no effect.” Response options were coded as: very much = 4, somewhat = 3, unsure = 2, a little = 1, no effect = 0.

Design technique

The design applied in this study is a cross-sectional or correlation design. It consists of uncontrolled exposure of a study population to an experimental variable or event (X) and observation or measurement of the study population (O). For this study, X = the 1996 presidential election campaign as presented in the media; O = the survey. This design is limited to a naturally occurring X.

X_1 = March Primary

O_1 = March exit interviews

X_2 = November Election

O_2 = November exit interviews

■ **Quality of design.** Internal validity is the ability to satisfy the criteria of causality; it is unusually low in this design. The three criteria of causality (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1976) include:

1. Comparison: the design’s ability to facilitate comparisons of the independent variables. This criteria is met by the cross-sectional design.

2. Manipulation: the design’s ability to control exposure to the independent variable and establish causality. This is not met by the cross-sectional design. There is not any control over the exposure of respondents to media coverage of the campaign. Instead,

sampling provides a mix of respondents (“you get whatever you get”) and they must self-report attention, attitudes, etc. Because of this lack of control, there is no way to establish — through the design — which other variables may have contributed to causality.

3. Control: the design’s ability to rule out rival explanations. The cross-sectional design does not rule out rival explanations. Instead the researcher must identify rival explanations and then control for these through statistics.

History is another significant threat to internal validity in that there is only one measurement and no way to control for history. History means that other events occur in addition to the independent variable. For example, gender, race, income, party identification, and political ideology are all rival explanations that are not addressed in the design, but which must be controlled for after-the-fact.

Conversely, an advantage of the design is that external validity is relatively high, and thus, the results of the survey will be somewhat generalizable.

■ **Design limitations.** With a cross-sectional design, it is difficult to confidently pinpoint causation between variables. Correlations may often be the result of spurious relationships. Chaffee et al. (1994) explain:

Channels are not mutually exclusive, and the most informative of them attract the best-informed audiences. Prior knowledge is a strong predictor of voluntary exposure to media information. Education is one antecedent variable that predicts both knowledge and attention to media news. Stringent controls for spuriousness are required when testing specific hypotheses with survey data.

Bartels (1993) said basically the same thing, but was much more critical: "The state of research on media effects is one of the most notable embarrassments of modern social science." He goes on to say "in individual cross-sectional studies, differences in opinions between those exposed to the media and those who remain unexposed may simply reflect pre-existing differences between the two groups in political attitudes or characteristics."

Nonetheless, Bartels still used a cross-sectional design in his examination of three American National Election Study surveys over an eight-month period. After adjusting for measurement error through a statistical process, he found several strong media exposure effects, especially for network television news.

■ **Overcoming limitations.** According to Campbell and Stanley (1963):

Such data are relevant to causal hypotheses inasmuch as they expose them to disconfirmation. If a zero correlation is obtained, the credibility of the hypothesis is lessened. If a high correlation occurs, the credibility of the hypothesis is strengthened in that it has survived a chance of disconfirmation. To put the matter another way, correlation does not necessarily indicate causation, but a causal law of the type producing mean differences in experiments does imply correlation.

The causal interpretation of a simple or a partial correlation depends upon both the presence of a compatible plausible causal hypothesis and the absence of plausible rival hypotheses to explain the correlation upon other grounds. (Campbell & Stanley, 1963)

For this reason, many possible "rival hypotheses" have been included in this study.

IV. Results

Survey population

Surveying during the March primary resulted in 200 completed questionnaires; during the November general election, 554 completed questionnaires were obtained. Thus, the total sample was 754 Knoxville voters. See Table 1.*

General demographic features of the sample are as follows (see Figure 1):

- 52 percent were female (N = 691);
- 86 percent were white (N = 692);
- 41 percent were 18-34 years old, 48 percent were 35-64 years old, and 11 percent were 65 and older (N = 691);
- 29 percent had a household income of less than \$25,000, 16 percent had an income of \$25,000-\$34,999, 20 percent had an income of \$35,000-\$49,999, 20 percent had an income of \$50,000-\$74,999, and 15 percent made \$75,000 or more a year (N = 628);
- 19 percent had completed no more than a high school diploma, 31 percent had completed some college, 28 percent had earned a college degree, and the remainder had completed at least some post-graduate work (N = 688);
- 39 percent identified themselves as Republicans, 33 percent said they were Democrats, 16 percent were Independents, and the remainder answered none or other

*All tables and figures are located in Appendix C.

when asked about political affiliation (N = 678);

- The mean score for ideology for the population was 4.9, where 1 = very conservative, 5 = moderate, and 10 = very liberal (N = 678).

Of the voters surveyed during the March primary, 25 percent voted for Clinton, 45 percent voted for Dole, and 30 percent voted for another candidate (N = 151). Of the voters surveyed during the November general election, 50 percent voted for Clinton, 40 percent voted for Dole, and 10 percent voted for another candidate (N = 472).

In regard to media reliance, respondents were asked which one source they relied on the most for information about the presidential candidates. Thirty-two percent said TV news reports, 19 percent said newspaper articles, 13 percent said TV talk shows (when a candidate is interviewed), 11 percent said discussions with friends and co-workers, and 25 percent said some other media (either magazine articles, radio news, talk radio, the Internet, political advertisements, or other) (N = 608).

Because all respondents were voters, it was not surprising that 74 percent said they were very interested in the presidential campaign, while 24 percent said they were somewhat interested, and only 2 percent said they were not at all interested (N = 734).

Attention to media

Research Question 1 asked: What are the predictors associated with attention to alternative media among voters?

First, it is necessary to address the fact that attention to alternative media was — as expected — much lower than attention to traditional media. The highest mean level of attention to any alternative media was 1.69 for morning news/talk shows, followed by a mean of 1.48 for political TV talk shows (4 = watched/read/listened to five or more days a week, 3 = three to four days a week, 2 = one to two days a week, 1 = one to three days a month, 0 = never or no response; N = 734). This is compared to the evening news where the mean attention was 3.1 (See Figure 2).

■ **Alternative media index.** When responses to the alternative media attention questions were indexed and cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between the alternative media index and race ($p = .0306$), age ($p < .0001$), and education ($p = .0033$). See Table 2.

Generally speaking, of those who answered the race question (N = 692), minorities were more likely to pay a high amount of attention to alternative media than were white respondents. Additionally, of those who answered the age question (N = 691), those aged 18-34 were more likely to have high attention to alternative media than the other age groups. In fact, those aged 65 and older were the most likely of any group to have low attention to alternative media.

■ **Traditional media index.** When responses to the traditional media attention questions were indexed and cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between the traditional media index and sex ($p = .0117$), age ($p =$

.0203), income ($p < .0001$), education ($p < .0001$), party ($p = .0226$), and ideology ($p < .0001$). See Table 3.

For instance, of those who responded to the ideology question ($N = 676$), liberals were much more likely to pay a high amount of attention to traditional media than were conservatives. Specifically, 41 percent of liberals scored high on the attention to traditional media index, compared to only 20 percent of conservatives.

Similarly, respondents with a post-graduate education were more likely to have a high attention to traditional media than were respondents with only a high school education; and, respondents from upper-income households were more likely to have a high attention to traditional media than were those from lower-income households.

■ **Media preference.** To take these two indexes a step further, a formula was designed to force respondents into either alternative media preference or traditional media preference categories. Preference to alternative media was defined as: a) high attention to alternative media, low attention to traditional media; b) high attention to alternative media, medium attention to traditional media; or c) medium attention to alternative media, low attention to traditional media. The opposite of this formula was used to define preference for traditional media. The outcome was 47 percent showed a preference for alternative media, and 53 percent showed a preference for traditional media ($N = 435$). Those respondents who had the same attention index for both alternative and traditional media (for example, high attention to alternative media and high attention to traditional media) were not included.

When media preference was cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between preference and age ($p < .0001$), income ($p < .0001$), education ($p < .0001$) and ideology ($p = .0001$). See Table 4.

Specifically, respondents aged 34 and younger were almost twice as likely to prefer alternative media than were respondents aged 65 and older. The majority (65 percent) of respondents aged 35 and older fell into the traditional media preference category.

Lower-income respondents were twice as likely than upper-income respondents to show a preference for alternative media. Respondents with a high school diploma or less were three times as likely to show a preference for alternative media than post-graduates.

Finally, the majority of conservatives (63 percent) showed a preference for alternative media, while the majority of liberals (57 percent) and moderates (62 percent) showed a preference for traditional media.

For cross tabulations of attention to individual alternative media by demographic variables, see Tables 5-13. For cross tabulations of attention to individual traditional media, see Tables 14-17.

Attitudes toward media

Research Question 2 asked: Do voters have positive or negative attitudes toward alternative media in the context of a presidential campaign?

There were six attitude questions regarding the media. For each one, respondents

could answer on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. The mean scores for the survey population fell around 3 — the center of the scale — on all of the six attitude questions. The mean furthest from the center (3.80) was for Attitude F (Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidates as his answers to any given issue question). Thus, in general terms, the survey population as a whole did not express strong attitudes either for or against alternative media.

However, when means were compared (using a t test) based on media preferences, differences emerged. See Figure 3. Respondents who showed a preference for traditional media were more likely to disagree with all six of the attitude statements.

Furthermore, when responses to the six attitude questions were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, differences in attitudes were again apparent.

Research Question 3 asked: What are the predictors associated with attitudes toward alternative media among voters?

■ **Attitude A.** *When a candidate appears on MTV or in Rolling Stone magazine, it trivializes the political process.*

The mean score for this statement was 2.79 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Forty-two percent of respondents said they disagree or strongly disagree with the statement; 29 percent were neutral; and, 29 percent agreed or strongly agreed.

When responses to Attitude A were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between Attitude A and race ($p = .0128$), age ($p < .0001$), income ($p = .0072$), party ($p < .0001$), ideology ($p < .0001$), and vote choice ($p < .0001$).

See Table 18.

Of those who answered the age question (N = 691), 43 percent of those aged 18-34 and 40 percent of those aged 35-64 said they disagreed or strongly disagreed that candidate appearances on MTV or in *Rolling Stone* magazine trivialize the political process; both groups were more than twice as likely to disagree than were those aged 65 and older. Older voters were more likely to think that candidate appearances in alternative media, such as MTV or *Rolling Stone* magazine, trivialized the political process (36 percent), or else they did not respond to the Attitude A question (25 percent).

Of those who answered the ideology question (N = 676), 61 percent of those who identified themselves as liberal either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the Attitude A statement, compared to only 28 percent of conservatives and 35 percent of moderates who disagreed or strongly disagreed. Similar differences were found between Democrats and Republicans, and Clinton voters and Dole voters.

In order to find whether these correlations held up when controlling for respondents who do not watch MTV, a subset of the population was examined that included only MTV viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching MTV at least 1-3 days per month, N = 183). Overall, 51 percent of those who watch MTV either disagreed or strongly disagreed that a candidate appearance on MTV trivializes the political process; 35 percent were neutral; and, 14 percent agreed or strongly agreed that it trivialized the political process.

In this subset, statistical significance held up with ideology and vote choice

correlations. Among MTV viewers, conservatives agreed twice as often as moderates and three times as often as liberals that appearances on MTV trivialized the political process. Additionally, a correlation was found with age. The majority of males (66 percent) disagreed or strongly disagreed with Attitude A, while only 37 percent of females disagreed or strongly disagreed. See Table 19.

■ **Attitude B.** *The evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations.*

The mean score for this statement was 2.55 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Fifty-four percent of respondents said they disagree or strongly disagree with the statement; 23 percent were neutral; and, 23 percent agreed or strongly agreed.

When responses to Attitude B were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between Attitude B and race ($p = .0080$), age ($p = .0003$), and education ($p = .0001$). See Table 20.

Of those who answered the education question ($N = 688$), 34 percent of those with no more than a high school diploma agreed or strongly agreed that the evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations; they were nearly twice as likely to agree with the statement than post-graduates. Still, even 17 percent of those with a post-graduate education and 20 percent of those with a college education either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, indicating that a minority of voters do hold negative attitudes toward the traditional media.

In order to find whether these correlations held up when controlling for respondents

who do not pay attention to traditional media, a subset of the population was examined that included only those respondents who were described as having “high” attention to traditional media (N = 214). Overall, 64 percent of those who pay a high amount of attention to traditional media either disagreed or strongly disagreed that the evening news and newspapers don’t provide any useful candidate information; 20 percent were neutral; and, 16 percent agreed or strongly agreed that there wasn’t any useful information.

In this subset, statistical significance held up with race. Among traditional media users, white respondents were more likely to disagree than minority respondents. See Table 21.

■ **Attitude C.** *Talk show hosts, like Donahue and Larry King, ask the candidates better questions than reporters.*

The mean score for this statement was 2.90 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Thirty-six percent of respondents said they disagree or strongly disagree with the statement; 31 percent were neutral; and, 33 percent agreed or strongly agreed.

When responses to Attitude C were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between Attitude C and age ($p < .0001$), education ($p = .0213$), party ($p = .0092$), and ideology ($p = .0035$). See Table 22.

Specifically, of those who answered the education question (N = 688), 37 percent of those with no more than a high school diploma agreed or strongly agreed that talk show hosts ask the candidates better questions than reporters; while just 21 percent of those with a post-graduate education either agreed or strongly agreed.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only daytime talk show viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching daytime talk shows at least 1-3 days per month, N = 262), none of the correlations held up statistically.

■ **Attitude D.** *Citizens on televised town-hall meetings ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.*

The mean score for this statement was 3.37 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Twenty-one percent of respondents said they disagree or strongly disagree with the statement; 32 percent were neutral; and, 47 percent agreed or strongly agreed.

When responses to Attitude D were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant only between Attitude D and age ($p = .0229$). See Table 23.

Specifically, of those who answered the age question (N = 691), older voters aged 65 and up were slightly more likely to disagree than younger voters aged 18 to 34 that citizens ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.

■ **Attitude E.** *The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.*

The mean score for this statement was 2.72 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Thirty-nine percent of respondents said they disagree or strongly disagree with the statement; 38 percent were neutral; and, 23 percent agreed or strongly agreed.

When responses to Attitude E were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics,

the chi-square was significant between Attitude E and sex ($p = .0441$), age ($p < .0001$), and education ($p = .0043$). See Table 24.

Specifically, of those who answered the sex question ($N = 691$), 40 percent of men disagreed or strongly disagreed that the most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate; whereas, only 28 percent of women disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only Internet users (note: users were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported "surfing" the Internet at least 1-3 days a month, $N = 247$), the correlation with sex held up. Among Internet users overall, only 26 percent agreed or strongly agreed that the most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages. See Table 25.

■ **Attitude F.** *Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidates as his answers to any given issue question.*

The mean score for this statement was 3.80 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Sixteen percent of respondents said they disagree or strongly disagree with the statement; 16 percent were neutral; and, 68 percent agreed or strongly agreed.

When responses to Attitude F were cross-tabulated with demographic characteristics, the chi-square was significant between Attitude F and sex ($p = .0393$), race ($p = .0128$), age ($p = .0058$), education ($p = .0151$), party ($p = .0075$), ideology ($p < .0001$), and vote choice ($p = .0010$). See Table 26.

Of those who answered the question on ideology ($N = 676$), 75 percent of conservatives agreed or strongly agreed that behavior and personality are just as important as issue questions; this is compared to 48 percent of liberals who agreed or strongly agreed, and 66 percent of moderates who agreed or strongly agreed.

Attitudes may also be evident in how a respondent measures the amount of useful candidate information on a particular medium. The survey question asked: How much useful candidate information do you get from the following [media]?

■ **Internet.** Only 9 percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from the Internet; 74 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 17 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the usefulness of the Internet and demographics revealed three relationships where the chi-square was significant — age ($p < .0001$), education ($p = .0008$), and ideology ($p = .0110$). See Table 27.

To control for respondents who do not pay attention to the Internet and for that reason would not get any useful candidate information from it, a subset of the population was examined that included only Internet users (note: users were broadly defined to include all respondents who said they “surf” the Internet at least 1-3 days a month, $N = 227$). Within this subset, just under a third of respondents (32 percent) said they did not get any useful candidate information from the Internet. Also, respondents in this subset who voted for a candidate other than Clinton or Dole were more likely to get useful candidate information from the Internet compared to Clinton voters and Dole voters. See Table 28.

■ **Evening news.** Sixty-one percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from the evening news; 14 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 25 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the usefulness of the evening news and demographics revealed five relationships where the chi-square was significant — sex ($p = .0397$), race ($p = .0354$), age ($p = .0003$), income ($p = .0353$), and education ($p = .0008$). See Table 29.

Overall, lesser-educated respondents and those aged 65 and up were most likely to get “very much” useful candidate information from the evening news. Other respondents did not give the evening news quite as high marks. Specifically, 43 percent of respondents with no more than a high school diploma said they got “very much” information from the evening news; but only 28 percent of post-graduates got “very much” information. Post-graduates were more likely (40 percent) to say they got “some” useful information.

To control for respondents who do not pay attention to the evening news, a subset of the population was examined that included evening news viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching the news at least 1-3 days a month, $N = 623$). In this subset, all of the same correlations held except for race. Among evening news viewers, 70 percent said they get “some” or “very much” useful candidate information from it. See Table 30.

■ **Daily newspaper.** More than half (59 percent) of respondents said either they got

“some” or “very much” useful information from newspapers; 16 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 25 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the usefulness of a daily newspaper and demographics revealed four relationships where the chi-square was significant — sex ($p = .0205$), race ($p = .0167$), age ($p = .0014$), and education ($p = .0025$). See Table 31.

Similar to the outcome with the evening news, post-graduates were least likely to say they got “very much” information from newspapers, but were the most likely to say they got “some” information.

However, when a subset of the population was examined that included only newspaper readers (note: readers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported reading a daily newspaper at least 1-3 days a month, $N = 600$), the correlation with education did not hold up statistically; but, the correlations with sex and age did. Among newspaper readers, 71 percent said they got “some” or “very much” useful candidate information from newspapers. See Table 32.

■ **News magazine.** About one-third (37 percent) of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from news magazines; 34 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 29 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the usefulness of news magazines and demographics revealed three relationships with a significant chi-square — age ($p = .0003$), income ($p = .0167$), and education ($p < .0001$). See Table 33.

News magazines had different relationships with the education, age and income variables than did newspapers and the evening news. Higher-educated, middle-aged and upper-income respondents were the most likely to get “very much” and “some” useful candidate information from news magazines.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only news magazine readers (note: readers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported reading news magazines at least occasionally, $N = 439$), the correlation with education was still significant; but, the relationships with income and age did not hold up. Among news magazine readers, just more than half (53 percent) said they got “some” or “very much” useful candidate information from news magazines. See Table 34.

■ **NPR.** A third (33 percent) of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from NPR; 44 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 23 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the usefulness of NPR and demographics revealed five relationships where the chi-square was significant — race ($p = .0097$), age ($p < .0001$), education ($p < .0001$), ideology ($p < .0001$), and vote choice ($p = .0004$). See Table 35.

Specifically, higher-educated respondents, liberals and Clinton voters were the most likely to get “very much” useful candidate information from NPR; conservatives were the most likely to get no useful information.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only NPR listeners (note:

listeners were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported listening to NPR at least 1-3 times a month, $N = 349$), all of the same correlations held except for race and age. Thus, even among NPR listeners, liberals were two times more likely than conservatives and moderates to get “very much” useful information from NPR. Among NPR listeners, 62 percent said they got “some” or “very much” useful candidate information from NPR. See Table 36.

A related survey question asked: How much does a candidate interview ... on each of the following ... contribute to your overall evaluation of the candidate’s image?

■ **“Larry King Live.”** Nineteen percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from Larry King; 52 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 29 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the contribution of “Larry King Live” and demographics revealed three relationships with a significant chi-square — age ($p < .0001$), income ($p = .0312$), and education ($p = .0303$). See Table 37.

Specifically, college-educated and upper-income respondents were the most likely to say Larry King contributed “very much” or “some” to their evaluation of candidates. However, nearly half of the respondents reported that Larry King didn’t contribute at all to their evaluation (41 percent) or else they did not respond to the question (7 percent).

To control for respondents who do not pay attention to Larry King, a subset of the population was examined that included only Larry King viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching “Larry King Live” at

least 1-3 times a month, N = 198). The correlation with education held up statistically but with different results. College-educated respondents were no longer more likely to say the show contributed “very much” and “some” information. Instead, among Larry King viewers, those with no more than a high school diploma were more likely than the college-educated and twice as likely as post-graduates to say it contributed “very much” information. Among Larry King viewers overall, less than half (48 percent) said they got “some” or “very much” useful candidate information from the show. See Table 38.

■ **MTV.** Only 9 percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from the MTV; 67 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 24 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the contribution of MTV and demographics revealed seven relationships where the chi-square was significant — race ($p = .0317$), age ($p < .0001$), income ($p = .0055$), education ($p = .0072$), party ($p = .0085$), ideology ($p = .0207$), and vote choice ($p = .0067$). See Table 39.

Specifically, respondents who were the most likely to say MTV contributed “very much” or “some” information were young, college-educated, upper-income, liberals, but also those who reported no political party affiliation. Still, more than half of the respondents reported that MTV didn’t contribute any information (52 percent) or else they did not respond to the question (12 percent).

But, when a subset of the population was examined that included only MTV viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching

MTV at least 1-3 times a month, $N = 180$), less than one-third (29 percent) reported that MTV didn't contribute any information; about two-thirds said these it contributed at least "a little" to their candidate evaluation. The correlations with party, ideology and vote choice held up statistically, but with slightly different results for party. Democrats were more likely to say that MTV contributed at least "some" information. See Table 40.

■ **Political TV talk shows.** Forty-five percent of respondents said either they got "some" or "very much" useful information from the political TV talk shows; 27 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 28 percent fell in between "some" and "none." Cross-tabulations between the contribution of political talk shows and demographics revealed one relationship where the chi-square was significant — age ($p < .0001$). See Table 41.

Although the relationship between age and contribution of political talk shows was significant, there wasn't much difference between the age categories except that older voters were more likely to not answer the question.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only political talk show viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching political talk shows at least 1-3 times a month), there were no statistically significant correlations.

■ **Morning news/talk shows.** Thirty-seven percent of respondents said either they got "some" or "very much" useful information from the morning news/talk shows; 32 percent

said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 31 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the contribution of morning news/talk shows and demographics revealed six relationships where the chi-square was significant — sex ($p = .0004$), race ($p = .0483$), age ($p < .0001$), income ($p = .0195$), education ($p < .0001$), and vote choice ($p = .0019$). See Table 42.

Specifically, females, minorities, upper-income respondents and Clinton voters were the most likely to say morning news/talk shows contributed at least “some” to their evaluation of candidates. Overall, about three-quarters of the respondents said these shows contributed at least “a little” to their candidate evaluation.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only morning show viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching morning/news talk shows at least 1-3 times a month, $N = 418$), 59 percent said morning news/talk shows contributed at least “some” or “very much” information. The correlations with sex, income and vote choice held up statistically; but, race, age and education did not hold up. See Table 43.

■ **Daytime TV talk shows.** Fifteen percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from the daytime TV talk shows; 55 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 30 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the contribution of daytime talk shows and demographics revealed seven relationships where the chi-square was significant — sex ($p < .0001$), race ($p < .0001$), age ($p < .0001$),

income ($p = .0003$), education ($p < .0001$), party ($p = .0025$), and vote choice ($p = .0109$).

See Table 44.

Specifically, females, minorities, lower-income respondents, lower-educated respondents and democrats were the most likely to say daytime talk shows contributed at least “some” to their evaluation of candidates. But nearly half of respondents said daytime talk shows didn’t contribute anything (44 percent) or else they did not respond to the question (7 percent).

But, when a subset of the population was examined that included only daytime talk show viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching daytime talk shows at least 1-3 times a month, $N = 262$), only 17 percent said daytime talk shows didn’t contribute anything to their evaluations.

Nonetheless, only the correlation with race held up. See Table 45.

■ **Late night TV talk shows.** Twelve percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from late night TV talk shows; 56 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 32 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the contribution of late night talk shows and demographics revealed five relationships where the chi-square was significant — race ($p = .0007$), age ($p < .0001$), income ($p < .0001$), education ($p = .0013$), and ideology ($p = .0216$). See Table 46.

Nearly half of respondents said late night talk shows didn’t contribute anything (44 percent) or else they did not respond to the question (8 percent). Minorities, younger

respondents, lower-income respondents, lower-educated respondents and liberals were more likely to say late night talk shows contributed at least “a little” to their evaluations.

When a subset of the population was examined that included only late night viewers (note: viewers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported watching late night talk shows at least 1-3 times a month, $N = 327$), 25 percent said late night talk shows didn’t contribute anything to their evaluations. Among those who watch these shows, the correlations with education and ideology held up. See Table 47.

■ **Popular magazines.** Twelve percent of respondents said either they got “some” or “very much” useful information from popular magazines; 57 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 31 percent fell in between “some” and “none.” Cross-tabulations between the contribution of popular magazines and demographics revealed seven relationships with a significant chi-square — race ($p < .0001$), age ($p < .0001$), income ($p = .0114$), education ($p = .0033$), party ($p < .0001$), ideology ($p < .0001$), and vote choice ($p = .0004$). See Table 48.

Minorities, younger, lower-income respondents, lower-educated respondents, liberals and Clinton voters were more likely to say popular magazines contributed at least “some” to their evaluations. But, nearly half of respondents said popular magazines didn’t contribute anything (46 percent) or else they did not respond to the question (8 percent).

When a subset of the population was examined that included only popular magazine readers (note: readers were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported reading popular magazines at least occasionally, $N = 302$), 21 percent said popular

magazines didn't contribute anything to their evaluations. Among those who watch these shows, the correlations with race, party, ideology and vote choice held up. See Table 49.

■ **Talk radio.** Twenty-three percent of respondents said either they got "some" or "very much" useful information from talk radio; 50 percent said either they got no useful information or else they did not answer the question; the remaining 27 percent fell in between "some" and "none." Cross-tabulations between the contribution of talk radio and demographics revealed five relationships where the chi-square was significant — age ($p < .0001$), education ($p = .0137$), party ($p < .0001$), ideology ($p < .0001$), and vote choice ($p < .0001$). See Table 50.

Older respondents, republicans, conservatives and respondents who voted for a candidate other than Clinton were more likely to say talk radio contributed at least "some" to their evaluations. Respondents with no more than a high school education were most likely to say talk radio contributed "very much;" but, college-educated respondents were more likely to say talk radio contributed at least "a little" to their evaluations. About a third of respondents said talk radio didn't contribute anything (39 percent).

When a subset of the population was examined that included only talk radio listeners (note: listeners were broadly defined to include all respondents who reported listening to talk radio at least 1-3 days a month, $N = 288$), only 10 percent said talk radio didn't contribute anything to their evaluations. Among those who listen to these shows, the correlations with education, ideology and vote choice held up. See Table 51.

V. Conclusions

This study supports the notion that alternative media play an increasingly important role in political campaigns as a source from which voters gather candidate information.

Most survey respondents continue to look to the traditional media for their primary source of candidate information in a presidential campaign. When media are compared individually, respondents paid the most attention by far to the evening television newscasts and daily newspapers. However, morning news/talk shows and political TV talk shows were not too far behind. And when respondents were asked which one media source they relied on the most for candidate information, TV talk shows were mentioned the third most often — just behind TV news reports and newspaper articles. Additionally, other alternative media such as the Internet and talk radio grab the attention of certain segments of voters.

Although the rise of alternative media during the 1992 Presidential campaign seemed to correlate with increased voter turnout, there is no causal relationship between the two. While alternative media maintained a noticeable presence in the 1996 Presidential campaign, voter turnout dropped significantly. Only about 49 percent of the registered electorate voted for president in November 1996, down six points from 1992 (Randall, 1996).

Alternative media

■ **Alternative media and ideology.** Conservatives had an unusual combination of attention to alternative media and attitudes toward it. The majority of conservatives (63 percent) showed a preference for alternative media. They especially paid a high amount of attention to talk radio and were most likely to say talk radio contributed very much information to their candidate evaluations.

Nonetheless, conservatives were far more likely to agree or strongly agree that candidate appearances on alternative media like MTV or *Rolling Stone* magazine trivialized the political process.

A demonstrated preference for alternative media coupled with the attitude that some alternative media trivialize the political process suggests that conservatives do not consider all alternative media to be equal. Thus, it is all the more important for researchers to include and clearly define all types of media when studying voter attitudes.

■ **The Internet and vote choice.** Findings indicated that voters are gradually paying more attention to the Internet; and, among Internet users, those interested in minor or third-party candidates are most likely to find the Internet very useful.

Specifically, 71 percent of respondents who answered the computer question (N = 675) said they have access to a computer; nearly half (45 percent) said they have access to the Internet; and 25 percent said they “surf” the Internet at least once a week. These findings are consistent with Freedom Forum surveys before and after the election, which

indicated 28 percent of U.S. voters were online at some point during the 1996 campaign (Powell, 1997).

Furthermore, among those who surf the Internet at least 1-3 days a month (N=227), those who voted for a candidate other than Clinton or Dole were most likely to get very much useful information from the Internet. This finding may be attributed in part to less information in the traditional media about minor candidates. Thus, interested voters must rely more on alternative media to find information about candidates like Pat Buchanan and Ross Perot.

■ **Media preference and younger voters.** Younger voters are especially involved with the emerging alternative media. The majority (63 percent) of respondents aged 34 and younger showed a preference for alternative media. They were the most likely to show high or medium attention to alternative media and medium or low attention to traditional media — the opposite of all other age groups.

As an example, 38 percent of respondents aged 35 to 64 pay a high amount of attention to traditional media, and only 27 percent of younger respondents aged 18 to 34 pay that much attention to traditional media. For alternative media the numbers are reversed — 39 percent of younger respondents aged 18 to 34 pay a high amount of attention to alternative media, and 30 percent of respondents aged 35 to 64 pay that much attention to alternative media.

Considering alternative media individually, younger voters were more likely to pay more attention to MTV, late night TV shows, popular magazines, and the Internet; and,

they were more likely than other age groups to say these media contributed “very much” or “some” information to their candidate evaluations.

■ **Media preference and attitudes.** Those respondents who showed a preference for alternative media were slightly more likely to agree — compared to those with a preference for traditional media — that the evening news and daily newspapers don’t provide any useful candidate information (Attitude B), that talk show hosts ask the candidates better questions than reporters (Attitude C), that citizens on town-hall meetings ask better questions than talk show hosts and reporters (Attitude D), and that the most useful information comes directly from a candidate (Attitude E).

Even this slight tilt toward these attitudes signifies why some voters may be turning to alternative media more, at least as a supplement to traditional media.

■ **Other findings.** Other findings about alternative media confirm those of previous studies in which similar measures were used. For instance:

- Forty-six percent of respondents aged 35 to 64 watch a political TV talk show at least once a week.
- Thirty-eight percent of respondents aged 35 to 64 watch morning news/talk shows at least three days a week.
- When looking at attention to morning news/talk shows, the respondents’ mean score was 1.696 (2 = 1-2 days a week) — the highest among the alternative media.
- Frequent talk radio listeners were slightly more likely to be male, more likely to

have a college education, and more likely to be conservative and Republican than non-listeners.

- Those who frequently surf the Internet were more likely to be college educated.

Traditional media

■ **Usefulness of traditional media among users.** For providing useful candidate information, traditional media had more support than alternative media from their respective users.

For example, 71 percent of newspaper readers said they got “very much” or “some” useful candidate information from newspapers, and 70 percent of evening news viewers said they got “very much” or “some” useful information from the news.

Conversely, only 59 percent of morning news/talk show viewers said they got “very much” or “some” useful candidate information from those shows, and 49 percent of talk radio listeners said they got “very much” or “some” useful information from the talk radio.

■ **Traditional media and ideology.** Liberals continue to depend on traditional media far more than conservatives. Liberals were much more likely to pay a lot of attention to traditional media than were conservatives. Specifically, 41 percent of liberals scored high on the attention to traditional media index, compared to only 20 percent of conservatives who had a high score. Most dramatically, nearly half of liberals (46 percent) listen to

NPR at least 3-4 days a week, while only 15 percent of conservatives listen as often.

This difference between liberals and conservatives in attention to traditional media could be based on the perception among conservatives that the traditional media have a liberal bias.

Survey population

The survey population used in this study is fairly representative of Knoxville voters as a whole. Of the voters surveyed during the November general election, 50 percent said they voted for Clinton, 40 percent reported a vote for Dole, and 10 percent indicated they voted for another candidate (N = 472). For those same voting locations, election results were 53 percent for Clinton and 38 percent for Dole. Thus, the findings of this survey population closely reflect the outcome in those areas polled.

Compared to the demographics of Knoxville citizens as a whole, these survey respondents make more money and are better educated; however, they have similar breakdowns for male/female, white/minority, and age. According to 1990 census data, demographic characteristics of the city of Knoxville (population 165,121) include:

- 53 percent female (compared to 52 percent of respondents);
- 83 percent white (compared to 86 percent of respondents);
- of the 1990 census population 18 years or older (N = 132,382), 22 percent were aged 25-34 (compared to 24 percent of respondents), 16.3 percent were aged 35-44

(compared to 23 percent of respondents), 21 percent were aged 45-64 (compared to 25 percent of respondents);

- of the 1990 Knoxville households (N = 69,973), 60 percent had a household income of \$25,000 or less (compared to 29 percent of respondents), 15 percent had a household income of \$25,000-\$34,999 (compared to 16 percent of respondents), 13 percent had a household income of \$35,000-\$49,999 (compared to 20 percent of respondents), 8 percent had a household income of \$50,000-\$74,999 (compared to 20 percent of respondents), and 4 percent had a household income of \$75,000 or more (compared to 15 percent of respondents);

- 22 percent had completed a college degree or higher (compared to 49 percent of respondents).

It is important to note, however, that the higher levels of education and income reflected in the survey respondents are consistent with higher levels of education and income among voters compared to citizens as a whole. The National Election Studies, for instance, found that among 1994 voters, 50 percent had completed at least some college, and 33 percent had a family income of \$45,000 or more.

Future research

The findings of this study strongly support the idea that alternative media should continue to be considered in voting behavior and campaign research. Further exploration

in this area would generate a much clearer picture of the attention and attitudes of the population as a whole.

Although many results in the present study are consistent with previous research, the new and original findings are not generalizable to a broad population. Moreover, while exit interviews were the preferred method of research for this study, future research in this area might include phone surveys conducted prior to the election to allow a comparison of attention and attitudes between voters and non-voters.

It is hoped that future researchers continue to include a wide spectrum of clearly defined alternative media when studying voting behavior.

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Appendices

Appendix A

March Questionnaire

Informed Consent: This survey is to find out how you feel about candidate appearances on different types of media. Your answers will be completely anonymous and will be reported only as aggregate results for a graduate thesis requirement. You may decline to answer any questions and may withdraw at anytime. Completion of this survey constitutes your consent to participate.

1. From which of the following sources do you get information about presidential candidates? (circle all that apply)

- a) tv news reports b) tv talk show (interview with a candidate) c) newspaper articles
d) magazine articles e) radio news f) talk radio
g) the Internet h) political advertisements i) discussions with friends and co-workers

2. Upon which ONE do you rely MOST for information about the candidates? (circle ONE)

- a) tv news reports b) tv talk show (interview with a candidate) c) newspaper articles
d) magazine articles e) radio news f) talk radio
g) the Internet h) political advertisements i) discussions with friends and co-workers

3. How interested are you in the current presidential campaign?

- a) not at all interested b) somewhat interested c) very interested

4. In the past month, how often did you watch, read, or listen to each of the following ...

	5 OR MORE DAYS PER WEEK	3-4 DAYS PER WEEK	1-2 DAYS PER WEEK	1-3 DAYS PER MONTH	NEVER
a) evening news (<i>network or CNN</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
b) a daily newspaper	5	4	3	2	1
c) Newsweek, Time, US News	5	4	3	2	1
d) National Public Radio (NPR)	5	4	3	2	1
e) Larry King Live	5	4	3	2	1
f) MTV	5	4	3	2	1
g) political talk shows (<i>like Nightline, This Week With David Brinkley, Face the Nation, Meet the Press, Crossfire</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
h) morning news/talk shows (<i>like Good Morning America, CBS This Morning, The Today Show</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
i) daytime talk shows (<i>like Donahue, Oprah</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
j) late night talk shows (<i>like David Letterman, Jay Leno, Saturday Night Live</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
k) popular magazines (<i>like Rolling Stone, Spin, GQ, Esquire, Ebony, Jet, Working Woman</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
l) talk radio (<i>like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver North, Maurio Cuomo</i>)	5	4	3	2	1

5. Do you subscribe to cable? yes no

6. Do you have access to a computer? yes no (if no, skip to *9)

7. Do you have access to the Internet? yes no (if no, skip to *9)

8. In the past month, how often did you "surf" the Internet?

5 OR MORE DAYS PER WEEK	3-4 DAYS PER WEEK	1-2 DAYS PER WEEK	1-3 DAYS PER MONTH	NEVER
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9. For each of the following statements, indicate if you strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, or are unsure.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNSURE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a) When a candidate appears on MTV or in Rolling Stone magazine, it trivializes the political process.	5	4	3	2	1
b) The evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations.	5	4	3	2	1
c) Talk show hosts, like Donahue and Larry King, ask the candidates better questions than reporters.	5	4	3	2	1
d) Citizens on televised town-hall meetings ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.	5	4	3	2	1
e) The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.	5	4	3	2	1
f) Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidate as his answers to any given issue question.	5	4	3	2	1

10. How much useful candidate information do you get from each of the following ...

	VERY MUCH	SOME	UNSURE	A LITTLE	NONE
a) the Internet	5	4	3	2	1
b) evening news (<i>network or CNN</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
c) a daily newspaper	5	4	3	2	1
d) Newsweek, Time or US News	5	4	3	2	1
e) National Public Radio (NPR)	5	4	3	2	1

11. How much does a candidate interview ... on each of the following ... contribute to your overall evaluation of the candidate's image?

	VERY MUCH	SOMEWHAT	UNSURE	A LITTLE	NO EFFECT
a) Larry King Live	5	4	3	2	1
b) MTV	5	4	3	2	1
c) political talk shows (like Nightline, This Week With David Brinkley, Face the Nation, Meet the Press, Crossfire)	5	4	3	2	1
d) morning news/talk shows (like Good Morning America, CBS This Morning, The Today Show)	5	4	3	2	1
e) daytime talk shows (like Donahue, Opera)	5	4	3	2	1
f) late night talk shows (like David Letterman, Jay Leno, Saturday Night Live)	5	4	3	2	1
g) popular magazines (like Rolling Stone, Spin, GQ, Esquire, Ebony, Jet, Working Woman)	5	4	3	2	1
h) talk radio (like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver North, Maurio Cuomo)	5	4	3	2	1

12. What is your sex? a) male b) female

13. What is your race? a) White b) African American c) Hispanic d) Asian American
e) American Indian f) Other

14. How old are you? a) 18-20 b) 21-24 c) 25-34 d) 35-44 e) 45-64 f) 65 and over

15. What is your household income level? a) \$24,999 or less b) \$25,000 - \$34,999
c) \$35,000 - \$49,999 d) \$50,000 - \$74,999 e) \$75,000 - \$99,999 f) \$100,000 or more

16. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

a) some high school b) high school degree c) some college d) college degree e) post-graduate

17. What is your political affiliation, if any?

a) republican b) democrat c) independent d) none e) other

18. Where do you fall on a conservative/liberal scale?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
very conservative moderate very liberal

19. Who did you vote for today? _____

20. Did you vote in the 1992 presidential election? yes no not eligible to vote

21. Did you vote in the 1988 presidential election? yes no not eligible to vote

Appendix B

November Questionnaire

Informed Consent: This survey is to find out how you feel about candidate appearances on different types of media. Your answers will be completely anonymous and will be reported only as aggregate results for a graduate thesis requirement. You may decline to answer any questions and may withdraw at anytime. Completion of this survey constitutes your consent to participate.

1. From which of the following sources do you get information about presidential candidates? (circle all that apply)

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------------------|
| a) tv news reports | b) tv talk show (interview with a candidate) | c) newspaper articles |
| d) magazine articles | e) radio news | f) talk radio |
| h) political advertisements | i) discussions with friends and co-workers | g) the Internet |
| | | j) other |

2. Upon which ONE do you rely MOST for information about the candidates? (circle ONE)

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------------------|
| a) tv news reports | b) tv talk show (interview with a candidate) | c) newspaper articles |
| d) magazine articles | e) radio news | f) talk radio |
| h) political advertisements | i) discussions with friends and co-workers | g) the Internet |
| | | j) other |

3. How interested are you in the current presidential campaign?

- | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| a) not at all interested | b) somewhat interested | c) very interested |
|--------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|

4. In the past month, how often did you watch, read, or listen to each of the following ...

	5 OR MORE DAYS PER WEEK	3-4 DAYS PER WEEK	1-2 DAYS PER WEEK	1-3 DAYS PER MONTH	NEVER
a) evening news (<i>network or CNN</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
b) a daily newspaper	5	4	3	2	1
c) National Public Radio (NPR)	5	4	3	2	1
d) Larry King Live	5	4	3	2	1
e) MTV	5	4	3	2	1
f) political talk shows (<i>like Nightline, This Week With David Brinkley, Face the Nation, Meet the Press, Crossfire</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
g) morning news/talk shows (<i>like Good Morning America, CBS This Morning, The Today Show</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
h) daytime talk shows (<i>like Donahue, Oprah</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
i) late night talk shows (<i>like David Letterman, Jay Leno, Saturday Night Live</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
j) talk radio (<i>like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver North, Mario Cuomo</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
k) Newsweek, Time, US News	EVERY WEEK	TWICE A MONTH	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	
l) popular magazines (<i>like Rolling Stone, Spin, GQ, Esquire, Ebony, Jet, Working Woman</i>)	EVERY WEEK	TWICE A MONTH	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER	

5. Do you subscribe to cable? yes no

6. Do you have access to a computer? yes no (if no, skip to #9)

7. Do you have access to the Internet? yes no (if no, skip to #9)

8. In the past month, how often did you "surf" the Internet?

5 OR MORE DAYS 3-4 DAYS 1-2 DAYS 1-3 DAYS NEVER
PER WEEK PER WEEK PER WEEK PER MONTH

9. For each of the following statements, indicate where you fall on a scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree.

STRONGLY AGREE ← → STRONGLY DISAGREE

a) When a candidate appears on MTV or in Rolling Stone magazine, it trivializes the political process.

5 4 3 2 1

b) The evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations.

5 4 3 2 1

c) Talk show hosts, like Donahue and Larry King, ask the candidates better questions than reporters.

5 4 3 2 1

d) Citizens on televised town-hall meetings ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.

5 4 3 2 1

e) The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.

5 4 3 2 1

f) Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidate as his answers to any given issue question.

5 4 3 2 1

10. How much useful candidate information do you get from each of the following ...

VERY MUCH ← → NONE

a) the Internet	5	4	3	2	1
b) evening news (<i>network or CNN</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
c) a daily newspaper	5	4	3	2	1
d) Newsweek, Time or US News	5	4	3	2	1
e) National Public Radio (NPR)	5	4	3	2	1

11. How much does a candidate interview ... on each of the following ... contribute to your overall evaluation of the candidate's image?

	VERY MUCH	←————→			NO EFFECT
a) Larry King Live	5	4	3	2	1
b) MTV	5	4	3	2	1
c) political talk shows (like Nightline, This Week With David Brinkley, Face the Nation, Meet the Press, Crossfire)	5	4	3	2	1
d) morning news/talk shows (like Good Morning America, CBS This Morning, The Today Show)	5	4	3	2	1
e) daytime talk shows (like Donahue, Opera)	5	4	3	2	1
f) late night talk shows (like David Letterman, Jay Leno, Saturday Night Live)	5	4	3	2	1
g) popular magazines (like Rolling Stone, Spin, GQ, Esquire, Ebony, Jet, Working Woman)	5	4	3	2	1
h) talk radio (like Rush Limbaugh, Oliver North, Mario Cuomo)	5	4	3	2	1

12. What is your sex? a) male b) female

13. What is your race? a) White b) African American c) Hispanic d) Asian American
e) American Indian f) Other

14. How old are you? a) 18-20 b) 21-24 c) 25-34 d) 35-44 e) 45-64 f) 65 and over

15. What is your household income level? a) \$24,999 or less b) \$25,000 - \$34,999
c) \$35,000 - \$49,999 d) \$50,000 - \$74,999 e) \$75,000 - \$99,999 f) \$100,000 or more

16. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

a) some high school b) high school degree c) some college d) college degree e) post-graduate

17. What is your political affiliation, if any?

a) republican b) democrat c) independent d) none e) other

18. Where do you fall on a conservative/liberal scale?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
very conservative moderate very liberal

19. Who did you vote for president today? Bob Dole Bill Clinton Ross Perot other

20. Did you vote in the 1992 presidential election? yes no not eligible to vote

21. Did you vote in the 1988 presidential election? yes no not eligible to vote

Appendix C

Figures and Tables

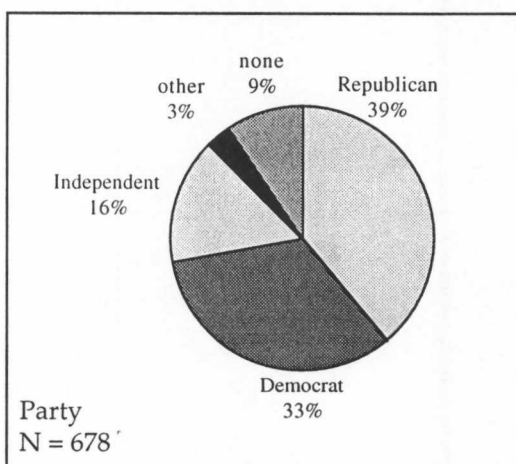
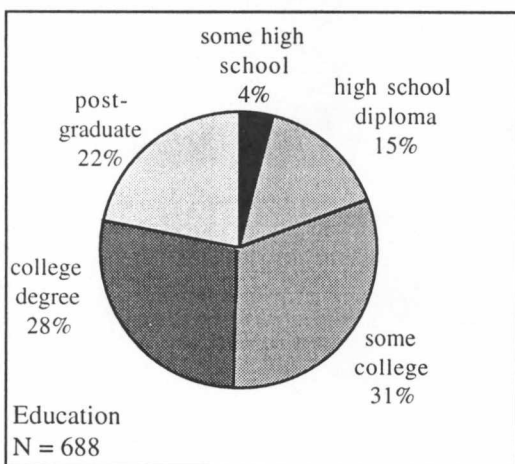
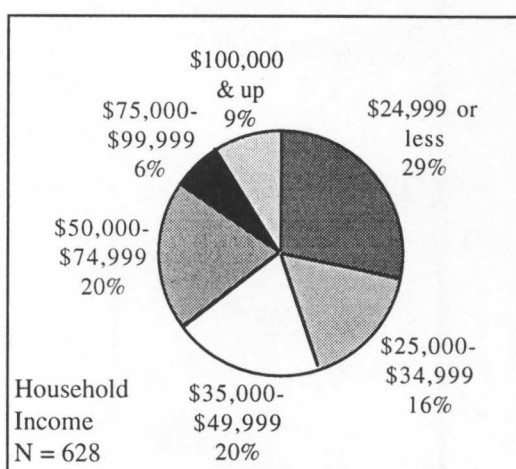
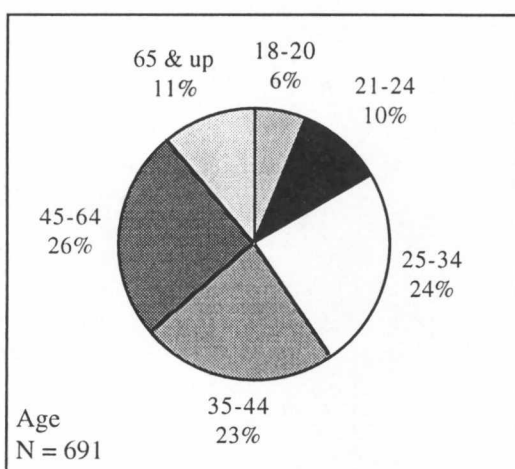
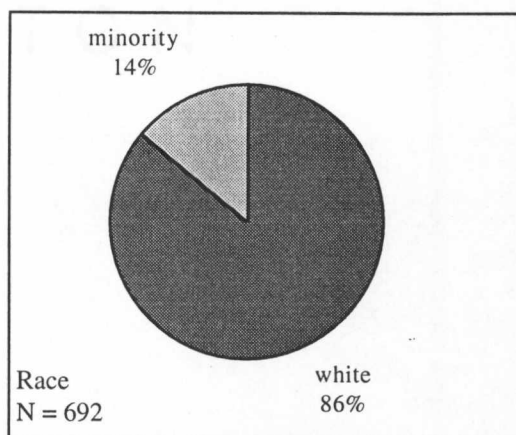
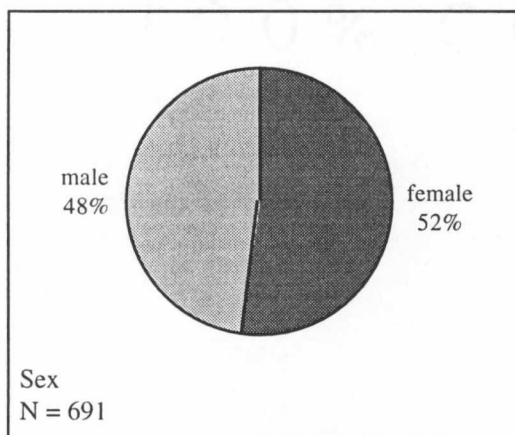
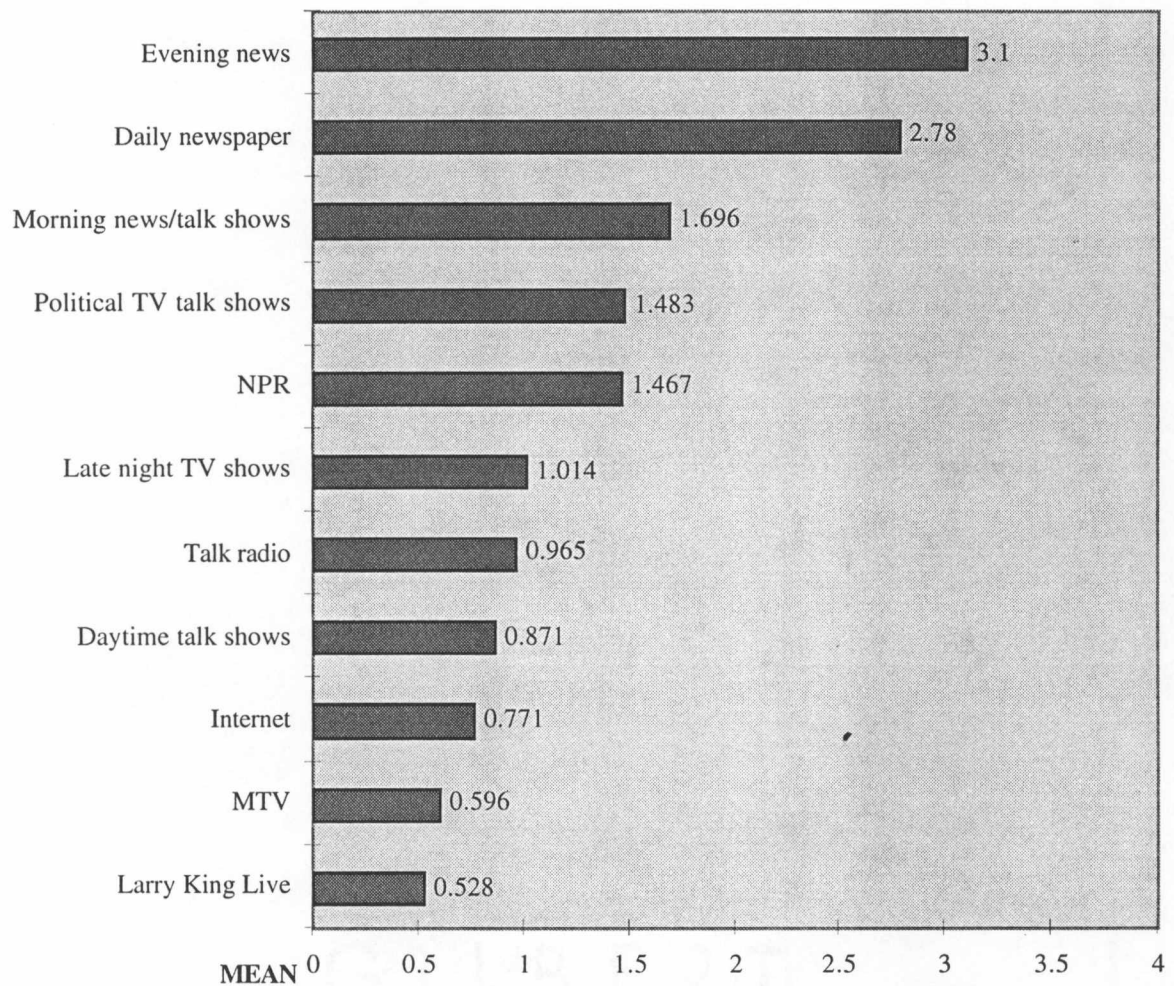
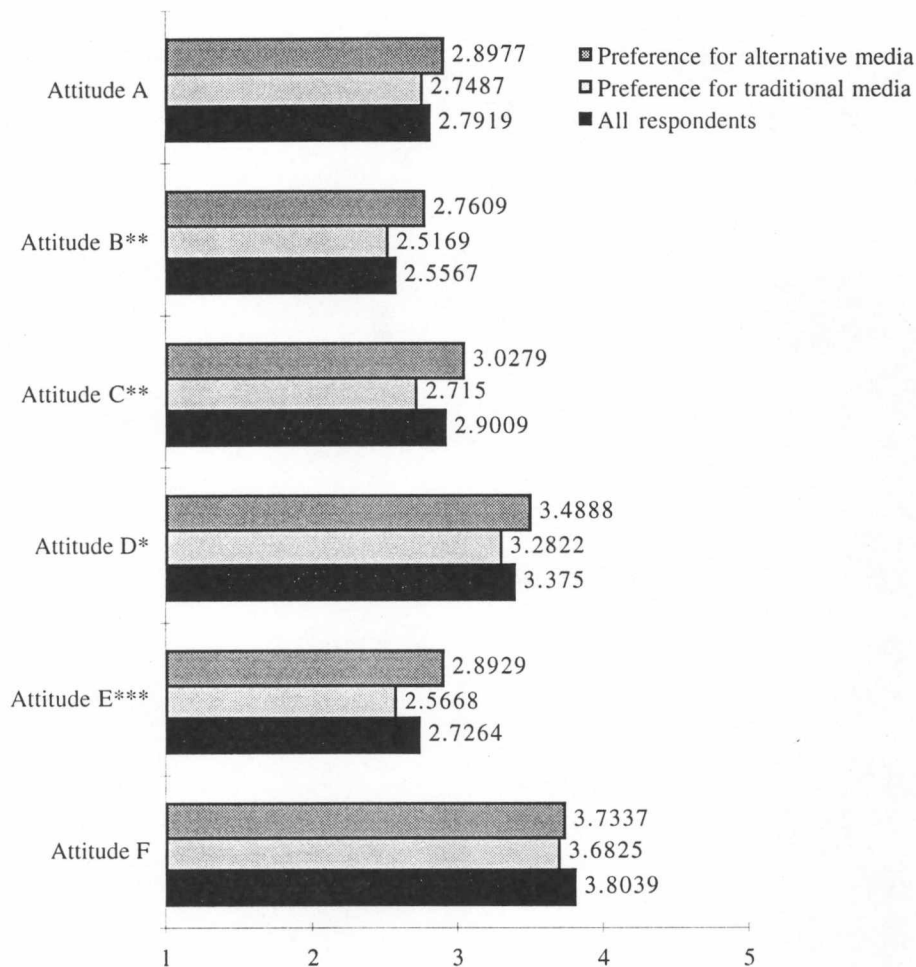


Figure 1: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics



Response options: 4 = 5 or more days a week, 3 = 3-4 days a week, 2 = 1-2 days a week, 0 = never or no response. N = 734

Figure 2: Attention to Media



Difference between traditional media users and alternative media users: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .0001$.
 Response options: 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

Attitude A: When a candidate appears on MTV or in Rolling Stone magazine, it trivializes the political process.

Attitude B: The evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations.

Attitude C: Talk show hosts, like Donahue and Larry King, ask the candidates better questions than reporters.

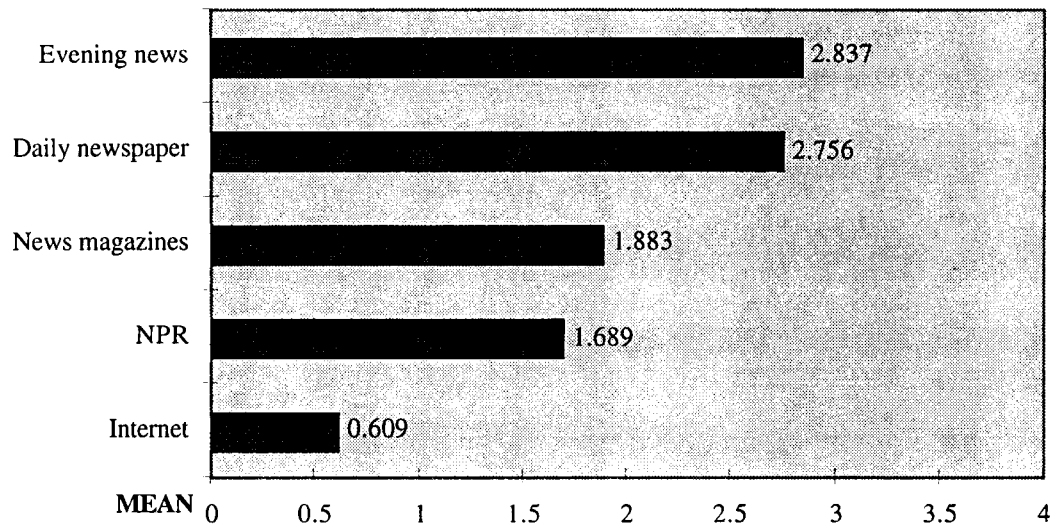
Attitude D: Citizens on televised town-hall meetings ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.

Attitude E: The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.

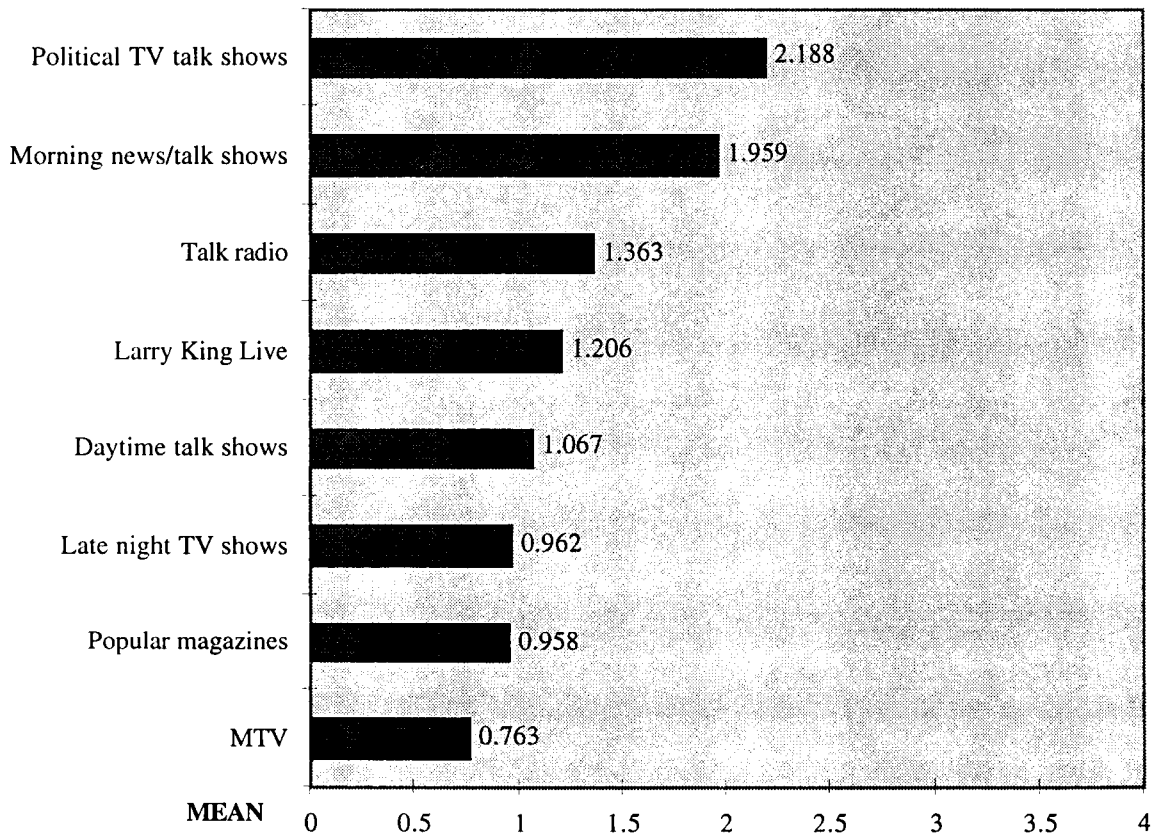
Attitude F: Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidate as his answers to any given issue question.

Figure 3: Comparison of Attitude Means by Media Preference

Question: How much useful candidate information do you get from each of the following ...



Question: How much does a candidate interview ... on each of the following ... contribute to your overall evaluation of the candidate's image?



Response options for both of the above questions: 4 = very much, 0 = none or no response. N = 669

Figure 4: Media Usefulness and Contribution

Table 1: Survey Locations

Location	Time	Registered Voters	Voter Turnout	Completed surveys	% of voter turnout
March Primary					
Stokely Athletic Ctr.	8-10	2549	54	5	9%
South Doyle Middle Schl.	8-10	845	148	5	3%
Fair Garden Comm. Ctr.	10-12	2021	158	5	3%
Spring Hill Primary Schl.	10-12	1409	260	11	4%
N. Knox Recreation Ctr.	12-2	1962	318	27	8%
Gresham Middle Schl.	12-2	2479	376	19	5%
Lincoln Park Schl.	2-4	1454	195	0	0%
Inskip Recreation Ctr.	2-4	1085	257	19	7%
College Homes Admin. Bldg.	4-6	894	52	3	6%
West Haven Elem. Schl.	4-6	1822	286	27	9%
Sequoyah Hills Schl.	6-8	2921	678	44	6%
Bearden High Schl.	6-8	4030	612	35	6%
November General					
Bearden Elem. Schl.	8-10	2167	898	53	6%
Pellissippi State Tech.	8-10	482	193	17	9%
West Hills Schl.	10-12	3270	1410	61	4%
Beaumont Schl.	10-12	1434	509	23	4%
Pleasant Ridge Elem. Schl.	12-2	2314	1145	55	5%
Christenberry Comm. Ctr.	12-2	1636	900	31	3%
Shannondale Schl.	2-4	1993	963	72	7%
Jessamine Recreation Ctr.	2-4	1804	656	31	5%
Chilhowee Schl.	4-6	2013	986	45	5%
Eastport Schl.	4-6	1692	629	22	3%
S. Knox Optimist Club	6-8	1785	1011	44	4%
Fort Sanders Schl.	6-8	2765	1086	100	9%

**Table 2: Attention to Alternative Media
by Race, Age and Education**

	high attention	medium attention	low attention	N
Race (X² = 6.9, d.f. = 2, p = .03)				
white	31.21%	36.07%	32.72%	596
minority	44.79%	30.21%	25.00%	96
Age (X² = 24.9, d.f. = 4, p < .0001)				
18-34	39.50%	37.72%	22.78%	281
35-64	29.64%	35.93%	34.43%	334
65&UP	25.00%	25.00%	50.00%	76
Education* (X² = 15.8, d.f. = 4, p = .003)				
high school	30.53%	35.11%	34.35%	131
college	38.48%	34.31%	27.21%	408
post-grad	22.15%	37.58%	40.27%	149

* The education categories are defined as follows: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 3: Attention to Traditional Media
by Sex, Age, Income, Education, Party and Ideology**

	high attention	medium attention	low attention	N
Sex (X2 = 8.8, d.f. = 2, p = .01)				
female	28.33%	42.78%	28.89%	360
male	37.76%	41.09%	21.15%	331
Age (X2 = 11.6, d.f. = 4, p = .02)				
18-34	27.05%	42.70%	30.25%	281
35-64	38.32%	40.42%	21.26%	334
65&UP	31.58%	46.05%	22.37%	76
Income* (X2 = 24.7, d.f. = 4, p < .0001)				
low	25.00%	43.21%	31.79%	280
middle	40.48%	39.29%	20.24%	252
upper	43.75%	41.67%	14.58%	96
Education* (X2 = 32.3, d.f. = 4, p < .0001)				
high school	19.08%	46.56%	34.35%	131
college	31.62%	43.14%	25.25%	408
post-grad	48.99%	36.24%	14.77%	149
Party (X2 = 14.7, d.f. = 6, p = .02)				
Democrat	35.71%	40.18%	24.11%	224
Republican	28.14%	47.53%	24.33%	263
other	42.52%	32.28%	25.20%	127
none	21.88%	46.88%	31.25%	64
Ideology (X2 = 25.6, d.f. = 4, p < .0001)				
liberal	40.59%	40.00%	19.41%	170
moderate	37.85%	40.38%	21.77%	317
conservative	19.58%	47.09%	33.33%	189

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 4: Media Preference by Age, Income, Education and Ideology

	alternative media preference	traditional media preference	N
Age ($X^2 = 32.1$, d.f. = 2, $p < .0001$)			
18-34	63.31%	36.69%	169
35-64	35.71%	64.29%	182
65&UP	32.08%	67.92%	53
Income* ($X^2 = 21.7$, d.f. = 2, $p < .0001$)			
low	59.51%	40.49%	163
middle	40.15%	59.85%	137
upper	27.87%	72.13%	61
Education* ($X^2 = 38.3$, d.f. = 2, $p < .0001$)			
high school	59.09%	40.91%	66
college	54.32%	45.68%	243
post-grad	19.15%	80.85%	94
Ideology ($X^2 = 17.9$, d.f. = 2, $p = .0001$)			
liberal	42.59%	57.41%	108
moderate	38.07%	61.93%	176
conservative	63.06%	36.94%	111

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 5: Attention to Larry King Live by Sex, Age and Education

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex ($X^2 = 17.2$, d.f. = 5, $p = .004$)							
female	4.17%	1.39%	6.67%	13.33%	56.94%	17.50%	360
male	3.33%	3.94%	4.24%	22.42%	47.88%	18.18%	330
Age ($X^2 = 114.4$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	1.42%	1.07%	4.63%	16.01%	70.46%	6.41%	281
35-64	4.49%	3.59%	6.29%	20.06%	44.91%	20.66%	334
65&UP	9.33%	4.00%	5.33%	13.33%	20.00%	48.00%	75
Education* ($X^2 = 45.4$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
high school	6.15%	1.54%	6.15%	10.00%	40.77%	35.38%	130
college	3.68%	2.21%	4.66%	18.87%	56.13%	14.46%	408
post-grad	2.01%	4.70%	7.38%	20.13%	53.69%	12.08%	149

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 6: Attention to MTV by Sex, Age, Income, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 11.3, d.f. = 5, p = .04)							
female	3.06%	3.06%	10.83%	9.72%	52.50%	20.83%	360
male	6.95%	2.72%	7.55%	13.90%	46.53%	22.36%	331
Age (X2 = 152.5, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	7.12%	5.69%	16.37%	15.66%	49.82%	5.34%	281
35-64	2.99%	1.20%	5.09%	10.48%	53.89%	26.35%	334
65&UP	3.95%	0.00%	1.32%	2.63%	31.58%	60.53%	76
Income* (X2 = 19.6, d.f. = 10, p = .03)							
low	6.07%	2.86%	13.93%	14.29%	46.79%	16.07%	280
middle	3.97%	2.38%	6.75%	11.51%	52.78%	22.62%	252
upper	4.17%	2.08%	5.21%	7.29%	57.29%	23.96%	96
Education* (X2 = 42.4, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	7.63%	1.53%	4.58%	6.11%	43.51%	36.64%	131
college	3.68%	3.92%	12.25%	12.75%	48.77%	18.63%	408
post-grad	6.04%	1.34%	5.37%	13.42%	58.39%	15.44%	149
Party (X2 = 27.3, d.f. = 15, p = .02)							
Democrat	5.80%	2.68%	8.48%	12.05%	48.66%	22.32%	224
Republican	4.56%	1.52%	7.22%	11.03%	51.71%	23.95%	263
other	3.15%	3.15%	11.81%	7.87%	54.33%	19.69%	127
none	7.81%	7.81%	14.06%	20.31%	42.19%	7.81%	64
Ideology (X2 = 31.4, d.f. = 10, p = .0005)							
liberal	6.47%	4.71%	12.35%	14.12%	54.12%	8.24%	170
moderate	3.79%	3.15%	10.09%	12.30%	46.37%	24.29%	317
conservative	4.76%	1.06%	5.82%	8.47%	55.03%	24.87%	189
Vote (X2 = 18.7, d.f. = 10, p = .04)							
Clinton	4.40%	4.40%	12.82%	13.19%	48.35%	16.85%	273
Dole	4.71%	1.57%	5.88%	10.98%	54.90%	21.96%	255
other	6.32%	0.00%	10.53%	13.68%	46.32%	23.16%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 7: Attention to Political TV Talk Shows
by Age, Education, Party and Ideology**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Age (X² = 79.6, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	7.47%	12.10%	18.86%	28.83%	27.05%	5.69%	281
35-64	10.78%	13.47%	21.56%	26.95%	14.97%	12.28%	334
65&UP	23.68%	7.89%	5.26%	21.05%	9.21%	32.89%	76
Education* (X² = 29.2, d.f. = 10, p = .001)							
high school	13.74%	9.16%	11.45%	20.61%	22.90%	22.14%	131
college	10.29%	13.73%	21.32%	28.43%	16.67%	9.56%	408
post-grad	10.74%	10.74%	17.45%	29.53%	22.82%	8.72%	149
Party (X² = 29.2, d.f. = 15, p = .01)							
Democrat	16.52%	8.93%	16.52%	29.02%	16.96%	12.05%	224
Republican	9.13%	14.45%	22.05%	24.33%	17.49%	12.55%	263
other	8.66%	15.75%	12.60%	32.28%	18.90%	11.81%	127
none	6.25%	9.38%	23.44%	23.44%	31.25%	6.25%	64
Ideology (X² = 24.4, d.f. = 10, p = .006)							
liberal	12.35%	7.65%	18.82%	32.35%	24.12%	4.71%	170
moderate	11.04%	11.99%	17.98%	28.39%	18.93%	11.67%	317
conservative	10.05%	16.40%	19.58%	21.16%	16.40%	16.40%	189

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 8: Attention to Morning News/Talk Shows
by Sex, Age, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 16.5, d.f. = 5, p = .005)							
female	29.17%	10.28%	11.94%	15.83%	25.56%	7.22%	360
male	16.62%	12.08%	14.80%	15.41%	32.33%	8.76%	331
Age (X2 = 67.1, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	17.08%	9.96%	13.88%	20.64%	34.88%	3.56%	281
35-64	26.05%	12.28%	14.07%	14.07%	26.35%	7.19%	334
65&UP	31.58%	10.53%	6.58%	7.89%	17.11%	26.32%	76
Education* (X2 = 30.5, d.f. = 10, p = .0007)							
high school	26.72%	9.92%	11.45%	16.03%	22.14%	13.74%	131
college	24.75%	11.27%	14.46%	16.91%	25.49%	7.11%	408
post-grad	14.77%	12.08%	10.07%	14.09%	43.62%	5.37%	149
Party (X2 = 35, d.f. = 15, p = .002)							
Democrat	32.14%	11.61%	9.82%	15.62%	23.21%	7.59%	224
Republican	20.15%	11.79%	13.69%	18.25%	26.62%	9.51%	263
other	18.90%	10.24%	17.32%	10.24%	37.80%	5.51%	127
none	12.50%	10.94%	10.94%	21.88%	40.62%	3.12%	64
Ideology (X2 = 20.5, d.f. = 10, p = .02)							
liberal	21.18%	12.35%	10.59%	17.65%	35.88%	2.35%	170
moderate	26.18%	9.46%	14.20%	14.51%	27.44%	8.20%	317
conservative	18.52%	13.76%	13.23%	17.46%	25.93%	11.11%	189
Vote (X2 = 21.1, d.f. = 10, p = .02)							
Clinton	29.67%	10.26%	13.19%	14.29%	27.47%	5.13%	273
Dole	18.82%	13.73%	14.51%	18.43%	26.27%	8.24%	255
other	14.74%	9.47%	10.53%	16.84%	40.00%	8.42%	95

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 9: Attention to Daytime TV Talk Shows
by Sex, Race, Age, Income, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex (X² = 36.7, d.f. = 5, p < .0001)							
female	10.83%	8.06%	12.50%	18.33%	39.72%	10.56%	360
male	5.44%	4.23%	6.34%	11.78%	60.12%	12.08%	331
Race (X² = 48.4, d.f. = 5, p < .0001)							
white	6.38%	4.87%	8.72%	15.27%	53.36%	11.41%	596
minority	19.79%	14.58%	15.62%	15.62%	25.00%	9.38%	96
Age (X² = 85.9, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	7.83%	9.25%	11.74%	18.86%	49.47%	2.85%	281
35-64	7.19%	4.49%	8.68%	14.37%	52.99%	12.28%	334
65&UP	13.16%	2.63%	6.58%	6.58%	34.21%	36.84%	76
Income* (X² = 24.5, d.f. = 10, p = .006)							
low	9.29%	8.93%	13.21%	17.14%	43.93%	7.50%	280
middle	6.75%	2.38%	6.75%	16.27%	57.14%	10.71%	252
upper	6.25%	6.25%	7.29%	14.58%	54.17%	11.46%	96
Education* (X² = 81.1, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	20.61%	3.05%	12.98%	12.98%	32.82%	17.56%	131
college	6.37%	8.33%	10.78%	18.14%	46.57%	9.80%	408
post-grad	2.68%	2.69%	4.03%	10.07%	71.81%	8.72%	149
Party (X² = 36.5, d.f. = 15, p = .001)							
Democrat	13.84%	5.36%	13.39%	15.18%	41.96%	10.27%	224
Republican	6.08%	7.22%	8.75%	14.83%	50.19%	12.93%	263
other	7.87%	3.94%	4.72%	14.17%	59.84%	9.45%	127
none	0.00%	10.94%	10.94%	21.88%	51.56%	4.69%	64
Ideology (X² = 22.9, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
liberal	8.24%	6.47%	12.35%	16.47%	54.12%	2.35%	170
moderate	8.52%	5.05%	11.04%	16.09%	47.00%	12.30%	317
conservative	6.88%	7.94%	5.82%	13.76%	51.32%	14.29%	189
Vote (X² = 26.2, d.f. = 10, p = .003)							
Clinton	11.36%	6.96%	12.82%	16.12%	45.05%	7.69%	273
Dole	5.49%	7.06%	8.63%	16.86%	52.16%	9.80%	255
other	4.21%	2.11%	5.26%	11.58%	60.00%	16.84%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 10: Attention to Late Night TV Shows
by Age, Income, Education, Party and Ideology**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Age (X2 = 134.6, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	8.90%	12.46%	21.35%	24.91%	30.25%	2.14%	281
35-64	5.99%	6.29%	10.18%	18.56%	47.01%	11.98%	334
65&UP	5.26%	3.95%	5.26%	3.95%	40.79%	40.79%	76
Income* (X2 = 23.1, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
low	7.50%	12.50%	16.79%	19.29%	37.14%	6.79%	280
middle	6.75%	5.95%	11.51%	23.81%	39.29%	12.70%	252
upper	3.12%	6.25%	10.42%	17.71%	50.00%	12.50%	96
Education* (X2 = 39.3, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	14.50%	9.16%	6.11%	14.50%	38.93%	16.79%	131
college	6.13%	10.05%	17.16%	20.59%	35.78%	10.29%	408
post-grad	3.36%	4.03%	12.75%	21.48%	49.66%	872.50%	149
Party (X2 = 25.6, d.f. = 15, p = .04)							
Democrat	10.71%	8.48%	12.50%	19.20%	39.29%	9.82%	224
Republican	6.46%	6.08%	13.69%	22.05%	37.26%	14.45%	263
other	4.72%	8.66%	17.32%	19.69%	40.94%	8.66%	127
none	3.12%	18.75%	14.06%	15.62%	43.75%	4.69%	64
Ideology (X2 = 21.3, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
liberal	8.24%	8.82%	18.24%	22.35%	38.82%	3.53%	170
moderate	7.89%	8.52%	12.93%	17.98%	42.27%	10.41%	317
conservative	4.23%	7.94%	13.76%	20.11%	37.57%	16.40%	189

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 11: Attention to Talk Radio by Sex, Age,
Education, Party, Ideology and Vote**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 13.8, d.f. = 5, p = .01)							
female	8.33%	5.83%	5.28%	20.56%	49.44%	10.56%	360
male	11.48%	6.34%	11.48%	16.01%	42.60%	12.08%	331
Age (X2 = 66.6, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	8.19%	8.19%	8.90%	19.57%	51.60%	3.56%	281
35-64	10.18%	5.69%	8.68%	18.26%	44.91%	12.28%	334
65&UP	14.47%	1.32%	3.95%	14.47%	31.58%	34.21%	76
Education* (X2 = 23.9, d.f. = 20, p = .007)							
high school	15.27%	3.05%	5.34%	14.50%	45.80%	16.03%	131
college	9.56%	7.60%	9.31%	19.85%	42.40%	11.27%	408
post-grad	6.71%	5.37%	7.38%	17.45%	57.05%	6.04%	149
Party (X2 = 71.4, d.f. = 15, p < .0001)							
Democrat	7.14%	6.25%	3.57%	15.62%	55.80%	11.61%	224
Republican	14.83%	6.84%	14.07%	24.71%	28.52%	11.03%	263
other	8.66%	7.87%	5.51%	14.96%	55.91%	7.09%	127
none	4.69%	1.56%	6.25%	10.94%	64.06%	12.50%	64
Ideology (X2 = 79.9, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	4.71%	2.94%	3.53%	14.12%	65.88%	8.82%	170
moderate	6.31%	5.99%	7.57%	20.50%	48.58%	11.04%	317
conservative	20.63%	9.52%	12.70%	20.11%	26.46%	10.58%	189
Vote (X2 = 72.8, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
Clinton	3.30%	3.30%	4.40%	17.22%	60.81%	10.99%	273
Dole	15.29%	6.67%	12.55%	25.10%	30.98%	9.41%	255
other	14.74%	10.53%	9.47%	11.58%	45.26%	8.42%	95

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 12: Attention to Popular Magazines
by Race, Age, Education, Party and Ideology****

	every week	twice a month	occasionally	never	no response	N
Race (X2 = 14.7, d.f. = 4, p = .005)						
white	7.62%	11.79%	29.79%	39.72%	11.09%	433
minority	19.28%	9.64%	28.92%	26.51%	15.65%	83
Age (X2 = 94.3, d.f. = 8, p < .0001)						
18-34	13.19%	16.60%	36.60%	30.21%	3.40%	235
35-64	7.41%	8.23%	26.34%	43.62%	14.40%	243
65&UP	0.00%	0.00%	10.00%	42.50%	47.50%	40
Education* (X2 = 19.1, d.f. = 8, p = .01)						
high school	10.00%	4.44%	21.11%	45.56%	18.89%	90
college	10.09%	13.88%	32.81%	32.49%	10.73%	108
post-grad	8.33%	10.19%	27.78%	44.44%	9.26%	317
Party (X2 = 34.4, d.f. = 12, p = .0006)						
Democrat	15.17%	8.43%	28.65%	33.15%	14.61%	178
Republican	7.06%	9.41%	27.06%	44.12%	12.35%	170
other	5.88%	11.76%	32.35%	42.16%	7.84%	102
none	8.62%	24.14%	39.66%	25.86%	1.72%	58
Ideology (X2 = 22.2, d.f. = 8, p = .004)						
liberal	10.49%	13.99%	39.16%	32.17%	4.20%	143
moderate	9.66%	11.34%	28.57%	39.92%	10.50%	238
conservative	8.73%	9.52%	23.81%	38.89%	19.05%	126

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

** Note: Due to changes in this question's response options, March respondents are not included in the total number population listed above.

Table 13: Attention to the Internet by Sex, Age and Education

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex ($X^2 = 15.1$, d.f. = 5, $p = .009$)							
female	4.17%	5.28%	9.44%	13.33%	10.28%	57.50%	360
male	9.97%	6.95%	12.69%	10.57%	6.65%	53.17%	331
Age ($X^2 = 95.9$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	8.90%	9.96%	17.79%	17.44%	8.90%	37.01%	281
35-64	6.89%	3.89%	8.38%	9.28%	9.58%	61.98%	334
65&UP	0.00%	1.32%	0.00%	3.95%	2.63%	92.11%	76
Education* ($X^2 = 42.9$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
high school	1.53%	3.82%	5.34%	5.34%	6.11%	77.86%	131
college	7.60%	5.39%	12.99%	13.24%	8.58%	52.21%	408
post-grad	10.07%	10.07%	12.08%	14.09%	10.74%	42.95%	149

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 14: Attention to TV News by Age, Income, Education and Party

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Age (X2 = 59.6, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	34.88%	27.05%	24.56%	8.90%	3.20%	1.42%	281
35-64	55.09%	19.76%	14.37%	4.79%	3.29%	2.69%	334
65&UP	76.00%	13.33%	4.00%	1.33%	1.33%	4.00%	75
Income* (X2 = 19.1, d.f. = 10, p = .03)							
low	40.86%	25.81%	21.51%	7.53%	2.87%	1.43%	279
middle	55.95%	19.05%	13.49%	5.56%	3.57%	2.38%	252
upper	45.83%	27.08%	16.67%	4.17%	2.08%	4.17%	96
Education* (X2 = 23.1, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
high school	58.46%	14.62%	16.92%	3.08%	3.08%	3.85%	130
college	46.08%	25.00%	18.38%	7.11%	1.47%	1.96%	408
post-grad	48.99%	20.81%	15.44%	6.04%	6.71%	2.01%	149
Party (X2 = 28.3, d.f. = 15, p = .01)							
Democrat	52.23%	20.09%	16.96%	3.57%	3.57%	3.57%	224
Republican	51.15%	26.72%	13.36%	4.96%	1.91%	1.91%	262
other	45.67%	15.75%	22.05%	10.24%	4.72%	1.57%	127
none	37.50%	21.88%	21.88%	12.50%	4.69%	1.56%	64

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 15: Attention to Newspapers by Sex, Race, Age,
Income, Education and Party**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 28.7, d.f. = 5, p < .0001)							
female	36.39%	16.67%	23.06%	10.28%	7.22%	6.39%	360
male	53.03%	14.24%	15.76%	9.39%	1.52%	6.06%	330
Race (X2 = 18.1, d.f. = 5, p = .002)							
white	45.88%	16.13%	19.50%	9.75%	3.53%	5.21%	595
minority	32.29%	13.54%	20.83%	11.46%	10.42%	11.46%	96
Age (X2 = 98.8, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	26.33%	20.28%	28.83%	13.88%	7.12%	3.56%	281
35-64	53.29%	13.47%	15.57%	8.38%	2.69%	6.59%	334
65&UP	70.67%	9.33%	2.67%	1.33%	2.67%	13.33%	75
Income* (X2 = 55.2, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
low	29.39%	17.56%	24.73%	13.26%	7.17%	7.89%	279
middle	55.95%	14.29%	17.06%	7.14%	1.19%	4.37%	252
upper	56.25%	16.67%	16.67%	6.25%	2.08%	2.08%	96
Education* (X2 = 32.6, d.f. = 10, p = .0003)							
high school	40.77%	12.31%	17.69%	10.00%	5.38%	13.85%	130
college	40.44%	17.65%	21.81%	10.78%	4.41%	4.90%	408
post-grad	57.72%	14.09%	15.44%	7.38%	3.36%	2.01%	149
Party (X2 = 27.8, d.f. = 15, p = .02)							
Democrat	42.86%	14.29%	20.98%	8.48%	4.46%	8.93%	224
Republican	47.71%	16.03%	18.70%	10.31%	2.29%	4.96%	262
other	48.30%	15.75%	17.32%	10.24%	6.30%	2.36%	127
none	28.12%	21.88%	25.00%	12.50%	10.94%	1.56%	64

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 16: Attention to News Magazines
by Sex, Age, Income and Education****

	every week	twice a month	occasionally	never	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 15.1, d.f. = 4, p = .004)						
female	12.41%	16.06%	43.07%	16.42%	12.04%	274
male	25.62%	12.81%	38.84%	13.22%	9.50%	242
Age (X2 = 47, d.f. = 8, p < .0001)						
18-34	14.47%	17.87%	47.23%	15.74%	4.68%	235
35-64	20.58%	13.58%	38.27%	14.40%	13.17%	243
65&UP	27.50%	2.50%	22.50%	12.50%	35.00%	40
Income* (X2 = 23.2, d.f. = 8, p = .003)						
low	12.61%	13.96%	44.59%	19.82%	9.01%	222
middle	21.05%	16.84%	40.00%	13.16%	8.95%	190
upper	32.81%	14.06%	39.06%	3.12%	10.94%	64
Education* (X2 = 36.6, d.f. = 8, p < .0001)						
high school	7.78%	12.22%	36.67%	23.33%	20.00%	90
college	16.72%	16.09%	43.53%	13.88%	9.78%	108
post-grad	33.33%	12.04%	37.96%	10.19%	6.48%	317

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

** Note: Due to changes in this question's response options, March respondents are not included in the total number population listed above.

**Table 17: Attention to NPR by Age, Education,
Party, Ideology and Vote**

	5 or more days per week	3-4 days per week	1-2 days per week	1-3 days per month	never	no response	N
Age (X2 = 121.4, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	16.01%	11.74%	11.03%	17.44%	40.57%	3.20%	281
35-64	24.85%	9.28%	9.58%	12.28%	22.46%	21.56%	334
65&UP	14.67%	4.00%	9.33%	4.00%	18.67%	49.33%	75
Education* (X2 = 66.8, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	14.62%	7.69%	4.62%	6.92%	30.00%	36.15%	130
college	17.89%	9.80%	10.54%	16.18%	32.11%	13.48%	408
post-grad	31.54%	11.41%	14.09%	12.08%	21.48%	9.40%	149
Party (X2 = 28.9, d.f. = 15, p = .01)							
Democrat	23.21%	10.27%	10.27%	11.16%	25.00%	20.09%	224
Republican	13.36%	8.40%	11.45%	15.65%	32.82%	18.32%	262
other	23.62%	14.17%	7.87%	11.81%	27.56%	14.96%	127
none	26.56%	6.25%	7.81%	18.75%	35.94%	4.69%	64
Ideology (X2 = 52.7, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	32.35%	13.53%	8.82%	12.35%	24.12%	8.82%	170
moderate	20.57%	9.81%	11.71%	14.56%	26.90%	16.46%	316
conservative	8.47%	6.35%	9.52%	12.17%	40.74%	22.75%	189
Vote (X2 = 22.4, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
Clinton	27.11%	9.89%	10.26%	12.09%	25.64%	15.02%	273
Dole	11.81%	10.24%	12.20%	16.54%	32.68%	16.54%	254
other	17.89%	11.58%	8.42%	11.58%	32.63%	17.89%	95

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 18: Attitude A by Race, Age, Income, Party, Ideology and Vote

Question: When a candidate appears on MTV or in Rolling Stone magazine, it trivializes the political process.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	no response	N
Race (X2 = 14.4, d.f. = 5, p = .01)							
white	20.13%	18.96%	25.34%	14.60%	13.09%	7.89%	596
minority	17.71%	15.62%	33.33%	6.25%	10.42%	16.67%	96
Age (X2 = 56.7, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	18.86%	23.84%	30.96%	13.88%	7.47%	4.98%	281
35-64	22.46%	17.07%	23.65%	12.87%	15.27%	8.68%	334
65&UP	13.16%	6.58%	19.74%	14.47%	21.05%	25.00%	76
Income* (X2 = 24.1, d.f. = 10, p = .007)							
low	20.71%	23.57%	28.57%	10.71%	8.93%	7.50%	280
middle	20.63%	15.87%	27.78%	13.89%	12.70%	9.13%	252
upper	14.58%	15.62%	21.88%	20.83%	21.88%	5.21%	96
Party (X2 = 45.7, d.f. = 15, p < .0001)							
Democrat	27.23%	21.43%	25.00%	10.71%	7.14%	8.48%	224
Republican	11.79%	14.45%	26.24%	18.25%	19.77%	9.51%	263
other	21.26%	24.41%	27.56%	10.24%	10.24%	6.30%	127
none	23.44%	15.62%	26.56%	12.50%	10.94%	10.94%	64
Ideology (X2 = 83.7, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	37.06%	23.53%	20.59%	6.47%	5.88%	6.47%	170
moderate	17.03%	17.67%	32.49%	13.25%	10.41%	9.15%	317
conservative	10.58%	16.93%	20.63%	20.63%	23.28%	7.94%	189
Vote (X2 = 36.1, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
Clinton	27.11%	22.34%	23.81%	11.72%	6.96%	8.06%	273
Dole	12.94%	17.25%	26.67%	16.86%	18.43%	7.84%	255
other	15.79%	18.95%	30.53%	9.47%	17.89%	7.37%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

**Table 19: Attitude A by Sex, Ideology and Vote
(MTV Viewers)**

Question: When a candidate appears on MTV or in Rolling Stone magazine, it trivializes the political process.

	strongly disagree or disagree	neutral	strongly agree or agree	N
Sex ($X^2 = 15.8$, d.f. = 2, $p = .0004$)				
female	36.56%	47.31%	16.13%	93
male	65.56%	23.33%	11.11%	90
Ideology ($X^2 = 23.7$, d.f. = 4, $p < .0001$)				
liberal	74.58%	16.95%	8.47%	59
moderate	38.64%	48.86%	12.50%	88
conservative	42.42%	33.33%	24.24%	33
Vote ($X^2 = 14.2$, d.f. = 4, $p = .006$)				
Clinton	60.23%	30.68%	9.09%	88
Dole	41.82%	32.73%	25.45%	55
other	44.44%	51.85%	3.70%	27

Table 20: Attitude B by Race, Age and Education

Question: The evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	no response	N
Race ($X^2 = 15.6$, d.f. = 5, $p = .008$)							
white	21.81%	30.87%	22.15%	13.09%	7.55%	4.53%	596
minority	20.83%	21.88%	16.67%	14.58%	14.58%	11.46%	96
Age ($X^2 = 33.1$, d.f. = 10, $p = .0003$)							
18-34	21.35%	34.16%	22.42%	12.46%	6.05%	3.56%	281
35-64	23.95%	26.95%	20.95%	14.67%	9.88%	4.19%	334
65&UP	14.47%	22.37%	23.68%	11.84%	10.53%	17.11%	76
Education* ($X^2 = 34.7$, d.f. = 10, $p = .0001$)							
high school	22.14%	21.37%	15.27%	15.27%	19.08%	6.87%	131
college	21.08%	29.41%	23.77%	13.24%	6.37%	6.13%	408
post-grad	22.15%	36.91%	21.48%	12.08%	5.37%	2.01%	149

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 21: Attitude B by Race
(High Attention to Traditional Media)**

Question: The evening news and daily newspapers don't provide any useful information for candidate evaluations.

	strongly disagree or disagree	neutral	strongly agree or agree	N
Race (X² = 7, d.f. = 2, p = .02)				
white	67.38%	18.72%	13.90%	187
minority	42.31%	26.92%	30.77%	26

Table 22: Attitude C by Age, Education, Party and Ideology

Question: Talk show hosts, like Donahue and Larry King, ask the candidates better questions than reporters.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	no response	N
Age ($X^2 = 45.4$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	12.10%	19.93%	33.45%	22.06%	7.47%	4.98%	281
35-64	16.77%	17.96%	27.84%	20.96%	11.08%	5.39%	334
65&UP	17.11%	17.11%	14.47%	17.11%	10.53%	23.68%	76
Education* ($X^2 = 20.9$, d.f. = 10, $p = .02$)							
high school	16.03%	16.79%	24.43%	21.37%	14.50%	6.87%	131
college	13.24%	18.38%	27.70%	22.06%	10.29%	8.33%	408
post-grad	18.79%	21.48%	34.90%	18.12%	2.68%	4.03%	149
Party ($X^2 = 30.8$, d.f. = 15, $p = .009$)							
Democrat	12.95%	20.54%	27.23%	19.23%	12.95%	7.14%	224
Republican	19.77%	17.49%	25.86%	21.29%	8.37%	7.22%	263
other	11.02%	12.60%	38.58%	26.77%	7.09%	3.94%	127
none	9.38%	31.25%	23.44%	20.31%	6.25%	9.38%	64
Ideology ($X^2 = 26.1$, d.f. = 10, $p = .003$)							
liberal	15.88%	20.00%	34.12%	20.59%	5.29%	4.12%	170
moderate	9.78%	18.93%	29.02%	22.40%	11.04%	8.83%	317
conservative	22.75%	17.99%	23.81%	21.16%	9.52%	4.76%	189

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 23: Attitude D by Age

Question: Citizens on televised town-hall meetings ask the candidates better questions than either talk show hosts or reporters.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	no response	N
Age ($\chi^2 = 20.7$, d.f. = 10, $p = .02$)							
18-34	7.83%	14.95%	29.18%	25.98%	16.37%	5.69%	281
35-64	5.39%	12.57%	32.93%	27.25%	15.87%	5.99%	334
65&UP	5.26%	9.21%	19.74%	26.32%	22.37%	17.11%	76

Table 24: Attitude E by Sex, Age and Education

Question: The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	no response	N
Sex ($X^2 = 11.3$, d.f. = 5, $p = .04$)							
female	13.06%	15.28%	36.94%	15.28%	6.67%	12.78%	360
male	20.54%	19.64%	30.51%	12.99%	5.74%	10.57%	331
Age ($X^2 = 79.8$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	17.08%	17.79%	39.50%	14.23%	5.69%	5.69%	281
35-64	18.26%	18.56%	32.63%	13.17%	7.19%	10.18%	334
65&UP	7.89%	11.84%	17.11%	15.79%	6.58%	40.79%	76
Education* ($X^2 = 25.6$, d.f. = 10, $p = .004$)							
high school	19.08%	16.03%	22.90%	19.85%	7.63%	14.50%	131
college	15.93%	14.95%	36.52%	12.50%	7.35%	12.75%	408
post-grad	16.11%	26.17%	34.90%	12.75%	3.36%	6.71%	149

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 25: Attitude E by Sex
(Internet Users)**

Question: The most useful candidate information comes directly from a candidate, for example on Internet homepages.

	strongly disagree or disagree	neutral	strongly agree or agree	N
Sex ($X^2 = 14.7$, d.f. = 2, $p = .0006$)				
female	27.43%	35.40%	37.17%	113
male	45.86%	36.84%	17.29%	133

Table 26: Attitude F by Sex, Race, Age, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote

Question: Behavior and personality are just as important to my evaluation of the candidate as his answers to any given issue question.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 11.6, d.f. = 5, p = .03)							
female	3.89%	9.17%	15.28%	28.89%	38.89%	3.89%	360
male	5.74%	12.39%	16.01%	32.63%	27.49%	5.74%	331
Race (X2 = 14.4, d.f. = 5, p = .01)							
white	4.70%	10.57%	15.60%	31.21%	34.23%	3.69%	596
minority	5.21%	10.42%	15.62%	29.17%	27.08%	12.50%	96
Age (X2 = 24.7, d.f. = 10, p = .005)							
18-34	4.63%	9.61%	18.15%	32.74%	31.32%	3.56%	281
35-64	5.09%	11.98%	15.87%	29.34%	33.83%	3.89%	334
65&UP	2.63%	9.21%	6.58%	27.63%	39.47%	14.47%	76
Education* (X2 = 21.9, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
high school	6.11%	4.58%	16.03%	23.66%	44.27%	5.34%	131
college	4.17%	10.78%	16.91%	32.11%	30.39%	5.64%	408
post-grad	4.70%	16.11%	12.75%	32.21%	32.21%	2.01%	149
Party (X2 = 31.5, d.f. = 15, p = .007)							
Democrat	7.59%	10.71%	17.86%	29.46%	28.12%	6.25%	224
Republican	4.56%	9.13%	12.93%	26.62%	42.59%	4.18%	263
other	1.57%	13.39%	12.60%	37.80%	32.28%	2.36%	127
none	3.12%	9.38%	25.00%	32.81%	23.44%	6.25%	64
Ideology (X2 = 56.4, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	9.41%	16.47%	21.18%	30.59%	17.65%	4.71%	170
moderate	2.84%	8.52%	17.98%	33.75%	32.18%	4.73%	317
conservative	4.23%	8.99%	8.47%	26.46%	48.68%	3.17%	189
Vote (X2 = 29.4, d.f. = 10, p = .001)							
Clinton	7.33%	12.09%	16.85%	31.87%	25.64%	6.23%	273
Dole	2.75%	8.63%	14.12%	27.06%	43.92%	3.53%	255
other	3.16%	14.74%	20.00%	31.58%	28.42%	2.11%	95

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 27: Useful candidate information on Internet by Age,
Education and Ideology**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Age ($X^2 = 125.8$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	2.85%	11.39%	12.10%	16.01%	52.67%	4.98%	281
35-64	3.29%	3.59%	5.99%	8.98%	64.97%	13.17%	334
65&UP	2.63%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	52.63%	44.74%	76
Education* ($X^2 = 30.2$, d.f. = 10, $p = .0008$)							
high school	0.76%	3.82%	2.29%	5.34%	65.65%	22.14%	131
college	4.41%	6.62%	9.07%	12.25%	55.39%	12.25%	408
post-grad	1.34%	7.38%	9.40%	12.08%	60.40%	9.40%	149
Ideology ($X^2 = 22.9$, d.f. = 10, $p = .01$)							
liberal	1.76%	10.59%	9.41%	14.71%	55.29%	8.24%	170
moderate	3.47%	4.10%	9.15%	11.26%	58.04%	13.88%	317
conservative	3.17%	6.35%	4.23%	6.88%	65.08%	14.29%	189

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 28: Useful candidate information on Internet by Vote
(Internet Users)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Vote ($\chi^2 = 18$, d.f. = 8, $p = .02$)						
Clinton	4.90%	20.59%	15.69%	28.43%	30.39%	102
Dole	8.79%	14.29%	19.78%	16.48%	40.66%	91
other	14.71%	11.76%	23.53%	38.24%	11.76%	34

**Table 29: Useful candidate information on TV News by Sex,
Race, Age, Income and Education**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Sex ($X^2 = 11.6$, d.f. = 5, $p = .02$)							
female	36.11%	32.22%	15.56%	7.22%	3.61%	5.28%	360
male	26.28%	34.14%	19.03%	11.78%	2.42%	6.34%	331
Race ($X^2 = 11.9$, d.f. = 5, $p = .03$)							
white	30.70%	33.56%	18.29%	9.73%	2.68%	5.03%	596
minority	34.38%	32.29%	10.42%	6.25%	5.21%	11.46%	96
Age ($X^2 = 32.7$, d.f. = 10, $p = .0003$)							
18-34	25.98%	37.01%	22.42%	7.83%	3.56%	3.20%	281
35-64	33.53%	31.74%	15.57%	10.48%	2.40%	6.29%	334
65&UP	38.16%	27.63%	5.26%	10.53%	3.95%	14.47%	76
Income* ($X^2 = 19.4$, d.f. = 10, $p = .03$)							
low	30.00%	36.07%	18.93%	7.14%	3.21%	4.64%	280
middle	34.52%	31.35%	17.46%	8.33%	3.97%	4.37%	252
upper	23.96%	36.46%	14.58%	18.75%	0.00%	6.25%	96
Education* ($X^2 = 30.2$, d.f. = 10, $p = .0008$)							
high school	42.75%	21.37%	14.50%	8.40%	4.58%	8.40%	131
college	28.92%	34.80%	19.61%	8.58%	1.72%	6.37%	408
post-grad	27.52%	39.60%	13.42%	12.75%	4.70%	2.01%	149

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 30: Useful candidate information on TV News by Sex,
Age, Income, Education and Party (TV News Viewers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Sex ($X^2 = 10.3$, d.f. = 4, $p = .03$)						
female	39.13%	35.40%	17.08%	7.14%	1.24%	322
male	28.57%	37.54%	19.93%	11.96%	1.99%	301
Age ($X^2 = 24.9$, d.f. = 8, $p = .001$)						
18-34	27.20%	39.85%	23.75%	7.66%	1.53%	261
35-64	36.45%	35.12%	16.72%	10.70%	1.00%	299
65&UP	46.03%	33.33%	4.76%	11.11%	4.76%	63
Income* ($X^2 = 16.8$, d.f. = 8, $p = .03$)						
low	31.64%	39.45%	20.31%	6.64%	1.95%	256
middle	37.39%	34.35%	18.26%	8.70%	1.30%	230
upper	25.88%	40.00%	15.29%	18.82%	0.00%	85
Education* ($X^2 = 21.6$, d.f. = 8, $p = .005$)						
high school	47.37%	24.56%	16.67%	7.89%	3.51%	114
college	31.02%	37.97%	20.86%	9.09%	1.07%	374
post-grad	29.85%	43.28%	13.43%	11.94%	1.49%	134
Party ($X^2 = 26$, d.f. = 12, $p = .01$)						
Democrat	37.88%	41.41%	12.63%	5.56%	2.53%	198
Republican	34.71%	34.30%	17.77%	11.57%	1.65%	242
other	31.30%	33.91%	23.48%	11.30%	0.00%	115
none	17.86%	41.07%	30.36%	10.71%	0.00%	56

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 31: Useful candidate information in Newspapers by Sex,
Race, Age and Education**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Sex ($X^2 = 13.3$, d.f. = 5, $p = .02$)							
female	28.89%	35.56%	13.33%	10.56%	6.39%	5.28%	360
male	27.19%	35.35%	21.15%	6.95%	3.02%	6.34%	331
Race ($X^2 = 13.8$, d.f. = 5, $p = .01$)							
white	28.02%	36.58%	17.45%	8.89%	4.53%	4.53%	596
minority	28.12%	29.17%	14.58%	8.33%	6.25%	13.54%	96
Age ($X^2 = 28.7$, d.f. = 10, $p = .001$)							
18-34	22.42%	36.30%	19.93%	10.68%	7.12%	3.56%	281
35-64	31.44%	33.83%	16.47%	8.08%	3.59%	6.59%	334
65&UP	35.53%	39.47%	7.89%	3.95%	1.32%	11.84%	76
Education* ($X^2 = 27$, d.f. = 10, $p = .002$)							
high school	36.64%	23.66%	15.27%	6.11%	8.40%	9.92%	131
college	26.72%	36.27%	17.40%	9.56%	4.17%	5.88%	408
post-grad	25.50%	44.30%	17.45%	8.05%	2.68%	2.01%	149

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 32: Useful candidate information in Newspapers by
Sex and Age (Newspaper Readers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Sex ($X^2 = 9.5$, d.f. = 4, $p = .04$)						
female	31.80%	41.64%	14.10%	10.49%	1.97%	305
male	28.81%	38.98%	22.71%	6.78%	2.71%	295
Age ($X^2 = 16$, d.f. = 8, $p = .04$)						
18-34	24.80%	41.06%	21.14%	9.76%	3.25%	246
35-64	34.01%	37.76%	17.69%	8.50%	2.04%	294
65&UP	38.33%	50.00%	8.33%	3.33%	0.00%	60

**Table 33: Useful candidate information in News Magazines
by Age, Income and Education**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Age ($X^2 = 68.9$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	12.81%	26.33%	22.06%	17.44%	17.08%	4.27%	281
35-64	13.77%	26.35%	15.27%	13.17%	22.16%	9.28%	334
65&UP	13.16%	22.37%	5.26%	6.58%	19.74%	32.89%	76
Income* ($X^2 = 21.6$, d.f. = 10, $p = .01$)							
low	10.00%	25.71%	17.86%	14.64%	22.86%	8.93%	280
middle	13.49%	25.00%	18.25%	14.29%	20.24%	8.83%	252
upper	22.92%	34.38%	14.58%	14.58%	7.29%	6.25%	96
Education* ($X^2 = 38.9$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
high school	12.98%	14.50%	11.45%	14.50%	30.53%	16.03%	131
college	12.75%	26.96%	21.08%	14.46%	15.69%	9.07%	408
post-grad	16.11%	32.21%	10.07%	13.42%	21.48%	6.71%	149

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 34: Useful candidate information in News Magazines
by Education (News Magazine Readers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Education* ($\chi^2 = 27.7$, d.f. = 8, $p = .0005$)						
high school	20.69%	22.41%	15.52%	20.69%	20.69%	58
college	16.24%	35.42%	25.83%	17.34%	5.17%	271
post-grad	21.82%	40.00%	11.82%	16.36%	10.00%	110

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 35: Useful candidate information on NPR by Race,
Age, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Race (X2 = 15.1, d.f. = 5, p = .009)							
white	16.44%	19.13%	10.57%	13.26%	31.54%	9.06%	596
minority	20.83%	12.50%	17.71%	12.50%	19.79%	16.67%	96
Age (X2 = 76.7, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	15.66%	18.51%	12.46%	13.88%	34.52%	4.98%	281
35-64	20.96%	18.56%	11.08%	13.17%	27.84%	8.38%	334
65&UP	5.26%	15.79%	7.89%	10.53%	23.68%	36.84%	76
Education* (X2 = 47.9, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	10.69%	14.50%	9.92%	11.45%	36.64%	16.79%	131
college	14.95%	17.16%	14.22%	12.25%	31.13%	10.29%	408
post-grad	28.19%	24.83%	5.37%	16.78%	21.48%	3.36%	149
Party (X2 = 26.2, d.f. = 15, p = .03)							
Democrat	21.88%	17.41%	13.39%	13.39%	22.77%	11.16%	224
Republican	11.41%	16.73%	11.03%	12.93%	38.02%	9.89%	263
other	20.47%	20.47%	13.39%	13.39%	23.62%	8.66%	127
none	17.19%	20.31%	4.69%	14.06%	35.94%	7.81%	64
Ideology (X2 = 53, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	30.00%	15.29%	12.35%	14.12%	22.94%	5.29%	170
moderate	14.51%	22.71%	12.62%	12.93%	26.18%	11.04%	317
conservative	9.52%	13.76%	9.52%	12.70%	44.44%	10.05%	189
Vote (X2 = 32.1, d.f. = 10, p = .0004)							
Clinton	24.18%	17.58%	12.09%	12.82%	22.34%	10.99%	273
Dole	9.41%	19.61%	10.59%	16.08%	36.86%	7.45%	255
other	15.79%	16.84%	10.53%	10.53%	36.84%	9.47%	95

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 36: Useful candidate information on NPR by Sex, Education, Ideology and Vote (NPR Listeners)

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Sex (X2 = 11.8, d.f. = 4, p = .01)						
female	33.70%	35.91%	11.60%	12.15%	6.63%	181
male	28.14%	25.75%	19.16%	21.56%	5.39%	167
Education* (X2 = 15.9, d.f. = 8, p = .04)						
high school	25.64%	35.90%	10.26%	17.95%	10.26%	39
college	27.40%	30.77%	20.19%	15.87%	5.77%	208
post-grad	40.20%	31.37%	5.88%	17.65%	4.90%	102
Ideology (X2 = 25.9, d.f. = 8, p = .001)						
liberal	46.36%	23.64%	14.55%	12.73%	2.73%	110
moderate	23.81%	37.50%	16.67%	16.07%	5.95%	168
conservative	22.73%	30.30%	12.12%	22.73%	12.12%	66
Vote (X2 = 26.6, d.f. = 8, p = .0008)						
Clinton	40.79%	28.29%	13.16%	13.82%	3.95%	152
Dole	16.13%	37.90%	16.13%	24.19%	5.65%	124
other	32.61%	26.09%	15.22%	13.04%	13.04%	46

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 37: Contribution of Larry King Live by Age,
Income and Education**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Age (X2 = 49. 7, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	6.05%	14.23%	18.86%	16.01%	41.99%	2.85%	281
35-64	6.89%	14.97%	13.77%	16.77%	41.02%	6.59%	334
65&UP	3.95%	17.11%	9.21%	11.84%	32.89%	25.00%	76
Income* (X2 = 19. 7, d.f. = 10, p = .03)							
low	5.36%	13.93%	19.64%	12.50%	42.14%	6.43%	280
middle	6.35%	13.89%	13.89%	18.65%	40.48%	6.75%	252
upper	5.21%	20.83%	8.33%	22.92%	41.67%	1.04%	96
Education* (X2 = 19.8, d.f. = 10, p = .03)							
high school	5.34%	13.74%	14.50%	12.21%	41.98%	12.21%	131
college	7.11%	15.20%	17.40%	15.20%	38.48%	6.62%	408
post-grad	4.70%	14.77%	9.40%	21.48%	46.31%	3.36%	149

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 38: Contribution of Larry King Live by Race
and Education (Larry King Live Viewers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Race ($X^2 = 10.3$, d.f. = 4, $p = .03$)						
white	15.98%	37.28%	17.16%	16.57%	13.04%	169
minority	13.33%	10.00%	26.67%	26.67%	23.33%	30
Education* ($X^2 = 17.1$, d.f. = 8, $p = .02$)						
high school	19.35%	41.94%	12.90%	9.68%	16.13%	31
college	17.95%	32.48%	21.37%	12.82%	15.38%	117
post-grad	8.00%	28.00%	14.00%	36.00%	14.00%	50

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 39: Contribution of MTV by Race, Age, Income, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Race (X2 = 12.2, d.f. = 5, p = .03)							
white	2.85%	6.88%	12.58%	12.08%	53.69%	11.91%	596
minority	7.29%	6.25%	20.83%	10.42%	40.62%	14.58%	96
Age (X2 = 124.5, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	4.98%	12.46%	19.22%	15.66%	44.48%	3.20%	281
35-64	2.69%	3.29%	11.08%	10.18%	59.28%	13.47%	334
65&UP	1.32%	0.00%	5.26%	3.95%	48.68%	40.79%	76
Income* (X2 = 24.9, d.f. = 10, p = .005)							
low	3.93%	7.14%	20.00%	13.21%	46.43%	9.29%	280
middle	1.98%	4.37%	9.92%	11.90%	59.13%	12.70%	252
upper	3.12%	10.42%	9.38%	10.42%	59.38%	7.29%	96
Education* (X2 = 24.1, d.f. = 10, p = .007)							
high school	1.53%	3.82%	13.74%	7.63%	54.96%	18.32%	131
college	4.41%	7.84%	15.93%	13.73%	47.79%	10.29%	408
post-grad	2.68%	6.04%	8.05%	9.40%	62.42%	11.41%	149
Party (X2 = 31, d.f. = 15, p = .008)							
Democrat	4.91%	4.46%	16.52%	8.93%	50.00%	15.18%	224
Republican	1.90%	6.84%	9.51%	11.41%	59.70%	10.65%	263
other	4.72%	5.51%	19.69%	14.17%	47.24%	8.66%	127
none	3.12%	14.06%	10.94%	17.19%	43.75%	10.94%	64
Ideology (X2 = 21, d.f. = 10, p = .02)							
liberal	6.47%	10.00%	15.29%	10.59%	47.65%	10.00%	170
moderate	1.89%	5.36%	16.40%	13.25%	50.47%	12.62%	317
conservative	3.17%	5.82%	8.99%	10.05%	60.85%	11.11%	189
Vote (X2 = 24.3, d.f. = 10, p = .006)							
Clinton	5.86%	7.33%	17.22%	11.72%	45.05%	12.82%	273
Dole	1.96%	6.27%	10.98%	12.94%	60.39%	7.45%	255
other	0.00%	7.37%	13.68%	10.53%	54.74%	13.68%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 40: Contribution of MTV by Party, Ideology and Vote
(MTV Viewers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Party ($X^2 = 22.5$, d.f. = 12, $p = .03$)						
Democrat	13.79%	13.79%	29.31%	12.07%	31.03%	58
Republican	3.28%	19.67%	19.67%	24.59%	32.79%	61
other	10.00%	16.67%	46.67%	6.67%	20.00%	30
none	3.23%	22.58%	16.13%	32.26%	25.81%	31
Ideology ($X^2 = 17.4$, d.f. = 8, $p = .02$)						
liberal	17.86%	25.00%	21.43%	14.29%	21.43%	56
moderate	2.22%	15.56%	30.00%	22.22%	30.00%	90
conservative	5.71%	14.29%	22.86%	20.00%	37.14%	35
Vote ($X^2 = 15.9$, d.f. = 8, $p = .04$)						
Clinton	13.95%	17.44%	29.07%	19.77%	19.77%	86
Dole	1.72%	18.97%	22.41%	22.41%	34.48%	58
other	0.00%	18.52%	22.22%	14.81%	44.44%	27

Table 41: Contribution of Political Talk Shows by Age

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Age ($\chi^2 = 52.2$, d.f. = 10, $p < .0001$)							
18-34	14.95%	32.74%	23.49%	9.96%	16.37%	2.49%	281
35-64	17.07%	33.23%	17.37%	13.47%	11.98%	6.89%	334
65&UP	17.11%	23.68%	9.21%	10.53%	15.79%	23.68%	76

**Table 42: Contribution of Morning News/Talk Shows by Sex,
Race, Age, Income, Education and Vote**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 22.8, d.f. = 5, p = .0004)							
female	20.83%	26.94%	16.39%	13.33%	15.28%	7.22%	360
male	11.18%	21.75%	17.22%	19.94%	23.56%	6.34%	331
Race (X2 = 11.1, d.f. = 5, p = .04)							
white	15.10%	24.16%	17.45%	16.95%	20.47%	5.87%	596
minority	22.92%	26.04%	13.54%	13.54%	12.50%	11.46%	96
Age (X2 = 64.1, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	14.23%	25.27%	19.22%	19.57%	19.57%	2.14%	281
35-64	16.77%	24.25%	16.77%	16.17%	20.06%	5.99%	334
65&UP	18.42%	23.68%	7.89%	7.89%	15.79%	26.32%	76
Income* (X2 = 21.2, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
low	17.50%	21.79%	22.50%	16.43%	17.14%	4.64%	280
middle	14.29%	24.60%	15.87%	17.06%	20.63%	7.54%	252
upper	11.46%	35.42%	11.46%	16.67%	23.96%	1.04%	96
Education* (X2 = 44, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	22.90%	17.56%	17.56%	14.50%	13.74%	13.74%	131
college	15.69%	28.68%	16.91%	16.18%	16.91%	5.64%	408
post-grad	10.07%	20.13%	16.11%	19.46%	31.54%	2.68%	149
Vote (X2 = 27.8, d.f. = 10, p = .001)							
Clinton	21.25%	20.88%	18.32%	15.75%	17.58%	6.23%	273
Dole	11.37%	27.45%	19.61%	18.43%	18.82%	4.31%	255
other	8.42%	27.37%	8.42%	17.89%	29.47%	8.42%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 43: Contribution of Morning News/Talk Shows by
Sex, Income and Vote (Morning Show Viewers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Sex (X2 = 9, d.f. = 4, p = .05)						
female	28.70%	36.52%	17.83%	11.74%	5.22%	230
male	19.68%	31.91%	22.87%	17.02%	8.51%	188
Income* (X2 = 27.2, d.f. = 8, p = .0006)						
low	27.61%	28.83%	26.99%	14.72%	1.84%	163
middle	20.50%	34.16%	18.63%	14.91%	11.80%	161
upper	18.33%	51.67%	16.67%	10.00%	3.33%	60
Vote (X2 = 19.7, d.f. = 8, p = .01)						
Clinton	31.61%	28.74%	21.84%	13.22%	4.60%	174
Dole	16.67%	37.65%	20.99%	16.05%	8.64%	162
other	12.77%	51.06%	14.89%	14.89%	6.38%	47

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

**Table 44: Contribution of Daytime TV Talk Shows by Sex, Race,
Age, Income, Education, Party and Vote**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Sex (X2 = 29.4, d.f. = 5, p < .0001)							
female	8.33%	13.33%	18.33%	16.94%	35.56%	7.50%	360
male	3.32%	7.85%	10.88%	17.82%	51.96%	8.16%	331
Race (X2 = 44, d.f. = 5, p < .0001)							
white	4.03%	9.40%	14.09%	17.95%	46.81%	7.72%	596
minority	17.71%	18.75%	17.71%	14.58%	23.96%	7.29%	96
Age (X2 = 58, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	5.69%	14.23%	15.30%	18.86%	42.70%	3.20%	281
35-64	5.69%	8.98%	15.87%	16.77%	45.81%	6.89%	334
65&UP	6.58%	6.58%	6.58%	14.47%	38.16%	27.63%	76
Income* (X2 = 32.4, d.f. = 10, p = .0003)							
low	7.50%	13.21%	20.00%	17.50%	35.71%	6.07%	280
middle	3.97%	9.13%	11.11%	19.05%	48.81%	7.94%	252
upper	3.12%	8.33%	10.42%	16.67%	60.42%	1.04%	96
Education* (X2 = 50, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
high school	12.21%	10.69%	16.79%	6.37%	34.35%	14.50%	131
college	5.64%	12.75%	15.44%	18.87%	40.93%	6.37%	408
post-grad	0.67%	6.04%	10.07%	18.12%	60.40%	4.70%	149
Party (X2 = 34.9, d.f. = 15, p = .002)							
Democrat	12.05%	8.93%	17.86%	17.41%	35.71%	8.04%	224
Republican	2.28%	11.03%	11.41%	18.63%	48.82%	3.94%	263
other	4.72%	11.81%	14.96%	15.75%	48.82%	3.94%	127
none	3.12%	15.62%	12.50%	17.19%	43.75%	7.81%	64
Vote (X2 = 22.9, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
Clinton	8.42%	11.72%	17.95%	15.38%	40.29%	6.23%	273
Dole	2.75%	9.80%	14.51%	20.00%	47.45%	5.49%	255
other	4.21%	11.58%	5.26%	21.05%	47.37%	10.53%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 45: Contribution of Daytime TV Talk Shows by Race
(Daytime Talk Show Viewers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Race ($\chi^2 = 14.3$, d.f. = 4, $p = .006$)						
white	9.90%	19.80%	28.71%	24.26%	17.33%	202
minority	25.00%	28.33%	20.00%	11.67%	15.00%	60

**Table 46: Contribution of Late Night TV Shows by Race, Age,
Income, Education and Ideology**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Race (X2 = 21.1, d.f. = 5, p = .0007)							
white	2.85%	8.39%	14.77%	18.79%	46.31%	8.89%	596
minority	10.42%	12.50%	20.83%	18.75%	29.17%	8.33%	96
Age (X2 = 68.7, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	4.63%	10.68%	18.51%	23.13%	39.50%	3.56%	281
35-64	3.89%	7.49%	15.57%	16.77%	47.90%	8.38%	334
65&UP	2.63%	7.89%	2.63%	11.84%	44.74%	30.26%	76
Income* (X2 = 35.5, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
low	4.64%	11.43%	20.71%	20.71%	36.79%	5.71%	280
middle	3.17%	6.75%	13.10%	20.24%	46.83%	9.92%	252
upper	2.08%	5.21%	10.42%	16.67%	64.58%	1.04%	96
Education* (X2 = 28.7, d.f. = 10, p = .001)							
high school	8.40%	8.40%	17.56%	16.03%	36.64%	12.98%	131
college	3.92%	10.05%	16.67%	19.85%	41.67%	7.84%	408
post-grad	0.67%	6.04%	10.74%	18.79%	57.72%	6.04%	149
Ideology (X2 = 20.9, d.f. = 10, p = .02)							
liberal	5.88%	10.59%	15.88%	20.00%	42.94%	4.71%	170
moderate	3.47%	6.62%	19.24%	18.93%	41.32%	10.41%	317
conservative	2.65%	10.58%	9.52%	18.52%	51.85%	6.88%	189

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 47: Contribution of Late Night TV Shows by
Education and Ideology (Late Night Viewers)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Education* (X2 = 22.4, d.f. = 8, p = .004)						
high school	18.52%	12.96%	33.33%	22.22%	12.96%	54
college	5.16%	15.49%	23.94%	27.70%	27.70%	213
post-grad	1.67%	11.67%	23.33%	36.67%	26.67%	60
Ideology (X2 = 15.1, d.f. = 8, p = .05)						
liberal	9.57%	18.09%	22.34%	27.66%	22.34%	94
moderate	5.59%	8.39%	32.87%	28.67%	24.48%	143
conservative	4.71%	18.82%	16.47%	29.41%	30.59%	85

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 48: Contribution of Popular Magazines by Race, Age, Income, Education, Party, Ideology and Vote

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Race (X2 = 39.1, d.f. = 5, p < .0001)							
white	2.68%	8.72%	13.42%	18.12%	49.16%	7.89%	596
minority	13.54%	12.50%	20.83%	21.88%	25.00%	6.25%	96
Age (X2 = 100.6, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	4.63%	13.88%	19.57%	23.49%	35.59%	2.85%	281
35-64	3.89%	7.19%	11.68%	18.26%	52.10%	6.89%	334
65&UP	2.63%	2.63%	5.26%	3.95%	56.58%	28.95%	76
Income* (X2 = 22.8, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
low	5.00%	12.14%	16.79%	21.07%	38.57%	6.43%	280
middle	2.78%	8.33%	10.71%	19.44%	50.40%	8.33%	252
upper	2.08%	7.29%	14.58%	16.67%	58.33%	1.04%	96
Education* (X2 = 26.3, d.f. = 10, p = .003)							
high school	3.82%	6.87%	12.21%	13.74%	48.85%	14.50%	131
college	5.15%	10.78%	16.18%	20.10%	41.42%	6.37%	408
post-grad	2.01%	8.05%	10.07%	18.79%	56.38%	4.70%	149
Party (X2 = 54.1, d.f. = 15, p < .0001)							
Democrat	9.38%	10.27%	14.73%	17.41%	39.29%	8.93%	224
Republican	0.76%	7.60%	10.27%	15.97%	58.56%	6.84%	263
other	2.36%	11.02%	17.32%	24.41%	39.37%	5.51%	127
none	1.56%	10.94%	23.44%	23.44%	34.38%	6.25%	64
Ideology (X2 = 43.8, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	8.24%	12.94%	20.00%	22.94%	32.35%	3.53%	170
moderate	2.52%	10.09%	14.83%	16.72%	47.00%	8.83%	317
conservative	3.17%	5.29%	7.94%	19.58%	57.67%	6.35%	189
Vote (X2 = 31.8, d.f. = 10, p = .0004)							
Clinton	6.59%	12.82%	17.58%	17.58%	38.46%	6.96%	273
Dole	1.96%	6.67%	12.16%	19.61%	54.90%	4.71%	255
other	0.00%	9.47%	13.68%	24.21%	43.16%	9.47%	95

* The income categories are: low = household income of \$34,999 or less; middle = household income of \$35,000 - \$74,999; upper = household income of \$75,000 or more.

The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Table 49: Contribution of Popular Magazines by Race, Party, Ideology and Vote (Popular Magazine Readers)

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Race (X2 = 16, d.f. = 4, p = .002)						
white	4.42%	17.67%	23.29%	30.92%	23.69%	249
minority	16.67%	20.37%	29.63%	24.07%	9.26%	54
Party (X2 = 23.5, d.f. = 12, p = .02)						
Democrat	14.29%	20.95%	22.86%	25.71%	16.19%	105
Republican	1.11%	16.67%	22.22%	32.22%	27.78%	90
other	4.76%	17.46%	25.40%	31.75%	20.63%	63
none	0.00%	15.91%	31.82%	31.82%	20.45%	44
Ideology (X2 = 22.4, d.f. = 8, p = .004)						
liberal	11.11%	21.21%	27.27%	28.28%	12.12%	99
moderate	4.32%	20.14%	25.90%	25.18%	24.46%	139
conservative	4.69%	9.38%	14.06%	43.75%	28.12%	64
Vote (X2 = 28.6, d.f. = 8, p = .0004)						
Clinton	10.27%	23.29%	27.40%	23.29%	15.75%	146
Dole	1.98%	10.89%	22.77%	34.65%	29.70%	101
other	0.00%	20.51%	20.51%	46.15%	12.82%	39

**Table 50: Contribution of Talk Radio by Age, Education,
Party, Ideology and Vote**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	no response	N
Age (X2 = 73.3, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
18-34	9.61%	18.15%	17.44%	16.73%	35.59%	2.49%	281
35-64	12.57%	9.88%	14.37%	15.57%	41.92%	5.69%	334
65&UP	14.47%	14.47%	1.32%	6.58%	38.16%	25.00%	76
Education* (X2 = 22.2, d.f. = 10, p = .01)							
high school	16.79%	8.40%	9.92%	15.27%	38.93%	10.69%	131
college	12.50%	15.20%	15.20%	14.46%	36.52%	6.13%	408
post-grad	5.37%	14.77%	14.09%	16.78%	45.64%	3.36%	149
Party (X2 = 70, d.f. = 15, p < .0001)							
Democrat	7.59%	7.59%	11.16%	13.39%	51.79%	8.48%	224
Republican	18.63%	20.53%	16.35%	14.07%	25.10%	5.32%	263
other	8.66%	12.60%	15.75%	14.96%	45.67%	2.36%	127
none	6.25%	10.94%	10.94%	26.56%	39.06%	6.25%	64
Ideology (X2 = 76.5, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
liberal	5.88%	6.47%	11.76%	14.71%	57.06%	4.12%	170
moderate	7.89%	14.20%	13.54%	17.03%	40.06%	7.26%	317
conservative	23.28%	20.11%	16.93%	12.70%	21.69%	5.29%	189
Vote (X2 = 74.8, d.f. = 10, p < .0001)							
Clinton	4.76%	6.59%	10.99%	17.95%	52.38%	7.33%	273
Dole	16.47%	19.22%	19.22%	15.29%	27.06%	2.75%	255
other	16.84%	18.95%	7.37%	11.58%	38.95%	6.32%	95

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

**Table 51: Contribution of Talk Radio by Education,
Ideology and Vote (Talk Radio Listeners)**

	very much	some	neutral	little	none	N
Education* (X2 = 20.1, d.f. = 8, p = .009)						
high school	44.68%	8.51%	17.02%	21.28%	8.51%	47
college	24.73%	24.73%	19.89%	19.35%	11.29%	186
post-grad	10.91%	30.91%	27.27%	23.64%	7.27%	55
Ideology (X2 = 22, d.f. = 8, p = .004)						
liberal	16.67%	14.29%	26.19%	26.19%	16.67%	42
moderate	16.67%	26.98%	20.63%	25.40%	10.32%	126
conservative	37.07%	23.28%	18.97%	13.79%	6.90%	116
Vote (X2 = 24.5, d.f. = 8, p = .001)						
Clinton	15.07%	10.96%	24.66%	34.25%	15.07%	73
Dole	26.67%	25.33%	22.67%	16.67%	8.67%	150
other	31.82%	31.82%	6.82%	18.18%	11.36%	44

* The education categories are: high school = completed some high school or earned high school diploma; college = completed some college or college degree; post-grad = completed post-graduate education.

Vita

Lee Greenwood Scurry was born in Navasota, Texas, on May 31, 1969. She moved to Houston, Texas, shortly thereafter, where she attended River Oaks Baptist School from first through eighth grade. In ninth grade she entered Lamar Senior High School in the Houston Independent School District, from which she graduated in May 1987.

The following fall she entered Baylor University in Waco, Texas. She transferred to the University of Texas at Austin in August of 1989, where she received the Bachelor of Journalism degree in December 1991.

After working in public affairs at the U.S. Department of the Interior in Washington, D.C., for three and one-half years, she entered the master's program in communications at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville in August 1995. The Master of Science degree was received in May of 1997.