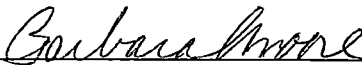
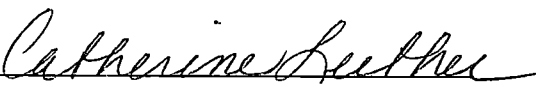
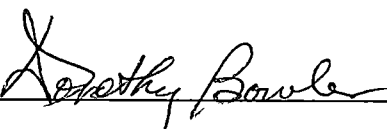
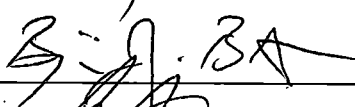


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jowon Park entitled "U.S. Television News Coverage of Korea and Japan: A Comparative Content Analysis of Evening News." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Communications.


Barbara A. Moore, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:


Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of the Graduate School

U.S. TELEVISION NEWS COVERAGE OF
KOREA AND JAPAN: A COMPARATIVE CONTENT
ANALYSIS OF EVENING NEWS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jowon Park
August 2000

Copyright © Jowon Park, 2000
All right reserved

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to
my parents,
Mr. Kee-Sang Park
and Mrs. Chung Lee,
for their love, support, and encouragement.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are many people to whom I would like to express my gratitude. I am deeply grateful to my dissertation committee, Dr. Barbara Moore, Dr. Ben Bates, Dr. Dorothy Bowles, Dr. Catherine Luther, and Dr. Robert Peterson, for their invaluable advice. My greatest appreciation goes to Dr. Barbara Moore, my committee chair, whose guidance and encouragement made this project possible. I am also grateful to other graduate faculty and staff in the College of Communications.

I thank my family in Korea for their support and patience with me over the years of my graduate study in America. I owe a great deal of my success to them.

Finally, my greatest debt is owed to my wife, Guiohk Lee, who is a lifelong colleague in my academic life. Without her love, encouragement, and intellectual comments, I would never have reached this moment. My deepest and most heartfelt thanks go to my children, Woojin and Shin-Yong, who always have given me hope and have enriched my life.

ABSTRACT

This study examined U.S. television news coverage of Korea and Japan. ABC, CBS, NBC, and CNN evening news programs from 1995 to 1998 were analyzed. The research questions of this study were "how are Korea and Japan treated in American television news?" and "how do American television news stories frame Korea and Japan?" The amounts, length, rank, thematic contents, orientations, and news types of stories and the frames utilized in the news stories were analyzed. News abstracts as well as videotapes were analyzed. For frame analysis, videotapes of news stories with following themes were selected for analysis.

1. International relations with the U.S.
2. Economics
3. Demonstration and protest
4. Disaster

In addition to addressing the research questions mentioned above, this study compared the differences between the networks and CNN in covering the two countries.

The findings revealed the imbalance in the coverage between the two countries. In terms of news amount and rank of the stories, Japan was treated as more important than Korea in the U.S. television news coverage. These findings indicate the importance of Japan as a news item compared to Korea.

In terms of thematic contents, coverage of Korea was more likely to be concerned with politics and military affairs, while news coverage of Japan was more likely to be concerned with themes such as economics, crime, disaster, culture, and science. The analysis of crisis/noncrisis orientation of news stories revealed that the coverage of the two countries tended to be crisis-oriented. However, the proportion of crisis-orientated stories was statistically higher for Korea. The percentage of soft news was higher in Japanese news. The analysis of episodic/thematic frame revealed that the news coverage of Korea and Japan is more episodic than general television news.

Frame analysis examined the qualitative aspects of news stories. Frame analysis was performed according to the themes and subjects of the news stories as mentioned before. The news stories about the two countries' political relations with the United States generally utilized a cooperative frame. However, the frame analysis of economics news about the two countries revealed a different frame from international politics. The economics of Japan was heavily framed in a rival frame, while the economics of Korea was generally framed in a cooperative frame.

The frame analysis of demonstration and protest stories showed a clear contrast between Korea and Japan. While demonstration and protest in Korea were mostly framed in a chaos frame, the majority of stories about demonstration and protest in Japan were framed in a democracy frame. The

frame analysis of disaster stories showed a dominance of a sympathetic frame for both countries.

The comparative analysis of the coverage of the two countries between the broadcast networks and CNN revealed the differences in thematic contents and news types between the broadcast networks and CNN.

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that the U.S. television news coverage of the two countries is recommended to provide the audience with a panoramic view of the countries. This is hoped to lead to the creation of well-informed citizen in international affairs. In this way, television news can try to become more responsible to the audience they serve. Ultimately, this may promote the mutual understanding among nations in the global community where cooperation among nations is a key to the prosperity.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
BACKGROUND.....	1
IMPORTANCE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	6
MAJOR ISSUES AND EVENTS IN KOREA AND JAPAN (1995-1998).	12
ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY	15
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	17
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND--FRAMING.....	17
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND—AGENDA-SETTING.....	25
PREVIOUS RESEARCH.....	28
RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES	31
III. METHOD	40
FRAMING AND CONTENT ANALYSIS.....	40
DEFINITION OF THE NEWS ABOUT KOREA AND JAPAN	42
UNIT OF ANALYSIS.....	43
SELECTION OF NEWS STORIES.....	45
CODING CATEGORIES.....	46
INTERCODER RELIABILITY	58
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	59
IV. RESULTS.....	61

HYPOTHESIS 1	61
HYPOTHESIS 2	64
HYPOTHESIS 3	70
HYPOTHESIS 4	70
HYPOTHESIS 5	72
HYPOTHESIS 6	74
HYPOTHESIS 7	75
HYPOTHESIS 8	78
HYPOTHESIS 9	80
V. CONCLUSIONS	88
DISCUSSION	88
LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES	105
BIBLIOGRAPHY	108
APPENDICES	121
I. CODING SHEET	122
II. LIST OF VIDEOTAPES	125
III. MAJOR ISSUES AND EVENTS IN KOREA AND JAPAN (1995-1998).	131
VITA	133

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. PERCENTAGES OF AGREEMENT ON THE CODING OF NEWS ABSTRACTS	60
2. PERCENTAGES OF AGREEMENT ON THE CODING OF VIDEOTAPES	60
3. NUMBER OF NEWS STORIES ABOUT KOREA AND JAPAN	62
4. AVERAGE LENGTH OF NEWS STORIES	63
5. RANK OF STORIES	64
6. THEMATIC CONTENTS OF STORIES	66
7. DIFFERENCES IN THE RANKINGS OF THEMATIC CONTENTS	67
8. POLITICAL/NONPOLITICAL THEME	68
9. SOFT/HARD NEWS	69
10. CRISIS/NONCRISIS ORIENTATION	71
11. EPISODIC/THEMATIC FRAME	72
12. FRAME ANALYSIS--POLITICAL RELATIONS WITH THE U.S.	73
13. FRAME ANALYSIS--ECONOMIC NEWS	76
14. FRAME ANALYSIS--DEMONSTRATION AND PROTEST NEWS	77
15. FRAME ANALYSIS--DISASTER NEWS	79
16. THEMATIC CONTENT--NETWORKS V. CNN	82
17. POLITICAL/NONPOLITICAL THEME--NETWORKS V. CNN	83
18. HARD/SOFT NEWS--NETWORKS V. CNN	84

19. CRISIS/NONCRISIS ORIENTATION--NETWORKS V. CNN.....	85
20. THEMATIC/EPISODIC FRAME--NETWORKS V. CNN	86

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Most people in the United States get their information about foreign countries from mass media. Mass media are the principal channel through which the public is informed about foreign countries (Davison et al., 1980). Mass media can be referred to as a "window on the world" (Larson, 1984) through which people learn about the world.

However, the window does not show the world as it is. People only see the world within the frame of the window. If the frame of the window is too small, people will see only a small part of the world. If the window is on the west wall, people will only see the west. In other words, media may show only a small part of the world from a particular point of view.

It has often been argued that Western, including the United States, news coverage of foreign countries is not fair (Charles et al., 1979; Daniels, 1995; ElSarayrah, 1987; Giffard, 1984; Haile, 1987; Langton, 1989; Larson, 1979; Lent & Rao, 1979; Masmoudi, 1981⁷⁹; Mishra, 1979; Morales, 1984; Pratt, 1980; Ramaparasad & Riffe, 1987; Riffe & Shaw, 1982; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1981; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983). In particular, the Third World countries have claimed that they are underrepresented and the reports are inaccurate and biased in

Western news media (International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems, 1980).

Critics of Western media have complained that too little space is provided to the coverage of the events in the Third World. Masmoudi (1981), one of the severest critics of Western media, claimed a flagrant quantitative imbalance between developed and less developed countries. He contended that "almost 80 percent of the world news flow emanates from the major transnational agencies, however, these devote only 20 to 30 percent of news coverage to the developing countries, despite the fact that the latter account for almost three-quarter of mankind" (p. 79).

The concept of the New World Information Order, as opposed to the idea of "free flow of information," has been a major issue in the debate of international communication. Basically the dispute lies between the traditional Western commitment to a free flow of information independent of government constraints and the widely held desire of the developing world for an information flow balanced on the basis of population distribution, national aspiration, and cultural independence (Swinton, 1981).

The proponents of the New World Information Order have claimed that the principle of free flow of information is considered problematic, not because the concept of freedom to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers is intrinsically wrong or illogical, but because the context and the way in which the principle is applied has created

problems. In other words, it has been criticized that the free flow of information doctrine often has upheld a right of an individual or a nation/state in imparting information while neglecting the right of those who want to talk back, i.e. the rights of those being informed. The proponents of the New World Information Order again have claimed that underlying this argument is the fact that international information system has been an one-way flow of communication under the doctrine of free flow of information (Yang, 1986).

In fact, there has been voluminous research (Adams, 1964; Almaney 1970; Charles et al., 1979; Daniels, 1995; ElSarayah, 1987; Giffard, 1984; Gonzenbach et al., 1992; Haile, 1987; Hester, 1978; Hurrat, 1988; Langton, 1989; Larson, 1979; Lent 1977; Lent & Rao, 1979; McCracken, 1987; Meyer 1996; Mishra, 1979; Morales, 1984; Pasadeos 1982; Pittatore, 1983; Potter, 1987; Pratt, 1980; Ramaparasad & Riffe, 1987; Riffe & Shaw, 1982; Semmel, 1976; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1981; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983) about the foreign news coverage by American mass media. Many of these studies have confirmed the charges of developing countries that they are underrepresented in the international news coverage and the stories presented mainly deal with conflicts and crises. According to Gans (1979), most foreign news in America has been about England, France, West Germany, Italy, Japan, Israel, Egypt, the Soviet Union, and mainland China. Other countries typically have made the news only when they are the site of unusually dramatic happenings, such as wars, coup d'etat, or major disasters (pp. 31-32).

Studies about overall international news coverage by U.S. media have found that the coverage was often crisis oriented and sensational (Adams, 1964; Almaney 1970; Gonzenbach et al., 1992; Hurrat, 1988; Lent 1977; Meyer 1996; Pasadeos 1982; Potter, 1987; Semmel, 1976), and political and military matters were more likely to be covered (Hester, 1978). This was most pronounced when the Third World countries were related (Charles et al., 1979; Daniels, 1995; ElSarayah, 1987; Giffard, 1984; Haile, 1987; Langton, 1989; Larson, 1979; Lent & Rao, 1979; Mishra, 1979; Morales, 1984; Pratt, 1980; Ramaparasad & Riffe, 1987; Riffe & Shaw, 1982; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1981; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983). Therefore, the American mass media might give the public a violent and conflict-laden portrait of the world, especially when the Third World is involved (Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983).

On the other hand, studies have shown that the First World images in mass media were related to sophistication, art, and craftsmanship (Pittatore, 1983) and "soft news" (human interest, sport, entertainment, etc.) dominated over "hard news" (politics, economics, etc.) in the coverage of a First World country (McCracken, 1987).

These types of coverage may convey the faulty impression that the Third World countries are always in serious disarray and dangerous places. These studies reveal that the Third World news frames emphasize the negative aspects of foreign countries.

As mentioned above, people see foreign countries through the frames that mass media provide. Mass media are a major information source about foreign countries. Although there has been very little evidence about how people perceive and interpret frames, it has been assumed that mass media can greatly influence people's perception about foreign countries.

Among various mass media, television is the primary source of information for the American people. "On a typical weekday, the combined audience for the ABC, CBS, and NBC nightly newscast is some 50 million Americans. Also, nearly 80 percent of the adult population in America reports that television news is their primary source of political information¹" (Ansolabehere et al., 1993, pp. 42-43). The idea of television as the primary information source for Americans has been one of the most pervasive pieces of conventional wisdom in mass communication (Miller et al., 1988). Television especially is regarded as an effective medium in international news coverage. It can give the news about the countries on the opposite sides of the earth promptly with vivid pictures². Survey findings (Paraschos & Boice, 1985; Sparkes & Winter, 1980) have confirmed the commonly accepted notion that television is the dominant source of foreign news for the American public. Studies (Boafo,

¹ See Roper Organization (1991) for survey findings about American people's television use.

² Experimental findings suggest that news-item recall can be affected by picture content. Gunter (1980) found that among television picture items were recalled significantly more often than nonpictorial items in a experimental research.

1980; Paraschos & Boice, 1985) also have found that television audience members are generally satisfied with television's international news coverage. From these findings it may be assumed that people's attitudes toward a country may vary according to television news.

Gate
According to Graber (1997), television journalists have developed frames of highly stereotyped descriptions of specific situations. While selecting and emphasizing certain aspects of reality, mass media establish the media frame (Entman, 1993). When dealing with issues of which the public has little first-hand knowledge, such as international issues, the potential for television to establish the frames for the public is especially strong (Adams, 1987). Consistent portrayal of certain topics may help people in America develop the images of foreign countries. Television's visual immediacy, its large audience, and its political uses have all contributed to the ongoing debates about foreign affairs (Larson, 1984). The effectiveness of agenda-setting function of international news implies its importance as a research subject.

Importance and Purpose of the Study

policy
It is logically assumed that the public opinions about foreign countries that are formed and directed by mass media may exert influence upon the making of foreign policy (Bennett, 1994; Cohen 1963, 1973; Dorman & Farhang, 1987; Goren, 1980; Graham, 1994; Linsky, 1986; London, 1950; Nye, 1999; Paletz & Entman, 1981; Risse-Kappen, 1994; Shapiro & Page, 1994). It is

a basic assumption of a democratic society that mass media perform a crucial role in the process of opinion formation and of policy formation. Goren (1980) stated that "as regards international relations, the news media are assigned a critical role not only in the coordination and mobilization of domestic groups, but also in the determination of policy toward external actors" (p. 120). Mass media direct the public who "rules, or at least participates extensively in policy making" (Cohen, 1973, p. 20).

However, it needs to be noted that the degrees of influence of mass media upon foreign policy decisions have ranged from minor to substantial impact according to the researchers cited above. For example, Linsky's (1986) research suggested that the effect of the press is in general more substantial in foreign policy than in domestic policy. Cohen (1963) maintained that newspapers have enormous impact on congressional perception of foreign reality. On the other hand, Paletz and Entman (1981) suggested the mutual relationships of media and elite, through which "foreign news reporting helps the powerful mobilize public opinion (or quiescence) behind the basic goals of policies on which most Americans have little information and less control" (p. 233).

Contrary to the findings cited above, it also should be noted that there is an opposite perspective that mass media merely reflect government's foreign policy. According to Berry (1990), "the press is a moon and not a sun. It only reflects light" (p. xi). Berry's view focuses on how government's foreign policy

establishment influences the press. While examining the relationships between foreign policy and the press influence, Chang (1993) determined whether and how the press lives up to the conventional claim among journalists of being an active participant in the making of U.S. foreign policy. To the extent that United States' China policy making is concerned, he did not find evidence to support such a journalistic assertion.

While the discussion above reveals a controversy regarding the role of mass media in foreign policy decision-making, it is generally accepted that the quality and quantity of international news influence the potential public role in the foreign policy process (Davison et al., 1980). This means that the description by mass media of a foreign country helps people build the images of the country and this becomes an important element for public's opinions and attitudes toward the country. In his study of the images of the United States in Mexican newspapers, Merrill (1962) stated the value of the study of foreign coverage.

“There is value in discovering as much as possible about the images of a country as presented in any nation. Since it may be assumed that images are received, at least partially, through the mass media and that they affect international relations, any study clarifying the nature of such images has meaning in helping to explain national attitudes or postures” (pp. 203-204).

Therefore, it is important to examine how foreign countries are described and treated in American mass media. People “who believe that peace and security depend upon world public opinion based on international understanding recognize the growing importance of an adequate and meaningful flow of information among peoples as one main means of achieving such goals” (Markham, 1961, p. 249). Socially responsible mass media are expected to provide comprehensive coverage of world affairs. The position of America as the leader of global village makes it essential for Americans to become reasonably well-informed about foreign affairs.

Accordingly, journalists should be committed to “the principle that it is the responsibility of the press, radio, and television not only to inform but also to educate the public about foreign events and judge the effectiveness and propriety of its government’s foreign policies and action abroad” (Kaplan, 1979, p. 241).

This study examines television (ABC, CBS, NBC, and CNN) news coverage of Korea (i.e. South Korea or Republic of Korea) and Japan. Both Far Eastern countries have had close relationships with the United States in economics, foreign affairs, and military affairs.

While the two countries are different in terms of politico-economic status—one is a developed First World country and the other is a developing

Third World country³, they have much in common in the relationships with the United States. They have established close military alliances with the United States. The U.S. Armed Forces is stationed in both countries. In terms of economy, both of them are top ten trading partners with the U.S. They have had similar economic disputes regarding trade deficit and open trade to the U.S. agricultural products. In various international relations agendas, both Korea and Japan have kept step with the United States.

The two countries have been chosen to see how countries in similar relationships with the United States may be framed differently. It could be assumed that since they are in different politico-economic status (i.e. the First World country and the Third World country), the two countries would be framed differently despite the similarity of relationship with the United States. If this assumption is evidenced by the analysis, this study will provide an example of different frames about similar countries.

³ It should be noted that there might be a question about whether Japan and Korea are typical First and Third World countries. For example it can be argued that First World countries generally include the Western European, North American, and Oceanic countries; however, sometimes it is argued that Japan is included in this group because of its economic development and political stability but it lacks historical and cultural commonality, thus not a typical First World country. Also Korea may be claimed as a developing country in the middle between the First and Third World countries. However, generally Japan is considered to be included in the First World group and Korea as a Third World country. The UNESCO (1999) classifies Japan as a developed country (First World) and Korea as a developing country (Third World).

Although it was not an analysis of foreign countries, a study by Nelson et al. (1997) revealed the different frames about one reality. They studied the effectiveness of different news frames on tolerance for the Ku Klux Klan—one framed the rally as a free speech issue and the other framed it as a disruption of public order. This study substantiated the claim that the choices journalists make about how to cover a story—from the words, phrases, and images they convey to the broader angle they take on a controversy—can result in substantially different portrayals of the very same event and the broader controversy it represents. They claimed that contradictory portrayals or frames may exert appreciable influence on people's perception of the issue and, ultimately the opinions they express. Through this study we will be able to see how these two countries are framed in American television news.

Therefore, the main research questions of this study are:

1. *How are Korea and Japan covered in American television news?*
2. *How do American television news stories frame Korea and Japan?*

These research questions were addressed through nine research hypotheses presented in the next chapter. To test the hypotheses, content analysis method was employed. In other words, how Korea and Japan are treated and framed in American television news was examined through the examination of the actual content. In this study, framing theory provided an explanation of

how mass media play a part in people's meaning construction of the world.

Methodological issues are discussed in chapter III. Abstracts of the news stories about the two countries as well as videotapes of the news stories were analyzed.

Major Issues and Events in Korea and Japan (1995-1998)

To better understand the television news frames for the two countries during the time of this study, we need to know what the major issues and events were in the two countries. Without the knowledge of a reality, we may not well understand the media frames, because media frames provide socially constructed meanings of reality (Wolfsfeld, 1997). Therefore, major issues and events during the period studied are discussed briefly for background information. A list of major issues and events in the two countries is provided in the Appendix III.

There had been many important issues and events in the two countries and in their relationships with the United States. First of all, the visits of the President of the United States to the two countries were major events in their political relations with the United States. President Clinton visited the two countries twice, in April 1996 and November 1998. During both visits President Clinton had summit talks with the Korean President and the Japanese Prime Minister regarding peace in the Far East and trade issues. U.S. Vice President Gore also paid a visit to Korea in March 1997 and to Japan in February 1998 to talk about the U.S.-Japanese relationships.

Peace in Korean Peninsula has been a major concern among the countries. Talks to relax the hostilities and to establish permanent peace between North Korea and South Korea, which were attended by China and the United States, were held in Geneva in August 1997. North-South Korean Peace Talks had been held two more times in December 1997 and April 1998.

An espionage case involving Korea and the United States was an important issue in late 1996. In September 1996, U.S. Naval intelligent officer Robert Kim (a Korean native) was arrested on charges of delivering U.S. documents to South Korea.

Since Japan is one of the largest trading partners of the United States, U.S.-Japan trade has been one of the major issues in U.S. television news coverage of Japanese economics. U.S.-Japanese trade disputes in April-June 1995 and October 1997 had extensive coverage by U.S. television news. In 1995, the U.S.-Japanese trade dispute involved access for American car makers to the Japanese market. The U.S. government decided to impose a punishing tariff on imported Japanese cars. In 1997, the U.S. Maritime Commission banned Japanese trade ships from U.S. ports and demanded Japan to relax restrictive policies on the U.S. goods. On the other hand, the trade between the U.S. and Korea during the period studied did not involve major disputes, although there had been trade disputes regarding Korea's market open for the U.S. product in the early 1990s.

The economic recession in the two countries also received extensive attention by U.S. television news. For example, the coverage of economics in Korea sharply increased during the economic crisis period. In December 1997 the International Monetary Fund (IMF) made a bailout with three billion dollars available for economic relief in Korea. The economic recession in Japan started in November 1997⁴. In June 1998, U.S. decided to help Japan stabilize the Japanese currency, the Yen.

In terms of demonstration and protest, there were several issues and events that heated up in the two countries. South Korean students made protests regarding the unification of the two Koreas claiming the South Korean government to be more interested in the unification issues. South Korean workers and students were involved in strikes and rallies protesting the changes in labor law in December 1996. In Japan, in September 1995, three U.S. soldiers were accused of raping a Japanese schoolgirl in Okinawa. This prompted the broad protests against the presence of U.S. military bases in Okinawa. Upon the demonstration and protests regarding U.S. soldiers' crime in Japan, the U.S. made apologies to Japanese government and the people.

During the period studied, there had been several accidents and disasters in, or related with, the two countries. In Japan, the earthquake in Kobe in January 1995 received a heavy coverage by U.S. television news. Food

⁴ This date is based on media reports. It is generally accepted that the economic recession in Japan had started earlier than this date.

poisoning had been a major social problem in Japan in July 1995. In June 1995, a department store in Seoul, Korea collapsed. In August 1997, the Korean Air Flight 801 crashed on the top of the hill in Guam. Besides these accidents and disasters, flood, collapse of a tunnel, typhoon in the two countries received coverage by U.S. television news.

Framing analysis in this study would reveal how these issues and events were framed in U.S television news. Frame analysis was performed on the stories with the following themes. For frame analysis videotaped news stories were analyzed.

1. International relations with the U.S.
2. Economics
3. Demonstration and protest
4. Disaster

Organization of the Study

This study is composed of five chapters. The "Introduction" chapter contains "Background," "Importance and Purpose of the Study," "Major Issues and Events in Korea and Japan (1995-1998)," and "Organization of the Study." The second chapter, "Literature Review," provides the theoretical backgrounds of the study. Framing theory and agenda-setting theory are discussed. "Previous Research" and "Research Questions and Hypotheses" are also included in the second chapter. Chapter III addresses methodological issues. Methodological

procedures and the definitions of coding schemes are presented in this chapter. The fourth chapter presents the analysis of data and findings. The final chapter discusses the issues generated from the research findings.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the pertinent literature related to this study. As the theoretical background of the study, “media framing” and “agenda-setting” are discussed. And then the chapter reviews previous research about comparative analysis of foreign news coverage in American mass media.

Theoretical Background—Framing

Goffman (1974) first refined the concept of "framing." In his book, *Frame Analysis: An Essay on the Organization of Experience*, Goffman provided a systematic account of how people make sense of the world. He was driven by the question: “What is it that’s going on here?” (p. 8). Starting with this question, he attempted to limn out a framework that could be used for the answer. He stated the aim of the book:

“My aim is to try to isolate some of the basic frameworks of understanding available in our society for making sense out of events and to analyze the special vulnerabilities to which these frames of reference are subject” (p. 10).

He meant frame as a scheme of interpretation in which the particulars of the events and activities to which we attend are organized and made sensible. Frame is a specific set of expectations that are used to make sense of a social situation.

According to Goffman, people interpret the world around them through a "primary framework." "A primary framework is one that is seen as rendering what would otherwise be a meaningless aspect of the scene into something that is meaningful" (p. 21). Through this framework, individuals can "locate, perceive, identify, and label a seemingly infinite number of concrete occurrences defined by the framework" (p. 21). Therefore, people perceive the outside world through frames. Also, people give meaning to the world around them through frames of references. The type of framework people employ provides "a way of describing the events to which it is applied" (p. 24). Frames, then, "define problems, diagnose causes, make moral judgments, and suggest remedies"¹ (Entman, 1993, p. 52).

In the age of mass communication, people are increasingly "in contact with the mediated presentation of complex physical and social world rather than only with the objective features of their narrow personal surroundings" (DeFleur

¹ To define problems means to determine what a causal agent is doing with what costs and benefits, usually measured in terms of common cultural values. To diagnose causes is to identify the forces creating the problems. To make moral judgments indicates to evaluate causal agents and their effects. And to suggest remedies is to offer and justify treatments for the problems and predict their likely effects (Entman, 1993).

& Ball-Rokeach, 1989, p. 258). In other words, a considerable part of the awareness of most people is mediated by mass media. While emphasizing the significance of mass media, McQuail (1994) defined mass media as "a major source of definitions and images of social reality" (p. 1). He noted that the changing culture and the values of societies and groups are constructed, stored, and most visibly expressed in mass media (p. 1).

By highlighting some bits of information about an item that is the subject of a communication, framing involves "selection and salience" (Entman, 1993). In other words "to frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described" (Entman, 1993, p. 52). The media also "help people shape the ways in which particular social issues are perceived. Much of this perception-shaping is accomplished through framing" (Prisco, 1995, pp. 21-22).

Tuchman (1978) suggested that news provided a frame that delineates a particular view of the world. She defined that the act of making news is the act of constructing reality itself rather than reflecting a picture of reality. In other words, the way the news is framed provides one view of an event out of many possibilities (Volland, 1992).

However, news frames generally reflect social standards. "Media framing" is better understood within the context of the social construction of

reality approach to the mass media (Wolfsfeld, 1997), because mass media may provide people with a frame through which they see the world and give meaning to the world events. According to Wolfsfeld (1997), “framing takes place within a larger social and political context that has an important influence on the construction of frames by society, media, and audiences²” (p. 32). In other words, framing of or imposing meaning by mass media to issues and events is limited by and relative to the social and political context in which meaning is generated (Davis, 1990, Quoted in Wolfsfeld, 1990).

According to Gamson’s (1988, Quoted in Balor, 1996), “constructionist model,” both media and public are the parts of the same cultural system. As part of the same cultural systems, both parties possess the same cultural frames. Therefore, “media agents use frames that are familiar and resonate with both themselves and the public” (Baylor, 1996, p. 242). This is why “the news frame helps establish the literally common sense (i.e. widespread) interpretation of events” (Entman, 1991, p. 6).

By incorporating certain items within a frame, journalists are deciding that these variables are central to the problems and are important for audiences to consider. Similarly, by excluding certain perspectives or information from frames, journalists are implying that these things are marginal or not important,

² Numerous factors influence media content (or media frames). Shoemaker and Reese (1991) examined the influences that affect media content in terms of personal attitudes and professional roles of media workers, media routines, media organizations, sources, advertisers and audiences, government controls,

and thus detract from the legitimacy of these factors in the cause or solution of problems (Winett, 1997, p. 420).

When people's interpretative framework and media framing coincide, media framing actively involves "fitting a news story into an existing (interpretative) framework (of audience members)" (McLeod et al., 1995, p. 64). For those people who lack interpretative frameworks, the memory of news items is episodic, while for others who possess such frameworks, the memory of news items may be more concrete (or semantic). Stories that have been stored episodically will become meaningful when the individuals find suitable interpretive frameworks. People who have these interpretive frameworks will continue to search for more information through media frames or interpersonal channels (McLeod et al., 1995, pp. 63-64)

While studying mass media, the New Left movement, and the complex relations between them, Gitlin (1980) described the role of media as follows:

"Mass media define the public significance of movement events or, by blanking them out, actively deprive them of larger significance. Media images also become implicated in a movement's self-image: media certify leaders and officially noteworthy "personalities"; indeed they are able to convert leadership into celebrity, something quite different. The

other media organizations, technology, and ideology. See Shoemaker and Reese (1991) for the discussion of factors that affect media frames and contents.

forms of coverage accrete into systematic framing, and this framing, much amplified, helps determine the movement's fate" (p. 3).

Gitlin (1980) defined media frames as persistent patterns of cognition, interpretation, presentation, selection, emphasis, and exclusion by which symbol-handlers routinely organize discourse, whether verbal or visual. Television networks, as symbol-handlers, have power to show people what is going on in the world. Gitlin claimed that mass media in contemporary society play an important role in the construction of meaning through which people interpret the world. Thus, media frames help people structure their everyday experiences and basically facilitate the process of meaning construction (Pan & Kosicki, 1993). These frames allow people to understand issues in particular ways, and also guide audience response to media content (Kosicki, 1993).

Recent framing research has focused on how media framing of an issue or a problem affects people's understanding of the issue or problem (Takeshita, 1997). This approach sometimes assumes an "active audience stance" with new conceptualization of political communication in which the audience is seen as constructing meaning from a rich media environment (Neuman et al., 1992, p. 7).

According to Kosicki (1993), frames are consistent with the perspective of schematic information process which is a constructive process involving both top-down and bottom-up reasoning. This means that people make interpretations

based on abstract conceptual reasoning and accommodate new information into our existing frames. These frames may be thought of as a type of schemata, similar to scripts, prototypes, categories, and so on. Through “framing mass media initiate cognitive and affective activities within individuals (McLeod et al., 1995).

Therefore, frames also constitute the cognitive structures by which thinking on matters of social issues is organized within the minds of individuals (Nelson & Kinder, 1996). Framing assumes that “the way in which choices are presented to people—the way the choices are framed—will affect the likelihood that particular options will be selected by people” (Price & Tewksbury, 1997, p. 382).

In the same vein, “framing effects” can be conceptualized in terms of the process by which news frames affect individuals’ interpretation of political and social issues and events. Framing effects involve the interaction between news frames and the interpreter’s social knowledge (Rhee, 1997). Framing effects substantiate the claim that “the choices journalists make about how to cover a story—from the words, phrases, and images they convey to the broader angle they take on a controversy—can result in substantially different portrayals of the very same event and the broader controversy it represents. These frames can exert appreciable influence on people’s perception of the issue and ultimately, the opinions they express” (Nelson et al. 1997, p. 576).

The concept of “framing effects” provides a connection between framing and agenda-setting theory, since both theories focus on the people’s “perception of reality” and “meaning construction” (DeFleur & Ball-Rokeach, 1989).

Recently, McCombs et al. (1997) suggested that not only are agenda-setting and framing effects related; but framing is, in fact, an extension of agenda-setting. They used the term “second-level agenda-setting” to describe the impact of the salience of characteristics of media coverage on audiences’ interpretation of news stories (quoted in Scheufele, 1999, p. 103). According to Price and Tewksbury (1995), agenda-setting looks on story selection as a determinant of public perceptions of issue importance, while framing focuses not on which topic or issues are selected for coverage by the news media, but instead on the particular ways those issues are presented, on the ways public problems are formulated for the media audience.

Since “news frames influence public opinion by making certain aspects of a story more salient, thereby activating specific thoughts and ideas for audience members” (McLeod & Detenber, 1999, pp. 6-7), framing and agenda-setting are inseparable. Put in the simplest terms, these theories all suggest that “media messages can help determine what knowledge is activated—and, once activated, presumably used—when people are called on to make politically relevant judgments” (Price & Tewksbury, 1997, p. 184).

Theoretical Background—Agenda-setting

The idea of agenda-setting has been around for a long time. Lippmann (1922) discussed how the press's interpretation of events could change people's interpretations of reality. He argued that the press creates pictures of the world outside in our heads and these serve as knowledge of reality that shapes our conducts.

Cohen (1963) refined Lippmann's ideas into the theory of agenda setting. He wrote that the press may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about.

McCombs and Shaw (1972) first empirically tested agenda-setting. They found that there were strong relationships between the emphasis placed on different campaign issues by the media and the judgment of voters regarding the importance of various campaign topics. They concluded that in choosing and displaying news, editors, newsroom staff, and broadcasters play an important part in shaping political reality. In other words, the agenda of the press did become the agenda of the public. Readers learned not only about a given issue, but also, how much importance to attach to that issue from the amount of information in a news story and its position.

The agenda-setting function of mass media can be seen in international news. When dealing with issues in which the public has little first-hand knowledge, such as international issues, the potential for television to set the

public agenda is strong (Adams, 1987). Television's visual immediacy, its large audience, and its political uses have all contributed to the ongoing debates of foreign affairs (Larson, 1984). Also, as noted earlier, the depiction of a country may influence the public opinion toward the country, and the foreign policy sometimes influenced by the public opinion (Graber, 1997, pp. 363-365).

Therefore, examining news coverage about foreign countries is important because it may be closely related to the government policy toward the countries.

In fact, studies (Adams & Heyl, 1981; Belkaoui, 1978; Iyengar & Simon, 1993; Semetko et al., 1992; Wanta & Hu, 1993) found the agenda setting function of mass media very effective in international news. Following are some examples of agenda-setting impact studies of international news.

Adams and Heyl (1981) found support for television's agenda-setting effects on the American people by combining Gallup opinion research data on growing support for Egypt with content analysis on television networks' increasingly favorable coverage of Egypt. This study revealed a clear-cut change in the direction and intensity of public opinion toward Egypt, which paralleled television's frame of Egypt. Similarly, Belkaoui's (1978) study showed that the favorable images of Arabs in news magazines and New York Sunday papers were positively related with poll data that showed corresponding shifts in public opinion, toward increasing support for Arabs between 1966 and 1974 period.

Semetko et al. (1992) examined the potential for U.S. news coverage of foreign affairs to influence U.S. public opinion about foreign countries. This

study drew on two sources of data: content analysis of U.S. network news and wire service coverage of nine countries and a nationally representative survey of U.S. adults which measured opinions about these countries. The findings showed that there was an important relationship between the visibility of foreign countries in television news and U.S. public opinion about these countries. This study also found that television was more important than newspapers for influencing public opinion about foreign countries.

By comparing the coverage of 15 categories of international news in four news media (the *New York Times*, ABC, CBS, and NBC) with the level of public concern with international problems as recorded by Gallup polls data from 1970 to 1990, Wanta and Hu (1993) examined the agenda-setting impact of international news. This study found that four categories of news coverage—international conflicts involving the United States, terrorism involving the United States crime, crime/drugs, and military/nuclear arms—demonstrated the strongest agenda-setting influence.

Another study (Iyengar & Simon, 1993) examined agenda-setting effects of network television news (ABC) that operated on public opinion during the Persian Gulf crisis and war. This study found the level of network news coverage matched the portion of Gallup poll respondents naming the Gulf crisis as the nation's most important problem. Also, the network news coverage that was preoccupied with military affairs and highly event oriented, and survey data were coupled to show that respondents reporting higher rates of exposure to

television news expressed greater support for a military as opposed to a diplomatic response to the crisis.

Other studies (McNelly & Izcaray, 1986; Perry, 1985, 1987; Saito, 1996) that examined the relationships between international news (exposure) and perceptions of/attitudes toward foreign countries also supported the agenda-setting assumption. Because foreign policy can be affected by public opinion directed by mass media, agenda-setting theory may illustrate the importance of international news coverage in foreign policy making.

As discussed above, when dealing with issues of which public has little first-hand knowledge, such as international issues, the potential for the news media to set the frame or agenda for the public is considerable. Because most Americans lack interest and knowledge about foreign affairs, "the more likely they will rely on the media for information and interpretation about them" (Zucker, 1978, p. 227). Therefore, "what they see and hear on television about foreign countries, particularly when dramatic pictures are involved, can easily sway them" (Graber, 1997, p. 367). Therefore, agenda-setting theory implies the importance of examining international news coverage of mass media because of its impact on public opinion and policy issues.

Previous Research

While there have been a lot of studies about the American media coverage of foreign countries, relatively few studies have compared the media

coverage between two or more countries. Comparison of the media coverage of Korea and Japan has not drawn attention from international communication research.

Several comparative studies of news coverage about countries have been located. Among them, two studies included coverage about Korea for analysis.

Entman (1991) examined the media coverage of the downing of Korean Air Lines by Soviet fighter planes in 1983 and the downing of Iran Air by U.S. Navy ships in 1988. He found that by the de-emphasis of the responsible party, as well as the choice of graphics and adjectives, the U.S. media framed the Iran Air incident as a technical problem, while the Korean Air Lines incident was portrayed as a moral outrage.

Another study (Lee & Craig, 1992) compared U.S. newspapers' coverage of labor strikes in South Korea and Poland. The authors concluded the news represented the labor strikes in foreign countries within the anti-communist framework. They found that although a similar issue was at stake in each labor strike, very different orientations were taken for the strikes by U.S. media. The findings showed that while South Korean labor strikes were described as inter-organizational dispute over wages and the political nature of the struggle was trivialized in the strikes, Polish labor strikes were described as the crisis of the whole Polish system.

Keshishian (1997) compared the earthquakes of Armenia and Iran in U.S. newspapers. She examined whether politico-economic theory holds true in

the reportage of nonpolitical events such as natural disaster. According to the theory, news reporting is politically biased in that it reflects the political-economic interests of the country that produces the news. At the time of the disaster (Armenia in 1988 and Iran in 1990), the Soviet Union and Iran had dramatically contrasting relationships with the United States. Results of this study strongly supported the theory. The newspapers' reportage tended to be more sympathetic toward Armenia/Soviet Union with whom the United States had friendly relations.

Yang (1995) compared U.S and British media coverage of the Soviet (1931-32) and Chinese (1959-61) famines. This study found that the Soviet famine was evidently more important to the newspapers studied than the Chinese famine because there was more coverage about the Soviet than China. Yang interpreted the differences of coverage with the Eurocentric tendency in the Western media.

News coverage of Arab nations versus Israel was comparatively analyzed by Barranco and Shyles (1988). The quantitative analysis of the amount of coverage revealed a significant imbalance between Arab nations and Israel. It was found that Israel received substantially more coverage than nine Arab nations. The authors commented that such imbalances in the coverage of the Mideast might have the potential to harm the American, as well as the international comprehension, of issues and events in the region.

The previous studies of comparative content analysis of coverage between countries reveal that the media use different frames for different countries and the frames are influenced by political, ideological, and cultural factors. This implies that the news stories about Korea and Japan may reflect their relationship with the United States. For example, there may be more economic related news stories about Japan than Korea, reflecting the economic relationship between the United States and Japan.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

On the basis of the literature reviewed before, the main research question of this study has been developed. Both media framing theory and agenda-setting theory suggest that the understanding of media framing begins with the examination of what are covered in the news. Without knowing what is covered and how it is covered one can never identify the frames of media, their influence on people's interpretation of the world outside, and people's construction of reality. Shoemaker and Reese (1991) proposed a taken for granted assumption that "understanding the nature of media content is crucial in understanding the nature and importance of content's effects on people and society" (p. 218). They explained this assumption as follows. "Knowing what media content is like predict its effects on the audience. When we avoid content-specific measures in our effects studies, we run the risk of ignoring important causal connections between exposure to content and its effects" (p. 218).

Therefore, the research questions focused on how the two countries are covered and how they are framed. Addressing these questions will let us identify the frames utilized in covering the two countries. Also, this will provide a basis for identifying the frames' influence on the recognition of the countries, although this is beyond the range of this study.

The research questions were:

1. *How are Korea and Japan covered in American television news?*
2. *How do American television news stories frame Korea and Japan?*

From the research questions, the following research hypotheses were developed. The definitions of each coding category are presented in the "Method" chapter.

The first hypothesis was based on the assertion that the Third World countries are less well covered than the First World countries (Masmoudi, 1981). Research findings (Giffard, 1984; Langton, 1989; Larson, 1979; Potter, 1987) revealed that the amount of the Third World coverage lags behind that of developed countries and is treated as less important. Also the assumption of this hypothesis was based on Galtung and Ruge's (1981) statement that "the more the event concerns elite nations, the more probable that it will become a news item" (p. 56).

Hypothesis 1: Television news about Japan will be treated as more important than news about Korea as evidenced by a greater number of, the longer average length of, and the higher rank of news stories.

Hypothesis 2 was derived from the research findings that the Third World coverage is more likely concerned with politics and military affairs (Daniels, 1995; Haile, 1987; Hester, 1978; Lent & Rao, 1979) while the First World coverage shows a higher portion of soft news stories (McCraken, 1987).

Hypothesis 2: The emphasis of coverage in terms of themes³ will be different between Korea and Japan. While the news stories about Korea will be dominated by political matters, such as politics, military affairs, and foreign affairs, the news stories about Japan will show a higher proportion of nonpolitical stories than those about Korea. The proportion of soft new stories, compared to hard news stories, will be higher in the coverage of Japan than Korea.

The third hypothesis grew out of the research findings that the Third World coverage is crisis-oriented (Charles et al., 1979; Morales, 1984; Pratt,

³ In this study, "theme" (or thematic content) means the topic of news stories, if it is not noted otherwise. See "Coding Categories" in "Method" chapter.

1980; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1981; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983) and sensational (Langton, 1989).

Hypothesis 3: Television news about Korea will show a crisis orientation compared to the coverage of Japan.

The fourth hypothesis was generated from Iyengar and Simon's (1993) frame analysis. "Typically, the networks frame issues in either episodic or thematic terms. The episodic frame depicts public issues in terms of concrete instances or specific events. The thematic news frame, in contrast, places public issues in some general or abstract context" (Iyengar & Simon, 1993, p. 369). Since developed countries are more likely to be treated as important while developing countries are underrepresented in news coverage (Almaney, 1970; Gozenbach et al., 1992; Hester, 1978; Hurrat, 1988; Lent, 1977; Potter, 1987; Semmel, 1976; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1981; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983), it was hypothesized that Japanese coverage would show a higher proportion with thematic frames than Korean coverage. The assumption was that more information would be provided for Japan than Korea and this would result in the higher proportion of thematic stories for Japan than Korea.

Hypothesis 4: The proportion of episodic frame, compared to

thematic frame, will be higher in Korean coverage than Japanese coverage.

The following four hypotheses (5, 6, 7, and 8) focused more on frame analysis of the news stories. While other hypotheses were tested with the examination of news abstracts, these four hypotheses were examined through the analysis of videotapes. This is because frame analysis requires the examination of subjective matters such as metaphors and visual images of stories that are not available in news abstracts.

The fifth hypothesis examined how the international relations between the United States and the two countries were framed in television news. Since both countries have been in a friendly relationship with the United States, it was hypothesized that the two countries would be framed in a cooperative frame rather than a conflict frame.

Hypothesis 5: In terms of international relations with the United States, both Korea and Japan will be framed in a cooperative frame rather than a conflict frame.

The sixth hypothesis examined how economics (including trade) news about Korea and Japan was framed. Contrary to the fifth hypothesis, in terms of economy, it was hypothesized that the two countries would be framed in a rival

frame rather than a cooperator frame because of the trade deficit and trade disputes.

Hypothesis 6: Economics stories about Korea and Japan will be framed in a rival frame rather than a cooperator frame.

The seventh hypothesis examined how political protests and demonstrations in Korea and Japan were framed. The idea of this hypothesis was derived from the media framing analysis of Nelson et al. (1997). Nelson et al. showed that there could be contrasting frames for a single reality. They revealed two contrasting frames for the Ku Klux Klan—one framed the rally as a free speech issue, and the other framed it as a disruption of public order. Similarly, demonstrations can be viewed as an indication of democratic or, on the contrary, chaotic society.

A severe clash between police and demonstrators in a Third World country is sometimes viewed as the struggle to the road to democratization. For example, the political protests in Korea in the early 1980s were regarded as the threatening to the development of the country by the mass media in Korea. However, in the years of democratization (1986 and 1987), the violent clash between police and demonstrators in Korea was described as the civil efforts and struggle to build a democratic society by the mass media in Korea. Similar to the contrasting frames (free speech issue and disruption of public order) for the Ku

Klux Klan, a violent political protest can be framed either in a chaotic frame or democracy frame as revealed in the cases of demonstrations in Korea in the early 1980s and the years of democratization in 1986 and 1987.

Although the demonstrations in Korea tended to be violent and the demonstration in Japan tended to be peaceful, this hypothesis was proposed to see if different or alternative frames were provided for political protests in the two countries. While the demonstrations and protests in Korea and Japan are not a single reality, this hypothesis examined if the demonstration and protest in each country were framed in different frames.

Hypothesis 7: Demonstration and protest in Korea will be framed in a chaos frame while those in Japan will be framed in a democracy frame.

The eighth hypothesis examined how disaster stories were framed for Korea and Japan. The idea of this hypothesis was generated from Keshishian's (1997) study. Keshishian revealed the political bias in the reportage of nonpolitical events such as natural disasters. It was hypothesized that nonpolitical disaster stories for each country would be framed differently. This assumption is based on the Third World countries' claim that they are reported negatively and with bias (Masmoudi, 1981). It was assumed that the disaster coverage of Japan tended to be positive while the disaster coverage of Korea

tended to be negative reflecting the difference of coverage between the First and Third World countries.

Hypothesis 8: Disasters in Korea will be framed in a human problem frame while those in Japan will be framed in a innocent victim frame.

Since CNN was included in this study, in addition to addressing the main research questions, this study also compared CNN and the broadcast television networks' (ABC, CBS, and NBC) news coverage of Korea and Japan. This is to see whether CNN and the networks show any differences in covering Korea and Japan. Whether the themes of the stories about the countries were different between CNN and the networks, whether the proportion of crisis and non-crisis stories about the countries were different between CNN and the networks, and whether the proportion of episodic and thematic frames about the countries were different between CNN and the networks were examined to see the homogeneity or heterogeneity between CNN and the networks in covering the two countries.

While studies (Altheide, 1982; Gonzenbach et al., 1992) found homogeneity of television networks' coverage of foreign affairs, no attempt has been made to compare CNN and the networks' international news. However, a couple of studies (Fryman & Bates, 1993; Ganzert & Flournoy, 1992) found differences in international news between CNN World Report (not the regular CNN evening news) and the network news.

According to Altheide (1982), "the essentially homogeneous content of network newscasts has emerged from the similarities accompanying the institutionalization of television news" (p. 482). Bantz (1990) suggested that "television networks such as ABC, NBC, and CBS often produce very similar views of the world because they operate within same news environment, are all influenced by what other media do, and have a tendency to replicate what they have done before" (Quoted in Shoemaker, 1991, pp. 31-32). This means the standardization of the news process has produced a more homogeneous news among networks. On the other hand, CNN has an elaborate news-gathering structure" distinguished from the broadcast networks (Gross, 1995, p. 278). CNN makes news available to CNN itself as well as others besides CNN including local broadcast stations and other cable television systems. In addition, CNN has been particularly aggressive in selling (or sometimes giving) its news to foreign countries. From the differences between the networks and CNN noted above, it was assumed that the coverage of the networks and CNN would differ from each other.

Therefore, the ninth hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 9: CNN and the broadcast networks' coverage of the two countries will show differences in terms of theme, crisis/noncrisis orientation, and episodic/thematic frame.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Framing and Content Analysis

The present study tried to identify the frames that describe and delineate the images of Korea and Japan in the U.S. television news coverage. The understanding of television framing begins with the examination of what is actually on television news. "Media framing analyses require methodical examination of media content" (Smith, 1997, p. 94). The televised frames of Korea and Japan were identified through content analysis method.

As discussed in the previous chapter, this study recognizes "framing" as a theory that is concerned about how mass media play a part in people's meaning construction of the world. Content analysis was utilized as a research method to examine the theory of framing.

Content analysis is defined as a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication (Berelson, 1952). Similarly, Kerlinger (1986) defined content analysis as a method of studying and analyzing communication in a systematic, objective, and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables. Krippendorff (1980) defined content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context. According to the

definitions, the content analysis method requires researchers to be “objective, systematic, and general” (Holsti, 1969, p. 3).

In discussing content analysis method with regard to framing, the scope of content analysis needs to be mentioned. In his analysis of television newscasts, Frank (1973) distinguished two approaches of content analysis, “hard” and “soft.” The hard approach examines discrete and quantifiable matters, such as length of airtime, story placements, and frequency counts of words. The soft approach examines more subjective matters and evaluates entire news segments with selected criteria.

Frank’s idea of soft approach of content analysis has a similar aspect with frame analysis. For example, “the subjective elements that are main emphasis of soft analysis include the metaphors and visual imagery in the news stories” (Prisco, 1995, p. 87). Also, since framing analysis emphasizes “contextual aspects of media contents” (Moore, 1999), this study employed both approaches of the content analysis method. According to Gamson (1989), in identifying frames, “the informational content is less important than the interpretive commentary that surrounds it” (p. 158). Therefore, quantitative matters such as number of stories, story length, and story rank, as well as qualitative matters such as frames were included in the analysis. In this study the research findings obtained from content analysis was expected to provide televised frames of Korea and Japan.

Definition of the News about Korea and Japan

This study analyzed television evening news about Korea and Japan. Any news story that was related with one of the countries or both countries, regardless of the place of the origin of the story was analyzed. However, the news stories that were indirectly related with the countries, even if the stories mention the countries or people from the countries appeared or were interviewed, were not included. For example, an interview with a Korean official at the United Nations Secretariat about the conflict in Eastern Europe was discarded. In this case, except for the fact that he is from Korea, the story is hardly related with Korea. In the same vein, the news about Japanese Americans or Korean Americans was also discarded if the story was not related to the mother country.

In the cases of international sport events, for example, the Winter Olympic Games held in Japan in 1998, if a story was the report of the results of games of the U.S. teams, rather than the report about the event itself and Japan, it was excluded. Also, if the countries were simply mentioned just one or a couple of times as a minor part of a story, it was not counted. For example, the simple mentioning of Japanese economy without any details in the Asian economic crisis news which mainly focuses on the economy of Korea, Malaysia, Thailand, and Indonesia, was not counted for Japan. However, a story about the role of Japanese economy in Asian economy was counted for Japan.

News stories about North Korea alone were not included in this study. However, stories about both South and North Korea will be analyzed. For example, the news about the flood in North Korea was not included, but the South Korea's aid to North Korea regarding the flood was included. In the same vein, while the politics in North Korea was excluded, the dialogue between South and North Korea was analyzed.

If a story mentioned both Korea and Japan relatively equally, for example the "Summit Talk" between both countries, it was counted for both countries. Otherwise, the main country in the story was counted. For example, if North-South Korean relations were mentioned in the Summit Talk between the United States President and Japanese Prime Minister, this story was not counted for Korea even though Korea was mentioned in the story.

Unit of Analysis

The news story was the basic unit of analysis in this study. Consecutive stories about the same issue or event were counted as one story. However, coding consecutive stories as one story is confined to the analysis of news abstracts. For a frame analysis, even consecutive stories about the same issue or event reported by different reporters were analyzed separately. This is because it is believed that different reporters may provide different frames. On the other hand, consecutive stories dealing with different issues or events were coded

separately. The anchor's introduction of and concluding remarks on a story were not coded separately but were included as a part of the main story.

News abstracts in *Television News Index and Abstracts* from Vanderbilt University Television News Archive were analyzed to test hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 9. Although analyzing abstracts does not permit examining visual images, the printed abstracts themselves are usually considered highly sufficient to identify length and position of a story, themes, and story types. In fact, there are many studies that have relied mainly on the abstracts (Adams & Heyl, 1981; Cooper, 1984; Dominick, 1977, 1981; Haile, 1987; Hester, 1978; Iyengar & Simon, 1993; Larson, 1978, 1979; Larson & Storey, 1983; Morales, 1984; Semetko et al., 1992; Weaver et al., 1984). While doing his dissertation research, Larson (1978) checked the reliability of the abstracts by comparing the results of coding with the abstracts and videotapes. He found that the abstracts provided a very strong reliability in identifying story formats and themes.

To examine hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8, videotapes were analyzed. Videotapes of the news stories about the four subjects¹ (international relations with the United States, economics, demonstrations and protests, and disasters) were analyzed. For frame analysis, the videotapes of the news stories about each subject were selected. Videotapes were selected through the examination of the subjects of the abstracts. While selecting videotaped stories, short stories (i.e. 20

¹ See "Coding Categories."

seconds or less) were excluded. In most cases 20 seconds-or-less stories are anchor reports. These short stories were regarded inappropriate for frame analysis because they generally give superficial facts of what happened rather than frames. From the total of 972 stories, 268 stories were selected for videotape analysis². Among 268 stories, there were 124 economics stories, 77 disaster stories, 46 stories about the foreign affairs with the United States, and 21 demonstration and protest stories. Coding of videotaped stories took place at the Vanderbilt University Television News Archive.

Selection of News Stories

This study analyzed television news stories about Korea and Japan in the evening news of the three major networks and a cable news channel, ABC, CBS, NBC, and CNN, from January 1, 1995 to December 31, 1998. CNN was included in the study because it is believed to be a major player in international news dissemination. CNN "Prime News" (evening news) has been archived since 1995.

This study examined all the news stories about Korea and Japan during the period studied without sampling. News abstracts about both countries during the selected years were obtained from *Television News Index and Abstracts* of Vanderbilt University Television News Archive. The Archive has consistently recorded, indexed, and preserved network television news for research and

² The list of videotapes analyzed for frame analysis is in the "Appendix II."

review since 1968. The index is available on the World Wide Web at <http://tvnews.vanderbilt.edu>. A key word search was employed to identify the news stories about Korea and Japan.

Coding Categories

The selected stories were coded for statistical analysis. The following categories were utilized. The coding categories have been developed through the preview of the news abstracts.

The order where a story appears in television newscasts indicates the importance of the story (Gans, 1979). Generally the lead story is the most important story of the day.

-Rank of the story³:

1. High priority—Ranked first to third
2. Medium priority—Ranked fourth to sixth
3. Low priority—Ranked seventh or more

Analysis of thematic contents reveals what the news story is about. The thematic categories below were modified from previous studies (Fryman & Bates, 1993; Ganzert & Flournoy, 1992; Hester, 1978; Larson, 1978, 1984;

³ Package of consecutive stories about the same issue or event was coded according to the rank of the first story in the package of consecutive stories.

Markham, 1961; McCracken, 1987; Weaver et al., 1984; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983).

Larson (1978, 1984) used following nine thematic categories: 1. Unrest and Dissent, 2. War, Terrorism, Crime, 3. Coups and Assassinations, 4. Disasters, 5. Political-Military, 6. Economics, 7. Environment, 8. Technology-Science, 9. Human Interest.

Markham (1961) used following classification for thematic analysis of news stories: 1. Foreign Relations, 2. Internal Domestic Affairs, 3. Conflict and Defense, 4. Satellites, Space, Science, Medicine, 5. International News, 6. Cultural and Religious News, 7. Economic News, 8. Human Interests, Sports, Disasters, and Crime News.

Some studies (Fryman & Bates, 1993; Ganzert & Flournoy, 1992; Hester, 1978; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983) used detailed and specified categories. For example, Hester (1978) used following 18 thematic categories: 1. Military-Defense, 2. Foreign Relations, 3. Domestic Government-Politics, 4. Crime-Justice-Terrorism, 5. Economics-Business, 6. Human Interests-Features, 7. Disasters, 8. Prominent Persons, 9. Sports, 10. Race Relations, 11. Arts-Culture-Entertainment, 12. Education, 13. Labor, 14. Miscellaneous, 15. Agriculture-fisheries, 16. Accidents, 17. Religion, 18. Science-Health-Medicine.

Some broadly defined categories in previous research were broken down to more detailed and specified categories. For example, Larson's (1978, 1984)

category of "Political-Military" broadly included domestic politics, foreign affairs, and military affairs. Therefore, the category of "Political-Military" was broken down to "Internal Politics," "Foreign Affairs," and "Military Affairs," since foreign affairs and military affairs of Korea and Japan are frequently covered items by the U.S. mass media. If the category of "Political-Military" was not broken down, too many stories were to be coded under the category and this would lead to the failure of showing the real variation in the coverage about Korea and Japan.

On the other hand, too narrowly defined categories in previous research were collapsed into broader categories. For example, among Hester's (1978) categories, five categories such as "Accidents," "Disasters," "Economic-Business," "Labor," and "Agriculture-Fisheries" were collapsed into two categories of "Disaster" and "Economics." According to Stempel (1989), categories must be pertinent, functional, and manageable.

-Theme⁴:

1. Internal Politics—Government, Election, Congress, Party, and Judiciary.

⁴ If a story contained two or more themes, the story was coded under the main theme of the story. If two or more themes were considered to have relatively equivalent importance in the story, the first mentioned theme was counted, because the first mentioned theme generally is regarded to represent the story. Like the story rank, the order in a story also was assumed to indicate the importance of the themes.

2. Economics⁵—Company, Business, Industry, Trade, Employment, Agriculture, Fishery, Banking and Currency, Labor, Economic Foreign Aid, and Economic Policy.
3. Foreign Affairs⁶—Summit Talk, Treaty, Agreement, International Convention and Conference, Territorial Diplomatic Dispute, and Diplomacy.
4. Military Affairs—Military Conflict, Military Maneuver, Military Operation, Military Exchange, Military Alliance, Military Pact, Ammunitions Industry, Arms Trade.
5. Unrest-Dissident—Protest, Demonstration, Civil Disorder, and Labor Strike.
6. Crime⁷—Violence, Hijacking, Murder, Rape, Kidnapping, and Terror.
7. Disaster—Earthquake, Typhoon, Flood, Disease, Accident, Fires, and Oil Spills.
8. Culture-Science—People, Living, Religion, Arts, Religion,

⁵ The weapons industry and arms trade were classified under Military Affairs category. Labor strikes were coded as Unrest-Dissident category.

⁶ Diplomatic territorial dispute did not include military conflict. If the dispute involved a military conflict, it was coded as Military Affairs.

⁷ Political scandals such as bribery were included under Internal Politics.

Education, Environment, and Technology⁸.

9. Sports—Athletic Events and Athlete.
10. Human Interest—Anecdote, Adventure, and Unusualness.
11. Other

The thematic categories above were grouped into two broad categories, political and non-political themes. This categorization attempted to see in what context the news is reported.

-Political/Nonpolitical Theme:

1. Political—Politics, Foreign Affairs, Military Affairs, Political Unrest, and Terrorism.
2. Non-political—Economics, Society, Human Interest, Science-Technology, Culture, Disasters, Crime, and Environment.
3. Mixed—Both political and non-political themes are mixed in a story (i.e. Political debate on economy).

The categories of crisis/noncrisis orientation were modified from

⁸ Stories about arms technology (i.e. arms development such as missiles and nuclear weapons) were coded as military affairs.

Larson's categories⁹ (1984). Larson used nine thematic categories that could be collapsed into two orientation categories (crisis and noncrisis) at the same time. However, this can undermine "mutual exclusiveness" of coding categories. Budd et al. (1967) mentioned that content categories should have three basic characteristics: they should be "appropriate," "exhaustive," and "mutually exclusive." According to Larson's categories, the news stories about politics, military, and economic are noncrisis-oriented stories. Some of them, however, can be crisis-oriented stories. For example, military conflict and economic instability, such as unemployment and inflation, should be coded as crisis orientation. For this reason, the present study made a distinction between thematic categories and crisis/noncrisis orientation.

-Crisis/Noncrisis Orientation¹⁰:

1. Crisis—Unrest, Military Conflict, Crime, Disasters, Terror, Dispute, Bankruptcy, and Pollution.

⁹ Larson classified the nine thematic categories into crisis themes and noncrisis themes:

-Crisis Themes: 1. Unrest and Dissent, 2. War, Terrorism, Crime 3. Coups and Assassinations, 4. Disasters

-Noncrisis Themes: 5. Political-Military, 6. Economics, 7. Environment, 8. Technology-Science, 9. Human Interest

¹⁰ If a science-technology story was about the development of missiles and nuclear weapon, it was be coded as Crisis.

2. Noncrisis—Democracy, Culture, Science, Technology, Economic Development, Peace, resolution of Problems, and Dialogue between Opponent Parties.
3. Mixed—Both crisis and noncrisis orientations are mixed in the story (i.e. Positive aspects or prospects are provided in crisis news story).

Another way of categorizing news stories according to news content or subject is soft/hard news classification (Tuchman, 1978, p. 47). Hard news concerns occurrences potentially available to analysis or interpretation, and consists of “factual presentations” of occurrences deemed newsworthy. On the other hand, soft news stories are feature or human-interest stories. In other words, hard news concerns important matters and soft news concerns interesting matters (Tuchman, 1978, pp. 47-48).

The definitions below were derived from previous studies’ (Coulson & Hansen, 1995; Scott & Gobetz, 1992) definitions. Coulson and Hansen (1995) defined hard news as “event or decision-oriented deadline stories on serious subjects such as government, the economy, or international affairs,” and soft news as “timeless human interest articles about people, lifestyle, entertainment, or noncontroversial community events” (p. 208). Scott and Gobetz (1992) similarly defined soft news as “stories that focus on a human interest topic, feature or nonpolicy issue,” and hard news as “any story that focuses on issues

of ongoing policy consideration, factual accounting of current public events, or social issues and controversies that concern members of the audience” (p. 408).

-Soft/Hard News¹¹:

1. Soft—Culture, Human Interest, Entertainment, Sports, Religion, Fashion, and Science-Technology.
2. Hard—Politics, Economics, Foreign Affairs, Military Affairs, Terrorism, Unrest and Dissident, and Disaster.

The following categories were utilized to identify the frames that were used in the reportage of Korea and Japan in the United States television evening newscasts. According to Iyengar and Simon (1993), networks frame issues in either episodic or thematic terms. According to Iyengar (1991), the episodic and thematic framing categories are reasonably distinct and exhaustive. While a close-up look at an unemployed auto worker on welfare falls into episodic framing category, a news story on rising unemployment figures nationwide with the implication of unemployment for the national economy falls into thematic framing category (p. 18). Similarly, in this study, the factual report of the visiting of the Korean Foreign Minister to China was coded as episodic framing. However, if the report of the Korean Foreign Minister’s visit to China provided

¹¹ If a science-technology story is about arms and weapons, it will be classified under Hard News category.

an overview of the international relations in the Far East, it was coded as thematic frame.

Similar categorization can be found in the study of Ryan and Owen (1976). Ryan and Owen categorized stories as event and issue-oriented. Event-oriented stories are reports of timely events, while issue-oriented reports provide an overview of or background for a timeless social problems or issue, or one aspect of a larger social problem or issue (pp. 636-637). "Given the nature of television news—a 21-minute headline service operating under powerful commercial dictates—it is to be expected that the networks rely extensively on episodic framing to report on public issues" (Iyengar & Simon, 1993, p. 370). Iyengar (1991) estimated that two-third of all news coverage is episodic and one-third is thematic.

-Thematic/Episodic News:

1. Thematic—Interpretative reports about issues or events. Stories that give substantial information about an issue or event by placing it in a larger social, political, and historical context. Stories that depict the issue or the event more generally either in terms of collective outcomes, public policy debates, or historic trends. Thematic frames provide an overview or background for the issue or the event.

2. Episodic—Reports about specific events or particular cases. Stories that depict the events in terms of concrete instances or specific events without explaining why those things happened.

The ideas of the democracy/chaos frame categories for political protest and demonstration stories and the innocent victim/unprepared problem frame categories for disaster stories have been generated from Nelson et al. (1997) and Keshishian (1997) respectively. The cooperative/conflict frame categories for international relations stories and cooperator/rival frame categories for economic stories have been created by the author of this study.

-Cooperative/Conflict Frame (Political relationship with the United States)

1. Cooperative—Stories that describe the relationship with the United States using words such as friendship, partnership, cooperation, and mutual benefit. Support alliance, urges to keep good relations and hopes to diffuse difficult situations in international political relations. Positive description of the political relations with the United States.
2. Conflict—Stories that describe the relationship with the United States using words such as dispute, dissenting opinions, and harmful to national interest. Disturbing each other's political

relationship. Negative description of the political relations with the United States.

3. Neutral—Factual reports (neither cooperative nor conflict).

-Cooperator/Rival Frame (Economics)

1. Cooperator—Stories that describe economic issues of the countries as mutual benefit, helpful, assistance, and supplementary in relation with the United States economy. Worrying about the recession in the countries and urging to help ailing economy from recess. Positive description of the economic issues concerning the countries.
2. Rival—Stories that describe economic issues of the countries using such words as dispute, disagreement, trade friction, trade deficit, trade barrier, and market competition. Urges to open market, recommends actions against trade deficits and viewing import from the countries hurting American business. Negative description of the economic issues concerning the countries.
3. Neutral—Factual reports (neither cooperative nor rival).

-Democracy/Chaos Frame (Protest and demonstration concerning political issues)

1. Democracy—Stories that describe political protests and demonstration with such word as defending justice, democracy-is-blooming, democratization, freedom of speech, and national sovereignty¹². Defending and justifying demonstrations and protests. Positive description of political protests and demonstrations.
2. Chaos—Stories that describe political protests and demonstration with such words as pro-communism, violence, paralyzing and crippling social order, lawlessness, and power-corrupt. Negative description of political protests and demonstrations.
3. Neutral—Factual reports (neither democracy nor chaos).

-Innocent Victim/Human Problem Frame (Disasters)

1. Innocent Victim—Showing sympathy to disasters (emotional reporting of disasters), encouraging aids, and emphasizing efforts for recovery. Describing disasters as uncontrollable or beyond control, and emphasizing human suffering.
2. Human Problem—Any unsympathetic comments on disasters, emphasizing unpreparedness for disasters and violation of safety

rules, and critical to slow action of government's efforts for recovery.

3. Neutral—Factual reports (neither innocent victim nor human problem).

Intercoder Reliability

The results of the content analysis can be trusted when the coding is reliable. In content analysis, reliability generally refers to “intercoder reliability, or the extent or degree of agreement among coders” (Singletary, 1994, p. 294). Intercoder reliability was checked on a category-by-category basis by using the “coefficient of reliability” (Holsti, 1969, p. 140), which is a widely used formula that determines the intercoder reliability in terms of the ratio of coding agreements to the total number of coding decisions.

$$C.R.=2M/(N1+N2).$$

**M: The number of coding decisions on which the two judges are in agreement.*

**N1 and N2: The number of coding decisions made by judges 1 and 2, respectively (Holsti, 1969, p. 140).*

¹² When demonstrations and protests are related with foreign affairs.

Intercoder reliability checks were performed on the subsamples of the total sample. For the analysis of news abstracts, 50 stories were randomly selected from the total of 972 stories and coded by the first coder (the author of the present study), second coder (Korean Ph.D. student in Communications at the University of Tennessee), and third coder (American Ph.D. student in Communications at the University of Tennessee). For the frame analysis of videotapes, 75 stories were randomly selected from the total of 268 videotaped stories and coded by the first coder and second coder. The percentages of agreement attained on each variable are in Table 1 and 2. The intercoder reliability both in the analyses of news videotapes and abstracts are in and very close to the acceptable level of 80% (Riffe et al., 1998, p. 128).

Statistical Analysis

The SPSS program was used for analysis of the data. Since this was a census of a defined target population, then strictly speaking, there was no need for statistical testing. However, testing can give an indication of the relative degree of differences or the meaningfulness (strength) of differences. This is why statistical tests were performed. To see the statistical differences of the length of news stories between the two countries, the t-test was used. The Chi-square test and the Wilcoxon test were used to see the statistical differences of relative frequencies of categories and rankings by country. The 0.05 significant levels were used in statistical tests.

Table 1. Percentages of Agreement on the Coding of News Abstracts

Variables	Percentage (C. R.)			
	1 st & 2 nd Coder	1 st & 3 rd Coder	2 nd & 3 rd Coder	Average
Thematic Contents	80%	76%	78%	78%
Political/Nonpolitical News	76%	76%	70%	74%
Crisis/Noncrisis Orientation	78%	80%	78%	79%
Soft/Hard News	86%	94%	86%	89%
Episodic/Thematic Frame	86%	70%	74%	77%
Average	81%	79%	77%	79%

Table 2. Percentages of Agreement on the Coding of Videotapes (Frame Analysis)

Variables	Percentage (C. R.)
Political Relations with the United States	88%
Economics	90%
Demonstration and Protest	93%
Disaster	80%

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the analysis of data and the findings. The findings are presented in relation to the hypotheses. The implications and interpretations of the findings are discussed in the following chapter.

Hypothesis 1: *Television news about Japan will be treated as more important than news about Korea as evidenced by a greater number of, the longer average length of, and the higher rank of news stories.*

A total of 972 television news stories about Korea and Japan from 1995 to 1998 were gathered from *Television News Index and Abstracts* of Vanderbilt University Television News Archive. Among the 972 television news stories, there were 295 (30.3%) stories about Korea and 666 (68.5%) stories about Japan. Eleven (1.1%) stories were about both Korea and Japan. The ratio of Japanese stories to Korean stories was about 2.3 to one (more than two times). The One-way Chi-square test reveals that the difference of the numbers of the news stories between Korea and Japan is statistically significant (Chi-square=665.969, df=2, p=.000).

Among the three networks and CNN, CNN reported on Korea and Japan most frequently. CNN broadcast 409 (42.1%) stories about Korea and Japan.

Table 3. Number of News Stories about Korea and Japan (Row/Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Both	Total
ABC	79 (32.0)	165 (66.8)	3 (1.2)	247 (100.0/25.4)
CBS	32 (16.8)	156 (81.7)	3 (1.6)	191 (100.0/19.7)
NBC	31 (24.8)	94 (75.2)	0 (0.0)	125 (100.0/12.9)
CNN	153 (37.4)	251 (61.4)	5 (1.2)	409 (100.0/42.1)
Total	295 (30.3)	666 (68.5)	11 (1.1)	972 (100.0/100.0)

ABC, CBS, and NBC aired a total of 247 (25.4%), 191 (19.7%), and 125 (12.9%) stories about Korea and Japan respectively (Table 3)¹.

The average length of stories about Japan exceeded the average length of stories about Korea. While the length of Korean news items averaged 81.5 seconds, Japanese news items averaged 103.7 seconds. The t-test shows that the difference of average length of news stories between the two countries was statistically significant (Table 4).

¹ It needs to be mentioned that CNN evening news is a one-hour show, while the broadcast network evening news is a 30-minute show. This may partially explain why CNN provides more news coverage of the countries.

Table 4. Average Length of News Stories (in Seconds)

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.
Korea	295	81.5	92.1	5.4
Japan	666	103.7	105.6	4.1

$t=3.128$, $df=959$, $p=.002$

Table 5² shows that slightly less than half stories about Korea (47.1%) and Japan (49.4%) were given a low priority among the news items of a day. However, the percentage of high priority stories was higher for Japan (27.9%) than Korea (23.4%). Korea (29.5%) showed a higher percentage of medium priority stories than Japan (22.7%). Although the Chi-square test result was not quite statistically significant at the regular .05 level, the p-value of .06 reveals the differences of the rank of stories between the two countries were strong.

The results of the statistical analysis concerning the first hypothesis indicate that Japanese news was treated as being more important than Korean

² Since Chi-square test, in this study, was employed to examine the differences of relative frequencies of categories between the two countries, 11 news stories that equally covered the countries simultaneously were not included in this analysis. The following Chi-square tests that compared the relative frequencies of categories between the countries excluded the 11 stories that were coded under "Both Countries."

Table 5. Rank of Stories (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
High Priority	69 (23.4)	186 (27.9)	255 (26.5)
Medium Priority	87 (29.5)	151 (22.7)	238 (24.8)
Low Priority	139 (47.1)	329 (49.4)	468 (48.7)
Total	295 (100.0)	666 (100.0)	961 (100.0)

Chi-square=5.643, df=2, p=.06

news. There were more than twice as many stories in television news about Japan as about Korea, and the average length of Japanese news stories was longer than Korean news stories. Although it was not statistically significant, more news stories about Japan were given a high priority than the news stories about Korea among the news items of a day. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was substantially supported.

Hypothesis 2: *The emphasis of coverage in terms of themes will be different between Korea and Japan. While the news stories about Korea will be dominated by political matters, such as politics, military affairs, and foreign affairs, the news stories about Japan will show a higher proportion of*

nonpolitical stories than those about Korea. The proportion of soft news stories, compared to hard news stories, will be higher in the coverage of Japan than Korea.

Table 6 shows the thematic contents of the news stories. For Korea, foreign affairs news (24.7%) was the most frequently covered issue, followed by military affairs (15.3%), disaster (13.6%), internal politics (12.9%), economics (10.8%), and unrest and dissent (10.2%). While economics was the fifth most frequently covered theme for Korea, for Japan economics (20.4%) was the most frequently covered theme followed by crime (18.0%), disaster (15.9%), culture-science (10.7%), and foreign affairs (8.4%). Except for disaster stories, most thematic categories showed differences in relative frequencies between Korea and Japan. For example, while internal politics, military affairs, and unrest-dissident news stories occupied 12.9%, 15.3%, and 10.2% in Korean stories, these categories occupied 4.5%, 3.9%, and 1.7 % respectively in Japanese stories. On the other hand, while crime and culture-science stories occupied 18.0% and 10.7% in Japanese stories, these categories occupied only 1.4% and 2.7% respectively in Korean stories. The Chi-square test confirmed that the differences of relative frequencies of thematic categories between the two countries were statistically significant.

Table 6. Thematic Contents of Stories (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Internal Politics	38 (12.9)	30 (4.5)	68 (7.1)
Economics	32 (10.8)	136 (20.4)	168 (17.5)
Foreign Affairs	73 (24.7)	56 (8.4)	129 (13.4)
Military Affairs	45 (15.3)	26 (3.9)	71 (7.4)
Unrest-Dissident	30 (10.2)	11 (1.7)	41 (4.3)
Crime	4 (1.4)	120 (18.0)	124 (12.9)
Disaster	40 (13.6)	106 (15.9)	146 (15.2)
Culture-Science	8 (2.7)	71 (10.7)	79 (8.2)
Sports	4 (1.4)	40 (6.0)	44 (4.6)
Human Interest	11 (3.7)	51 (7.7)	62 (6.5)
Other	10 (3.4)	19 (2.9)	29 (3.0)
Total	295 (100.0)	666 (100.0)	961 (100.0)
Chi-square=217.250, df=10, p=.000			

Table 7. Difference in the Rankings of Thematic Contents

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Negative Ranks	4*	3.25	13.00
Positive Ranks	7**	7.57	53.00
Ties	0***		
Total	11		

$Z = -1.779^{****}$, $p = .075$

* Frequencies of Themes, Japan < Frequencies of Themes, Korea

** Frequencies of Themes, Japan > Frequencies of Themes, Korea

*** Frequencies of Themes, Japan = Frequencies of Themes, Korea

**** Based on negative ranks

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test was used to see the difference of the emphasis of coverage in terms of themes is different between the two countries. This test uses the information about the size of the difference between the two members of a pair. Therefore, this test is more likely to detect true differences when they exist (Norusis, 1998, p. 330). While the result of the Wilcoxon test indicates a strong difference ($p = .075$) in the rankings of the thematic contents between the two countries, this is not statistically significant at the p-value of .05 level (Table 7).

Table 8. Political/Nonpolitical Theme (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Political Themes	186 (63.1)	125 (18.8)	311 (32.4)
Nonpolitical Themes	96 (32.5)	475 (71.3)	571 (59.4)
Mixed	13 (4.4)	66 (9.9)	79 (8.2)
Total	295 (100.0)	666 (100.0)	961 (100.0)

Chi-square=183.152, df=2, p=.000

When the thematic categories were collapsed into political and nonpolitical themes, Korean news stories showed a heavy emphasis in political contexts. For Korea, 63.1% of news stories were about political themes while 32.5% of news stories were about nonpolitical themes. On the other hand, more than two-third (71.3%) of Japanese news stories were nonpolitical themes. The Chi-square test revealed the differences were statistically different (Table 8). Even when the "Mixed" category, which includes stories such as political concern about economics, was recoded under the "Political Themes" category, (since U.S. economic policy toward the countries is often very much a political

Table 9. Soft News/Hard News (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Soft News	29 (9.8)	179 (26.9)	208 (21.6)
Hard News	266 (90.2)	487 (73.1)	753 (78.4)
Total	295 (100.0)	666 (100.0)	961 (100.0)

Chi-square=35.029, df=1, p=.000

issue), the analysis revealed the statistically higher proportion of political theme stories for Korea³.

While news stories about both countries showed high percentages of hard news stories, the percentage of Korean hard news stories (90.2%) was higher than that of Japan (73.1%). The Chi-square test revealed the difference of composition of hard news and soft news between the two countries was statistically significant. (Table 9).

The results of the statistical analysis concerning the second hypothesis confirmed that the coverage of the two countries were different in terms of

³ Korea: Political Themes-199 (67.5%), Nonpolitical Themes-96 (32.5%)
 Japan: Political Themes-191 (28.7%), Nonpolitical Themes-475 (71.3%)
 Chi-Square=127.500, df=1, p=.000

thematic contents and news types. While the news stories about Korea were dominated by political themes such as politics, military affairs, and foreign affairs, the news stories about Japan showed a higher proportion of nonpolitical stories, such as economics and culture. In terms of news type, the proportion of soft news stories, compared to hard news stories, was higher in the coverage of Japan than Korea. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3: *Television news stories about Korea will show a crisis orientation compared to the coverage of Japan.*

The news stories about both countries were dominated by a crisis-orientation. For Japan, slightly more than half (56.6%) stories were crisis-oriented and for Korea, slightly less than two-third (65.4%) stories were crisis-oriented. Noncrisis-oriented stories for Korea and Japan are 29.9% and 38.1% respectively. While the newscasts about both countries were dominated by crisis-oriented news, the proportion of crisis oriented stories were statistically higher for Korean news (Table 10).

Since the proportion of crisis oriented stories was higher for Korean stories than Japanese stories, the third hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 4: *The proportion of episodic frame, compared to thematic frame, will be higher in Korean coverage than Japanese coverage.*

Table 10. Crisis/Noncrisis Orientation (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Crisis Orientation	193 (65.4)	377 (56.6)	570 (59.3)
Noncrisis Orientation	86 (29.2)	254 (38.1)	340 (35.4)
Mixed	16 (5.4)	35 (5.3)	51 (5.3)
Total	295 (100.0)	666 (100.0)	61 (100.0)

Chi-square=7.356, df=2, p=.025

Table 11 shows the composition of thematic and episodic frames employed in the news coverage of both countries. For both countries, the episodic frame is predominantly employed. The percentages for episodic frame are 90.8% and 92.5% for Korea and Japan respectively. Although the percentage of thematic frame is slightly higher in Korean news coverage than Japanese coverage, Chi-square test reveals that the difference is not statistically significant. Since the proportion of episodic frame of Korean stories was not statistically higher than that of Japanese stories, the fourth hypothesis was not supported.

Table 11. Episodic/Thematic Frame (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Episodic Frame	268 (90.8)	616 (92.5)	884 (92.0)
Thematic Frame	27 (9.2)	50 (7.5)	77 (8.0)
Total	295 (100.0)	666 (100.0)	961 (100.0)

Chi-square=.751, df=1, p=.386

Hypothesis 5: *In terms of international relations with the United States, both Korea and Japan will be framed in a cooperative frame rather than a conflict frame.*

Table 12 reveals that most of the news stories about Korea's and Japan's political relationship with the United States are framed in a cooperative frame. This means that U.S. television news provided a positive frame in covering the two countries' relations with the U.S.

For example, in covering the U.S. President's visit to the countries, the news stories described the visit as the effort to keep good relations. In reporting the U.S. political relationship with the two countries, the news stories described the alliance as the key to security and prosperity among the countries. While an

Table 12. Frame Analysis—Political Relations with the United States (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Cooperative Frame	18 (56.3)	13 (92.9)	31 (67.4)
Conflict Frame	7 (21.9)	1 (7.1)	8 (17.4)
Neutral	7 (21.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (15.2)
Total	32 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	46 (100.0)

Chi-square=6.215, df=2, p=.045

espionage incident⁴ between Korea and the U.S. was viewed as “disturbing incident in the U.S.-Korean relations,” the interaction of the U.S. and Korea on this issue was reported as “the effort to diffuse a difficult situation.”

The percentages for cooperative frame were 92.9% and 56.3% for Japan and Korea. The Chi-square test showed that the percentage of cooperative frame for Japan was statistically higher than that of Korea. However, since there are three cells that have an expected count less than five, the probability estimate may not be reliable. When the neutral cases were excluded from analysis, the percentage of cooperative frame for Korea was 72.0% and the difference in the

percentages of cooperative frame between Korea and Japan did not show statistical significance⁵. Since political relations news with the United States were dominated by cooperative frame for both countries, the fifth hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 6: *Economics stories about Korea and Japan will be framed in a rival frame rather than a cooperator frame.*

The analysis of economics stories showed that Japan tended to be framed in a rival frame while Korea tended to be framed in a cooperator frame. This means that the U.S. television news provided a negative frame for the economics news for Japan while the economics news for Korea was reported in a positive frame. For example, when covering the U.S. trade deficit with Japan⁶, the stories described Japanese economy as harmful to American economy and hurting American business. Also the stories urged Japan to open its market to outside world, condemning the market closure as unfair behavior. The news stories

⁴ See Appendix III.

⁵ Korea: Cooperative Frame-18 (72.0%), Conflict Frame-7 (28.0%)
Japan: Cooperative Frame-13 (92.9%), Conflict Frame-1 (7.1%)
Chi-Square=2.394, df=1. P=.122

⁶ See Appendix III.

claimed that the trade dispute between the U.S. and Japan would damage the whole relationship between the U.S. and Japan. However, the coverage of recession in Korea and Japan⁷ provided a very positive frame. For example, the stories showed a concern about the recession in the countries and viewed the countries' recovery from the recession a key to America's economic future. These stories urged help for the countries' ailing economies.

For Japan, the percentages of cooperator frame and rival frame were 56.3% and 35.9%. On the contrary, the percentages of rival frame and cooperator frame for Korea were 33.3% and 66.7%. The Chi-square test revealed the differences in frames for economic news about both countries were statistically significant (Table 13). When the neutral category was excluded from analysis, the result confirmed the differences in the use of frames for economics news were statistically significant⁸. Since the economic news about Korea was dominated by cooperator frame, the sixth hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 7: *Demonstration and protest in Korea will be framed in a chaos frame while those in Japan will be framed in a democracy frame.*

⁷ See Appendix III.

⁸ Korea: Cooperator Frame-14 (66.7%), Rival Frame-7 (33.3%)
Japan: Cooperator Frame-37 (38.9%), Rival Frame-58 (61.1%)
Chi-square=5.364, df=1, p=.021

Table 13. Frame Analysis—Economics News (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Cooperator Frame	14 (66.7)	37 (35.9)	51 (41.4)
Rival Frame	7 (33.3)	58 (56.3)	65 (52.4)
Neutral	0 (0.0)	8 (7.8)	8 (6.5)
Total	21 (100.0)	103 (100.0)	124 (100.0)

Chi-square=7.397, df=2, p=.025

Table 14 shows that demonstration and protest stories in Korea tended to be framed in a chaos frame while those in Japan were framed in a democracy frame. This means that the demonstration and protest in Korea were framed in a negative frame while the demonstration and protest in Japan were framed in a positive frame in the U.S. television news. For example, the student movement in Korea was often described as pro-communism and viewed as crippling the social order. Only one story described the demonstration in Korea as the struggle against wrong doings and injustice. Every story about the demonstration in Korea was reported with violent visuals. Even a report of peaceful demonstration was inserted with a violent scene of a previous demonstration. On the other hand, the stories about the demonstration and

Table 14. Frame Analysis—Demonstration and Protest News (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Democracy Frame	1 (7.7)	4 (50.0)	5 (23.8)
Chaos Frame	12 (92.3)	1 (12.5)	13 (61.9)
Neutral	0 (0.0)	3 (37.5)	3 (14.3)
Total	13 (100.0)	8 (100.0)	21 (100.0)

Chi-square=13.693, df=2, p=.001

protest in Japan⁹ did not show any violent scene except for one story, which showed a clash between the police and demonstrators. Although the nature and characteristics of demonstration and protest in Korea and Japan are different (See footnote on this page), there were similar cases of demonstration in both countries. The cases were involved with the anti-U.S. military issue created by U.S. soldiers' crime in the countries. While the demonstration in Japan on this issue was provided with the background of the incident of how the crime

⁹ Unlike the demonstration and protest in Korea during the period studied that were mainly involved with internal politics, the demonstration and protest in Japan during the period were mainly related with anti-U.S. military issue which was created by the crime of U.S. soldiers on the Japanese people (See Appendix III). Therefore, it needs to be noted that the nature and characteristics of demonstration and protest in each country were very different.

violated the norms in Japan and it is the least tolerable crime in Japan, the demonstration on the same issue (U.S. soldiers' crime) in Korea showed a threatening scene of demonstrators in front of the U.S. Army Base, with only a brief mention of the reason of the demonstration.

For Japan, half of demonstration and protest stories employed a democracy frame. However, for Korea, more than 90% of demonstration and protest stories employed a chaos frame. The Chi-square test revealed that the differences in the frames were statistically significant. When the neutral category was excluded from analysis, the result apparently showed the differences in frames for demonstration and protest stories were statistically significant¹⁰. Since the proportion of chaos frame stories was higher for Korea than Japan, the seventh hypothesis was supported. However, since there are five cells that have expected count less than five, the probability estimate may not be reliable.

Hypothesis 8: Disasters in Korea will be framed in a human problem frame while those in Japan will be framed in an innocent victim frame.

¹⁰ Korea: Democracy Frame-1 (7.7%), Chaos Frame-12 (92.3%)
Japan: Democracy Frame-4 (80.0%), Chaos Frame-1 (20.0%)
Chi-square=9.441, df=1, p=.002

Table 15. Frame Analysis—Disaster News (Column %)

	Korea	Japan	Total
Innocent Victim Frame	10 (58.8)	43 (71.7)	53 (68.8)
Human Problem Frame	5 (29.4)	14 (23.3)	19 (24.7)
Neutral	2 (11.8)	3 (5.0)	5 (6.5)
Total	17 (100.0)	60 (100.0)	77 (100.0)

Chi-square=1.449, df=2, p=.484

Table 15 shows that for both countries, the innocent victim was dominantly employed in disaster news. This means that the U.S. television news generally showed sympathy to the human suffering from the disasters in the two countries. Many of the stories about the disasters in the countries described the disasters as beyond the control of people and encouraged the aids to the people suffering from the disasters. However, some human problem frame emphasized violation of safety rules as worsening disasters. While the innocent victim frame emphasized the government and people's efforts for recovery from the disaster, the human problem frame criticized the slow action of bureaucratic government's effort for recovery from disasters.

The percentages for innocent victim frame were 71.7% and 58.8% for Japan and Korea respectively. On the other hand, the percentages for human problem frame were 23.3% and 29.4% for Japan and Korea. While the percentage of stories with the innocent victim frame is higher in Japan than Korea and the percentage of human problem frame is higher in Korea than Japan, the differences were not statistically significant. Therefore, the eighth hypothesis was not supported. When the neutral cases were excluded, there were still no statistically differences¹¹.

Hypothesis 9: *CNN and the broadcast networks' coverage of the two countries will show differences in terms of theme, crisis/noncrisis orientation, and episodic/thematic frame.*

Hypothesis 9 was proposed to determine any differences in the coverage of both countries between the broadcast networks and CNN. The differences of themes, political/nonpolitical themes, soft/hard news, crisis/noncrisis orientations, and episodic/thematic frames of news stories between the broadcast networks and CNN were examined¹².

¹¹ Korea: Innocent Victim Frame-10 (66.7%), Human Problem Frame-5 (33.3%)
Japan: Innocent Victim Frame-43 (75.4%), Human Problem Frame-14 (24.6%)
Chi-square=.410, df=1, p=.493

¹² See footnote No. 1 in this chapter.

Table 16 shows that the themes in the coverage were different between the broadcast networks and CNN. The broadcast networks aired economic news (23.1%) most frequently followed by disaster (18.1%), crime (15.1%), foreign affairs (9.9%), culture and science (6.9%), and military affairs (6.2%). While foreign affairs news was the fourth most frequently reported theme in the broadcast news items, foreign affairs (19.6%) news was the most frequently covered theme in the CNN newscast of Korea and Japan. Other frequently used news themes for Korea and Japan in CNN news were disaster (10.8%), culture and science (9.8%), internal politics (9.5%), economics (9.5%), crime (9.5%), and military affairs (8.8%).

The Chi-square test confirmed that the differences of relative frequencies of thematic categories between the broadcast networks and CNN were statistically significant.

When the thematic categories were collapsed into political and nonpolitical categories, political stories were more frequently covered by CNN. The percentage of CNN's political stories was 45.3% compared to the networks percentage of 25.8%. The percentage of nonpolitical theme stories in the broadcast networks' coverage of Korea and Japan was 63.4% and the percentage of CNN was 51.3%. The Chi-square test showed the differences were

Table 16. Thematic Contents—Broadcast Networks vs. CNN (Column %)

	Broadcast Networks	CNN	Total
Internal Politics	29 (5.2)	39 (9.5)	68 (7.0)
Economics	130 (23.1)	39 (9.5)	169 (17.4)
Foreign Affairs	56 (9.9)	80 (19.6)	136 (14.0)
Military Affairs	35 (6.2)	36 (8.8)	71 (7.3)
Unrest and Dissident	19 (3.4)	22 (5.4)	41 (4.2)
Crime	85 (15.1)	39 (9.5)	124 (12.8)
Disaster	102 (18.1)	44 (10.8)	146 (15.0)
Culture and Science	39 (6.9)	40 (9.8)	79 (8.1)
Sports	23 (4.1)	23 (5.6)	46 (4.7)
Human Interest	29 (5.2)	33 (8.1)	62 (6.4)
Other	16 (2.8)	14 (3.4)	30 (3.1)
Total	563 (100.0)	409 (100.0)	972 (100.0)

Chi-square=72.879, df=10, p=.000

Table 17. Political/Nonpolitical Theme—Broadcast Networks vs. CNN (Column %)

	Broadcast Networks	CNN	Total
Political Themes	145 (25.8)	173 (42.3)	318 (32.7)
Nonpolitical Themes	363 (64.5)	210 (51.3)	573 (59.0)
Mixed	55 (9.8)	26 (6.4)	81 (8.3)
Total	563(100.0)	409 (100.0)	972 (100.0)

Chi-square=30.057, df=2, p=.000

statistically significant (Table 17).

According to Table 18, the percentage of soft news stories was higher in CNN coverage than broadcast networks' coverage of Korea and Japan. While 25.7% of the CNN news coverage of Korea and Japan consisted of soft stories, the broadcast networks' soft news percentage was 18.7%. The chi-square test revealed that the difference in the composition of soft news and hard news between CNN and the broadcast networks' coverage of Korea and Japan was statistically significant.

Table 18. Hard/Soft News—Broadcast Networks vs. CNN (Column %)

	Broadcast Networks	CNN	Total
Soft News	105 (18.7)	105 (25.7)	210 (21.6)
Hard News	458 (81.3)	304 (74.3)	762 (78.4)
Total	563(100.0)	409 (100.0)	972 (100.0)

Chi-square=6.897, df=1, p=.009

Table 19 shows that both CNN and the broadcast networks reported more crisis-oriented news stories than noncrisis-oriented stories in covering Korea and Japan. While CNN had 55.5% of its stories as crisis-oriented and the broadcast networks had 61.5% of their stories as crisis-oriented stories, noncrisis-oriented stories occupied 38.8% of CNN's coverage and 33.6% of the broadcast networks' coverage of Korea and Japan. The Chi-square test showed there was no statistically significant differences in the proportion of crisis-oriented and noncrisis stories between CNN and the broadcast networks in covering Korea and Japan.

Table 19. Crisis/Noncrisis Orientation—Broadcast Networks vs. CNN (Column %)

	Broadcast Networks	CNN	Total
Crisis Orientation	346 (61.5)	227 (55.5)	573 (59.0)
Noncrisis Orientation	189 (33.6)	159 (38.9)	348 (35.8)
Mixed	28 (5.0)	23 (5.6)	51 (5.2)
Total	563(100.0)	409 (100.0)	972 (100.0)

Chi-square=3.478, df=2, p=.176

Both CNN and the broadcast networks frequently employed an episodic frame in reporting Korea and Japan. The percentages of thematic frame stories were 7.1% and 9.3% for CNN and the broadcast networks respectively. Both parties utilized episodic frames in more than 90% of news stories in the coverage of Korea and Japan. The Chi-square test shows there is no statistically significant difference in the composition of thematic and episodic frame stories in covering Korea and Japan (Table 20).

Table 20. Thematic/Episodic Frame—Broadcast Networks vs. CNN (Column %)

	Broadcast Networks	CNN	Total
Thematic Frame	40 (7.1)	38 (9.3)	78 (8.0)
Episodic Frame	523 (92.9)	371 (90.7)	894 (92.0)
Total	563(100.0)	409 (100.0)	972 (100.0)

Chi-square=1.534, df=1, p=.216

The findings partially support the ninth hypothesis that there will be differences in the CNN and the broadcast networks' coverage of Korea and Japan in terms of theme, crisis/noncrisis orientation, and episodic/thematic frame. The differences in themes, composition of political and nonpolitical themes, and composition of soft and hard news stories between CNN and the broadcast networks are statistically significant. However, the composition of crisis and noncrisis news stories and the use of episodic and thematic frames do not show statistical differences. Therefore, it can be concluded that based on this study in covering Korea and Japan, CNN and the broadcast networks show some differences in terms of themes and news types, but they show no statistical

differences in terms of crisis/noncrisis orientations and the use of episodic/thematic frames.

CHPATER V

CONCLUSIONS

Discussion

From the research findings of this study, several issues have emerged in relation to previous studies in international communication and media framing. This chapter presents the issues generated from the research findings.

The analysis revealed the imbalance in the coverage between the two countries. In terms of news amount and rank of the news stories, Japan was treated as more important than Korea in U. S. television news coverage. During the period studied, Japan was covered more frequently than Korea and the average length of news stories about Japan was longer than for Korea. Also the news stories about Japan were slightly more likely to be ranked in a higher priority.

These findings indicate the importance of Japan as a news source compared to Korea. These findings are consistent with previous studies' (Giffard, 1984; Langton, 1989; Larson, 1979; Potter, 1987) findings that the amount of the Third World coverage lags behind the coverage of developed countries and is treated as less important. Also, the differences in the news amount and rank between Korea and Japan generally confirmed Galtung and Ruge's (1981) statement on foreign news selection that "the more the event concerns elite nations, the more probable that it will become a news item" (p. 56).

The importance of Japan as a news source compared to Korea also confirms Ahern's (1984) research findings. He reported that the quantity of a foreign country's news coverage in elite U.S. newspaper was related with the country's GNP (gross national product), trade amounts, and political relations with the United States. Among the three determinants of foreign coverage in the U.S. newspaper, Ahern found that GNP exerted the most powerful influence on coverage, trade was next in importance, followed closely by political relations. Similarly, Hester (1973) suggested that economic relationship between nations is a possible determinant of news coverage. He argued that total trade between two nations, the amount of foreign aid given (if any), and the amount of business investment each nation has in the other can be predictors of the volume and direction of foreign news coverage of a country. Following Ahern and Hester's claim, the U.S. Census Bureau's (1999) data regarding the GNP and trade figures¹ of the two countries suggest more news coverage of Japan and less coverage of Korea.

However, it should be noted that there are other determinants of foreign news coverage in addition to the determinants mentioned above. For example, cultural affinity, population, geographic proximity or distance between nations, are among the factors that can affect the foreign news coverage of a country. Also, the traditional news values of proximity, prominence, timeliness, impact

¹ In 1997, the two countries' total trade amounts (including both imports and exports) with the U.S. were \$188 billion for Japan and \$48 billion for Korea. The GNP figures were \$4,812 billion for Japan and \$485 billion for Korea.

(importance), conflict, controversy, uniqueness (unusal), human interest, and suspense (Mayeux, 1991; Stephens, 1993) are important factors in foreign news coverage.

Regarding the contents of news coverage of the two countries, the findings also confirmed previous studies' (Daniels, 1995; Haile, 1987; Hester, 1978; Lent & Rao, 1979, McCracken, 1987) findings about the news contents of the coverage of foreign countries. This study found that news coverage of Korea was more likely to be concerned with politics and military affairs while news coverage of Japan was more likely to be concerned with subjects such as economics, crime, disaster, culture, and science.

When the stories were grouped into political/nonpolitical themes and soft/hard news categories, the differences in the contents of news coverage of the two countries were clear. Korean news showed a heavy emphasis on political matters while Japanese news revealed a trend toward the coverage of nonpolitical matters.

The percentage of soft news was higher in Japanese news and this is consistent with previous research (McCracken, 1987) that the First World coverage shows a higher proportion of soft news stories than the Third World coverage.

In relation to the thematic contents of the stories about the two countries, a couple of themes drew attention. For Korea, foreign affairs and military affairs were the most frequently covered items. It might be interpreted that this

reflected the United States-Korea relationship and the military involvement of the United States in Korea. This interpretation is based on Gans (1979) and Graber's (1997) statements and Chang and Lee's (1992) survey results.

According to Gans (1979), items such as "American activities in a foreign country" and "foreign activities that affect Americans and American policy" are more likely to be covered. Also, Graber (1997) mentioned "audience are more likely to pay attention to a story that is linked explicitly to U.S. interests" (p. 353). According to Chang and Lee's (1992) national survey of newspaper editors that examined how editors view the importance of different criteria in selecting foreign news to run, United States involvement (or relevance to the United States) was one of the most important factors in editors' selection of foreign news². Chang et al. (1987) also found that involvement of the United States in an event (or relevance to the United States of an event) was an important determinant of international news coverage in the U.S. media³. Considering that the U. S. Armed Forces are stationed in Korea, it can hardly be denied that the foreign affairs and military affairs of Korea are closely related with U.S. interests and highly probable to be covered by U.S. television news.

For Japan, economics, crime, and disaster were the most frequently covered themes. It is likely that Japan's status as the largest trading partner of

² Other factors included "threat to the U.S. and world peace," "anticipated reader interest," and "timeliness."

³ Other factors were "normative deviance of an event (violation of U.S. norms)," "potential for social change," and "geographical distance."

the United States was reflected in the news selection about Japan. Considering that many stories in the category of crime for Japan were about terrorism, the United States' concern about terrorism seemed to be reflected in the news selection.

In relation to crime and disaster stories about Japan, criteria for choosing news stories need to be discussed. According to Graber (1997), "foreign news, like domestic news, is selected primarily for audience appeal rather than for political significance. This means that stories must have an angle that interests Americans" (p. 353). There is "a general tendency" that mass media are pressed "to make their product as attractive as possible" (Shoemaker, 1991, p. 27). Therefore, "foreign news stories also have an appealing format. Emphasis on violence, conflict and disaster, timeliness or novelty, and familiarity of persons or situations are the major selection criteria" (Graber, 1997, p. 354). This is a reflection of the long-standing definition of what is newsworthy: proximity, prominence, timeliness, impact (importance), conflict, controversy, uniqueness (unusual), human interest, and suspense (Mayeux, 1991; Stephens, 1993). Additionally these stories provide pictures that draw audience attention. "Picture and sound tend to heighten the impact and news value of a broadcast news story" (Mayeux, 1991, p. 7).

While possible interpretations in terms of determinants of news selection and traditional news values regarding the differences in thematic contents between the two countries were discussed, the differences in reality should also

be mentioned. For example, the frequently covered topics for Korea were foreign affairs and military affairs, simply because there were more issues, events, and incidents that were related with foreign affairs and military affairs in Korea. At the same time, for Japan, economics, crimes, and disasters were the frequently covered topics simply because there were more crimes, disasters, and economic issues and events. This approach assumes “(media) content reflects social reality with little or no distortion” (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991, p. 4).

This approach, also called “mirror approach,” has an assumption that “what the mass media distribute conveys an accurate reflection of social reality to the audience” (p. 4). The mirror approach implies a passive role for the media in reporting social issues and events. This approach suggests, “the media are nothing more than pipes or conduits through which bits of information flow—neutral transmission of messages linking senders to receivers” (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991, p. 29). However, this approach cannot explain the differences of coverage among media in covering the same event or issue. We frequently see different coverage among media for the same issue or event.

The mirror approach is sharply contradicted by the social construction of reality approach, which assumes “mass media content is a socially created product, not a reflection of an objective reality” (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991, p. 218). The assumption of social construction of reality approach is that “although the stimulus for a story might be a real-world event or problem, measurable

through other sources of social information, there are many factors that determine what will be transmitted and how it will be treated" (p. 218).

The analysis of crisis/noncrisis orientation of the news stories about the countries supported the idea that international news coverage by the United States media is often crisis-oriented (Adams, 1964; Almaney, 1970, Gozenbach et al., 1992; Hurrat, 1988; Lent, 1977; Meyer, 1996; Pasadeos, 1982; Potter, 1987; Semmel, 1976). News stories about both countries were dominated by crisis-oriented stories. While coverage of both countries was dominated by crisis-oriented stories, the proportion of crisis-oriented stories was significant higher for Korea. This also coincides with the previous findings (Charles et al., 1979; Daniels, 1995; ElSarayah, 1987; Giffard, 1984; Haile, 1987; Langton, 1989; Larson, 1979; Lent & Rao, 1979; Mishra, 1979; Morales, 1984; Pratt, 1980; Ramaparasad & Riffe, 1987; Riffe & Shaw, 1982; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1981; Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983) that the Third World countries are more likely to be covered with crisis-oriented stories than the First World countries.

The analysis of crisis/noncrisis orientation of the news about the countries suggests that the New World Information Order concerns over negative description of the Third World countries (International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems, 1980) are not addressed in the U.S. television news coverage of Korea, which emphasized the crisis orientation. The dominance of crisis-oriented news in the coverage of the two countries might also be discussed in terms of traditional news values. As discussed before, crisis-

oriented news stories generally well fit into the news values such as “violence, conflict, and disaster that are the major selection criteria” for foreign as well as domestic news (Graber, 1997, p. 354).

The analysis of episodic/thematic frame revealed that the news coverage of Korea and Japan is more episodic than television news in general, compared to previous study. According to the findings of Iyengar (1991), two-thirds of all news coverage is episodic and one-third is thematic. However, according to the analysis in this study, thematic frame stories for both countries were less than 10% and episodic frame stories were over 90% for both countries.

This can be interpreted that the news coverage of Korea and Japan is more likely to be event-oriented and less likely to be issue-oriented. In other words, the news coverage of Korea and Japan is less likely to provide in-depth information compared with general news stories.

According to Ryan and Owen (1976), issue-oriented reports provide an overview of, or background for, a timeless social problem or issues, or one aspect of a larger social problem or issue, while event-oriented stories are reports of timely events. In-depth information is hardly available from event-oriented or episodic stories that do not provide implication of an event or issue.

The high percentage of episodic stories (or less feature stories) might be caused by the lack of staff. According to Graber (1997), the total number of full-time American foreign correspondents has been downward since its peak during World War II. Therefore, these days, “each American foreign correspondent is

required to reach and cover many more countries than ever before. This does not allow them to feel at home and to cover issues and events in foreign countries with insight” (p. 343). This is one reason why foreign affairs coverage is criticized that “it lacks depth and breadth” (Graber, 1997, p. 356).

Routines of media work may be discussed also in relation to the dominance of event-oriented stories. Shoemaker and Reese (1991) proposed an assumption of routines of media work that “events are more likely to be covered than issue” (p. 221). They claimed “journalists can more easily defend covering events than issues, which by definition are more ambiguous. Covering events is so common in journalism that covering events has itself become a routine” (p. 221).

Frame analysis examines the qualitative aspects of news stories. In this study, frame analysis was performed for certain themes and subjects of the news stories. The purpose of frame analysis in this study was to investigate how American television news interprets and frames issues in these countries. It was assumed that television news stories about Korea and Japan provide consistent frames that delineate particular views of the countries. These frames are conceived to help people understand the world outside the country. Gitlin (1980) claimed that media frames in contemporary society play an important role in the construction of meaning through which people interpret the world.

The frame analysis revealed that news stories about the two countries’ political relations with the United States tended to emphasize the cooperative

efforts in the international political affairs in the Far East. The cooperative frame dominated for the stories for both countries in the international relations with the United States. Even though there was an espionage incident between the United States and Korea during the period studied⁴, the news coverage of Korea in international relations with the United States was dominated by a cooperative frame.

If the definition that “to frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text” (Entman, 1993, p. 52) is followed, it can be interpreted that the political cooperation of the United States with the two countries is emphasized through the cooperative frame of television news. Although it is not the main inquiry of this study, how the cooperative frame for the international relations news has developed is worthy of discussion.

There can be a couple of possible answers. First, it might be claimed that broadcast journalists, “as symbol handlers” (Gitlin, 1980), established the cooperative frame for the two countries with their own news selection judgment. According to Gans (1979), “the impact on the nation and the national interest” (p. 148) are major criteria for journalists’ importance judgments for news selection.

Second, journalistic routine may be pointed out. Relying on traditional government sources, including press releases and press conference, is an

⁴ See Appendix III.

inexpensive and easy method for the collection of information and background. If the major sources for international relations news were government leaders who wanted to present the cooperative frame, there might be some possibility that the reporters were influenced by the government sources. According to Paletz and Entman (1981), "the sources upon whom the press relies for foreign news consist mainly of Washington officials concerned with foreign policy who comment on and react to events abroad. Many of the ostensibly foreign news stories in the American mass media emanate largely from Washington. While they (mass media) criticize various specific decisions or proposals, they usually share and accept the official foreign policy premises and assumptions they rarely endorse the conduct of states which are less than friendly toward the United States" (p. 219). Shoemaker (1991) suggested that "the version of reality as processed by sources is extremely influential in determining what comes to the attention of media because in many cases media workers do not themselves experience the events" (p. 61). This suggests the further investigation of reporter-source relationship in international relations news. However, it should be noted that this is not the research agenda of the present study.

In contrast to the findings of the frame analysis of international relations news, the frame analysis of economics news about Korea and Japan revealed a difference in frames. The economics of Japan were heavily framed in terms of rival frame, while the economics of Korea were generally framed in a cooperator frame.

This may suggest that the economics news about Japan reflected the trade conflict with the United States. It was often noticed that the news stories described the trade between the United States and Japan as "war." On the other hand, the trade between the United States and Korea during the period studied did not indicate major disputes, although there had been trade disputes regarding Korea's market open for the United States product in the early 1990s. It is inferred that the nonexistence of trade dispute issues between the United States and Korea in the period reduced the rival frame stories.

In regard to the economics news about Korea, it seemed that the economic downturn in Korea influenced the framing of Korean economics news. In fact, until the economic crisis in Korea there were few economic stories about Korea. Most of the economic stories about Korea were aired during the period (1997-1998) of economic crisis and these stories provided a cooperator frame. During the period of the economic crisis in Korea, the economics news stories about Korea indicated worry about the recession and urged help for the ailing economy.

While the majority of Japanese economics stories were framed in a rival frame, stories during the period of economic recession in Japan⁵ were framed in a cooperator frame. In fact, most of the cooperator frame stories for Japanese economics were broadcast during the economic recession of Japan. This suggests that frames for Japanese economic news changed with the changes of

⁵ See Appendix III.

economic condition of Japan. This change of frames draws attention regarding the nature of media framing.

Media framing is generally understood within the context of the social construction of reality approach that “mass media content is socially created product, not a reflection of an objective reality” (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991, p. 218). However, the frames for Japanese economics news (mirroring the change of economic condition of Japan) do not completely coincide with the general assumption about media framing, since the changes reflect the changes in reality (the economic recession in Japan).

Therefore, it needs to be pointed out that media framing may not be free from the changes of objective reality. In other words, the relationship between reality and framing may be explained that, while media frames are not a reflection of an objective reality, media frames are stimulated or influenced by real-world events and issues. This explanation is based on Shoemaker and Reese’ (1991) assumption of social construction of reality that “even the mass media content is a socially created product, not a reflection of an objective reality, the stimulus for the media content might be a real-world event or problem” (p. 218).

The frame analysis of demonstration and protest stories also showed a clear contrast between Korea and Japan. While demonstration and protest in Korea were framed almost entirely in a chaos frame, which describes demonstration and protest as negative, the majority of stories about

demonstration and protest in Japan were framed in a democracy frame, which describes demonstration and protest as positive. Even the stories of similar kinds of issues in both countries were framed differently. As mentioned earlier in the analysis of data, with regard to the anti-U.S. military demonstration created by the U.S. soldiers' crime in the countries, while the demonstrations in Japan on this issue were provided with the background of the incident that how the crime violated the norms in Japan and it is the least tolerable crime in Japan, the demonstrations on the same issue in Korea showed a threatening scene of demonstrations in front of the U.S. Army Base only with the brief mentioning of the reason of the demonstrations. While demonstration and protest in Japan may be seen in terms of national sovereignty and democracy, demonstration and protest in Korea may be seen as an indication of chaotic society.

However, in discussing the frames for demonstration and protest stories for Korea and Japan, the difference of reality also should be mentioned. The Japanese have a different style of demonstrating than the Koreans, and accordingly the frames showed the different pictures. As mentioned above while discussing the frames for economics news, this supports the idea that media frames may be stimulated or influenced by real-world events and issues, although not a direct reflection of an objective reality (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991, p. 218).

The dominance of chaos frame over democracy frame for demonstration and protest stories for Korea is in line with the high percentage of crisis-oriented

news stories for Korea. This suggests the New World Information Order concern over negative description of the Third World countries may be justified.

The frame analysis of disaster stories showed the dominance of a sympathetic frame for both countries. Contrary to the finding in the analysis of demonstration and protest stories, the United States television news provided a consistent frame for disaster stories for both countries. The previous research findings that unsympathetic reporting of natural disaster was pronounced toward a country with adversarial relationship (Keshishian, 1997) did not apply to the reporting of disasters in Korea and Japan. This may be partially interpreted by the "politico-economy theory" of international news reporting tested by Keshishian (1997), that news reporting is politically biased in that it reflects the political-economic interests of the country that produces the news. Based on this theory, the cooperative relationships in international politics between the United States and the two countries evidenced by the dominance of cooperative frame for the news stories about the international politics with the United States contributed to the sympathetic reporting of disasters in Korea and Japan.

The findings from the frame analysis in this study added knowledge that the tone and manner of news stories can differ from subject to subject. In fact, previous studies have scarcely provided how direction and tone of news stories are different according to the themes of stories. When previous studies claimed the positive or negative coverage of a country, they did not specifically mention how the directions (i.e. positive or negative) were different according to themes

and subjects. But they mentioned that the news coverage of a country was negative or positive in general without specific examination according to themes. In other words, the previous studies did not mention, for example, how the directions (or frames) of political news are different from the directions of economics news. However, the frame analysis in this study presented the differences of direction, tone, and manner of stories according to subjects and themes. For example, the frame analysis in this study revealed that for Japan economic stories were negative while international politics stories were positive.

The comparative analysis of the coverage of the two countries between the broadcast networks and CNN revealed that there were differences in thematic content and news types between the broadcast networks and CNN. Although the findings did not show the differences in terms of crisis/noncrisis orientations or the use of episodic/thematic frames, the differences in themes and news types suggest there are some differences in news selection criteria between the broadcast networks and CNN. From this finding, it can be further assumed that the broadcast networks and CNN have different news selection criteria. This suggests the investigation of the differences in the gatekeeping process between the broadcast networks and CNN. This may be pursued by future research. Perhaps another explanation is a possible difference in staffing or newsgathering techniques.

The main inquiry of the present study has been to identify how the two countries are treated and framed in American television news. Based on the

findings of this study, the way foreign news is reported on American television needs to be considered.

First, whether television news provides audiences with a panoramic view of the world society can be questioned. For example, the U.S. television news coverage of the two countries showed the dominance of crisis orientation, which might distort the public's conception of the countries. Also, the dominance of political theme stories for Korea might show the limited aspects of the Korean society to the American audience. For a better understanding of Korean society, television news would need to show a wider variety aspect of the country, for example stories about culture, science, and economics. However, from a management aspect, it can be argued that gathering international news is expensive, and executives may feel that the American audience is not interested in international news. Also, since one of the purposes of newscasts is to be a source of profit for the networks, there may be little incentive to improve international coverage by becoming more thorough.

In the same vein, the frame analysis of demonstration and protest stories for Korea, which was dominated by the chaos frame, showed the lack of alternative interpretation of the demonstration and protest in Korea. For example, as mentioned in the "Results" chapter, inserting a violent scene of a previous demonstration stereotypes the demonstration and protest stories of Korea. This also could distort the perception of the audience about Korean society.

In conclusion, the U.S. television news coverage of the two countries is recommended to provide the audience with a panoramic view of the countries. This is hoped to lead to the creation of well-informed citizen in international affairs. Since it is believed that world peace and security depend on world public opinion which is largely influenced by mass media these days, socially responsible mass media are expected to provide comprehensive and balanced coverage of world affairs. In this way television news can try to become more responsible to the audiences they serve. Ultimately, this may promote the mutual understanding among nations in the global community where cooperation among nations is the key to the prosperity.

Limitation and Suggestions for Future Studies

The significance of the findings in this study is limited by several issues. First, the period studied can be pointed out. While this study analyzed a four-year period, the period studied needs to be extended. However, it should be noted that four-year period was inevitable in this study since CNN was included. As mentioned before, CNN has been archived only since 1995. As seen in the discussion above, during the four-year period, the first half period saw very few economic stories about Korea and the analysis of Korean economic stories during the economic recess period may have skewed the Korean economics coverage. If the period studied is extended to include the years of trade disputes between the United States and Korea, the result might be different.

Second, it can be pointed out that the frame analysis in this study was confined to quantitative analysis. Since the frame analysis requires the qualitative analysis of messages, further studies need to consider including qualitative analysis of messages as well as quantitative analysis. The qualitative analysis will help better understand the frames utilized in the coverage.

Third, since framing is involved with the gatekeeping process, to better understand the frames of news coverage, further studies may explore the news selection process. Therefore, following questions need to be addressed by further studies. "How are the frames created?" "How do reporters, editors, and producers choose frame?"

Fourth, while an attempt has been made to see differences between CNN and the broadcast television networks in covering Korea and Japan, the comparative analysis between CNN and the broadcast networks was limited in this study. The comparative analysis was confined to quantitative analysis news coverage and was not expanded to frame analysis. Therefore, future studies are recommended to explore the differences, if any, of frames between CNN and the broadcast networks.

Finally, although it is beyond the boundary of this study, audience perception of international news should be addressed. Integrating frame analysis and agenda-setting research will provide a more comprehensive understanding of the potential impact of international news coverage. Therefore, it can be suggested that further research should focus on: Does the audiences perceive the

same frames as the researcher does and do those frames influence audiences' perceptions of the reality of the world?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ✓ Adams, John, (1964), "A Qualitative Analysis of Domestic and Foreign News on the AP TA Wire," *Gazette*, 10 (4). 285-295.
- Adams, William C., (1987), "Mass Media and Public Opinion about Foreign Affairs: A Typology of News Dynamics," *Political Communication and Persuasion*, 4 (4). 263-278.
- Adams, William C. & Heyl, Phillip, (1981), "From Cairo to Kabul with the Networks, 1972-1980," In Adams, William C., *Television Coverage of the Middle East* (pp. 1-39), Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.
- Ahern, Thomas, (1984), "Determinants of Foreign Coverage in U.S. Newspaper," In Stevenson, Robert L & Shaw, Donald Lewis, *Foreign News and the New World Information Order* (pp. 217-236), Ames, IA: Iowa State University Press.
- Almaney, Adnan, (1970), "International and Foreign Affairs on Network Television News," *Journal of Broadcasting*, 14 (4). 499-509.
- Altheide, David L., (1982), "Three-in-one News: Network Coverage of Iran," *Journalism Quarterly*, 59 (3). 482-486.
- Ansolabehere, Stephen, Behr, Roy, & Iyengar, Shanto, (1993), *The Media Game: American Politics in the Television Age*, New York: Macmillan Publishing.
- Bantz, Charles R., (1990), "Organizing and Enactment: Karl Weick and the Production of News," In Corman, Steven R., Banks, Stephen P., Bantz, Charles R., & Mayer, Michael E., *Foundations of Organizational Communication: A Reader* (pp. 133-141), New York: Longman.
- Barranco, Deborah A. & Shyles, Leonard, (1988), "Arab vs. Israeli News Coverage in the New York Times, 1976 and 1984," *Journalism Quarterly*, 65 (1). 178-181.
- Baylor, Tim, (1996), "Media Framing of Movement Protest: The Case of American Indian Protest," *Social Science Journal*, 33 (3). 241-255.
- Belkaoui, Janice Monti, (1978), "Images of Arabs and Israelis in the Prestige Press, 1966-74," *Journalism Quarterly*, 55 (4). 732-738, 799.

✓ Bennett, W. Lance, (1994), "The Media and the Foreign Policy Process," In Deese, David A., *The New Politics of American Foreign Policy* (pp. 169-188), New York: St. Martin's Press. *No.* JX1417. D3E,

Berelson, Bernard, (1952), *Content Analysis in Communication Research*, New York: Free Press.

X Berry, Nicholas O., (1990), *Foreign Policy and the Press: Analysis of the New York Times' Coverage of U.S. Foreign Policy*, New York: Greenwood Press. *No.*

Boafo, Samuel Twumasi Kwane, (1980), "International News Coverage on U.S. Television Network Newscast: A Gratifications Study," Ph.D. Dissertation, Michigan State University.

Budd, Richard W., Thorp, Robert K., & Donohew, Lewis, (1967), *Content Analysis of Communications*, New York: Macmillan Company.

✓ Chang, Tsan-Kuo, (1993), *The Press and China Policy: The Illusion of Sino-American Relations, 1950-1984*, Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing. *No.*

Chang, Tsan-Kuo & Lee, Jae-Won, (1992), "Factors Affecting Gatekeepers' Selection of Foreign News: A National Survey of Newspaper Editors," *Journalism Quarterly*, 69, (3). 554-561.

Chang, Tsan-Kuo, Shoemaker, Pamela J., & Brendlinger, Nancy, (1987), "Determinants of International News Coverage in the U.S. Media," *Communication Research*, 14, (4). 396-414.

✓ Charles, Jeff, Shore, Larry, & Todd, Rusty, (1979), "The New York Times Coverage of Equatorial and Lower Africa," *Journal of Communication*, 29 (2). 148-155.

Cohen, Bernard C., (1963), *The Press and Foreign Policy*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Cohen, Bernard C., (1973), *The Public's Impact on Foreign Policy*, Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company.

Cooper, Anne Messerly, (1984), "Third World News on Network Television: An Inclusion/Exclusion Study of Violence," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Coulson, David C. & Hnasen, Anne, (1995), "The Louisville Courier-Journal's News Content after Purchase by Gannett," *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 72 (1). 205-215.

✓ Daniels, Leanne, (1995), "Covering the World at Three Prestige United States Newspaper: How Newspaper Environments Influence International News Decisions," Ph.D. Dissertation, Indiana University.

Davis, Dennis K., (1990), "News and Politics," In Swanson, David L. and Nimmo, Dan, *New Directions in Political Communication* (147-184), Newbury, CA: Sage Publications.

✓ Davison, W. Phillips, Shanor, Donald R., & Yu, Frederick T. C., (1980), *News from abroad and the Foreign Policy*, Headline Series No. 250, New York: Foreign Policy Association. No.

DeFleur, Melvin L. & Ball-Rokeach, Sandra, (1989), *Theories of Mass Communication*, White Plains, NJ: Longman.

Dominick, Joseph R., (1977), "Geographic Bias in National TV News," *Journal of Communication*, 27 (4). 94-99.

Dominick, Joseph R., (1981), "Business Coverage in Network Newscast," *Journalism Quarterly*, 58 (2). 179-185, 191.

✓ Dorman, William A. & Farhang, Mansour, (1987), *The U.S. Press and Iran: Foreign Policy and the Journalism of Deference*, Berkeley, CA: University of California Press. E183.8.17D47

ElSarayah, Mohamed, (1987), "Arab World News Coverage in Two American Prestigious Newspapers, A Structural Approach," Ph.D. Dissertation, Ohio University.

Entman, Robert M., (1991), "Framing U.S. Coverage of International News: Contrasts in Narratives of the KAL and Iran Air Incidents," *Journal of Communication*, 41 (4). 6-27.

Entman, Robert M., (1993), "Framing: Toward Clarification of a Fractured Paradigm," *Journal of Communication*, 43 (4). 51-58.

Frank, Robert, (1973), *Message Dimensions of Television News*, Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Fryman, John E. & Bates, Benjamin J, (1993), "Bypassing the Gateways: International news on CNN World Report," *Communication Research Report*, 10 (2). 181-191.

Galtung, Johan & Ruge, Mari Holmboe, (1981), "Structuring and Selecting News," In Cohen, Stanley & Young Jock, *The Manufacturing of News: Social Problems, Deviance and the Mass Media* (pp. 52-63), Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Gamson, William A., (1988), "Distinguished Lecture: A Constructionist Approach to Mass Media and Public Opinion," *Symbolic Interaction*, 11 (2). 161-174.

Gamson, William A., (1989), "News as Framing," *American Behavioral Scientist*, 33 (2). 157-161.

Gans, Herbert J., (1979), *Deciding What's News: A Study of CBS Evening News, NBC Nightly News, Newsweek and Time*, New York: Vintage Books.

Ganzert, Charles & Flournoy Don M., (1992), "The weekly World Report on CNN, An Analysis," *Journalism Quarterly*, 69 (1). 188-194.

✓ Giffard, C. Anthony, (1984), "Developed and Developing Nation News in U.S. Wire Files to Asia," *Journalism Quarterly*, 61 (1). 14-19.

Gitlin, Todd, (1980), *The Whole World is Watching: Mass Media in the Making and Unmaking of the New Left*, Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Goffman, Erving, (1974), *Frame Analysis: An Essay on the Organization of Experience*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

✓ Gonzenbach, William J., Arant, M. David, & Stevenson, Robert L., (1992), "The World of U.S. Network television news: Eighteen Years of International and Foreign News Coverage," *Gazette*, 50 (1). 53-72.

✓ Goren, Dina, (1980), "The News and Foreign Policy: An Examination of the Impact of the News Media on the Making of Foreign Policy," *Research in Social Movements, Conflicts, and Change*, 3. 119-141. *HN 28. RY*

Graber, Doris A., (1997), *Mass Media and American Politics*, Washington D.C.: CQ Press.

✓ Graham, Thomas W., (1994), "Public Opinion and U.S. Foreign Policy Decision Making," In Deese, David A., *The New Politics of American Foreign Policy* (190-215), New York: St. Martin's Press.

Gross, Lynne Schafer, (1995), *Telecommunications: An Introduction to Electronic Media*, Madison, WI: WCB Brown & Benchmark Publishers.

Gunter, Barrie, (1980), "Remembering Television News: Effects of Picture Content," *Journal of General Psychology*, 102 (1). 127-133.

Haile, Reesom, (1987), "Africa on Television: U.S. Network Television Coverage of African Affairs, 1977-1980," Ph.D. Dissertation, New York University.

Hester, Al, (1973), "Theoretical Considerations in Predicting Volume and Direction of International Information Flow," *Gazette*, 19, (4). 239-247.

Hester, Al, (1978), "Five Years of Foreign News on U.S. Television Evening Newscasts," *Gazette*, 24 (1). 86-95.

Holsti, Ole R., (1969), *Content Analysis for the Social Science and Humanities*, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing.

✓ Hurrat, Khalid Serhan, (1988), "Some Factors Affecting the coverage of Foreign Events by 107 American Newspapers," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Texas at Austin.

International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems, (1980), *Many Voices One World: Towards a New More Just and More Efficient World Information and Communication Order*, London: Kogan Page.

Iyengar, Shanto & Simon, Adam, (1993), "News Coverage of the Gulf Crisis and Public Opinion: A Study of Agenda-Setting, Priming, and Framing," *Communication Research*, 20 (4).

Iyengar, Shanto, (1991), *Is Anyone Responsible? How Television Frames Political Issues*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kaplan, Frank L., (1979), "The Plight of Foreign News in the U.S. Mass Media: An Assessment," *Gazette*, 25 (4). 233-243.

Kerlinger, Fred N., (1986), *Foundations of Behavioral Research*, New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.

Keshishian, Flora, (1997), "Political Bias and Nonpolitical News: A Content Analysis of an Armenian and Iran Earthquake in the New York Times and the Washington Post," *Critical Studies in Mass Communication*, 14 (4). 332-343.

Kosicki, Gerald M., (1993), "Problems and opportunities in Agenda-setting Research," *Journal of Communication*, 43 (2). 100-127.

Krippendorff, Klaus, (1980), *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology*, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

✓ Langton, Loup M., (1989), "Third World Photo Coverage in Four Prestige U.S. Newspapers," Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Washington D.C., August 10-13.

Larson, James F., (1978), *America's Window on the World: U.S. Network Coverage of International Affairs, 1972-1976*, Ph.D. Dissertation, Stanford University.

Larson, James F., (1979), "International Affairs Coverage on U.S. Network Television," *Journal of Communication*, 29 (2). 136-147.

✓ Larson, James F., (1984), *Television's Window on the world: International affairs coverage on the U.S. Networks*, Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Larson, James F. & Storey, J. Douglas, (1983), *The East on Western Television: A Ten-year Review of How the U.S. Networks Cover Asia*, Singapore: Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Center.

Lee, Junghi & Craig, Robert L., (1992), "News as an Ideological Framework: Comparing US Newspapers' Coverage of Labor Strikes in South Korea and Poland," *Discourse & Society*, 3 (3). 341-363.

Lent, John A., (1977), "Foreign News in the American Media," *Journal of Communication*, 27, (1). 46-51.

✓ Lent, John A. & Rao, Shanti, (1979), "A Content Analysis of National Media Coverage of Asian News and Information," *Gazette*, 25 (1). 17-22.

✓ Linsky, Martin, (1986), *Impact: How the Press Affects Federal Policy Making*, New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

PN4745. L5

Lippmann, Walter, (1922), *Public Opinion*, New York: Macmillan.

London, Kurt, (1950), *How Foreign Policy is Made*, New York: D. Van Nostrand Company.

Markham, James, (1961), "Foreign News in the United States and South American Press," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 25 (2). 249-262.

Masmoudi, Mustapha, (1981), "The New World Information Order," In Richstad, Jim & Anderson, Michael H., *Crisis in International News: Policies and Prospects* (pp. 77-96), New York: Columbia University Press.

Mayeux, Peter E., (1991), *Broadcast News: Writing and Reporting*, Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Publishers.

McCombs, Maxwell E., & Shaw, Donald L., (1972), "The Agenda-setting Function of Mass Media," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36 (2). 176-187.

McCombs, Maxwell E., Shaw, Donald L., & Weaver, David, (1997), *Communication and Democracy: Exploring the Intellectual Frontiers in Agenda-Setting Theory*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

✓ McCracken, Kevin W. J., (1987), "Australia and Australians: View from New York Times," *Journalism Quarterly*, 64 (1). 183-187.

McLeod, Douglas M. & Detenber, Benjamin H., (1999), "Framing Effects of Television News Coverage of Social Protest," *Journal of Communication*, 49 (3). 3-23.

McLeod, Jack, Pan, Zhongdang, & Rucinski, Dianne, (1995), "Level of Analysis in Public Opinion Research," *Public Opinion and the Communication of Consent*, New York: Guilford Press.

McNelly, John T. & Izcaray, F., (1986), "International News Exposure and Images of Nations," *Journalism Quarterly*, 63 (3). 553-556.

McQuail, Denis, (1994), *Mass Communication Theory: An Introduction*, Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Merill, John C., (1962), "The Image of the United States in Ten Mexican Dailies," *Journalism Quarterly*, 39 (2). 203-209.

Meyer, Cordula, (1996), "Foreign Images: A Content Analysis of International Coverage in American Television Network News," M.A. Thesis, University of Arizona.

Miller, M. Mark, Singletary, Michael W., & Chen, Shu-Ling, (1988), "The Roper Question and Television Vs. Newspaper as Sources of News," *Journalism Quarterly*, 65 (1). 12-19.

✓ Mishra, V. M., (1979), "News from the Middle East in Five U.S. Media," *Journalism Quarterly*, 56 (2). 374-378.

Moore, Barbara A., (1999), "Framing and Content Analysis," Personal Discussion with the Author.

Morales, Wattraud Ueeiser, (1984), "Latin America on Network TV," *Journalism Quarterly*, 61 (1). 157-160.

Nelson, Thomas E. & Kinder, Donald R., (1996), "Issue Frames and Group-Centrism in American Public Opinion," *Journal of Politics*, 58 (4). 1055-1078.

Nelson, Thomas E., Clawson, Rosalee A., & Oxley, Zoe M., (1997), "Media Framing of Civil Liberties Conflict and Its Effect on Tolerance," *American Political Science Review*, 91 (3). 567-583.

Neuman, W. Russell, Just, Marriion R., & Crigler, Ann N., (1992), *Common Knowledge: News and the Construction of Political Meaning*, Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Norusis, Marija J., (1998), *SPSS 8.0 Guide to Data Analysis*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

✓ Nye, Joseph, (1999), "Redefining the National Interest," *Foreign Affairs*, 78 (4). 22-35.

D 410. F6

✓ Paletz, David L. & Entman, Robert M., (1981), *Media, Power, Politics*, New York: Free Press.

PN 4888. P6 P3

Pan, Zhongdang & Kosicki, Gerald M., (1993), "Framing Analysis: An Approach to News Discourse," *Political Communication*, 10 (1). 55-76.

Paraschos, Manny & Boice, Ermalee, (1985), "Media Consumption and International News: A Case Study in News Exposure, Coverage Satisfaction,

and Knowledge," Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Memphis TN, August 3-6.

Pasadeos, Yorgo, (1982), "International News Coverage in U.S. Newsmagazines: A Content Analysis and Some Correlates," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Texas at Austin.

Perry, David K., (1985), "The Mass Media and Inference about Other Nations," *Communicatioin Research*, 12 (4). 595-614.

Perry, David K., (1987), "The Image Gap: How International News Affects Perceptions of Nations," *Journalism Quarterly*, 64 (2-3). 416-433.

✓ Pittatore, Oddina, (1983), "The Image of Italy in Ads in Five U.S. Magazines," *Journalism Quarterly*, 60 (4). 728-730.

✓ Potter, W. James, (1987), "News from Three Worlds in Prestige U.S. Newspapers," *Journalism Quarterly*, 64 (1). 73-79, 276.

Pratt, C. B., (1980), "The Reportage and Images of Africa in Six U.S. News and Opinion Magazines: A Comparative Study" *Gazette*, 26 (1). 31-45.

Price, Vincent & Tewksbury, David, (1995), "News Values and Public Opinion: A Process: How Political Advertising and TV News Prime Viewers to Think about Issues and Candidates," In Biocca, Frank, *Television and Political Advertising*, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Price, Vincent & Tewksbury, David, (1997), "News Values and Public Opinion: A Theoretical Account of Media Priming and Framing," In Barnett, George A. & Buster, Franklin J., *Progress in Communication Science: Advances in Persuasion* (Vol. 13, pp. 173-212), Greenwich, CT: Ablex Publishing.

Prisco, Robert M., (1995), "Television and the Function of Framing: A Content Analysis of Water Pollution Stories on Network News," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

✓ Ramaprasad, Jyotika & Riffe, Daniel, (1987), "Effect of U.S.-India Relations on New York Times Coverage," *Journalism Quarterly*, 64 (2). 537-543, 663.

Rhee, June Woong, (1997), "Strategy and issue Frames in Election Campaign Coverage: A Social cognitive Account of Framing Effects," *Journal of Communication*, 47 (3). 26-48.

Riffe, Daniel, Lacy, Stephen, & Fico, Frederick G., (1998), *Analyzing Media Messages: Using Quantitative Content Analysis in Research*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

✓ Riffe, Daniel & Shaw, Eugene, F., (1982), "Conflict and Consonance: Coverage of Third World in Two U.S. Papers," *Journalism Quarterly*, 59 (4). 617-626.

✓ Risse-Kappen, Thomas, (1994), "Masses and Leaders: Public Opinion, Domestic Structures, and Foreign Policy," In Deese, David A., *The New Politics of American Foreign Policy* (pp. 238-261), New York: St. Martin's Press.

Roper Organization, (1991), *Americans Watching: Public Attitudes toward Television, 1991*, New York: The Roper Organization.

Ryan, Michael & Owen, Dorothea, (1976), "A Content Analysis of Metropolitan Newspaper Coverage of Social Issues," *Journalism Quarterly*, 53 (4). 634-640, 671.

Saito, Shinichi, (1996), "The Images of the Partner: Television's Contribution to Japanese Perception of America," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.

Scheufele, Dietram A., (1999), "Framing as a Theory of Media Effects," *Journal of Communication*, 49 (1). 103-122.

Scott, David K & Gobetz, Robert H., (1992), "Hard News/Soft News Content of the National Broadcast Networks, 1972-1987," *Journalism Quarterly*, 69 (2). 406-412.

Semetko, Holi A., Brizinski, Joanne Bay, Weaver, David, & Willnat, Lars, (1992), "TV News and U.S. Public Opinion about Foreign Countries: The Impact of Exposure and Attention," *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 4 (1). 18-36.

Semmel, Andrew K., (1976), "Foreign News in four U.S. Elite Dailies: Some Comparison," *Journalism Quarterly*, 53 (4). 732-736.

✓ Shapiro, Robert Y. & Page, Benjamin I., (1994), "Foreign Policy and Public Opinion," In Deese, David A., *The New Politics of American Foreign Policy* (pp. 216-235), New York: St. Martin's Press.

Shoemaker, Pamela J., (1991), *Gatekeeping*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Shoemaker, Pamela J. & Reese, Stephen D., (1991), *Mediating the Message: Theories of Influences on Mass Media Content*, New York: Longman.

Singletary, Michael, (1994), *Mass Communication Research: Contemporary Methods and Applications*, New York: Longman.

Smith, Jon M., (1997), "Visual and Verbal Claimsmaking about the Endangered Species Issues on Network Television: A Media Framing Analysis," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Sparkes, Vernone M. & Winter, James P., (1980), "Public Interest in Foreign News," *Gazette*, 26 (3). 149-170.

Stempel, Guido H., (1989), "Content Analysis," In Stempel, Guido H. & Westley, Bruce H., *Research Methods in Mass Communication* (pp. 124-136), Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Stephens, Mitchell, (1993), *Broadcast News*, Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Swinton, Stanley M., (1981), "A First World View," In Richstad, Jim & Anderson, Michael H., *Crisis in International News: Policies and Prospects* (pp. xi-xv), New York: Columbia University Press.

Takeshita, Toshio, (1997), "Exploring the Media's Role in Defining Reality: From Issue Agenda-setting to Attribute Agenda-setting," In McCombs, Maxwell, Shaw, Donald L., & Weaver, David, *Communication and Democracy: Exploring the Intellectual Frontiers in Agenda-setting Theory* (pp. 15-27), Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Elbaum Associates.

Tuchman, Gaye, (1978), *Making News: A Study in the Construction of Reality*, New York: Free Press.

UNESCO, (1999), *Statistical Yearbook*, Paris, France: UNESCO Publishing.

U.S. Bureau of Census, (1999), *Statistical Abstract of the United States*.

Voland, Howard, (1992), "The Framing of an Issue: A Case Study of Gay and Lesbian News Coverage," Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

- Wanta, Wayne & Hu, Yu Wei, (1993), "The Agenda-Setting Effects of International News Coverage: An Examination of Differing News Frames," *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 5 (3). 250-264.
- Weaver, David H. & Wilhoit, G. Cleveland, (1981), Foreign News Coverage in Two U.S. Wire Services," *Journal of Communication*, 31 (2). 55-63.
- Weaver, James B., Potter, Christopher J., & Evans, Margaret E., (1984), "Patterns in Foreign News Coverage on U.S. Network TV: A 10-year Analysis," *Journalism Quarterly*, 61 (2). 356-363.
- Wilhoit, G. Cleveland & Weaver, David, (1983), "Foreign News Coverage in Two Wire Services: An Update," *Journal of Communication*, 33 (2). 132-148.
- Winett, Liana, (1997), "Advocates' Guidance to Developing Framing Memos," In Iyengar, Shanto & Reeves, Richard, *Do the Media Govern?: Politicians, Voters, and Reporters in America* (pp. 420-431), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Wolfsfeld, Gadi, (1997), *Media and Political Conflict: News from the Middle East*, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Yang, Kisuk, (1986), "News through a Distorting Prism: New York Times Coverage of UNESCO, 197—1985," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Texas-Austin.
- Yang, Tai-En, (1995), "Factors Affecting Foreign News Coverage: U.S. and British Media Coverage of the Soviet (1931-32) and China (1959-61) Famines," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Missouri-Columbia.
- Zucker, Harold Gene, (1978), "The Variable Nature of News Media Influence," *Communication Yearbook*, 2. 225-250.

APPENDICES

I. CODING SHEET

-Country:

1. Korea
2. Japan
3. Both

-Year:

1. 1995
2. 1996
3. 1997
4. 1998

-Network:

1. ABC
2. CBS
3. NBC
4. CNN

-Length of News:

_____ Seconds.

-Rank of the Story:

1. High priority
2. Medium priority
3. Low priority

-Theme:

1. Internal Politics
2. Economics
3. Foreign Affairs
4. Military Affairs
5. Unrest-Dissident
6. Crime
7. Disaster
8. Culture-Science
9. Sports
10. Human Interest
11. Other

-Political/Nonpolitical Theme:

1. Political Themes
2. Nonpolitical Themes
3. Mixed

-Crisis/Non-crisis Orientation:

1. Crisis Orientation
2. Noncrisis Orientation
3. Mixed

-Soft/Hard News:

1. Soft News

2. Hard News

-Thematic/Episodic Frame:

1. Thematic Frame
2. Episodic Frame

*Below is the coding sheet used for frame analysis.

-Cooperative/Conflict Frame:

1. Cooperative Frame
2. Conflict Frame
3. Neutral

-Cooperator/Rival Frame:

1. Cooperator Frame
2. Rival Frame
3. Neutral

-Democracy/Chaos Frame:

1. Democracy Frame
2. Chaos Frame
3. Neutral

-Innocent Victim/Unprepared Problem Frame:

1. Innocent Victim Frame
2. Human Problem Frame
3. Neutral

II. LIST OF VIDEOTAPES

No.	Date	Net	Start T.	Length	Title
1	95.01.09	ABC	5:40:00	0:30	Japan/American Apples
2	95.01.11	ABC	5:52:00	2:30	US-Japan Trade
3	95.01.16	ABC	5:30:30	0:40	Japan/Earthquake
4	95.01.17	ABC	5:30:30	4:20	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
5	95.01.17	ABC	5:36:10	5:30	Japan/Earthquake/Tremor-Proof Building
6	95.01.18	ABC	5:36:10	6:40	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe/Preparedness
7	95.01.19	ABC	5:41:40	4:00	Japan/Earthquake/The Government Response
8	95.01.20	ABC	5:43:50	2:20	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
9	95.01.21	ABC	5:33:00	2:50	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/Relief
10	95.01.23	ABC	5:46:10	2:10	Japan/Earthquake/Aftershock/Government
11	95.02.02	ABC	5:37:30	0:50	Seattle, WA, & Kobe/Japan
12	95.02.08	ABC	5:52:30	1:30	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/The Mob
13	95.03.19	ABC	5:51:30	2:00	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/Recovery
14	95.05.13	ABC	5:34:40	3:20	US-Japan Relations/Trade/Cars
15	95.05.16	ABC	5:30:30	2:20	US-Japan/Trade Cars
16	95.05.17	ABC	5:45:20	2:20	US-Japan Relations/Trade Problems
17	95.05.22	ABC	5:46:40	2:10	US-Japan Trade/Auto Tariffs
18	95.05.23	ABC	5:36:00	1:50	US-Japan Trade/Auto Sanctions
19	95.06.12	ABC	5:51:20	2:40	US-Japan Trade/Auto Issue/Construction Ind.
20	95.06.15	ABC	5:34:40	2:00	G-7 Economic Summit/US-Japan Trade
21	95.06.24	ABC	5:30:30	3:30	US-Japan Relations/Trade Talks
22	95.06.27	ABC	5:30:30	6:20	US-Japan Relations/Trade Talks/The Auto
23	95.06.27	ABC	5:30:30	6:20	US-Japan Relations/Trade Talks/The Auto
24	95.06.28	ABC	5:37:50	3:50	US-Japan Trade/Auto
25	95.06.29	ABC	5:47:50	1:50	South Korea/Seoul Building Collapse
26	95.06.30	ABC	5:47:00	0:30	South Korea/Seoul Department store Collapse
27	95.07.01	ABC	5:30:30	2:00	South Korea/Seoul Building Collapse
28	95.07.03	ABC	5:30:30	5:40	US-Japan Relations/Trade/Photography/Mail
29	95.07.09	ABC	5:33:20	1:00	South Korea/Shopping Mall Rescue
30	95.08.22	ABC	5:44:40	3:10	Hawaii/Real Estate/Japanese Sell-Off
31	96.01.15	ABC	5:55:30	2:30	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/One Year Later
32	96.01.24	ABC	5:45:00	2:10	Japan/US Trade Surplus/The Homeless
33	96.04.12	ABC	5:49:10	2:10	Automobile Industry/Mazda Takeover
34	96.04.14	ABC	5:42:00	5:30	Clinton/Overseas Trip/Japan & Russia
35	96.05.22	ABC	5:39:10	0:30	Japan/Industrial Oil Pollution
36	96.07.23	ABC	5:21:20	0:50	Japan/Food Poisoning
37	96.08.06	ABC	5:51:40	2:10	Japan/Food Poisoning/Sakai
38	96.08.19	ABC	5:37:40	2:10	South Korea/Student Protests
39	96.09.25	ABC	5:34:20	1:50	South Korea-US Relations/Espionage Case
40	96.12.30	ABC	5:41:30	0:30	Korean War/Peace Talks
41	97.01.08	ABC	5:43:30	1:20	Japan/Oil Slick
42	97.01.16	ABC	5:43:00	2:10	South Korea/Labor Strikes
43	97.07.02	ABC	5:32:40	1:50	Japan/Oil Spill

44	97.08.05	ABC	5:48:20	0:30	Korea/War Talks, Famine
45	97.08.06	ABC	5:30:50	5:50	Guam Plane Crash
46	97.08.10	ABC	5:33:00	1:50	Guam/Plane Crash
47	97.10.16	ABC	5:44:20	3:10	US-Japan Trade/Shipping Dispute
48	97.10.17	ABC	5:42:10	2:20	US-Japan/Trade Dispute/Japanese Port System
49	97.10.19	ABC	5:34:40	2:10	US-Japan Relations/Trade Dispute/Federal
50	97.11.24	ABC	5:30:30	5:10	Japan/Economy/Yamaichi
51	97.11.27	ABC	5:46:00	2:20	South Korea/Economic Trouble
52	97.12.23	ABC	5:54:00	0:40	South Korea/Economy
53	97.12.24	ABC	5:38:20	0:30	South Korea/US Aid
54	98.04.03	ABC	5:34:40	2:20	Japan/Economy/Bureaucrats' Suicides
55	98.06.12	ABC	5:36:10	2:20	Japan/Recession
56	98.06.17	ABC	5:35:10	2:00	Japan's Economy/US Aid
57	98.06.20	ABC	5:39:50	2:20	Japan/Economic Crisis
58	98.07.13	ABC	5:48:50	4:40	Closer Look (Japan's Economy)
59	98.09.22	ABC	5:40:10	1:50	World Economy/Japan
60	98.10.06	ABC	5:30:50	5:00	World Economic Crisis/Clinton/Japan
61	98.11.16	ABC	5:47:10	2:10	Japan/Economy
62	98.11.18	ABC	5:36:40	2:40	World Economy/Steel Trade
63	98.11.19	ABC	5:46:10	2:00	Japan/Clinton Visit/Economy/Gift Coupon
64	98.11.20	ABC	5:46:30	2:30	Banking/Japan
65	98.11.20	ABC	5:33:20	2:20	Microsoft/Japan/Gates
66	98.11.22	ABC	5:35:40	1:40	Koreas/Clinton
67	98.12.10	ABC	5:41:30	0:40	South Korea/Economy
68	95.01.16	CBS	5:58:00	0:30	Japan/Earthquake
69	95.01.16	CBS	5:30:10	2:10	Japan/Earthquake
70	95.01.17	CBS	5:34:10	1:50	Clinton/Aid to Japan
71	95.01.17	CBS	5:30:10	4:00	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
72	95.01.18	CBS	5:32:50	4:50	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
73	95.01.19	CBS	5:30:10	5:30	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
74	95.01.20	CBS	5:32:30	3:00	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
75	95.01.21	CBS	5:33:00	5:40	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/Relief
76	95.01.22	CBS	5:02:40	2:40	Japan/Kobe Earthquake
77	95.01.23	CBS	5:40:30	2:50	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
78	95.02.06	CBS	5:46:20	2:00	Japanese Government/Kobe Earthquake
79	95.05.10	CBS	5:39:30	1:30	Japan-US Relations/Car Wars
80	95.05.15	CBS	5:51:10	0:30	US-Japan/Trade War
81	95.05.16	CBS	5:30:10	2:10	US-Japan Trade/Cars
82	95.05.17	CBS	5:48:20	0:30	US-Japan Relations/Trade Problems
83	95.05.19	CBS	5:46:10	3:00	Japan-US Trade/Sanctions
84	95.05.20	CBS	5:40:00	2:00	Japan/Banks
85	95.06.13	CBS	5:45:40	2:10	US-Japan Trade/Car Wars
86	95.06.15	CBS	5:43:30	1:50	G-7 Economic Summit/US-Japan Trade
87	95.06.27	CBS	5:30:10	5:40	US-Japan Relations/Trade Talks/The Auto
88	95.06.28	CBS	5:34:40	3:00	US-Japan Trade/Auto Deal

89	95.06.29	CBS	5:38:40	0:50	South Korea/Seoul Building Collapse
90	95.07.01	CBS	5:35:10	1:50	South Korea/Seoul Building Collapse
91	95.07.03	CBS	5:34:50	1:20	US-Japan Relations/Trade/Photography
92	95.07.09	CBS	5:00:20	1:40	South Korea/Seoul Mall Rescue
93	95.09.26	CBS	5:42:30	0:30	Japan/Daiwa Bank
94	95.10.21	CBS	5:39:50	2:20	Japan/Okinawa/Anti-US Demonstration
95	95.11.18	CBS	5:38:50	1:50	Japan/Okinawa Rape/Gore
96	95.11.19	CBS	5:10:10	2:00	Japan/APEC Summit/Gore/Okinawa Rape
97	96.01.14	CBS	5:09:10	2:20	Japan/Earthquake
98	96.01.16	CBS	5:50:10	3:10	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/Anniversary
99	96.07.22	CBS	5:39:10	2:00	Japan/E.Coli Outbreak
100	96.08.20	CBS	5:51:50	1:40	South Korea/Student Protests
101	96.09.22	CBS	5:12:00	2:20	Japan/AIDS Scandal
102	96.09.25	CBS	5:39:20	1:50	US-South Korea/Espionage Arrest
103	96.09.26	CBS	5:55:00	2:30	Japan/Earthquake Training
104	97.01.26	CBS	5:16:10	2:40	Japan/Trains
105	97.02.22	CBS	5:04:50	2:00	Korea/Albright
106	97.10.17	CBS	5:33:30	0:40	US-Japan/Trade Dispute
107	97.11.23	CBS	5:07:50	2:10	Asia Pacific Summit/Japan Economy
108	97.11.25	CBS	5:35:10	1:10	Japan Yamaichi Failure
109	97.12.18	CBS	5:42:40	2:00	Economy/South Korea
110	98.03.11	CBS	5:44:30	2:10	Japan/Financial Crisis/Suicides
111	98.04.01	CBS	5:50:50	2:10	Japan/Economy
112	98.04.06	CBS	5:40:50	1:20	Japan Economy
113	98.04.13	CBS	5:34:40	0:30	Japan Economy
114	98.06.12	CBS	5:32:50	2:00	Market Watch/Japan Recession
115	98.06.17	CBS	5:30:40	4:10	Japan/Economy/Yen
116	98.06.22	CBS	5:32:40	0:30	Japan/Economy
117	98.07.13	CBS	5:32:50	2:00	Japan/Russia/Economic Troubles
118	98.08.11	CBS	5:35:30	0:50	Japan/Economy
119	98.09.08	CBS	5:32:20	1:50	Japan/Economy
120	98.09.30	CBS	5:33:20	2:00	Japan/Recession
121	98.10.02	CBS	5:33:20	1:50	Japan/Economy
122	98.10.05	CBS	5:37:20	2:00	Japan/Economy/Bank
123	98.10.15	CBS	5:50:10	2:30	Japan/Economy/Buying Slump
124	98.10.21	CBS	5:45:50	2:00	Japan/Economy/Bank
125	98.12.14	CBS	5:51:20	2:00	Japan/Economy/Deflation
126	98.12.30	CBS	5:51:20	2:30	South Korea/Economic Crisis/Abandoned Chil.
127	95.10.11	CNN	5:07:20	1:00	US-Japan Relations/Okinawa Rape
128	95.10.13	CNN	5:22:30	2:10	Japan/Earthquake & Tourism/ITO
129	95.10.15	CNN	5:13:50	0:30	US-Japan Trade/Spying.
130	95.10.20	CNN	5:00:50	5:10	Japan/Okinawa/Rape/US Military Bases
131	95.10.20	CNN	5:42:00	5:40	Japan/Okinawa/Rape/Expert Interview
132	95.10.21	CNN	5:11:40	0:30	Japan/Okinawa/Anti-American Demonstration
133	95.10.25	CNN	5:38:20	0:30	Japan/Okinawa/Anti-US Protests

134	95.10.30	CNN	5:41:50	2:10	South Korea/US Military Presence/Protest
135	95.10.30	CNN	5:41:20	0:30	Japan/Okinawa/US Military
136	95.11.01	CNN	5:14:00	1:10	Japan/Okinawa Rape/US Servicemen
137	95.11.17	CNN	5:21:20	0:40	Okinawa/Rape Case
138	95.11.18	CNN	5:20:50	0:40	Japan/Okinawa Rape Case/Gore
139	95.11.19	CNN	5:16:40	1:40	Japan/APEC Summit/Gore/Okinawa Rape
140	95.11.24	CNN	5:37:30	0:30	Japan/Banks
141	96.01.17	CNN	5:28:40	2:40	Japan/Kobe Earthquake/One Year Later
142	96.02.12	CNN	5:07:50	0:30	Japan/Tunnel Rockslide
143	96.02.13	CNN	5:38:00	0:30	Japan/Collapsed Tunnel
144	96.02.14	CNN	5:04:40	1:30	Japan/Collapsed /tunnel
145	96.02.15	CNN	5:06:30	0:30	Japan/Collapsed Tunnel
146	96.04.15	CNN	5:02:50	0:50	North-South Korea Relations/Clinton Visit
147	96.04.17	CNN	5:17:20	4:00	US-Japan Relations/Clinton Visit/US Military
148	96.05.13	CNN	5:42:40	0:50	South Korea-US-Japan Relations/North Korea
149	96.06.10	CNN	5:46:50	2:20	Japan/Kobe/Earthquake/Aftermath
150	96.07.16	CNN	5:32:00	0:30	Japan/Food Poisoning
151	96.07.25	CNN	5:22:10	2:00	Japan/Food Poisoning
152	96.08.01	CNN	5:23:40	0:30	Japan/Food Poisoning
153	96.08.16	CNN	5:01:00	2:40	Seoul/Student Protest
154	96.08.19	CNN	5:41:10	3:20	South Korea/Student Protest
155	96.08.21	CNN	5:33:10	2:50	Japan/Food Poisoning Epidemic/Meat Industry
156	96.09.20	CNN	5:40:10	6:10	North/South Korea Relations/US
157	96.09.30	CNN	5:21:10	0:40	Kim Espionage Case
158	96.11.21	CNN	5:42:50	3:10	Asia/After the Miracle/Japan
159	96.12.30	CNN	5:44:00	0:40	South Korea/Workers' Strike
160	97.01.07	CNN	5:19:20	1:50	Japan/Oil Spill
161	97.01.09	CNN	5:09:00	0:30	South Korea/Workers' Protests
162	97.01.14	CNN	5:45:20	2:00	Japan/Oil Spill
163	97.01.14	CNN	5:27:50	2:30	South Korea/Protests
164	97.01.15	CNN	5:15:30	0:40	South Korea/Labor Violence
165	97.01.19	CNN	5:15:40	0:40	South Korea/Protests
166	97.01.21	CNN	5:04:50	1:20	South Korea/Labor Unrest
167	97.01.22	CNN	5:34:20	0:30	South Korea/Labor Protest
168	97.02.01	CNN	5:06:40	3:20	Fujimori/Albright/Hashimoto
169	97.02.10	CNN	5:12:20	0:40	US-Japan Relations/Okinawa
170	97.02.22	CNN	5:03:40	2:40	North Korea/Albright Visit
171	97.03.05	CNN	5:04:00	2:40	The Koreas/Peace Talks
172	97.03.31	CNN	5:20:00	0:30	Japan/Gingrich
173	97.04.04	CNN	5:15:40	0:30	North Korea/Talks
174	97.05.07	CNN	5:07:20	0:30	Navy/Espionage/Kim
175	97.06.06	CNN	5:35:00	2:40	Japan/Earthquakes
176	97.06.25	CNN	5:07:30	1:20	North Korea/Peace Talks
177	97.06.30	CNN	5:43:50	0:30	Korean War Talks
178	97.07.02	CNN	5:03:00	4:10	Japan/Oil Slick

179	97.07.03	CNN	5:22:00	2:10	Japan/Oil Spill
180	97.07.11	CNN	5:25:20	0:30	Kim Sentencing
181	97.07.29	CNN	5:19:30	0:30	Koreas/Peace Talks
182	97.08.02	CNN	5:14:30	5:20	Japan/Economy Reform
183	97.08.06	CNN	5:41:00	0:40	Koreas/Korean War Talks
184	97.08.07	CNN	5:41:30	6:10	Guam/Plane Crash/Koreans
185	97.09.10	CNN	5:51:20	0:30	Korea Talks
186	97.10.16	CNN	5:21:10	2:00	US-Japan/Trade Dispute
187	97.10.17	CNN	5:01:00	6:20	US-Japan/Trade Dispute
188	97.11.13	CNN	5:31:30	2:10	Korean Peninsula/Peace Talks
189	97.11.20	CNN	5:42:50	2:30	South Korea/Currency
190	97.11.21	CNN	5:23:20	1:20	North Korea/Peace Conference
191	97.11.27	CNN	5:34:40	0:30	Japan Nike
192	97.12.01	CNN	5:27:50	0:30	South Korea/IMF Bailout
193	97.12.03	CNN	5:45:10	3:00	South Korea/IMF Bailout
194	97.12.10	CNN	5:41:00	0:30	South Korea/IMF Bailout
195	97.12.11	CNN	5:38:10	2:40	South Korea/Economy
196	97.12.12	CNN	5:34:20	2:50	South Korea/Economy
197	97.12.15	CNN	5:37:50	0:30	South Korea/Economy
198	97.12.17	CNN	5:39:00	0:40	Japan/Economy
199	97.12.19	CNN	5:05:50	1:40	South Korea/Economy
200	97.12.23	CNN	5:00:30	2:50	South Korea/Economy
201	97.12.24	CNN	5:18:30	2:10	South Korea/Loan Aid
202	97.12.28	CNN	5:21:00	2:20	South Korea/Economic Crisis/Students
203	97.12.29	CNN	5:48:10	0:40	South Korea/Economy
204	97.12.30	CNN	5:06:40	0:30	South Korea/Economy
205	98.02.04	CNN	5:25:00	2:30	Japan/Tokyo Taxis
206	98.02.26	CNN	5:23:10	0:30	Japan/Economy/Suicide
207	98.03.15	CNN	5:18:50	2:30	Korea/Peace Talks
208	98.03.21	CNN	5:05:40	2:30	Korea/Peace Talks
209	98.03.23	CNN	5:48:30	0:30	South Korea/Shipwrecks
210	98.04.15	CNN	5:19:20	0:30	Japan/Economy
211	98.04.26	CNN	5:15:20	2:30	South Korea/Airlines Downing
212	98.05.27	CNN	5:21:20	0:30	Japan/Banks
213	98.06.01	CNN	5:19:50	0:30	Merger/Travelers Group-Nikko
214	98.06.02	CNN	5:51:20	0:30	South Korea/North Korea Sanctions
215	98.06.09	CNN	5:00:40	9:30	South Korea-North Korea-US Relations/Kim
216	98.06.12	CNN	5:07:00	2:10	Japan/Recession
217	98.06.17	CNN	5:01:20	6:30	Asian Economic Crisis/US-Japan/Clinton
218	98.06.18	CNN	5:13:00	0:30	Japan/Currency
219	98.07.31	CNN	5:14:50	1:00	Japan/Economy
220	98.10.01	CNN	5:21:10	0:30	South Korea/Tropical Storm
221	98.11.13	CNN	5:28:20	1:20	Japan/Bank Closing
222	98.11.18	CNN	5:00:40	1:50	Clinton/Global Economy/Japan
223	98.11.18	CNN	5:06:10	2:40	Japan/Economy/Family

224	98.11.20	CNN	5:04:20	2:30	South Korea/Clinton/Asia Trip
225	95.01.09	NBC	5:56:40	2:00	Japan/American Apples
226	95.01.11	NBC	5:46:40	0:30	US-Japan Trade
227	95.01.16	NBC	5:30:20	2:20	Japan/Earthquake
228	95.01.17	NBC	5:30:30	7:20	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe/Earthquake Proofing
229	95.01.18	NBC	5:30:20	7:00	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
230	95.01.19	NBC	5:36:20	5:20	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
231	95.01.20	NBC	5:32:00	3:40	Japan/Earthquake/Kobe
232	95.01.21	NBC	5:30:30	5:10	Japan/Kobe Earthquake
233	95.01.22	NBC	5:38:10	2:20	Japan/Kobe Earthquake
234	95.01.25	NBC	5:50:20	1:40	Japan/Earthquake & Flu Epidemic/Kobe
235	95.01.27	NBC	5:51:30	2:10	Americans Close Up (American Doctors in K.)
236	95.02.17	NBC	5:48:30	2:00	Japan/Kobe Earthquake
237	95.04.01	NBC	5:51:10	2:10	US-Japan Trade/Car Wars
238	95.04.28	NBC	5:38:30	1:20	South Korea/Taegu Explosion
239	95.05.10	NBC	5:46:50	0:30	Japan/US/Car Wars
240	95.05.16	NBC	5:30:20	3:00	US-Japan Trade/Cars
241	95.06.11	NBC	5:49:20	2:20	Trade/G-7 Summit/US-Japan Car Wars
242	95.06.15	NBC	5:39:10	1:50	G-7 Economic Summit/US-Japan Trade
243	95.06.24	NBC	5:38:10	2:20	US-Japan Relations/Trade Talks
244	95.06.27	NBC	5:33:00	2:00	US-Japan Relations/Trade Talks/The Auto
245	95.06.28	NBC	5:34:30	2:30	US-Japan Trade/Auto Deal
246	95.07.01	NBC	5:32:50	1:40	South Korea/Seoul Building Collapse
247	95.07.15	NBC	5:49:40	0:40	South Korea/Building Collapse
248	95.07.29	NBC	5:50:50	0:30	South Korea/Building Collapse
249	95.10.17	NBC	5:33:20	2:30	Japan/US Spying
250	95.10.21	NBC	5:40:20	0:30	Japan/Okinawa/Anti-US Demonstration
251	95.10.25	NBC	5:41:10	1:50	Japan American Cars
252	95.11.18	NBC	5:41:40	2:30	Japan/Asian summit/Financial Problems
253	96.04.14	NBC	5:34:40	2:40	Clinton Overseas Trip/US-Japan Relations/US
254	96.04.17	NBC	5:35:10	0:30	US-Japan Relations/Clinton Visit
255	96.09.25	NBC	5:34:20	0:30	US-South Korea/Espionage Arrest
256	97.01.26	NBC	5:38:20	2:10	Japan/Oil Spill
257	97.02.22	NBC	5:37:20	2:20	North Korea/Albright Visit/Peace
258	97.03.29	NBC	5:51:20	2:10	Koreas/Gore Visit
259	97.10.16	NBC	5:35:10	1:00	US-Japan/Trade Dispute
260	97.12.17	NBC	5:33:20	2:40	Asian Economy/Japan's Tax Cut/South Korea
261	97.12.28	NBC	5:50:30	1:30	Asian Economy/Korean
262	98.04.03	NBC	5:33:40	2:10	Japan/Economy
263	98.06.07	NBC	5:41:30	1:40	Asian Economy/Clinton/South Korea
264	98.06.17	NBC	5:30:40	2:50	Japan/Economy/Yen
265	98.08.09	NBC	5:52:20	2:00	Japan/Economic Plight
266	98.08.23	NBC	5:55:20	2:10	Japan/Tokyo Real Estate
267	98.11.21	NBC	5:33:20	2:30	Korean Peninsula/Clinton Visit/North Korean
268	98.11.22	NBC	5:35:30	2:10	South Korea/Clinton Visit/North Korea

III. MAJOR ISSUES AND EVENTS IN KOREA AND JAPAN (1995-1998)

--KOREA

June 1995: The collapse of a department store in Seoul, South Korea.

September 1995: North Korean spy infiltration into South Korea.

April 1996: U.S. President Clinton's visit to South Korea.

August 1996: Students' protest regarding the unification of the two Koreas.

September 1996: U.S. Naval intelligent officer Robert Kim arrested and charged
with spying for South Korea.

December 1996: Workers' strike in South Korea protesting changes in the labor
law.

March 1997: U.S. Vice President Gore's visit to South Korea.

July 1997: Clash between North and South Korean troops along the
demilitarized zone.

August 1997: Peace talk between North Korea and South Korea to be attended
by China and the U.S.

August 1997: Clash of Korean Air Flight 801 in Guam.

December 1997: IMF's bailout for economic relief in South Korea. Start of
economic recess in South Korea.

December 1997: Presidential election in South Korea.

December 1997: North-South Korean peace talk.

November 1998: U.S. President Clinton's visit to South Korea.

April 1998: North-South Korean peace talk.

June 1998: South Korean President Dae Jung Kim's visit to the U.S.

--JAPAN

January 1995: Earthquake in Kobe Japan.

April-June 1995: U.S.-Japan trade dispute.

September 1995: Three U.S. soldiers accused of raping a Japanese schoolgirl in
Okinawa, Japan. Protests against the presence of U.S. military bases in
Okinawa.

March 1995: Secretive religious group's poison gas attack on Japan's Tokyo
subway system.

November 1995: Asian-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit meeting
held in Japan.

July 1996: Outbreak of E.coli food poisoning in Japan.

April 1996: U.S. President Clinton's visit to Japan.

January 1996: Japanese new Prime Minister named.

October 1997: U.S.-Japan trade dispute.

December 1997: International conference on global warming held in Japan.

February 1998: Winter Olympic Games held in Japan.

July 1998: General election and resignation of Prime Minister in Japan.

November 1998: U.S. President Clinton's visit to Japan.

June 1998: U.S. decision to help Japan stabilize the Yen (Japanese currency).

VITA

Jowon Park was born in Yong-Chon, Korea on January 13, 1965. He attended public schools in Seoul, Korea. In February 1983, he graduated from Kyunggi High School. In the same year, he entered Hanyang University in Seoul where he received a Bachelor of Arts in Journalism and Mass Communication. In March 1989, he entered the Master's program in Journalism and Mass Communication at Hanyang University. He was awarded a Master of Arts in Journalism and Mass Communication in February 1991. After graduating from Hanyang University, he was employed with the Korean Broadcasters Association (KBA). At the KBA he worked as an editor, researcher, and international coordinator. While employed with the KBA, he was able to explore the telecommunications industry in Korea.

In December 1994, he came to the United States to pursue his graduate education in broadcasting. He entered the Master's program in Communication (Radio/Television/Film) at Indiana State University in January 1995. In August 1996, he received a Master of Science in Communication from Indiana State University. In August 1996, he began the doctoral program in Communications (Broadcasting) at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. He was awarded the Doctor of Philosophy in Communications in August 2000. Jowon is married to Guiohk Lee and has two children, Woojin (son) and Shin-Yong (daughter).