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CHINESE TELEVISION NEWS:

A CONTENT ANALYSIS

A Dissertation

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ABSTRACT

This study examined 559 news stories broadcast on the Chinese Central Television evening news program during the latter part of 1985. The units of analysis, individual stories, were coded by subject, geographical dateline, length, and position in the newscast as well as on a seven-point good news-bad news continuum. Coding was done by bilingual Chinese nationals.

The news program's length was found to be quite variable and crowded with butted stories that were considerably shorter than those seen on United States news programs.

The 370 domestic stories were dominated by news concerning industry and economics while the disasters and crime which make up so much of the U.S. news content were almost completely absent. Stories from the nation's capital made up the bulk of the coverage. The affect (emotional content), measured through a Likert scale of the domestic news was significantly better than that of international stories.

The 189 international stories tended to be clustered at the end of the broadcast, to be significantly shorter than domestic stories, and to

take up a smaller portion of the news hole than that given to such stories in the United States. The geographic areas covered were surprisingly similar to those which previous studies had found to be covered by U.S. news organizations. The United States was the most common dateline, followed by the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union.

When the affects for the most commonly cited countries were examined, it was found that reports from Kampuchea were significantly more favorable than the group in general and those from South Africa were significantly worse. The Third World seemed to be seen more favorably than the developed First World.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
II.	CONTROL AND FUNCTIONS OF THE CHINESE MASS MEDIA	9
III.	DEVELOPMENT OF CHINESE BROADCASTING	15
IV.	METHODS	27
	Unit of Analysis	27
	Coding	28
	Sample Characteristics	38
	Coders	39
V.	RESULTS	41
	News Format	41
	General Duration	51
	Domestic News	55
	International News	68
VI.	DISCUSSION OF RESULTS	95
VII.	SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	106
BIBLIOGRAPHY		109
APPENDICES		119
APPENDIX A.	COUNTRY LISTS	120
APPENDIX B.	PROVINCE LISTS	127
APPENDIX C.	INTERNATIONAL FREQUENCIES AND DURATIONS	128
APPENDIX D.	TOPIC CATEGORIES	130

CHAPTER PAGE

APPENDIX E. PROVINCE SIZE AND POPULATION 133

APPENDIX F. STATISTICS 134

VITA 138

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	Category Appearance in the Opening Montage and in General News Presentations	49
2	Length of Individual Newscasts	52
3	Category Use in Upper and Lower Quartiles of Range of Duration of Individual Stories	56
4	Domestic Frequencies	59
5	Good News - Bad News by Category in International and Domestic Stories	62
6	Category Use in International and Domestic Stories	65
7	International Frequencies	70
8	Affect by Individual Country	77
9	Results of Mann-Whitney Test on Affect of Commonly Cited Countries.....	78
10	Comparison of Coverages by Region Between Present Study and Other Studies	84
11	Comparison Between Country-level Data in Present Study and Larson's 1982 Paper	86
12	Affect by Region of Origin	89
13	Duration in Seconds by Region of Origin	91
14	Category Use in International and Domestic Stories	92

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
1	Yearly TV Set Production	18
2	Regression Lines -- Number of Stories by Duration of Coverage	30
3	Length of Individual Stories	54
4	Number of Stories by Province	60
5	Domestic Topic Categories	67
6	Number of Stories by Country	71
7	Regression Line -- International Stories by Total Stories	73
8	T-Test Box and Whisker Plots for Length of Individual Stories by Foreign and Domestic Origin	75
9	Cumulative Affect (United States)	81
10	Cumulative Affect (Soviet Union)	81
11	Cumulative Affect (United Kingdom)	82
12	Cumulative Affect (South Africa)	82
13	Cumulative Affect (International Other)	83
14	Cumulative International and Domestic Affect ...	96

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Studying any part of China is likely to put one in mind of the fable of the blind men and the elephant. Each of them grabbed one portion of the beast and insisted that he, alone, had learned its true, complete nature. As Howkins (1982) observed:

> There is a long tradition of foreigners going to China and getting it wrong, and in the 30-odd years since Liberation, the opportunities for getting it wrong have multiplied exponentially (p. 2).

This study was a content analysis of Chinese television news. As such, it was simply an attempt to grasp firmly one small part of the Chinese elephant and examine it carefully. Great care should be taken not to extend these findings to other areas of the "anatomy." China is a very large elephant.

Ideally, samples should have been taken from all television news programs. However, financial and manpower limitations mitigated against that approach. It was decided to study intensively a program rather than give numerous programs a cursory examination. The news program selected was the national news which is broadcast throughout China at 7 each night.

Beyond establishing a baseline for future research,

the purpose of the study was to examine a source of news that seems to be rapidly growing in importance in China.

In a society like China's which has shown a propensity for tumultuous upheavals in recent years, the establishment of a baseline is of great importance if quantitative studies are to extract more than transitory and isolated findings. This base of data is vital if studies are to go beyond the impressionistic.

Since the founding of the People's Republic of China more than a quarter of a century ago, Western empirical social sciences have been looked upon with suspicion and some scorn. Only recently, in the mid-1970s, did this change as the Cultural Revolution passed into history (Rogers, Zhao, Pan, & Chen, 1985). This, of course, is a tremendous advantage to China scholars who can "reap the benefits and encounter the difficulties of the late developer, exploiting the work that has already been done in other areas and in the social sciences as a whole" (Almond, 1971).

However, comparative quantitative studies, unfortunately, will have to rely on techniques that are more difficult and are seen by some to yield less satisfactory data.

This is particularly true of an ephemeral medium such as television since videotapes and films are not retained

by the broadcasting authorities. Even the United States intelligence services, which have extensive files of Chinese printed material, lack many records concerning the content of Chinese television during the years of the bamboo curtain (personal communication, Gilbert Mattos, December 21, 1985).

For example, comparing the observations from this study to some made during the height of the Cultural Revolution would be a valuable exercise; however, the kind of precise, quantifiable records which would make this possible simply do not seem to exist.

It would also be interesting to investigate the obverse of Larson's thesis that possession of an earth station correlates with greater coverage on United States television (Larson, 1979). The extensive use of foreign footage on Chinese television seems to be a logical result of the recent tapping of the international satellite news-market. However, solid evidence for this is difficult to obtain since records are incomplete.

Of equal importance in establishing a baseline was examining the contemporary content of Chinese television. While recent research has indicated that television viewers rarely recall much detail from the news programs that they have watched (Robinson, 1980; Katz, Adoni, & Parness, 1977), they do derive sets of images and

impressions which may have greater importance than the objective information (among others, Aronowitz & Haik, 1980; Gans, 1979).

> Treated cumulatively, the programs give rise to a particular symbolic universe, a relatively stable and recognizable "world of TV news" that is self-contained, coherent, and proceeds according to its own internal logic and dynamics (Dahlgren & Chakrapani, 1982)

Although Rogers et al. (1985) indicated that Chinese television news was less important to individuals than either radio or newspapers, television is a recent addition to the media mix in China and usage has been expanding at an astounding rate (Roizen & Roizen, 1985; Rogers et al., 1985). Rogers and his colleagues also found that about half of the Beijing residents who responded to their study preferred news to other television offerings (multiple responses were allowed to this question). A viewer-interest survey by the Tianjin Television Station found that viewers preferred news over all other offerings which included music, drama and educational presentations (personal communication, Yao Zhiguo, February 19, 1986).

Of additional interest was the image of the outside world which the news presented to the Chinese people since this information (at least in the past) "is almost invariably presented in a form to persuade Peking's (sic)

audiences of the correctness of Peking's (sic) particular point of view on a given issue" (Staff, 1977, p. 1).

Also, there have been numerous accusations especially from groups outside the United States that foreign news coverage on American networks is demeaning to Third World countries (Lewis, 1981). Despite spirited defenses from some communications scholars (Wilhoit & Weaver, 1983; Skurnik, 1981; Le Duc, 1981), the debate was very much alive in 1986.

An examination of the international news in a Third World communist country may indicate whether these characteristics may be the result of intentional or unintentional biases on the part of First World news executives or whether they may be inherent.

The domestic news also provides a powerful indicator of the country's internal situation although in a way that is particularly Chinese.

A Chinese graduate student who had heard about the project from one of the coders mentioned to the author that his colleagues took great interest in the news but had an unusual method of extracting information from it. For example, when a number of stories appeared about students who had won awards and about campuses where hard work and discipline were outstanding, the local students interpreted these stories to indicate that there was

considerable student unrest somewhere in the country. Within days, word-of-mouth reports of a massive student protest in Beijing began to be heard on the Tianjin campus where the research was being conducted and news of the protest was later reported in the American press.

Most of the previous studies of Chinese media have focused on newspapers. This may be due to the importance of print journalism in China (Rogers et al., 1985; Staff, 1977), the inherent convenience and durability of the print medium, or to the relatively recent arrival of widespread television reception.

In a 1977 report, the United States Information Agency (Staff, 1977) reported that the average Chinese citizen relied on two sources for news: the national newspaper, People's Daily and the broadcasts of Radio Beijing domestic service. Provincial newspapers, radio stations, and wired loudspeakers were accorded secondary status. Television was not mentioned in the report. The previously cited, recent mass media survey (Rogers, et al., 1985) in Beijing found that television was seen as third in importance after newspapers and radio.

Perhaps the most analyzed Chinese news outlet has been the People's Daily. Researchers have studied its editorials (Chang, 1968), its view of the United States and the Soviet Union (Lee, 1981), its similarity to

American newspapers (Marr, 1972), its quantifiable news content (Staff, 1977) and even the letters to the editor column (Chu & Chu, 1981).

There has been an occasional content analysis of the internal radio broadcasts. However, the ephemeral nature of radio evidently has made this difficult. Hoffer and Rayburn (1977) tried to solve this problem by relying on translated program schedules in much the same way others (among others, Larson, 1979) have used the "Television News Index and Abstracts" from the Vanderbilt Television News Archive. Unfortunately, the validity and reliability of the Chinese program schedules have not been subjected to the same rigorous examination as the Vanderbilt University reports.

Other investigators (Staff, 1977) have used the facilities of the Foreign Broadcast Information Service to obtain tape recordings of the actual broadcasts.

Content analysis has not been limited to the traditional communications media. Chinese opera, because of the attention paid to it during the Cultural Revolution, has attracted the attention of several researchers (Cheng, 1975; Chao, 1969).

The hypotheses of this study were:

1/ A larger portion of the Chinese television news budget (media story selection) will be given over to

domestic news (e.g. news from within the viewing country) than is true in the United States.

2/ The developed world will be the subject of most of the foreign coverage.

3/ There will be significantly more "good news" reported internally than will be reported about other countries.

4/ The "best" outside news will come from the Third World.

The first three hypotheses were based on the expectation that Chinese television content would be similar to the popular conception of the content of the U.S. media. No attempt was made to correlate the data with comparable figures from the United States. The last was an attempt to determine if China still views itself as the leader and protector of the Third World countries or if it is taking a more objective view of that area.

Differences were to be recognized as significant at an alpha level of .05.

CHAPTER II

CONTROL AND FUNCTIONS OF THE CHINESE MASS MEDIA

State control of communications in China has a long history. In 221 B.C., a Shaanxi king conquered his six rivals and became the first Emperor of All China. As part of Emperor Shih Huang-ti's attempt to consolidate his power, he embarked on a book-burning campaign (Strong, 1975; Markham, 1967).

The present official theory of communications in China has been adapted from the Soviet system and is based firmly on Marxist-Leninist philosophy (among others; Howkins, 1982; MacFarquhar, 1973).

Although Marx never systematically dealt with either print or broadcast communications in his writings (Daley & Soloski, 1978), Lenin was clearly aware of the importance of electronic mass communications. Shortly after the Soviet revolution, he wrote that radio, which he called a "newspaper without paper," was not only a "collective propagandist and a collective agitator, it is also a collective organizer" (Guback & Hill, 1972).

Unlike media pioneers in the United States (Czitrom, 1982) and in England (Burns, 1977), the leaders of the Soviet Union foresaw a mass communications role for radio almost from its beginnings (Guback & Hill, 1972). A

significant difference was that while in the capitalist economies broadcasting was originally intended to stimulate the sale of radio receivers, in the Soviet Union, receivers were sold to help finance the broadcast propaganda effort.

Of course, the Chinese, like the Soviets, used the broadest possible meaning for the term "communications." It included not only the media but educational and cultural activities. "The communications apparatus is considered the instrument of collective propaganda, agitation and organization" (Markham, 1967).

Article 35 of the Constitution of the Chinese People's Republic guarantees that:

> Citizens of the People's Republic of China enjoy freedom of speech, of the press, of assembly, of association, of procession and of demonstration (Constitution, 1983, p. 32).

And, in part, Article 41 reads

> Citizens of the People's Republic of China have the right to criticize and make suggestions to any state organ or functionary. Citizens have the right to make to relevant state organs complaints and charges against, or exposures of, any state organ or functionary for violation of the law or dereliction of duty ... (Constitution, 1983, p.34)

However, it should be noted that Article 1 states in part that "sabotage of the socialist system by any organization or individual is prohibited" (Constitution, 1983, p. 11); article 24 gives the State authority to

"combat capitalist, feudal and other decadent ideas" (Constitution, 1983, p. 24). Article 28 reads

> The state maintains public order and suppresses treasonable and other counter-revolutionary activities; it penalizes actions that endanger public security and disrupt the socialist economy and other criminal activities, and punishes and reforms criminals (Constitution, 1983, pps. 25-26)

Finally articles 51 and 54 warn that

> The exercise by citizens of the People's Republic of China of their freedoms and rights may not infringe upon the interests of the state, of society and of the collective, or upon the lawful freedoms and rights of other citizens (Constitution, 1983, p. 39)

> It is the duty of citizens of the People's Republic of China to safeguard the security, honor and interests of the motherland; they must not commit acts detrimental to the security, honor and interests of the motherland (Constitution, 1983, p. 40)

Markham (1967) concluded, after analyzing such provisions and observing the system at work that it was clear neither freedom of expression, as Westerners understand it, nor the use of the media by other than the government is possible.

This, of course, led to a single voice and a unified viewpoint -- a basic article of faith in Marxist-Leninist doctrine (Lee, 1981; Schramm, 1956).

However, it was also carrying on the interrupted tradition of a God Emperor who, as custodian of all wisdom, simply could not be wrong; therefore opposition to him was not only incorrect but evil.

From a practical point of view, the Central Broadcasting Authority, located in Beijing, is the regulatory agency for all broadcasting in China. It operates directly under the Propaganda Committee of the Chinese Communist Party's Central Committee. Although local stations can originate programming, it must be approved by the committee (Grossman, 1979).

> The media transmit official messages, legitimize issues, and encourage mass endorsement of the regime-prescribed ideology. They attempt to monopolize information... Hence, people operate in what is in effect an information vacuum for want of an alternative source to validate reality. The media, in short, mirror the ruling ideology and usher in power/policy shifts (Lee, 1981, p. 93).

A major role of the Chinese communist media has been to aid the process of nation building or "national integration." This appeared to be approximately equivalent to Lasswell's (1948) "transmission of the social inheritance" and the bonding of disparate groups through voluntary imitation and compliance that Deutsch (1963) saw as a role of the media in developing countries. However,

Chinese communist media often seemed confusing to Libertarian eyes because they were attempting to transmit a "social inheritance" that was often at odds with the folkways of the audience. In this way, they appeared to be functioning in a manner supportive of concepts put forward by the media cultivation theorists, who hold that

the media, and particularly television, affected the audience's creation of social reality--allowing it to create a perceived reality that is somewhat independent of the context in which it exists (among others, Lippmann, 1971; Gerbner & Gross, 1976).

As Liu (1971) reported, the purpose of the media was seen as "to convey political authority to the people and to bring political consciousness to the masses from without" (p. 2). This resulted in the media reflecting not the society also but the government's policies. Only after the society had been inculcated with a set of common norms and a common symbol system could, in theory, the government free the channels of feedback so that the media could better reflect society.

It is likely that the broadcast media are more effective than the print media in the drive for national integration since literacy is not required and broadcasts provide an air of immediacy and intimacy that is lacking in the printed media. Liu (1971) credited radio with heightening the feeling of national identity because of its physical extension (almost 10,000 commune radio stations existed during the Great Leap Forward) and its uniformity of content as well as its repeated use of key political phrases. However, he warned that success claims made by Chinese officials must be treated with caution.

Another role of the Chinese communist press could have been seen as equivalent to Lasswell's (1948) "surveillance." This role is similar to the one assigned to the media by a Libertarian or Social Responsibility system. In present-day China, the media seemed to be expected to seek out and report on officials who misused their powers. Thus a reporter who exposed official wrongdoing was praised. However, the surveillance role did not extend to criticizing the system itself or policies or actions endorsed by the system (Estabrook, 1984).

The People's Daily had a "Letters to the Editor" section where individuals could express grievances and attack inefficiencies and improper behavior on the part of others (Chu & Chu, 1981; Yu, 1964).

A popular television show "Voice of the Audience" provided a podium for viewers in Beijing to criticize defective goods and services. Reportedly it was so successful that the targets of complaints had threatened and attempted to bribe the producers. However, the close ties between the Chinese media and the political system was shown when staff members had to get permission from the Beijing mayor before criticizing a major, local appliance manufacturer (TV Watchdog, 1986).

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENT OF CHINESE BROADCASTING

Radio broadcasting existed in China before the communists took over in 1949 although the crazy-quilt political structure, which moved in to replace the disintegrating empire in 1911, made it much of a hit-or-miss affair. Mao strongly supported the development of radio because he believed that is was "the most important tool of the dictatorship of the proletariat (Robinson, 1981, p. 61)".

The first communist station began transmitting in late 1945 (Howkins, 1982), and the communist authorities carefully copied the system of centralized control that had been established by its neighbor to the west.

In 1958 with the help of the Soviet Union, China began experimental broadcasts of black-and-white television in Beijing to an audience of about a thousand sets (Howkins, 1982). Shanghai put its station on the air in the following December (Markham, 1965), and by 1960 approximately a dozen communities had operating broadcast facilities (Howkins, 1982). At that time, there were about 12,700 television receivers in all of China or three sets per hundred thousand people (Nixon, 1965).

The system grew slowly due to inadequate broadcasting

and receiving equipment (Gottschang, 1980b). During this time, the development of China, including the expansion of her broadcast capabilities, was hampered by the break between the Soviet Union and China in 1960 (Howkins, 1982; Wheelwright & MacFarlane, 1979).

Although the Red Guards of the Cultural Revolution did considerable damage to the research and manufacturing portion of China's broadcasting system (Klass, 1983), they clearly recognized the importance of the medium. One of the first actions taken by Red Guard units in regions where they were active was to gain control of the broadcasting facilities (Karnow, 1972). Later, during the second attempt by the "Reds" to depose the "Experts," party Vice Chairman Wang Hongwen (a Red supporter) lamented that his faction "controlled the pen (media including broadcasting), but not the gun (army)" (Suettinger, 1980). Chairman Wang was referring to an earlier comment by then Defense Minister Lin Piao, "The seizure of power depends on both the barrel of a pen [and] that of a gun" (Chang, 1968).

In the early 1970s, the domestic production of television receivers was greatly expanded as was the number of broadcasting outlets. "By 1975, live programs from stations in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and Tianjin were transmitted to broadcasting stations in all the major

cities by microwave radio relay and coaxial cable lines" (Gottschang, 1980b).

> In the late 1970s, there was a sudden acceleration in the growth of the television system as new broadcasting equipment was installed and new factories increased the supply of television receivers. In 1974, there were practically no privately owned television sets in China and only about 300,000 existed in the entire country. Production of television sets increased to 1.3 million in 1979 and was planned to reach 2 million in 1980 (see graph 1). In 1980, one third of the families in Beijing owned televisions as did a significant proportion in other cities (Gottschang, 1980b)

Robinson (1981) illustrates the growth of the television audience by referring to a Beijing Review article.

> ... a production brigade in a rural village outside Beijing had only one TV set in the mid-seventies; as of 1980, 109 of the 122 village households had individually owned sets. One third of Beijing families own individual sets. Most industrial plant workshops and rural production brigades have sets for group viewing and the only area without TV is the autonomous region of Tibet. In 1980 over 2.2 million TV sets were manufactured in China, a greater than 1000 percent increase over 1976. In addition, many people have relatives outside of the country who send them sets (p.65).

A 1986 article in China Daily reported that between 1981 and 1985 Chinese companies manufactured $12.8 billion worth of radios and televisions including 14.3 million television sets in 1985 alone (Televisions turn, 1986). The increased production of black and white television sets is shown in Figure 1.

Television had become so popular by 1985 that a

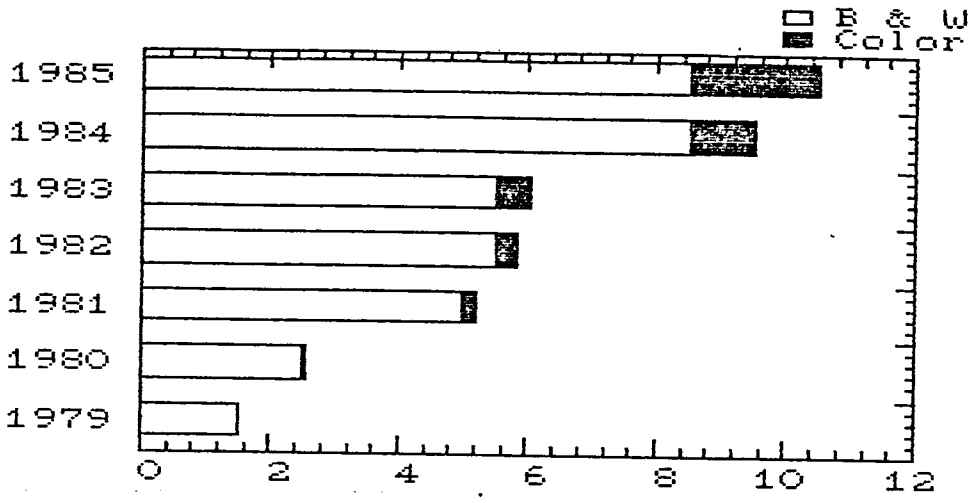


Figure 1. Yearly TV Set Production.
(adapted from Roizen & Roizen, 1985)

Horizontal Axis = Number of Sets (millions)
Vertical Axis = Year

Shanghai movie theater attracted only eight customers one evening while "Shanghai City," a Hong Kong produced television serial was being presented on a local TV channel. The leading movie theater in Shanghai, the Daguangming Cinema, canceled its 9 p.m. showing of a French film to avoid head-to-head competition with "Shanghai City." (Liu Wei, 1986)

Color television was introduced on an experimental basis in 1973 (Howkins, 1982), and by the late 1970s, most stations were broadcasting in color (Gottschang, 1980b) although black-and-white programs were still being produced (Howkins, 1982). In 1985, most of the remaining black-and-white television programs were dubbed reruns that had been obtained from the United States. For example, in December 1985, the local Tianjin station ran segments of "My Favorite Martian" while the news was being shown on the national channel.

By 1983, an estimated 40 percent of China's almost one billion citizens had access to a television set (CBS Television, 1983), and by 1986, 98 percent of all urban households had at least one of the 84 million television sets in the nation (Sales boom, 1986).

Chinese television is international "D" standard (625-line picture with a 8 MHz bandwidth). The color is

China's own version of the West German PAL system (Broadcasting Yearbook, 1984).

Except for Tibet, which has only an experimental television transmitter in Lhasa, all the cities, provinces, and autonomous regions have three broadcast media: radio, television, and loudspeaker (Epstein, 1982). The latter, reminiscent of Orwell's ubiquitous public viewscreens in 1984, delivered a stream of news and exhortations (among others, Galston, 1973; Salisbury, 1979). One author has estimated that there were more than 100 million of these loudspeakers in homes and public places throughout the country (Howkins, 1982). However, substantially fewer of these were noted by the author in 1985-86 than had been reported by previous observers.

Although only 40 percent of the population lives within a television reception contour, the potential audience is nearly 400 million (CBS television, 1983).

China has serious problems with broadcasting. Although it is only slightly larger than the United States, much of the country is broken up by mountainous terrain that makes a complex pattern of microwave links necessary. Satellite relays are planned to deal with this problem.

China has registered two locations -- 125 degrees east and 70 degrees east -- on the geostationary orbit

with the United Nations' International Telecommunication Union (Howkins, 1982). Construction of 2,000 ground stations for the reception of satellite signals has begun (Baker, 1983). During 1985 and 1986, China rented a relay satellite from the International Telecommunications Satellite Organization (China plans, 1985).

Although China severed links with Messerschmitt-Boelkow-Blohm, which was helping it develop satellite broadcast stations (China abandons, 1982), the government had reserved space in two Ariane rocket flights planned by the European Space Agency (Chinese reserve, 1984). The first of these flights was scheduled for October-November 1987; the second, six to eight months later.

However, the country's first communications satellite was launched in April 1984 by a Chinese rocket (New satellite, 1986). The satellite was first used primarily for communications experiments (China plans, 1985). A limited satellite transmission service was begun in October 1985 with China Central Television broadcasts being beamed to 53 ground stations in remote areas of 16 provinces (Satellite TV, 1985).

A second satellite was launched in early February 1986 (New satellite, 1986) and China has signed a memorandum of agreement with a Houston-based communications company to launch two private American

communications satellites (Chinese rockets, 1986). It is likely therefore that China will also not need the agreed upon Ariane launches.

Other difficulties are not as amenable to technological solutions. Because the common written language is pictographic rather than phonetic, Chinese "dialects" are often mutually incomprehensible. Cantonese and putonghua (the official pronunciation which is an amalgam of several Northern dialects) are as different as spoken French and Spanish. This makes centralized broadcasts difficult and gives a degree of power to local broadcast outlets that would not be expected in a centrally planned socialist country (Grossman, 1979).

Prior to late 1986, in most cases, local television outlets transmitted two channels. In theory, one was locally originated and the other was brought in from China Central Television in Beijing. However, in practice they often borrowed from each other (Grossman, 1979). The average broadcast day was about five hours long in 1983 (CBS television, 1983) but had been expanded to about 13 hours in 1986. The national channel began broadcasting at 10:15 a.m. and signed off at 11:45 in the evening. Locally originated channels may have begun earlier or later but usually terminated programming before midnight.

Programming is heavily educational. In mid-1986, a

24-hour nationwide educational channel was launched (Education TV, 1986). Its programming was planned to be a mix of teacher-education (11 hours per day), adult-education (6 hours), and vocational-education (7 hours) (Educational TV, 1986).

In the late 1970s, the education programs were exclusively aimed at adults, and there was no attempt to teach children (Grossman, 1979). However, in 1986, programming included programs to teach children the Roman-letter spelling system (pinyin) and other subjects.

Prior to the establishment of the educational channel, one channel in each area was required to broadcast about 3 and a half hours of "TV University" materials (see below). Other fare included cultural and literary works as well as dramatic serials. (Howkins, 1982).

Some authorities (Grossman. 1979) have stated that local opera is extremely popular, but indigenous observers hold that the primary audience consists mainly of older people living in the countryside (personal communication, Zhang bin Jiang, February 11, 1986). During the Cultural Revolution, Chiang Ch'ing banned the performing of all but eight "ideologically correct" pieces (Salisbury, 1979); but by 1979, Grossman reported more than 400 operas were being performed. Movies are also popular. While most of

the movies are locally made, the Chinese government has brought in outside productions that range from the BBC's "Anna Karenina" (The biggest, 1982) to "Muggable Mary, Street Cop" (CBS Television, 1983).

In April 1986, the Chinese government announced that a contract with the Columbia Broadcasting System, which had been initially signed in 1985, would be extended for a second year. The government agreed to allow CBS to broadcast 64 hours of programming including segments of "60 Minutes," "Animal World," and "Spotlight on Sports" in exchange for a share of the commercial revenue. At that time, eight sponsors, including two European companies, had signed for an estimated $300,000 per year each (Chinese TV, 1986).

One significant aspect of Chinese television programming is "The Chinese Television University." Based on educational groundwork laid soon after television broadcasting began in the 1960s, the University was officially established in February 1979 (Yi-shan, 1984).

According to one author,

> (It) has been the most publicized and most highly praised of China's adult education programs. It is also clearly the most ambitious in curricula, organization, financing, and flexibility (Sidel, 1982).

The University is structured after the BBC's British Open University (Koo, 1980). The headquarters is located

in Beijing with 28 provincial broadcast universities set up throughout the country (Yi-shan, 1984). There are 16 courses of study including electronics, machine building, and mathematics (Epstein, 1982). Students who wish to enroll are admitted after passing a competitive examination although anyone can listen, and study materials are available in most bookstores. In 1981, there were 420,000 formally enrolled students (Sidel, 1982). From 1982 through 1985, 300,000 students received degrees through the program (TV course, 1986).

By American standards, the presentations are deadly dull with an unmoving camera trained on the instructor's face or on the blackboard. However, many university students claim to watch regularly in order to supplement their regular lectures and pick up subjects not offered in their colleges.

Despite classical Marxist warnings that advertising "does not contribute to the value of a product" (Daley & Soloski, 1978, p. 11) and that it is exploitative because it creates "false markets" (Daley & Soloski, 1978), advertisements regularly appeared on Chinese television. The first television commercial in China featured a local soft drink, Xingfu Cola, and was presented during a live broadcast of a women's basketball game in 1979 (Anderson, 1981).

Robinson (1981) cited a 1981 article in the Beijing Review that attempted to resolve the contradiction between theory and practice by stating that "ads are helpful in cementing ties between production and marketing and in activating the market." Advertising was also given credit for playing "a useful role in disseminating knowledge about various commodities and arousing the interest of potential consumers (Robinson, 1981, p. 65)".

While most advertising featured non-consumer items, such as machine tools and elevators, several years ago (The biggest, 1982), the author noted that in 1985 and 1986 consumer product advertisements seemed to predominate. A recent contract with CBS contained a clause that permitted the sale of 320 minutes of advertising for a total of $3 million (CBS television, 1983). Transnational advertising agencies are also establishing close ties with Chinese television (Anderson, 1981).

Advertisements are limited by state order to the spaces between shows (personal communication, Yao Zhiguo, February 19, 1986) and are often clustered with a seeming disregard to subject matter and audio volume.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS

Unit of Analysis

The basic unit of this study was the news story. A news story was defined through criteria developed by Larson and Hardy.

> 1. A dateline or headline-type statement followed by copy read by the announcer is a story.
> 2. A dateline or headline-type statement followed by a string of filmed or taped presentations on the same subject, with copy read by the announcer interspersed, is a story.
> 3. A dateline or headline-type statement followed by a correspondent's report, together with a lead-in and lead-out by the announcer is a single story.
> 4. A string of correspondents' reports under a single heading but from different locations and different slants are considered different stories. The lead-in by the announcer is considered part of the first story and the lead-out is considered part of the last.
> 5. Headlines which refer to stories later in the newscast are not considered stories (Larson & Hardy, 1977).

During actual observation of the news programs, it became clear the actual makeup of the Chinese news story was somewhat different from those studied by Larson and Hardy although not sufficiently different as to require modification of the definition.

The first category of rarely appeared. Almost without exception stories were accompanied by taped presentations. When they did appear, these stories were

rarely more than 15 seconds long. The single exception to this rule occurred on the last day of the coding period when a story concerning a major scandal involving corrupt party members broke in Fujian. The 381-second story was read without accompanying pictures.

Most stories did not use an anchor lead in, and never, during the period of the study, did an anchor appear once a story had begun even when it was "passed off" from one correspondent to another. Lead outs also were never used.

Coding

Each unit was coded by length of time in seconds, topic category, presence and absence of a visible anchor personality, position in the newscast, geographic origin, and on a seven-point good news-bad news continuum.

Timing

The original plans called a single coder to time a newscast. It was felt that this was such an objective measure that a high reliability could be confidently predicted and that requiring the content coders to time stories would distract them from their primary task. However, the tendency of the Chinese newscasters to "butt" their stories and the extremely short duration of some of the stories required adding a second coder.

Although there was an extremely high inter-coder reliability on this item, the second timer provided a backup in the event that the primary timer was caught off guard by a sudden change of story.

Initially, it seemed that comparing coverage by the sum of the length of the individual stories would allow finer distinctions than comparisons made through the relatively grosser story count.

However, when the data were examined, it was determined that the lengths of stories from two countries seemed to be anomalous. Stories originated during Premier Zhao Ziyang's visits to Colombia (4 stories -- 675 seconds) and Brazil (4 stories--1159 seconds) were much longer than average. The longest of the stories was more than two minutes longer than any other story coded.

The Pearsonian correlation between the number of stories from a country and the total length of these stories was .49. However, as shown in figure 2, when the two outliers were removed, the correlation increased to .98. Because of this, it was felt that a more accurate indication of the inter-country relationships was given by using number of stories.

For the sake of consistency, the domestic coverage was also examined by using number of stories. It was felt that this was acceptable because the correlation between

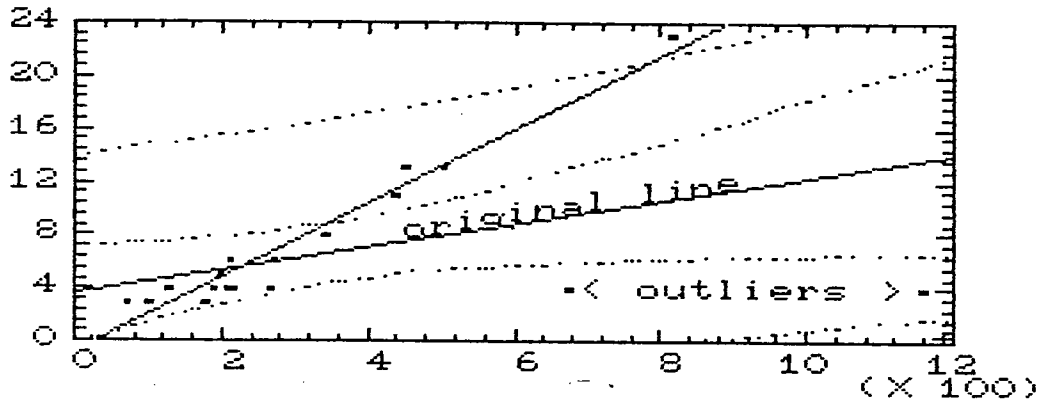


Figure 2. Regression Lines -- Number of Stories by Duration of Coverage

Horizontal Axis = Length in Seconds
Vertical Axis = Number of Stories

the total length and the number of stories in the domestic stories was .998. Even when Beijing with its large number of stories was removed from the sample, the correlation remained acceptable. (r = .90)

Topic Categories

The initial list of topic categories developed by the coders consisted of 20 primary categories with 11 subheadings. After examining the results, it was concluded that some headings had been observed so rarely that they could be merged with others with minimal loss of information content.

The topics Accidents (4 observations) and Disasters (1 observation) were combined into a single topic. The subtopic Terrorism with only two responses was merged into its parent topic Crime and Justice. Subheadings in the Local Government category, Politics (3 observations) and Corruption or Bureaucracy (1 observation) were also merged into their parent topic. The category Pollution which had been observed only once was merged into the category Science and Health. The category Minority Populations (1 observation) was merged with its subtopic Race Relations (6 observations) to create a new category Race Relations and Minority Populations. The category Economics or Industry absorbed its subheadings Private Business and

Joint Ventures which had been observed once each. This resulted in a compact set of 21 categories. A miscellaneous category had been included in the initial scheme to ensure that categories were exhaustive (Budd, Thorp, & Donohew, 1967).

The 12 miscellaneous codings were examined to determine if they contained any common factor. Seven of the 12 related directly to environmental or ecological concerns, and it is likely that the omission of such a heading caused their inclusion in the catch-all category. The presence of this category would also have provided a more appropriate lodging for the single Pollution coding. Such an ex-post facto modification was considered to be an unacceptable procedure, but such a category should be included in future analyses.

The intercoder reliability was an acceptable .845 using Holsti's method (Holsti, 1969). This method was used because it was felt that the large number of content categories (32) minimized the occurrences of chance agreement which is the major objection to this measure of coder reliability (Wimmer & Dominick, 1983).

Holsti's method uses the average coefficient of inter-judge agreement with the number of judges to compute a coefficient of reliability bounded by one and zero. The formula is:

$$\text{reliability} = \frac{N(\text{average inter-judge agreement})}{1+[(N-1)(\text{average inter-judge agree.})}$$

This is clearly a modification of the Spearman-Brown coefficient of reliability wherein the number of judges is substituted for the length-of-test variable.

An analysis of the stories over which the coders disagreed provided interesting insights into Chinese society. For example, people in the United States may speak loosely of the military-industrial complex. In China, it is an a priori assumption. One of the stories about which the coders disagreed concerned a unit of the People's Liberation Army which had begun a joint venture with a foreign company to set up tourist dining halls in Xian. Also munition and military equipment factories have been recently urged by the central government to convert some of their output to consumer goods while still retaining their essential military nature.

Economics & Industry, which was the topic of 24 percent of the total stories, made up 15 percent of the disagreements (18 majorities and 7 minorities). More than half of these disagreements resulted from confusion between the Health & Science category and the Economics & Industry category. This confirmed a strong impression

that there was considerable overlap between these categories.

An example of this overlap would be a one-minute story that aired on November 29 and concerned 40 research projects that had been applied to industrial processes.

Nine other stories caused confusion between industry and local or national government which illustrated the extent to which the Chinese system results in an interpenetration of government and industrial infrastructures.

Ten percent or 17 (eight majority, nine minority) of the intercoder disagreements concerned the second most common topic category, International Relations, which was coded in 17 percent of the stories. As would be expected, there was overlap between this category and that of National Government (2) as well as Non-Government delegations (4 cases).

The category which suffered most from overlap was Local Government, which had 25 (15 majorities, 10 minorities) occurrences or 15 percent of the overlaps despite making up only 5 percent of the sample. What is particularly enlightening about this situation is the range of topic categories the coders chose to confuse it with. The largest uniform disagreement was between local and national government (4 cases). A review of these

cases indicated that the disagreement was not due to inattention on the part of the coders, but occurred because of the blurring of the lines of demarcation in Chinese society. However, since this confusion occurred in only a few cases and since most units showed clear-cut distinctions, it was decided not to combine the two categories.

Another informative disagreement was between the Local Government category and the Personality category (4 cases). What is surprising is that there are so few such cases. Before and during the Cultural Revolution the news media were expected to support what has been called the "cult of personality" (gè rén chǒng bái). The relatively few overlaps between these categories might be taken to indicate that this approach to governing is becoming passe.

However, the interpenetration of government into all phases of Chinese life also resulted in disagreements concerning Agriculture & Fisheries, Mass Organizations, and Military and Defense.

Geographic Categories

Stories which originated outside of China were coded according to their country of origin and that country's region.

Asia (east of Iran and excluding China)

Canada and the United States (except the UN)

Western Europe

Africa

Latin America (south of the United States)

Middle East (Egypt to Iran)

Pacific Basin

Eastern Europe (soviet controlled)

United Nations and International

These categories were drawn up with an eye to political realities as well as geographic precision. For example, Egypt was coded in the Middle East rather than in Africa, and the region Latin America allowed the grouping of Mexico with its southern neighbors rather than with the United States.

At the unanimous suggestion of the coders, the entry for Japan was moved from the Pacific Basin category, where it had been originally placed, to the Asia category.

China was defined as the People's Republic of China including autonomous regions, but the self governing province of Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao were given separate categories.

Affective Categories

The good news-bad news category was primarily an affective (emotional) response as opposed to the cognitive responses in the other coding sections. Unlike some other research in this area (Haskins, 1980; Stone & Hartung, 1979; Gieber, 1955), the coders were instructed to code based on their own reactions to a particular story rather than to attempt to extrapolate a postulated group reaction.

To prevent the imposition of an artificially deterministic pattern upon the affective measure, the researcher explained the procedure and tested the coders' understanding of the explanation during the training sessions only. While the coders were encouraged to discuss their responses to the topic category after each program had been coded, such discussion of affective responses was discouraged to prevent contamination of the "private" or personal response with a "public" or expected group-response.

Because of the subjective nature of this dimension, no reliability test was administered to the data; however it was noted that while only 98 sets showed complete agreement, 456 were within three numbers and only one had a spread of 5 or more numbers.

Since each unit of analysis had only three affective

codes, the mean of the codes was taken. A larger number of coders would have permitted the more appropriate median to be used. The median was used in all further analyses.

Sample Characteristics

The sample was a stratified random sample of newscasts during the 10 weeks between October 20, 1985 and December 29, 1985. A week was defined as a period beginning at 12:01 a.m. on Monday and running through to the next Monday. Using a computer-generated sample of random numbers, two days in each week were chosen.

The sample days were:

October 21	Monday	November 25	Monday
October 23	Wednesday	November 29	Friday
October 30	Wednesday	December 3	Tuesday
November 2	Saturday	December 6	Friday
November 5	Tuesday	December 10	Tuesday
November 6	Wednesday	December 12	Thursday
November 11	Monday	December 17	Tuesday
November 15	Friday	December 19	Thursday
November 23	Saturday	December 25	Wednesday
November 24	Sunday	December 29	Sunday

The sample consisted of three Mondays, four Tuesdays, four Wednesdays, two Thursdays, three Fridays, two Saturdays, and two Sundays. A test of this distribution with the chi-square procedure yielded a result of 1.7 with

6 degrees of freedom. This was much less than the 12.8325 at an alpha of .05 that would indicate an abnormal distribution.

Coders

Coders were selected from among bilingual Chinese graduate students in an "Introduction to Mass Communications" course at Tianjin Foreign Languages Institute in Tianjin, China where the author was employed as a Foreign Expert (college-level teacher) during the 1985-86 academic year.

Initially, the class was given a two-week introduction to content analysis. One of the assignments was to develop a coding scheme based on what they had observed on the nightly television news. With only two exceptions, each member of the class was a regular viewer (greater than two exposure per week) of the program.

The threat of imposing a Western, deterministic framework on the analysis was avoided by allowing the students to develop their own coding scheme. This also heeded Almond's (1971) advice to adapt social science concepts and analytical tools to the Chinese context before beginning work in that area.

After the individual coding schemes were developed, the class as a whole distilled them into a single, unified set of codes. Then each member of the class coded several

days of television news using this coding scheme as a class project. Those coders who showed the highest reliability (indicating the best grasp of the technique and concepts) were offered the opportunity to participate in further training. Of the five most reliable students, four were willing to take part in the project. A stipend equivalent to half a month's local wages was paid to those who participated.

Although the coders were thoroughly familiar with the categories and the methodology to be used in the content analysis, they were not told the hypotheses to eliminate the possibility of error from that quarter.

Prior to beginning the project an intercoder reliability of .90 for geographic regions and .80 for topic categories coding was designated as acceptable. At the completion of coding, it was found that there was virtually no disagreement in the geographic dimension, and the intercoder agreement on topics was approximately .85.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

News Format

Reportedly, the Soviet roots of early newscasts clearly showed in the often painfully dull presentation by a monotonic announcer (Roizen & Roizen, 1985). However, recent presentations have taken on a distinctly Western tone by using attractive anchors as well as sophisticated switching and overlay techniques (Roizen & Roizen, 1985; Robinson, 1981).

Before 1980, the international news often had been taken directly off the INTELSAT satellite (Robinson, 1981). Recently, China Central Television (CCTV) has reportedly subscribed to two Western TV news sources: the London-based Visnews and the New York-based WTN (Diamond, 1985). Observers have commented that this method of obtaining international news seemed to have resulted in a relatively unbiased presentation (Roizen & Roizen, 1985).

Robinson's 1981 article recounts a typical evening's newscast.

> The news is read by a pretty young woman dressed in Western-style clothing and wearing make-up who sits in front of a plain curtain backdrop behind a desk. The program is preceded by the Central TV logo. Transitions from story to story are provided by geometric patterns and wipes. The following stories are covered:
>
> 1. Deng greets Hua on return from Nanjing.

2. President of Argentina arrives at Beijing airport.

3. U.S. National Conference of Editorial Writers interviews Deng.

4. Three more U.S. delegations meet with Deng.

5. Factory workers reduce air pollution by growing flowers and trees on factory grounds.

6. Peasants harvest a large tea crop.

7. A martial arts performance.

The INTELSAT news is read by a second, equally pretty young woman, A card on her desk carries her name. She also wears Western clothes and make-up. She reads the news and rarely looks up between video clips:

1. U.S. sale of helicopters to China.

2. U.S. Secretary of Defense Harold Brown talking about sale.

3. Clips from the Carter, Kennedy, Reagan primary speeches.

4. Clips from Khomeini, Ramsey Clark, Bani-Sadr on Iranian hostages.

5. West German demonstration against nuclear power plant.

6. Attack on Rome's Iraqi embassy.

7. Arguments within U.S. United Auto Workers' Convention about imports.

8. French Open Tennis Tournament.

9. English horse race.
(Robinson, 1981, pp. 68-69)

As shown below, a fairly typical newscast (November 11, 1985) from this study's sample showed a somewhat

different style. (marked variations from the norm are noted)

Here, too, the anchor was an attractive young woman in Western dress. The news commenced with a montage of images accompanied by the Chinese National Anthem. Following this, the anchor read the schedule of programs for that night.

At that point, the anchor person vanished momentarily to be replaced with a stylized map with China centered, and a computer-generated CCTV logo which appeared to roll toward the viewer.

The anchor person appeared briefly at the beginning of the newscast and gave a brief (usually 20 to 40 seconds) rundown of the stories to be covered. This was not coded.

The bluescreen behind the anchor was rarely used to tie the lead in with the story. During this particular newscast, it displayed only a blue-tinted world map centering on China, the standard backdrop. Very rarely during the study, it was used to show a still picture. During this period, it was never used to show a moving picture.

Although commercials appeared regularly on Chinese television, they were relegated to the space between shows

so the news itself consisted of an unbroken series of stories.

During the domestic news (18 stories - 22 minutes) which came first, the anchor appeared only three times. There were no transitions between the stories. In most cases, the narrator remained off camera for the entire story.

The following stories were covered.

1. The consolidation of the Chinese Communist Party and the promotion of some of its younger members (introduced by anchor -- it was not typical for the first story to have such an introduction).
2. The deliberations of the People's Congress.
3. A Chinese official meeting with representatives of the Reunion Party.
4. Progress in the present Five-Year Plan. This segment has short stand-up piece by the narrator.
5. A Chinese official meeting with Army officers. (introduced by anchor)
6. A factory that produces hospital and medical supplies. (introduced by anchor)
7. The reform and resultant increased output of a factory.
8. A mineral survey's discovery of new deposits.
9. An auto factory use of political incentives and education.

10. A symposium concerning technical advancement of industry.

11. A nation-wide business education conference.

12. The development of a long-distance cable system for military use.

13. The support of small business by a city government.

14. A new method for planting of the Fujian mushroom crop.

15. A county government supporting a farmer who wishes to plant bananas.

16. A new method of planting the winter strawberry crop.

17. New resident apartments which have been built for technical workers.

18. A personality profile of an artist.

The international news segment (eight stories - five minutes) began atypically with a return to the anchor desk. The same woman who anchored the previous segment introduced the first international story. A more common practice had been for the first international news clip to begin directly after the last domestic story. Most of the stories seemed to have been picked up from non-Chinese media, and in come cases, a faint English narration could be heard in the background.

1. A Chinese official visiting a museum dedicated to Marx in East Germany. (introduced by anchor)

2. A battle between militia in Lebanon.

3. Demonstrations in England over a treaty signed between the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland.

4. The political/religious leader of Iran chooses successor.

5. Kissinger's criticism of the United States Congress during a visit to Thailand.

6. South Africa's jailing of a black leader. (introduced by anchor)

7. France's announcement of the closing of a automobile factory in South Africa.

8. The arrest of drug smugglers in the United States.

Following the standard practice, the news program was terminated by a weather report, which used computer-generated imagery and localizing photographs in place of a visible weather person. The weather segment was not included in the study.

The opening of the Chinese evening news program was strikingly similar to that of American news productions but with particularly Chinese overtones.

Instead of beginning exactly at 7 p.m., the opening was backcued so that it finished exactly on the hour. Despite anecdotal reports that the news programs do not begin promptly on the hour (Diamond, 1985), during the 10-week coding period, the program under study exhibited a

time consciousness that would have reflected well on any network in the developed countries.

The opening consisted of two parts: a standard montage and a scheduling reminder.

The montage ran for approximately 50 seconds, accompanied by the national anthem (March of the Volunteers), and consisted of 16 segments:

the national flag	(6 seconds)
an aerial view of Tian'anmen Square	(3 seconds)
the gorges of the Yangtse River	(5 seconds)
a storm in a harbor	(5 seconds)
the Great Wall	(6 seconds)
livestock being herded	(3 seconds)
a steel mill	(3 seconds)
an unidentified industrial plant	(2 seconds)
a locomotive assembly plant	(2 seconds)
a ship launching	(3 seconds)
a grain harvester	(2 seconds)
troops passing in review	(3 seconds)
athletes receiving awards	(1 seconds)
a rocket launching	(1 seconds)
a civilian parade	(2 seconds)
fireworks	(4 seconds).

When asked to code the montage as if it were a collection of news stories, the coders had no difficulty

in placing 10 of the segments into categories: Economics & Industry (the steel mill, the factory, the locomotive plant, and the ship launching), Agriculture & Fisheries (the livestock and the harvester), Acts of God (the storm), Military & Defense (the troops), Sports (the athletes), and Mass Organizations (the civilian parade).

The rocket launching was coded as Military & Defense by one coder, as Science & Health by another, and as Other by the third. It was not included in the analysis that follows. The other segments were coded as Other.

There were interesting parallels between the content of the montage and that of the news program proper, as shown in Table 1. In the montage, Economics & Industry, the largest category, occupied 20 percent of the presentation; in the news, Economics & Industry was also the largest category and accounted for more than 24 percent of the stories. When only domestic news was considered, its share of the news hole expanded to more than 35 percent. Agriculture and Fisheries accounted for 10 percent of the montage and more than 7 percent of the domestic news. Military and Defense reflected a similar parallel. Sports was 2 percent of the montage, almost 3 percent of the general news and more than 1 percent of the domestic news. A less striking similarity was in the category of Mass Organizations, which consisted of 4

Table 1. Category Appearance in the Opening Montage and in General News Presentations

Category	Montage	News	
		General	Domestic
Econ & Industry	20	24.3	35.1
Agri. & Fisheries	10	4.9	7.1
Acts of God	8	0.9	0.3
Military & Defense	6	5.4	4.6
Mass Organiz.	4	2.7	1.6
Sports	2	2.8	1.4
Intern. Rel.	0	16.9	8.7

(figures in percentages -- Since columns are not inclusive, the totals are less than 100 percent)

percent of the montage, 2.7 percent of the general and 1.6 percent of the domestic news stories.

The only montage category which did not approximately reflect its news-story counterpart was Acts of God which accounted for 8 percent
of the montage, less than 1 percent of the general news hole, and an extremely small 0.3 percent of the domestic news.

However, the most striking inconsistency was not what was there, but what was missing.

International Affairs, which was the second most popular news topic in both general news (16.9 percent) and domestic news (8.7 percent), was absent from the opening montage.

It could be postulated that this may have been due to a natural desire on the part of the Chinese government to have the news opening reflect domestic scenes. Another plausible explanation is that the volatile nature of international relationships made such topics too delicate to risk in what is, by nature, a highly noticeable presentation in which additions and deletions would be sure to occasion comments by observers.

As noted, the second portion of the opening was a scheduling reminder. Seated before a blue screen, the evening's anchor person presented a schedule of what was

to be presented that night on the national channel. On some occasions, a scenic view was used as the backdrop; on others, a colorful abstract presentation was shown. These backdrops served to separate the scheduling reminder from the news proper as they were never carried over into the news program.

General Duration

In 1975, news made up about 20 percent of the broadcast day (World Communications, 1975). This was down to about 15 percent in 1985 (Roizen & Roizen, 1985). The evening broadcast consisted of about 15 minutes of domestic news followed by a 10-minute segment of international news.

This study found that the length of the newscast itself was very irregular, as shown in Table 2.

Although beginning precisely on the hour, it ran from 24.63 to 32.33 minutes. The average length was almost 28 minutes (S.D. = 2.44). The number of stories covered in the newscast also varied greatly from a low of 22 to a high of 33 (S.D. = 3.28). However, the number of stories in a given newscast and the length of that newscast had a negative correlation (r = -.44). For example, the shortest newscast had 31 stories while the longest had only 22.

Table 2. Length of Individual Newscasts

Date	Number of Stories			Length of Newscast	
	Total	Intern.	percent	Total	Intern.
10/21/85	28	7	24.1	27.80	5.65
10/23/85	31	9	29.0	22.02	5.63
10/30/85	25	8	32.0	31.48	4.27
11/02/85	22	6	27.3	32.33	13.20
11/05/85	29	10	34.4	30.43	11.58
11/06/85	29	9	31.0	30.30	11.85
11/11/85	24	7	29.2	26.98	8.93
11/15/85	28	8	28.6	26.40	5.78
11/23/85	23	7	30.4	30.18	6.03
11/24/85	26	8	30.8	27.30	5.00
11/25/85	24	6	25.0	26.95	5.05
11/29/85	29	12	41.4	26.53	7.67
12/03/85	31	10	32.3	29.85	8.40
12/06/85	29	12	41.4	25.73	8.45
12/10/85	32	9	28.1	27.12	7.02
12/12/85	28	11	39.3	28.67	9.65
12/17/85	30	11	36.7	24.63	6.57
12/19/85	29	10	34.5	26.63	6.08
12/25/85	33	12	36.4	28.62	6.82
12/29/85	30	14	46.7	28.68	8.97
Average	27.85	9.3	32.93	27.93	7.36
S.D.	3.28	2.23	5.91	2.44	2.48

News stories tended to be unusually short by Western standards, as can be seen from Figure 3. The shortest story was six seconds: a "talking-head" report by the anchor person. The mean story length was almost exactly one minute, but the strong skew of the curve is shown by the median of 50 seconds and the mode of 47 seconds

More than 19 percent of all stories were less than 30 seconds long; 66 percent were less than one minute, and 88 percent were less than 90 seconds. By two minutes, 93 percent of the stories had been accounted for. Only two stories were longer than five and a half minutes.

In regard to the number of stories in each topic category, the upper (<35 seconds) and lower (> 66 seconds) quartiles of the duration range were quite different. The greatest absolute difference between the quartiles appeared in Economics & Industry where only 17 stories (12.1 percent) appeared in the lower quartile while 48 stories (33.8 percent) appeared in the upper quartile. In absolute terms, this difference was similar to that between the quartiles in International Relations, where 40 stories (28.6 percent) fell into the lower quartile range while only 17 (12 percent) were included in the upper quartile.

However, the largest percentage difference occurred in Nongovernment Delegations. The lower quartile

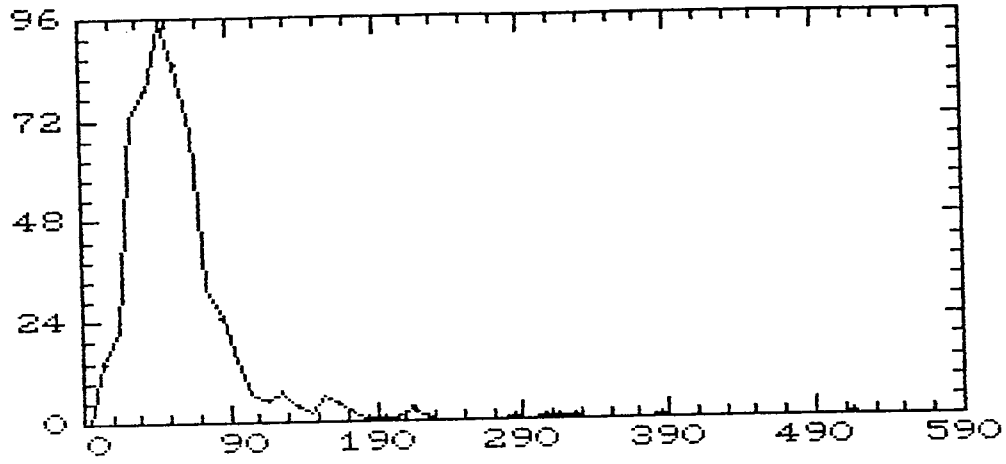


Figure 3. Length of Individual Stories

Horizontal Axis = Length of Story in Seconds
Vertical Axis = Number of Stories

contained 15 stories, 10.7 percent of the topics in the quartile and 71.4 percent of the Nongovernment Delegation stories in the sample. The upper quartile contained only 3 stories (respectively 2.1 percent of all stories in the quartile and 14.3 percentof Nongovernment Delegation stories in the sample). This accounted for 85.7 percent of the Nongovernment Delegation stories in the sample.

Religion had almost as great a percentage difference with four of the sample's five stories in the lower quartile and none in the upper. These stories generally were about religious visitors and the opening of restored temples.

The most striking balance was noted in Science & Health where 10 of the 34 total stories appeared in both the upper and lower quartile. This indicated a markedly flat distribution in regard to story length. The numbers of stories and percentages are given in Table 3.

Domestic News

China has 29 provinces, autonomous regions and national-level cities. The latter are cities which share a status similar to that of the District of Columbia; they stand alone, not being part of any province. To simplify this presentation, the generic term "province" was used collectively to refer to all Chinese geo-political structures.

Table 3. Category Use in Upper and Lower Quartiles of Range of Duration of Individual Stories

Category Name	Lower Quartile		Upper Quartile	
	cases	percent	cases	percent
Accidents & Disasters	1	0.7	0	0.0
Acts of God	2	1.4	1	0.7
Agriculture & Fisheries	4	2.9	6	4.2
Art, Culture & Entertainment	6	4.2	5	3.5
Crime & Justice	8	5.7	4	2.8
Democratic Parties	1	0.7	1	0.7
Economics & Industry	17	12.1	48	33.8
Education	4	2.9	6	4.2
International Relations	40	28.6	17	12.0
Local Governments	7	5.0	13	9.2
Mass Organizations	6	4.3	3	2.1
Military	2	1.4	4	2.8
National Government	1	0.7	9	6.3
Nongovernment Delegations	15	10.7	3	2.1
Overseas Chinese	1	0.7	0	0.0

Table 3. (Continued)

Category Name	Lower Quartile		Upper Quartile	
	cases	percent	cases	percent
Personalities	4	2.9	7	4.9
Race Relations	1	0.7	0	0.0
Religion	4	2.9	0	0.0
Science & Health	10	7.0	10	7.0
Sports	5	3.6	3	2.1
Other	2	1.4	2	1.4
TOTAL	141		142	

(Percentages equal approximately 100 due to rounding.)

The population density ranges from that of Tibet with slightly more than one person per square kilometer to that of Shanghai with more than 2,000 persons per square kilometer. Not surprisingly, there is a mild negative correlation ($r = -.26$) between the size of provinces and their populations. The large Western autonomous regions tend to be sparsely populated while the smaller seacoast provinces are densely populated.

As would be expected, Beijing, the capital, received the greatest news coverage with an average of one news story for about each 53,300 inhabitants. On the other hand, Tibet and Xinjiang in the West with a total population of about 15 million received no coverage at all.

Surprisingly, as can be seen in Table 4 and Figure 4, Sichuan, which has the largest population (almost a hundred million) shared the twenty-second rank with Guizhou (population 28,550,000) in the number of news stories (5).

A Pearsonian Product Moment Correlation between the population of the various provinces and the number of news stories originating in each yielded an r of -.18. When Beijing's lopsided total (173) was removed from the calculation, r became positive but remained a relatively insignificant .19, indicating that the number of potential

Table 4. Domestic Frequencies

Area	N of Stories	Rank	Length of Stories	Rank
		BY REGION		
Central	61	2	4022	2
East	258	1	16505	1
North	18	4	1039	4
South	21	3	1440	3
West	3	6	388	5
Not Specified	7	5	320	6
TOTAL	368		23714	
		BY PROVINCES		
Anhui	8	12.5	450	15
Beijing	173	1	10135	1
Fujian	8	12.5	745	6
Gansu	7	16.5	426	18
Guangdong	6	20	439	17
Guangxi	3	25.5	275	25
Guizhou	5	23.5	354	23
Hebei	10	7	716	7
Heilongjiang	7	16.5	465	12
Henan	3	25.5	165	27
Hubei	12	2	878	4
Hunan	6	20	453	13
Inner Mongolia	3	25.5	126	28
Jiangsu	10	7	543	10
Jiangxi	9	9.5	936	3
Jilin	8	12.5	448	16
Liaoning	10	7	529	11
Ningxia	2	28	171	26
Qinghai	3	25.5	388	20
Shaanxi	11	4	688	8
Shandong	11	4	977	2
Shanghai	9	9.5	681	9
Shanxi	11	4	796	5
Sichuan	5	22.5	355	22
Tianjin	8	12.5	452	14
Tibet	0	29.5	0	29.5
Xinjiang	0	29.5	0	29.5
Yunnan	7	16.5	358	21
Zhejiang	6	20	445	17
Not Specified	7	16.5	320	24
TOTAL	368		23714	

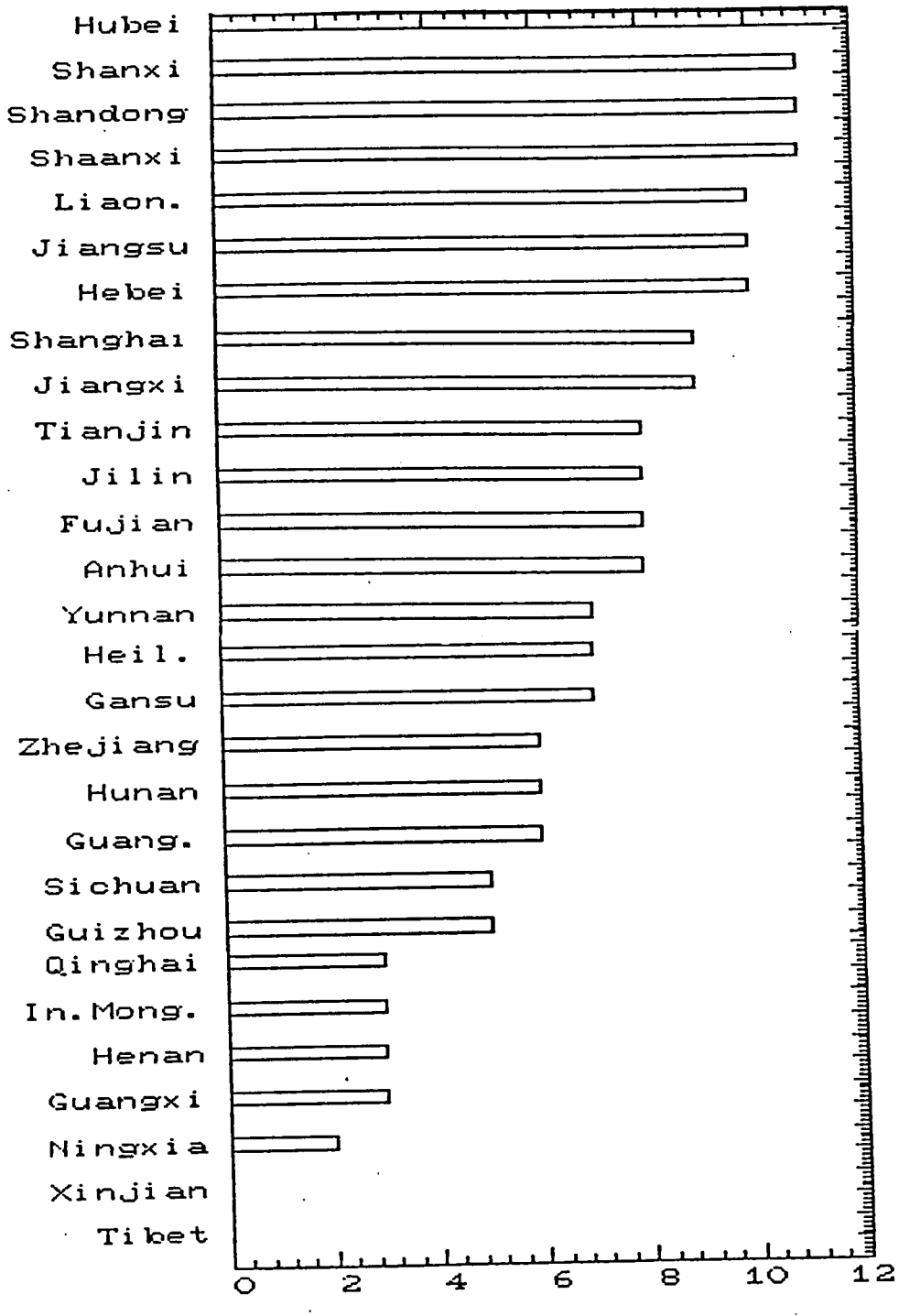


Figure 4. Number of Stories by Province.
(Beijing excluded because of the disproportionate number of stories.)

Horizontal Axis = Number of Stories
Vertical Axis = Provinces

viewers (and participants) had little impact on the choice of news stories.

The provinces were grouped into four regions based on the cardinal points of the compass. A fifth category, "Not Specified", provided an inclusive category.

A chi-square test of normality of the number of stories from each region yielded an amazing 791.37 indicating an astronomically small chance that this arrangement was due to chance. When Beijing's total (173) was removed from the East region, the result dropped to 96.55 which was still greatly in excess of the 18.47 needed to find significance at the 0.001 level. A similar, although perhaps not as strong, might be expected from U.S. television news coverage.

The 368 domestic stories made up 66.19 percent of the sample. The average length of a domestic story was slightly more than one minute (64.4 seconds, S.D. = 42.08). The median length was 57 seconds with a mode of 57. The extremely large standard deviation was a function of the extremely strong leftward skew of the curve. Although 91 percent of the values were less than 120 seconds, several were greater than 500 seconds.

As shown in Table 5, on the seven-point good news-bad news continuum, news in China was remarkably good, with a median of 5. Only in the categories Accidents & Disasters

Table 5. Good News - Bad News by Category in International and Domestic Stories

Category Name	International			Domestic		
	Low	Median	High	Low	Median	High
Accidents & Disasters	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.3
Acts of God	1.6	1.6	3.3	2.0	2.0	2.0
Agriculture & Fisheries	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.3	5.3	6.3
Art, Culture & Entertainment	2.6	4.5	5.3	4.0	5.0	5.6
Crime & Justice	2.0	3.6	4.6	3.6	4.6	5.0
Democratic Parties	4.0	4.0	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.3
Economics & Industry	3.0	4.0	5.3	4.0	5.3	6.6
Education	3.3	3.3	3.3	4.0	5.0	5.6
International Relations	2.6	4.3	6.3	4.0	4.6	5.3
Local Governments	3.3	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.6	5.6
Mass Organizations	3.0	5.0	6.6	4.0	4.7	6.3
Military	2.3	3.6	5.3	4.3	5.3	6.6
National Government	4.0	4.3	5.0	4.6	5.3	5.6
Nongovernment Delegations	4.6	5.1	5.6	4.0	4.6	6.3
Overseas Chinese	5.6	5.6	5.6	4.6	4.6	4.6
Personalities	3.3	5.0	5.3	1.6	5.3	6.3

Table 5. (Continued)

Category Name	International			Domestic		
	Low	Median	High	Low	Median	High
Race Relations	2.0	3.0	5.6	5.0	5.0	5.0
Religion	4.0	4.0	4.6	4.3	4.5	4.6
Science & Health	3.3	5.0	6.3	4.0	5.3	6.3
Sports	4.3	4.6	6.0	4.3	5.3	5.3
Other	3.0	4.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.6

and Acts of God did the median dip below a pleasant 4.6. The lowest affect (1.6) was registered by an obituary for a military leader.

In accordance with the Sixth Five-Year Plan and the Four Modernizations, the favored news topic was Economics & Industry with almost 35 percent of stories. The next most common topic was International Relations with only 8.7 percent.

As can be seen from Table 6 and Figure 5, Crime & Justice, a common topic on American television, occupied a vanishingly small 1.4 percent of the news hole. This may have been due to the tradition of only reporting a crime after
an arrest has been made as well as because of an official policy to avoid romanticizing criminal behavior. However, several of the coders remarked that there seemed to be somewhat more crime news on the radio and in the newspapers than on TV.

Despite a highly visible military presence in the country and an on-again off-again border conflict with the Republic of Vietnam, military news occupied only 4.6 percent of the sample.

Except for International Relations, which dealt, seemingly endlessly, with visits by delegations and heads of state, there was relatively little government coverage.

Table 6. Category Use in International and Domestic Stories

Category Name	International		Domestic	
	cases	percent	cases	percent
Accidents & Disasters	4	2.1	1	0.3
Acts of God	6	3.2	1	0.3
Agriculture & Fisheries	1	0.5	26	7.1
Art, Culture & Entertainment	8	4.3	27	7.3
Crime & Justice	14	7.4	5	1.4
Democratic Parties	3	1.6	1	0.3
Economics & Industry	6	3.2	130	35.1
Education	1	0.5	16	4.5
International Relations	62	33.0	32	8.7
Local Governments	10	5.3	18	4.9
Mass Organizations	9	4.8	6	1.6
Military	13	6.9	17	4.6
National Government	3	1.6	20	5.4
Nongovernment Delegations	2	1.0	19	5.2
Overseas Chinese	1	0.5	1	0.3
Personalities	5	2.7	17	4.6
Race Relations	6	3.2	1	0.3

Table 6. (Continued)

Category Name	International		Domestic	
	cases	percent	cases	percent
Religion	3	1.6	3	0.8
Science & Health	13	6.9	21	5.7
Sports	11	5.8	5	1.4
Other	8	4.3	4	1.1
TOTAL	189		371	

(Percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding.)

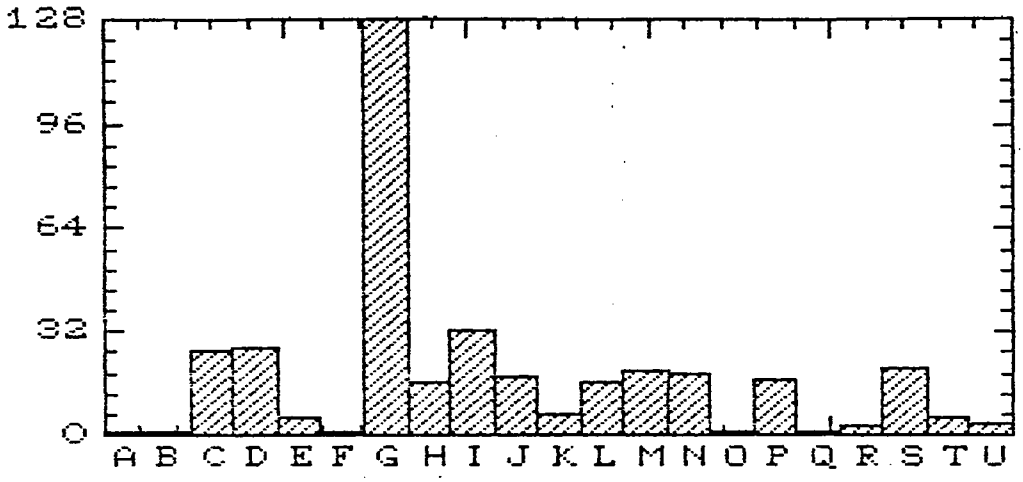


Figure 5. Domestic Topic Categories.

Horizontal Axis = Topic Category
Vertical Axis = Number of Stories

A Accidents & Disasters	K Mass Organizations
B Acts of God	L Military & Defense
C Agriculture & Fish.	M National Government
D Art, Culture & Entertainment	N Nongovernment Del.
	O Overseas Chinese
E Crime & Justice	P Personalities
F Democratic Parties	Q Race Rel. & Minorities
G Economics & Industry	R Religion
H Education	S Science & Health
I International Rel.	T Sports
J Local Governments	U Other

Such coverage as was presented split almost evenly between local (provincial and city) governments (4.9 percent) and the national government in Beijing (5.4 percent). Stories generally dealt with how the government was using its resources to improve living standards, update industry, or simplify red tape. The adversarial note that is an integral part of the coverage of television's coverage of American government was completely absent.

International News

In the 20 newscasts or 559 news stories in the sample, 55 countries or areas were featured, as was the United Nations. Twelve stories had no clear geographic identification or took place in international spaces (i.e. the capture of the Egyptian airliner by U.S. warplanes).

Although the country category contained geo-political entities that were not strictly countries (e.g. Hong Kong and the United Nations) and others whose status is disputed (e.g. Taiwan), this paper has used the term "countries" to refer collectively to these entities.

Three hundred and seventy of these stories took place in China and were coded as domestic. The remaining 189 made up the international subsample. They were coded by country and in nine geo-political regions.

Although, excluding China, 54 countries were featured, most had only one or two stories. Only 22 countries

received three or more stories. These are given in Table 7 and Figure 6.

The United States was the source of the largest number of stories (24); this was ten more than its nearest rivals, the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Although CCTV reportedly claimed that 25 percent of its foreign coverage focused on American news events (Diamond, 1985), the 24 stories found by this study accounted for only slightly more than 12 percent of the international news stories. This might have indicated that there had been a decline in interest in the United States in the time between the previous study and the present study.

An alternative hypothesis would be that differing operational definitions might have caused the inconsistency; this is borne out by an ex-post facto recoding of story topics using a more liberal definition of "focus." This recoding increased the count of U.S.-oriented stories by 18 stories or to 22.2 percent. This recoding was not used in any of the analyses reported in this paper.

An interesting no-show in the three-or-more-story group was the Self-Governing Province of Taiwan; despite all the expressed interest in reunification by the People's

Table 7. International Frequencies

Area	Number of Stories		Length of Stories	
	BY REGION (all stories)			
Africa	16	6.5	613	8
Asia	29	2	1364	3
Eastern Europe	16	6.5	547	9
Europe	36	1	1633	2
International	15	8	698	6
Latin America	17	5	2314	1
Middle East	19	4	737	5
North America	25	3	902	4
Pacific Basin	14	9	615	7
TOTAL	187		9423	
	BY COUNTRY (> 2 stories)			
Australia	8	6	341	8
Belgium	4	14	211	14
Brazil	3	20	675	2.5
Colombia	4	14	675	2.5
Egypt	6	8	212	13
France	4	14	131	19
Hong Kong	4	14	267	10
India	3	20	178	17
Intern Other	12	4	395	7
Israel	3	20	71	22
Japan	6	8	223	11
Kampuchea	6	8	272	9
Lebanon	4	14	216	12
Pakistan	3	20	97	21
Phillippines	4	14	190	16
South Africa	11	5	437	6
Thailand	5	10	171	18
UK	13	2.5	504	4
United Nations	3	20	197	15
United States	25	1	851	1
USSR	13	2.5	451	5
West Germany	4	14	126	20
TOTAL	148		6891	

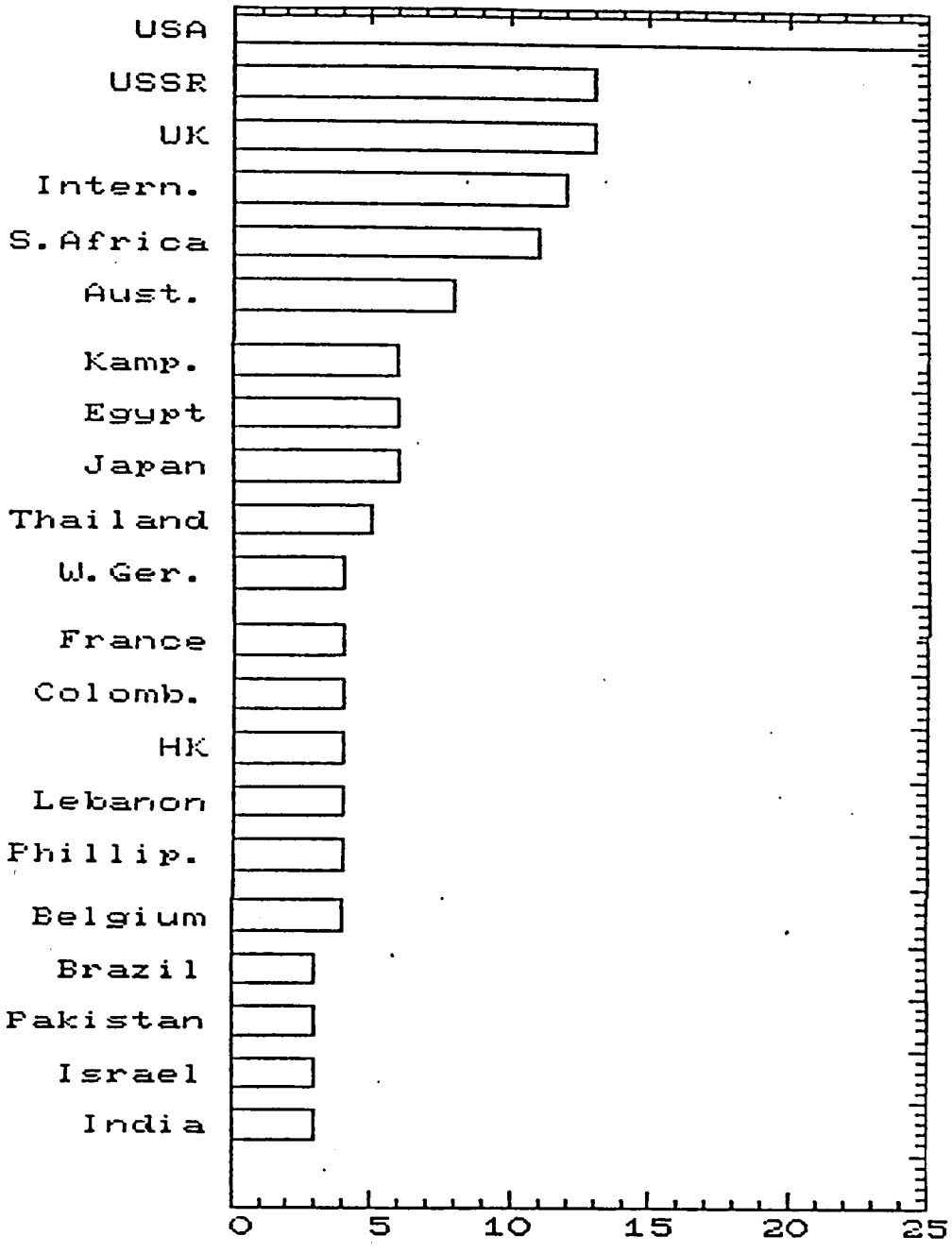


Figure 6. Number of Stories by Country.

Horizontal Axis = Country of Origin
Vertical Axis = Number of Stories

Republic, this off-shore island received only one story during the coding period.

International stories tended to be clustered at the end of the newscast. Only when stories related to the visit of the Chinese Premier to several South American countries did international stories occur near the beginning of the newscast. These stories were found to be anomalous in regard to their length (see page 29). The correlation between that story's position in the newscast and the story's international or domestic status was .72 indicating that there was a strong tendency for international stories to be placed late.

This followed the pattern used in the People's Daily (Jen Min Jih Pao) as reported by a 1977 USIA report.

> Articles on domestic events take precedence over foreign news, which is normally relegated to the back pages of the paper. Only rarely, on those occasions considered most important to China, are items involving other countries printed on page one (Staff, 1977).

This format was also generally followed by the English-language China Daily.

The number of stories in each newscast had a moderate correlation with the number of international stories ($r = .70$), as shown in Figure 7 while the newcast's length had a somewhat weaker effect on the length of the international segment ($r = .47$). This, again, could be due to the pieces which resulted from the travels of the premier.

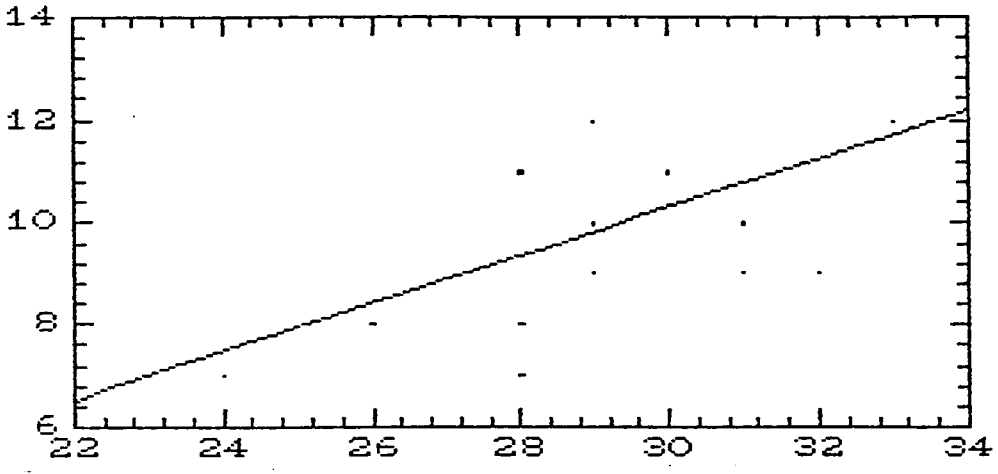


Figure 7. Regression Line -- International Stories by Total Stories.

Horizontal Axis = Number of International Stories in Newscast

Vertical Axis = Total Number of Stories in Newscast

The average length of the international news segment was 7.36 minutes (S.D. = 2.48). This was somewhat greater than the 5.5 minutes reported for the U.S. evening news in the mid-70s (Weaver, Porter, & Evans, 1984), but it was not as long as the 10 minutes that has been reported in recent years (Larson, 1982). Moreover, 10 minutes in a U.S. news show amounted to approximately 45 percent of the news hole (Adams, 1982) whereas the 7.36 minute average international presentation took up only slightly more than a quarter (26.5 percent) of the Chinese news hole.

The individual international news stories were also shorter (49.8 seconds) than international news stories presented on American television in either 1972-76 ($\underline{M}$ = 87.3 seconds) (Hester, 1978) or in 1977-81 ($\underline{M}$ = 98.8 seconds) (Weaver et al., 1984).

With an average length of 49.82 seconds, a Student's t-test (Bruning & Kintz, 1977) indicated that international stories were significantly shorter than domestic ($\underline{M}$ = 64.25) stories. ($t(557) = -3.48$, $\underline{p} < .001$) This was clearly illustrated by Figure 8 which also showed the strong outliers present in the international data set.

The affect of the international stories was significantly different from those originating inside of China. (see Table 5 and Figure 14) A Mann-Whitney test

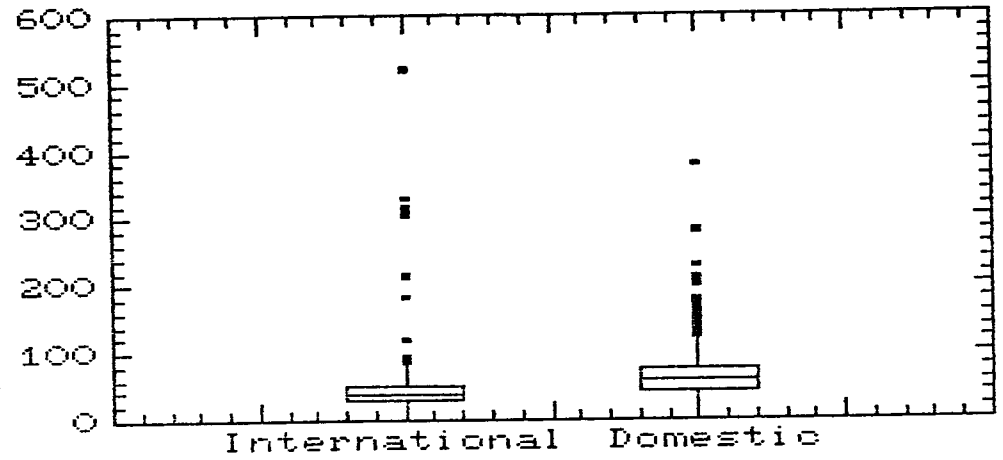


Figure 8. T-test Box and Whisker Plots for Length of Individual Stories By Foreign and Domestic Origin.

Horizontal Axis = International / Domestic Stories
Vertical Axis = Length of Stories

(Siegel, 1956) using an N1 of 189 and an N2 of 370 yielded a z of 10.62 with a probability of equaling or exceeding z of less than than .001 when comparing the affect of domestic stories with international ones. With a median of 4.3, international stories are clearly less "good" than their domestic counterparts (median = 5).

The grouped affect of stories from countries which were represented by five or more stories (n = 9) are shown in Table 8. A Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric analysis of variance (Siegel, 1956) ($H(8) = 23.5716$, $\underline{p} = .005$) indicated that there were distinct differences between the affects in stories from the different countries. The test was repeated on the five countries with the largest number (> 10 stories) of stories. ($H(4) = 9.5216$, $\underline{p} = .05$) This time the result was smaller but still significant.

Given this evidence, a series of Mann-Whitney tests was run; the results were placed in Table 9. The two countries which show statistically significant differences lay on opposite sides of the main curve. The news from Kampuchea (n = 6) was significantly better than each member of the group except for Japan, Egypt, and Thailand, where the direction of the differences was unchanged but did not reach significance.

On the other hand, South Africa's news was seen as significantly worse than that from the other

Table 8. Affect by Individual Country

Country	Number of Stories	Affect Scores		
		Low	Median	High
Australia	8	3.6	4.3	5.3
Belgium	4	3.0	4.5	5.3
Brazil	3	4.6	5.3	5.6
Colombia	4	1.6	4.8	5.3
Egypt	6	4.0	4.5	6.0
France	4	4.0	5.0	6.3
Hong Kong	4	5.0	5.2	5.3
India	3	2.0	3.0	5.0
Intern Other	12	3.0	4.5	5.0
Israel	3	4.0	4.3	4.6
Japan	6	2.6	4.3	5.3
Kampuchea	6	4.3	5.3	6.3
Lebanon	4	2.3	3.2	5.0
Pakistan	3	3.6	4.6	5.3
Phillippines	4	1.6	4.3	5.0
South Africa	11	2.0	3.3	5.6
Thailand	5	3.6	4.3	5.3
UK	13	2.6	4.0	5.0
United Nations	3	3.6	4.0	4.3
United States	24	2.0	4.0	6.6
USSR	13	3.3	4.3	5.3
West Germany	4	3.3	4.0	5.3

Table 9. Results of Mann-Whitney Tests on Affect of Commonly Cited Countries

	US	USSR	UK	Other	S. Afr.
US n = 24					
USSR n = 13	1.13 .24				
UK n = 13	0.42 .68	0.76 .45			
Other n = 12	-1.64 .10	-0.86 .39	-1.23 .22		
S. Afr. n = 11	1.56 .12	**2.22** **.03**	**1.79** **.07**	**2.21** **.03**	
Aust. n = 8	-1.10 .27	-0.23 .82	-0.85 .40	0.72 .48	**-2.05** **.04**
Kamp. n = 6	**-2.72** **.006**	**-2.54** **.01**	**-2.65** **.008**	**-2.02** **.03**	**-2.58** **.01**
Egypt n = 6	-1.34 .18	0.67 .50	-1.13 .26	0.05 .96	**-2.02** **.04**
Japan n = 6	0.13 .90	0.22 .82	0.00 1.00	0.63 .53	-0.97 .33
Thailand n = 5	0.93 .35	-0.15 .88	-0.72 .48	0.33 .75	**-1.77** **.08**

Table 9. (Continued)

	Aust.	Kamp.	Egypt	Japan	Thailand
Kamp.	-2.26				
n = 6	.02				
Egypt	-0.45	1.46			
n = 6	.64	.14			
Japan	0.20	1.87	0.58		
n = 6	.84	.06	.57		
Thailand	0.00	1.76	0.37	0.28	
n = 5	1.00	.08	.71	.78	

countries in the group except for the United States and Japan. In these countries, the relationship again was non-significant while the direction was the same. Cumulative affects for each of the five countries are shown in Figures 9-13.

A chi-square test of the 22 most commonly cited countries indicated little likelihood that the number of stories each received was due to chance. ($X^2(21, N = 147) = 82.43$, $p < .001$) However, neither the population of the individual countries ($r = .099$) nor the distance from China ($r = .26$) seemed to show much correlation with the number of stories aired.

Examining the data by region instead of country also showed a non-random distribution. ($X^2(8,N = 147) = 22.12$, $p < .01$)

Table 10 compares the number of stories from each region with the findings of two other studies (Larson, 1982; Almaney, 1970) which considered international news from a U.S. perspective. The U.S.-originated stories were deleted from the sample since the other studies contained no stories from that country, and a Spearman rank correlation coefficient was computed. It indicated significant correlation between the findings of both the Larson (rho (9) = .89916, $p < .01$) or the Almaney study (rho (9) = .786618, $p < .01$) and the present study. The

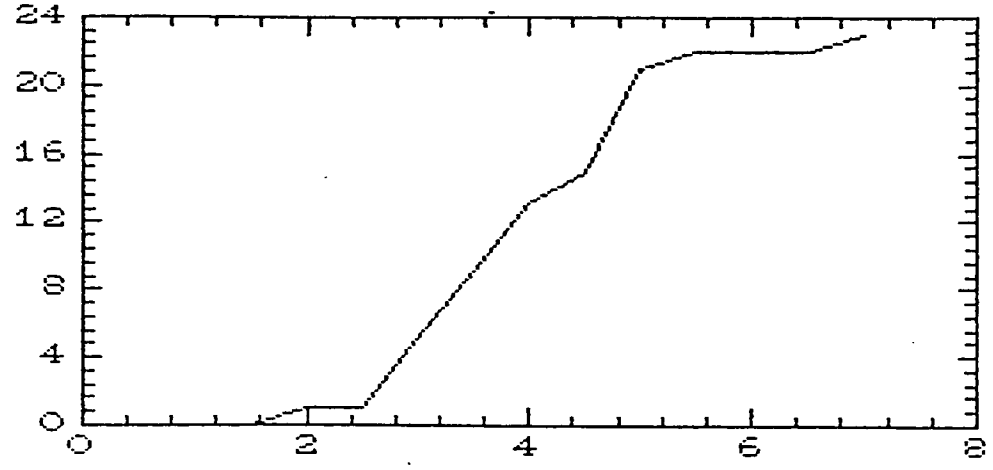


Figure 9. Cumulative Affect (United States).

Horizontal Axis = 7-point Likert Scale
Vertical Axis = Cumulative Number of Stories

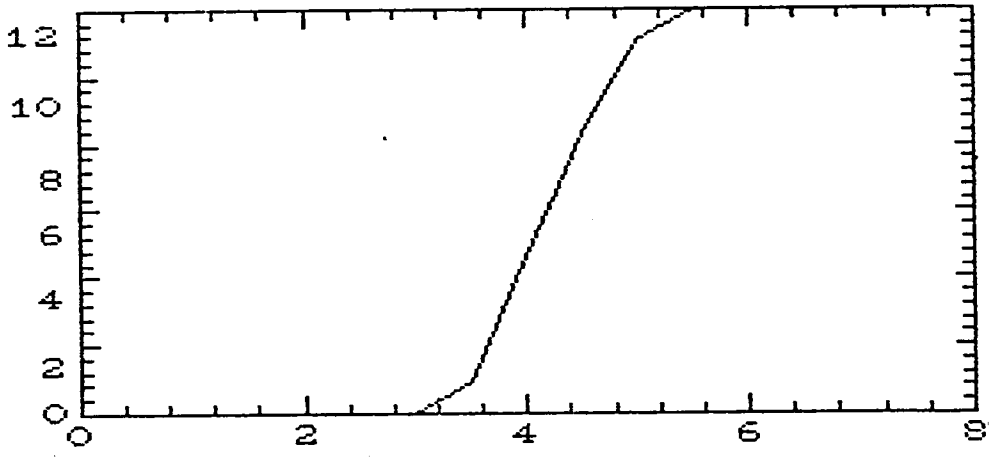


Figure 10. Cumulative Affect (Soviet Union).

Horizontal Axis = 7-point Likert Scale
Vertical Axis = Cumulative Number of Stories

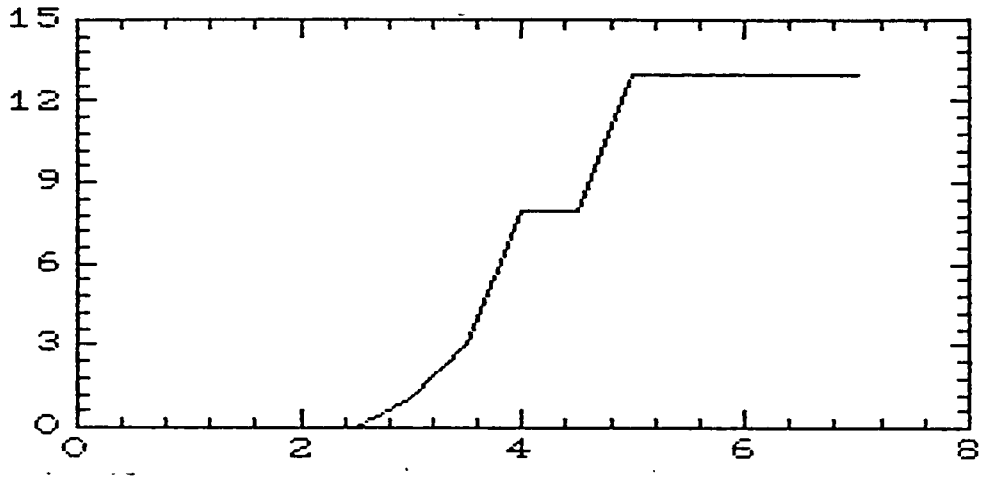


Figure 11. Cumulative Affect (United Kingdom).

Horizontal Axis = 7-point Likert Scale
Vertical Axis = Cumulative Number of Stories

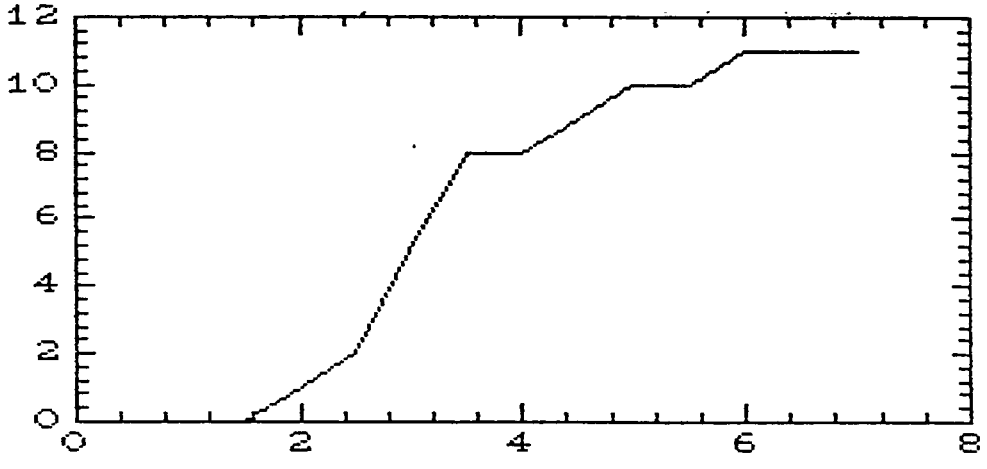


Figure 12. Cumulative Affect (South Africa).

Horizontal Axis = 7-point Likert Scale
Vertical Axis = Cumulative Number of Stories

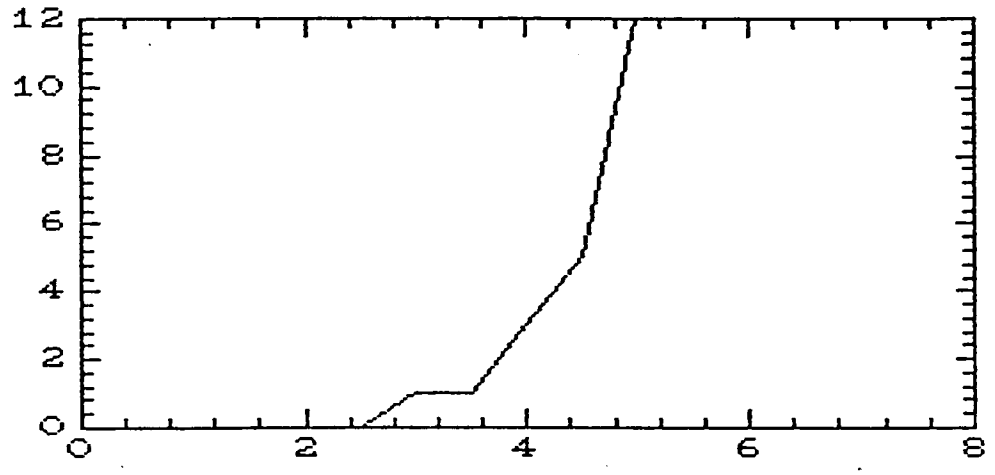


Figure 13. Cumulative Affect (International Other).

Horizontal Axis = 7-point Likert Scale
Vertical Axis = Cumulative Number of Stories

Table 10. Comparison of Coverages by Region Between Present Study and Other Studies

Region	Present Study		Almaney (1970)		Larson (1982)	
	Rank	Number	Rank	Number	Rank	Number
Europe	1	36	4	55	2	1669
Asia	2	29 (a)	1	107 (d)	1	1860 (f)
North America	3	24	8	4 (c)	7	121 (c)
Middle East	4	19	3	63	3	1367
Latin America	5	18	5	17 (b)	5	572
Africa	6.5	16	6	9	6	437
Eastern Europe	6.5	16	2	66	4	966
International	8	15	7	8 (e)	8.5	0
Pacific Basin	9	14	9	0	8.5	0

(a) excluding the People's Republic of China
(b) given as South America
(c) excluding the United States
(d) including China
(e) given as Others
(f) composite of East Asia, Southeast Asia and Pacific, and East Asia

Larson and Almaney studies also correlated strongly (rho (9) = .903774, $p < .01$). That there may have been some common factors in the judgments made by the gatekeepers in the two countries was suggested by these high correlations.

This was somewhat surprising given the differing operational definitions in the three studies. The present study used location-based criteria. The story was credited to the country where it took place. Thus if the Japanese and Russians had talks in London, the story was credited to the United Kingdom. Larson's study used a more inclusive definition: any mention of a country regardless of the dateline (Larson, 1982). Almaney (1970) had a definition restricting the coding to those countries "covered".

Table 11 continues the comparison of the present study with Larson's 1982 findings. Here the countries which received three or more citations in the the present study are ranked against the 20 nations which were found to be most frequently mentioned by Larson.

Some of the nations cited by Larson seemed to have fallen victim to the ebb and flow of international interest. Between 1976 and 1979, Iran, Rhodesia, and Vietnam were part of the daily headlines. Public interest in these areas seemed to have waned somewhat, but the unrest in South Africa could have been expected to have had a strong impact on its increased prominence. Larson

Table 11. Comparison Between Country-level Data in Present Study and Larson's 1982 Paper

	Present Study		Larson (1982)	
Country	Number	Rank	Number	Rank
Australia	8	6	(a)	
Belgium	4	13.5	(a)	
Brazil	3	20	(a)	
Colombia	4	13.5	(a)	
Egypt	6	8	279	3
France	4	13.5	181	6
Hong Kong	4	13.5	(a)	
India	3	20	(a)	
Intern Other	12	4	(a)	
Israel	3	20	433	2
Japan	6	8	92	15
Kampuchea	6	8	(a)	
Lebanon	4	13.5	143	7
Pakistan	3	20	(a)	
Philippines	4	13.5	(a)	
South Africa	11	5	129	10
Thailand	5	13.5	(a)	
UK	13	2.5	210	5
United Nations	3	20	(a)	
United States	24	1	(a)	
USSR	13	2.5	475	1
West Germany	4	13.5	(a)	

(a) Not one of top 20 countries in study

placed China eighth in his list, but it could not be classified as "foreign" news in this study.

To an extent, the greater attention paid by the Chinese media to Hong Kong, India, Kampuchea, the Philippines and Thailand might have been due to propinquity; however, it was possible that the highly sinocentristic nature of the media (Staff, 1977) is at least part of the explanation. This was supported by the observation that the Chinese government was giving strong support to the forces whose activities in Kampuchea formed the backbone of the coverage there, and that three-quarters of the news stories originating from Hong Kong directly involved the activities of delegations or officials from the People's Republic.

The USSR and the United Kingdom figured prominently in both sets of newscasts. Egypt ranked third in Larson's findings and was sixth in the present study. The only other Middle Eastern countries to be in the top 22 countries in the present study were Israel (rank 20) and Lebanon (rank 13.5). Larson ranked Israel second and Lebanon seventh as well as including Iran (rank 4) Saudi Arabia (rank 14), Syria (rank 14), and Jordan (rank 19).

However, despite the lack of coverage of specific countries, it should be noted that the proportion of coverage found to be given to the Middle East did not vary

significantly between the present study and either the Larson or the earlier Almaney study.

Distinct differences were evident among stories concerning the U.S.-allied First World, the Soviet World and the developing Third World.

A Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric analysis of variance by ranks indicated that there did not seem to be a significant difference between the affects of stories from these three areas. ($H(2) = 5.20$, $p = .07$). Table 12 shows Affect scores.

However, because of the strong, although non-significant, H, the data were examined more closely. When examined in pairs through the Mann-Whitney test, the sole significant difference was found between the affect of stories concerning the First World and that of stories concerning the Third World. The large-sample z was 2.15($N1 = 75$, $N2 = 83$), giving a probability of .031 of equaling or exceeding z. This indicated that the affect of Third World stories was significantly better than the affect of stories which originated in the First World.

Differences between the Soviet World and either of the others were not found to be significant.

An analysis of variance (Bruning & Kintz, 1977) among the length of stories also indicated a significant difference. ($F(2,171) = 4.15$, $p = .017$) Repeated t-tests

Table 12. Affect by Region of Origin

Region	N of Stories	Min.	Median	Max.
First World	82	2.00	4.00	6.61
Soviet World	16	3.30	4.30	5.30
Third World	74	1.61	4.61	6.30

again found that the sole significant difference was between the length of stories originating in the First World and those originating in the Third World. ($t(158) = -2.51$, $p = .013$)

The length of First, Second, and Third World stories are shown in Table 13 while the topics that were presented in stories from the three regions varied widely as shown in Table 13.

The relative dearth of stories made comparative analysis of the topic categories somewhat difficult, as can be seen in Table 14. However, it was clear that an overwhelming percentage (56.2 percent) of the stories concerned international affairs. This was almost to the exclusion of any other kind of news. Only two categories received more than a single mention (Local Governments and Personalities) and only three other categories were mentioned at all (Crime & Justice, Economics & Industry, and Nongovernment Delegations).

International Relations dominated the stories from the Third World (40.0 percent), but all of the other topic categories showed some use except for Economics & Industry and Education.

In an interesting comparison and contrast, the Third World had just as many news stories concerning man-made accidents (2) as the First World; however, a

Table 13. Duration in Seconds by Region of Origin

Region	N of Stories	Min.	Mean	Max.
First World	82	6.00	40.94	121.00
Soviet World	16	7.00	34.44	81.00
Third World	74	13.00	63.95	523.00

Table 14. Category Use in International and Domestic Stories

Category Name	First World		Soviet		Third World	
	Num	percent	Num	percent		
Accidents & Disasters	2	2.5	0	0.0	2	2.7
Acts of God	1	1.2	0	0.0	5	6.8
Agriculture & Fisheries	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.4
Art, Culture & Entertainment	5	6.1	0	0.0	2	2.7
Crime & Justice	8	9.8	1	6.3	4	5.7
Democratic Parties	1	1.2	0	0.0	2	2.7
Economics & Industry	5	6.0	1	6.3	0	0.0
Education	1	1.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
International Relations	17	20.5	9	56.2	30	40.0
Local Governments	3	3.7	2	1.3	5	6.8
Mass Organizations	7	8.5	0	0.0	2	2.7
Military	6	7.3	0	0.0	5	6.8
National Government	1	1.2	0	0.0	2	2.7
Nongovernment Delegations	0	0.0	1	6.3	1	1.4
Overseas Chinese	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.4

Table 14. (Continued)

Category Name	First World		Soviet		Third World	
	Num	percent	Num	percent	Num	percent
Personalities	2	2.4	2	12.5	1	1.4
Race Relations	5	6.1	0	0.0	1	1.4
Religion	2	2.4	0	0.0	1	1.4
Science & Health	5	6.0	0	0.0	5	6.8
Sports	7	8.5	0	0.0	4	5.3
Other	5	6.1	0	0.0	1	1.4
TOTAL	79		12		75	

(Percentages may not equal 100 because of rounding.)

considerably larger number (5) of natural disasters were reported than there were reported from the First World (1).

The topics Mass Organizations, Crime & Justice, and Race Relations figured considerably more prominently in the coverage of the First World (respectively 8.5 percent, 9.8 percent, and 6.1 percent) than they did in Third World coverage (2.7 percent, 5.3 percent, and 1.4 percent). However, it should be noted that the inclusion of South Africa in the First World category strongly influenced the number of race-related stories credited to that region.

Somewhat parallel were the percentages of military reportage (First World 7.3 percent, Third World 6.8 percent), scientific and health news (6.0 percent & 6.8 percent), and news from local and regional governments (3.7 percent & 6.8 percent).

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

All four of the hypotheses seemed to be confirmed.

The first hypothesis, that the portion of the Chinese television news budget given over to national news would be larger than that of the United States, proved to be true. International news stories took up slightly more than a quarter of the news hole while in studies of U.S. television, cited in chapter V, almost half of the U.S. news hole was found to be given over to international reports.

The second hypothesis, that the developed world would generate most of the foreign coverage, also seemed to be supported, but by a much narrower margin.

The United States, Canada, Europe, Israel, South Africa, Japan, and Australia were the points of origin of 82 stories. The developing countries were the points of origin for 74. This was hardly a massive imbalance even when the Soviet world's 16 stories are added to those of the developed countries giving a 98 to 74 ratio.

The third hypothesis, that there would be significantly more "good news" reported internally than would be reported from other countries, was resoundingly confirmed. As indicated by Figure 14, the domestic affect

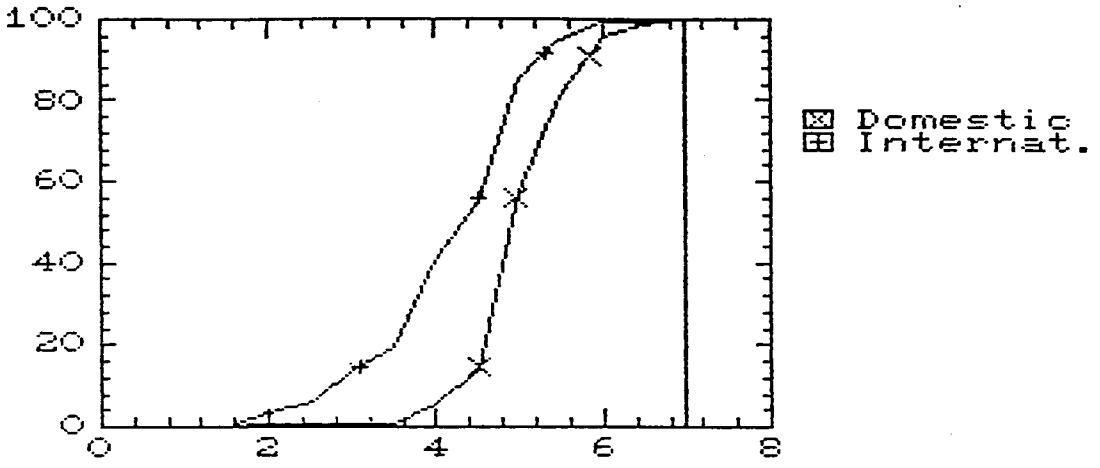


Figure 14. Cumulative International and Domestic Affect

Horizontal Axis = 7-point Likert Scale
Vertical Axis = Percentage of Stories

is clearly better than that shown by the international stories. A Mann-Whitney test (N1 = 189, N2 = 370 yielded a z of 10.62, indicating that a probability of less than .001.

The final hypothesis, that the "best" outside news would come from the Third World, was also confirmed. The median of the affect of stories coming from the Third World was more than half a point higher that that of stories originating from developed countries (see table 12). This difference proved to be significant at the .05 level. Here, a Mann-Whitney test (N1 = 74, N2 = 83) yielded a z of 2.15, indicating a probability of .031.

Although this was an admittedly carefully delimited of a single aspect of a single medium, other characteristics which have been noted in other, less quantitative studies were confirmed in the present study

The large number of stories in the International Relations categories, particularly in the foreign news segment, may be seen to support Liao's (1980) suggestion that "mass media becomes a channel of communication between the Chinese government and foreign governments" (p. 75). By picturing the international-relations efforts of other nations in either a positive or negative light, the Chinese government not only could influence its domestic

audience but also could send subtle messages of approval or disapproval to the international community.

It was noteworthy that the International Relations category in international stories had the widest range of affective responses (2.6 to 6.3) of any topic category in either foreign or domestic stories. Clearly some strong affects were being transmitted.

For example, in Kampuchea, the efforts of the Chinese-allied insurgents were shown in such a glowing light that a viewer could be excused for wondering why they had not succeeded in taking back the country. On the other hand, South Africa's 3.3 affect was the lowest of any country noted in the study.

However, the Kampuchea situation pointed out a serious flaw in the coding system. Because geo-political identifications rather than group identifications were used, it could be that the favorable affect adhered to the country's government instead of insurgent groups within the country.

The relatively low median affect (4) as well as the wide range of affect scores (2.0 to 6.6) attributed to stories from the United States tended to confirm Lee's (1981) suggestion that "linkage politics" played an important part in Chinese mass media. This happened when

the media, to affirm socialist superiority, reminded its viewers

> that the U.S., despite its high productivity, is troubled by the forces arising from the unequal relationship of production inherent in a capitalist system (Lee, 1981, p. 98).

However, Lee also found that the United States was favorably portrayed in the People's Daily "at the expense of the Soviet Union."

This proved not to be the case in the present study. Although the USSR (n = 13) was not the origin of as many stories as the United States (n = 24), its median affect was somewhat better (4.3). However, a Mann-Whitney test (N1 = 13, N2 = 29) yielded a z of 1.07, indicating that this difference was not significant. (p = .29)

The range of affect scores (3.3 to 5.3) for stories from the Soviet Union was considerably narrower than that showed by U.S.-originated stories.

One possible explanation for this was based on the Chinese visual medium's voracious appetite for images. The lower end of the affect range (bad news) may have been blocked by the reluctance of the Soviets to allow any film or tape to leave that portrayed their country in a less than favorable light.

The upper range also could have been blocked by an equally politically based decision by the Chinese broadcasters not to broadcast any of the halcyon images that the Soviets did release.

When the 18 stories with affects greater than six were studied, it was noted that 15 of them (83.3 percent) were of domestic origin. Of the three international stories, the one with the highest affect (6.61) was a U.S. originated story regarding the approval of arms sales to Jordan. The two other stories concerned the discovery by French doctors of a possible cure for AIDS and the visit by EEC officials to a refugee camp in Kampuchea.

As was expected given the high median affect (5.3) of the Industry & Economics category, the plurality (7) of the domestic high-affect stories were related to this category. Three other stories were from a high-median-affect category--military. The others related to government and health.

A disturbing aspect of this examination of high-affect stories was that all of the stories in question, with only one exception, came from the first two weeks of the study. This raised the disturbing question of whether the coders were affected by a form of maturation that caused them to moderate their affect responses.

However, when questioned on that point about a month after the conclusion of the study, they indicated that they were not aware of such a trend in their thinking.

Another possibility is that the scores could have been regressing toward the mean, a natural tendency that might be found in such data.

The overwhelming numerical dominance and high median affect of stories in the Economics & Industry category supported those who hold that a major role of the communist media is to support the goals of the government.

The year 1985 came at the conclusion of China's Sixth Five-Year Plan and during the time of the Four Modernizations, both of which had goals of expanding the country's industrial base and improving its economic situation.

It could be argued that the stories both provided goals by emphasizing success stories and created a mediated reality wherein China was seen as a major industrial nation.

The other legs of the Four Modernizations, the military and agriculture, also showed a substantial number of stories as well as an affect above (although not statistically significantly so) the domestic-story median. A Mann-Whitney test compared Agriculture & Fisheries (n = 26) with the remaining Chinese domestic stories (n = 344)

yielded a z of 8 (p = .14), while a similar comparison using Military & Defense (n = 17) yielded a 1.14 (p = .25).

This study also showed a number of similarities between the content of Chinese and American television news.

Although there was only a slight similarity between the country-level coverage in this study and in Larson's 1982 study of U.S. television's international coverage, the regional coverage proved to be markedly similar. This regional-coverage parallelism also appeared when the present study was compared with Almaney's 1970 findings.

These similarities suggest that news judgment may be more independent of political outlook than has been argued.

Although U.S. news has been criticized for relying on "hot" international events of the day (Almaney, 1970), Chinese television also chose primarily to cover those foreign news events of immediate interest.

Only a few stories, like a November 25 piece on a recumbent bicycle and one on December 10 concerning an on-going anti-drunk-driving campaign in England, did not clearly fall into an immediate reward category. Even subjects which could be considered timeless generally had a timely "hook." For example, a piece on the effects of

violence in pornography on children in the developed countries aired on December 19, was illustrated by a book-protest fair in England.

This reliance on hot or timely foreign news was particularly noteworthy because a large number of the domestic stories lacked a clearly dated hook. Some, like a December 17 film about political work in the countryside, could have been done at any time. Others, like a November 6 story that assured viewers that an adequate supply of coal was available for the winter, could have been broadcast any time during a span of several months.

Generally, dated domestic stories dealt with international visitors, ceremonies and shows, and the arrest of criminals.

Of course, significant differences were found to exist between television news in China and the United States.

Many of these were cosmetic: habitual "bumping" of stories, the use of technical devices like blue screens, and the variable length of the newscast. Others showed greater significance.

It could be argued that the positioning of most foreign news at the end of the newscast was simply a cosmetic measure. However, when this was considered as

part of a gestalt with the significantly shorter length of the individual international news stories and the significantly lower affect, there appeared a pattern that indicated that the producers of the program either consciously or unconsciously accorded foreign news a second-rank status.

The content of the news stories in general proved to be considerably different from those used by U.S. television. As has been noted before, domestic news stories dwelt upon industrial stories to a much greater extent while almost completely ignoring the crime news that makes up so much of American television fare.

Also, although there was no comparable study of the affect of U.S. television news found in the literature, it would seem that the constant up-beat tone of the Chinese news would prove to be considerably different.

Television news is a dynamic and growing source of information for the Chinese people. This has been only a brief examination of one small part of it. Yet, the pattern of similarities and differences indicate that here is a fertile field for study.

Just the relationship between domestic and international stories holds some promise as a valuable barometer of the political weather, the spread and pattern

of domestic stories may suggest the goals and expectations of those in power.

For example, after the Chernobyl accident in the Soviet Union, the Chinese media carried very little news about the incident but repeatedly stressed how well China accelerated nuclear-power program was progressing. Clearly the Chinese government had not reduced its commitment to developing a civilian nuclear-power capacity.

CHAPTER VII

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A communications scholar in the China field is in much the same position as the lunar explorers. One merely has to take a few steps in order to tread upon virgin ground. So little has been done, and so much remains to be done.

The present study took place during an almost unprecedented time of peace and plenty in China. To be sure, the Sino-Vietnam conflict sputtered and occasionally burst into fitful flame, and the per-capita income of the average Chinese workers was still extremely low by Western standards. However, when compared to China's recent history, 1985 seemed to be seen by most Chinese as the dawning of a golden age.

Whatever the future holds, content analyses will be useful in identifying changes. Such changes could be taken to be useful indicators of the state of Chinese society and its continuing evolution.

A valuable exercise would be to compare the outputs of electronic and print media. The casual comment by a coder that radio news seemed to have many more crime stories indicated that a comparative study between television and radio might bear significant fruit. By

combining the results of this analysis with a demographic breakdown of viewers and listeners, a pattern of selective information distribution might appear.

There are also the Chinese English language news sources, of which the China Daily is a prime example. In what way does the content of publications aimed at foreigners differ from that served up to the domestic Chinese-speaking audience?

A differing approach might be taken to examining the news process. Where the present study has examined the output, an alternate approach would be to look at the input and examine what was included and what was discarded and attempt to examine the explicit and implicit assumptions (Peterson, 1979; White, 1950). This would be particularly interesting given the, by Western standards, "un-free" nature of the Chinese press.

Even the errors made in this study offer guidance for future researchers. The presence of a previously defined "Ecology" or "Natural Resources" category would have greatly decreased the codings of "Other" as well as providing another topic for examination.

Also, considerable precision of measurement was lost in the examination of foreign stories because they were only coded by the geographic location instead of the significant group portrayed. As has been noted, this

could have led to a shocking mis-analysis of the stories originating in Kampuchea.

Even the trustworthy tools must be refined and redeveloped to fit the Chinese milieu. The author used a seven-point Likert scale to measure the affective response but was uncomfortably aware that little had been done to confirm that this was an useful tool for measuring affective responses among those socialized in the Chinese culture.

Many of the validation studies which American scholars take for granted when working in their own culture need to be tested using them in a culture as demonstrably alien as China.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COUNTRY LISTS

by region

ASIA

101 Afghanistan
102 Bangladesh
103 Burma
104 Bhutan
105 China
106 Hong Kong
107 Macao
108 Taiwan Province
109 India
110 Indonesia
111 Japan
112 Kampuchea
113 Korea (Dem. People's Republic of)
114 Korea (Republic of)
115 Laos
116 Malaysia
117 Mongolia
118 Nepal
119 Pakistan
120 Singapore
121 Sri Lanka
122 Thailand
123 Vietnam

NORTH AMERICA

201 Canada
202 United States

EUROPE

301 Andorra
302 Austria
303 Belgium
304 Cyprus (Greek sector)
305 Cyprus (Turkish sector
306 Denmark
307 Finland
308 France
309 Germany (Federal Republic of)
310 Greece
311 Iceland
312 Ireland
313 Italy
314 Liechtenstein
315 Luxembourg
316 Malta
317 Monaco
318 Netherlands
319 Norway
320 Portugal
321 San Marino
322 Spain
323 Sweden
324 Switzerland
325 United Kingdom
326 Vatican City State

by region

AFRICA

401 Algeria
402 Angola
403 Benin
404 Botswana
405 Brunei
406 Burundi
407 Cameroon
408 Cape Verde Island
409 Central African Republic
410 Chad
411 Comoro Islands
412 Congo
413 Djibouti
414 Egypt
415 Equatorial Guinea
416 Ethiopia
417 Gabon
418 Gambia
419 Ghana
420 Guinea
421 Guinea-Bissau
422 Ivory Coast
423 Kenya
424 Kiribati
425 Lesotho
426 Liberia
427 Libya
428 Madagascar
429 Malawi
430 Mali

AFRICA (cont.)

431 Mauritania
432 Mauritius
433 Morocco
434 Mozambique
435 Namibia (South West Africa)
436 Niger
437 Nigeria
438 Rwanda
439 Sao Tome and Principe
440 Senegal
441 Seychelles
442 Sierra Leone
443 Somalia
444 South Africa
445 Sudan
446 Swaziland
447 Tanzania
448 Togo
449 Tunisia
450 Uganda
451 Upper Volta
452 Zaire
453 Zambia
454 Zimbabwe

by region

LATIN AMERICA

501 Argentina
502 Bahamas
503 Barbados
504 Bolivia
505 Brazil
506 Chile
507 Colombia
508 Costa Rica
509 Cuba
510 Dominica
511 Dominican Republic
512 Ecuador
513 El Salvador
514 Grenada
515 Guatemala
516 Guyana
517 Haiti
518 Honduras
519 Jamaica
520 Mexico
521 Nicaragua
522 Panama
523 Paraguay
524 Peru
525 St. Lucia
526 Saint Vincent
527 Suriname
528 Trinidad and Tobago
529 Uruguay
530 Venezuela

MIDDLE EAST

601 Bahrain
602 Iran
603 Iraq
604 Israel
605 Jordan
606 Kuwait
607 Lebanon
608 Maldives
609 Oman
610 Qatar
611 Saudi Arabia
612 Syria
613 Turkey
614 United Arab Emirates
615 Yemen Arab Republic
616 Yemen (People's Dem. Republic of

PACIFIC BASIN

701 Antarctia
702 Australia
703 Fiji
704 Nauru
705 New Zealand
706 Papua New Guinea
707 Philippines
708 Solomon Islands
709 Tonga
710 Tuvalu
711 Western Samoa

by region

EAST EUROPE

801 Albania
802 Bulgaria
803 Czechoslovakia
804 German Democratic Republic
805 Hungary
806 Poland
807 Romania
808 Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
809 Yugoslavia

INTERNATIONAL

901 United Nations
902 International Other

by alphabetical order

101 Afghanistan
801 Albania
401 Algeria
301 Andorra
402 Angola
701 Antarctia
501 Argentina
302 Austria
702 Australia
502 Bahamas
601 Bahrain
102 Bangladesh
503 Barbados
303 Belgium
403 Benin
104 Bhutan
504 Bolivia
404 Botswana
505 Brazil
405 Brunei
802 Bulgaria
103 Burma
406 Burundi
407 Cameroon
201 Canada
408 Cape Verde Islands
409 Central African Republic
410 Chad
506 Chile
105 China
507 Colombia
411 Comoro Islands
412 Congo
508 Costa Rica
509 Cuba
304 Cyprus (Greek sector)
305 Cyprus (Turkish sector)
803 Czechoslovakia
306 Denmark
413 Djibouti
510 Dominica
511 Dominican Republic
512 Ecuador
414 Egypt
415 Equatorial Guinea
416 Ethiopia
513 El Salvador
703 Fiji
307 Finland
308 France
417 Gabon
418 Gambia
309 Germany (Federal Republic of)
804 German Democratic Republic
419 Ghana
310 Greece
514 Grenada
515 Guatemala
420 Guinea
421 Guinea-Bissau
516 Guyana
517 Haiti
518 Honduras
106 Hong Kong
805 Hungary
311 Iceland

by alphabetical order

109 India
110 Indonesia
902 International Other
602 Iran
603 Iraq
312 Ireland
604 Israel
313 Italy
422 Ivory Coast
519 Jamaica
111 Japan
605 Jordan
112 Kampuchea
423 Kenya
424 Kiribati
113 Korea (Dem. People's Republic of)
114 Korea (Republic of
606 Kuwait
115 Laos
607 Lebanon
425 Lesotho
426 Liberia
427 Libya
314 Liechtenstein
315 Luxembourg
107 Macao
428 Madagascar
116 Malaysia
429 Malawi
608 Maldives
430 Mali
316 Malta
431 Mauritania
432 Mauritius
520 Mexico
317 Monaco
117 Mongolia
433 Morocco
434 Mozambique
435 Namibia (South West Africa)
705 Nauru
118 Nepal
318 Netherlands
706 New Zealand
521 Nicaragua
436 Niger
437 Nigeria
319 Norway
609 Oman
119 Pakistan
522 Panama
707 Papua New Ginea
523 Paraguay
524 Peru
708 Philippines
806 Poland
320 Portugal
610 Qatar
807 Romania
438 Rwanda
526 Saint Vincent
611 Saudi Arabia
321 San Marino
439 Sao Tome and Principe
440 Senegal
442 Sierra Leone
441 Seychelles
120 Singapore
709 Solomon Islands
443 Somalia
444 South Africa

by alphabetical order

322 Spain
121 Sri Lanka
525 St. Lucia
445 Sudan
527 Suriname
446 Swaziland
323 Sweden
324 Switzerland
612 Syria
108 Taiwan Province
447 Tanzania
122 Thailand
448 Togo
710 Tonga
528 Trinidad and Tobago
449 Tunisia
613 Turkey
711 Tuvalu
450 Uganda
808 Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
901 United Nations
614 United Arab Emirates
325 United Kingdom
202 United States
451 Upper Volta
529 Uruguay
326 Vatican City State
530 Venezuela
123 Vietnam
712 Western Samoa
616 Yemen (People's Democratic Republic of)
615 Yemen Arab Republic
809 Yugoslavia
452 Zaire
453 Zambia
454 Zimbabwe

APPENDIX B

PROVINCE LISTS

in alphabetic order

101 Anhui
102 Beijing
103 Fujian
201 Gansu
104 Guangdong
401 Guangxi
402 Guizhou
105 Hebei
301 Heilongjiang
202 Henan
203 Hubei
403 Hunan
302 Inner Mongolia
204 Jiangsu
106 Jiangxi
303 Jilin
107 Liaoning
205 Ningxia
501 Qinghai
108 Shandong
109 Shanghai
206 Shanxi
207 Shaanxi
208 Sichuan
110 Tianjin
502 Tibet
503 Xinjiang
404 Yunnan
111 Zhejiang
999 MISCELLANEOUS

by region

EAST COAST
101 Anhui
102 Beijing
103 Fujian
104 Guangdong
105 Hebei
106 Jiangxi
107 Liaoning
108 Shandong
109 Shanghai
110 Tianjin
111 Zhejiang

CENTRAL REGION
201 Gansu
202 Henan
203 Hubei
204 Jiangsu
205 Ningxia
206 Shanxi

CENTRAL (cont.)
207 Shaanxi
208 Sichuan

NORTHERN REGION
301 Heilongjiang
302 Inner Mongolia
303 Jilin

SOUTHERN REGION
401 Guangxi
402 Guizhou
403 Hunan
404 Yunnan

WESTERN REGION
501 Qinghai
502 Tibet
503 Xinjiang
999 MISCELLANEOUS

APPENDIX C

INTERNATIONAL FREQUENCIES AND DURATIONS

Country	Number	Duration (sec)
Andorra	1	25
Angola	1	28
Argentina	2	245
Australia	8	341
Austria	1	53
Bahamas	1	65
Bangladesh	1	52
Belgium	4	211
Brazil	3	675
Canada	1	51
Colombia	4	675
Cuba	2	56
East Germany	1	21
Egypt	6	212
El Salvador	1	28
France	4	131
Guatemala	2	79
Hong Kong	4	267
Hungary	1	31
India	3	178
Indonesia	1	29
Intern. Other	12	501
Iran	2	57
Israel	3	71
Italy	1	45
Japan	6	223
Jordan	1	39
Kampuchea	6	272
Kenya	1	47
Lebanon	4	216
Luxembourg	1	76
Malaysia	1	25
Malta	1	120
Netherlands	2	123
New Zealand	2	84
Pakistan	3	97
Philippines	4	190

Country	Number	Duration (sec)
Poland	1	44
Sierra Leone	1	13
South Africa	11	437
Spain	2	110
Switzerland	2	85
Syria	2	66
Taiwan	1	50
Thailand	5	171
Tunisia	1	35
Turkey	1	76
UK	13	504
United Nations	3	197
United States	24	851
Uruguay	1	31
USSR	13	451
Vatican	1	52
Venezuela	1	306
West Germany	4	126
Zimbabwe	1	43

APPENDIX D

TOPIC CATEGORIES

10 Agriculture -- Fisheries
includes farm products, their transportation and processing

20 Art - Culture - Entertainment
if deals with individual artists, place in Personality category

30 Crime -- Justice
31 Terrorism

40 Democratic Parties

Death
51 Accidents (fewer than 10 dead)
52 Disasters (10 or more dead)
(both refer to man-made incidents except for those in the Crime - Justice category)

60 Domestic Government
61 Overseas Chinese Populations

70 Economics or Industry (includes any factory except category 10)
71 Joint ventures
72 Private business
73 Labour (inc. waiting for work)

80 Education

90 International Relations
(use only if both sides are governmental representatives)
91 Frontier conflicts (if not military)
92 Nongovernment delegations

100 Local Governments
101 Politics
102 Corruption or Bureaucracy
103 Pollution
110 Military -- Defense
If purely military with no diplomatic factors

120 Pollution
approached from non-government point of view

130 Minority Populations
131 Race relations

140 Religion

150 Science and Health
excluding agriculture or fisheries production of drugs and such are recorded in industry use only for "pure" science and medical stories as distinct from industrial applications

160 Sports

170 Personalities
category to be used for people-related stories where person is approached from standpoint of individual.

180 Mass Organizations
trade unions -- women's federations -- youth leagues

190 Acts of God

999 Miscellaneous

APPENDIX E

PROVINCE SIZE AND POPULATION

Province	Area		Population	
	sq. km.	rank	number	rank
Anhui	130,000	22	49,660,000	9
Beijing	16,800	27	9,230,000	25
Fujian	120,000	23	59,300,000	5
Gansu	390,000	7	19,560,000	21
Guangdong	220,000	10	59,290,000	6
Guangxi	230,000	9	36,420,000	12
Guizhou	170,000	16	28,550,000	18
Hebei	180,000	14	54,200,000	7
Heilongjiang	460,000	6	32,660,000	15
Henan	160,000	17.5	74,220,000	3
Hubei	180,000	14	47,800,000	10
Hunan	210,000	11	54,000,000	8
Inner Mongolia	1,100,000	3	19,270,000	22
Jiangsu	100,000	24.5	60,520,000	4
Jiangxi	160,000	17.5	33,180,000	14
Jilin	180,000	14	22,560,000	20
Liaoning	140,000	21	35,720,000	13
Ningxia	66,000	26	3,890,000	28
Qinghai	720,000	4	3,890,000	27
Shaanxi	150,000	19.5	25,290,000	19
Shandong	150,000	19.5	74,410,000	2
Shanghai	5,800	29	11,850,000	24
Shanxi	190,000	12	28,900,000	17
Sichuan	560,000	5	99,710,000	1
Tianjin	11,000	28	7,760,000	26
Tibet	1,200,000	2	1,890,000	29
Xinjian	1,600,000	1	13,080,000	23
Yunnan	380,000	8	32,550,000	16
Zhejiang	100,000	24.5	38,880,000	11

(Source: Yearbook, 1983)

APPENDIX F

STATISTICS

Although this paper used both parametric and nonparametric statistics, the majority of the tests used were nonparametric in nature. This was because of the ordinal nature of some of the data and the lack of previous research permitting a presumption of normality.

The procedures were run on a Kaypro 16 microcomputer using STATGRAPHICS ^{tm} statistical package. Hand calculations were run using the following formulae. Nonparametric Statistics for the Social Sciences by Sidney Siegel and Computational Handbook of Statistics by James L. King and B.L. Kintz provided the appropriate tables. It should also be noted that in all cases where the Mann-Whitney test was run n2 was greater than 20. Because of this, the normal distribution table was used to calculate probabilities for this test.

Formulae

t-test for two independent means

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{\Sigma X_1^2 - \frac{(\Sigma X_1)^2}{N_1} + \Sigma X_2^2 - \frac{(\Sigma X_2)^2}{N_2}}{(N_1 + N_2) - 2}\right] \cdot \left[\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right]}}$$

$\bar{X}_1$ = the mean of the first group

$\bar{X}_2$ = the mean of the second group

ΣX_1^2 = the sum of the first group squared scores

ΣX_2^2 = the sum of the second group squared scores

$(\Sigma X_1)^2$ = square of the sum of scores in first group

$(\Sigma X_2)^2$ = square of the sum of scores in second group

N_1 = number of scores in first group

N_2 = number of scores in second group

Pearson product-moment correlation

$$r = \frac{N\Sigma XY - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[N\Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2][N\Sigma Y^2 - (\Sigma Y)^2]}}$$

N = number of paired scores
ΣXY = sum of the products of paired scores
ΣX = sum of scores in first group
ΣY = sum of scores in second group
ΣX^2 = sum of squared scores in first group
ΣY^2 = sum of squared scores in second group

Mann-Whitney U-test

$$U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1(n_1 + 1)}{2} - R_1$$

$$z = \frac{U - \frac{n_1 n_2}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1)(n_2)(n_1 + n_2 + 1)}{12}}}$$

n_1 = number in smaller sample
n_2 = number in larger sample
R_1 = sum of ranks in smaller sample
R_2 = sum of ranks in larger sample
U = result of first equation

Kruskal-Wallis test

$$H = \frac{12}{N(N + 1)} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{R_j^2}{n_j} - 3(N + 1)$$

k = number of samples
n_j = number of cases in jth sample
N = number of cases in all samples
R_j = sum of ranks in jth sample

Spearman rank correlation coefficient

$$\text{rho} = \frac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

D = difference between each pair
N = number of pairs of scores

Chi-square one-sample test

$$x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

O_i = observed number of cases in ith category

E_i = expected number of cases in ith category under null hypothesis

VITA

John William Warren was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on January 2, 1944. After graduating from Cumberland High School in Cumberland, Rhode Island, he entered the University of Rhode Island. In 1967, he was granted a Bachelor of Science degree in natural resources with minors in journalism, chemistry and psychology.

While an undergraduate, he began working as a journalist at the Pawtuxet Valley Daily Times in West Warwick, Rhode Island. After five years with that organization, he resigned and worked as a free-lance journalist in Cambodia (now Kampuchea) and Laos during 1970. After returning to the United States in 1971 because of poor health, he worked as a syndicated newspaper columnist and as a contributing editor for Sports and Play Magazine. During 1974 and 1976, he worked as a reporter for the Nor'wester Magazine in Georgetown, Grand Cayman, British West Indies.

In 1976, he entered the graduate program of Ohio State University's School of Journalism. After receiving his Master's degree, he joined the faculty of East Carolina University in Greenville, North Carolina as an assistant professor.

In 1983, he entered the doctoral program of the

College of Communications at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville.

The author is a member of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communications, the Society for Collegiate Journalists, the Reporters' Committee for Freedom of the Press, the College English Association, the Humanities and Technology Association, and the Community College Journalism Association. Dr. Warren returned to his position at East Carolina University after graduation.