

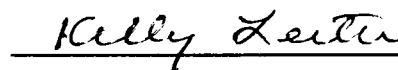
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AN ANALYSIS OF MEDIA USAGE
AND ATTITUDES TOWARD THE MEDIA
OF AIR FORCE OFFICERS IN THE PENTAGON

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

Maurice L. Stocks

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between the military and the news media has long been characterized as one of hostility and distrust. The purpose of this study was to determine just how accurate that characterization is among one military group, Air Force officers serving in the Pentagon in June 1987. Specifically, media use patterns and attitudes toward the media were investigated through a random survey of the target group. Data were collected from 305 officers in the grades of second lieutenant through colonel. The survey instrument, a questionnaire, also provided information on the officers' professional reading habits.

As a group, the respondents are heavy media users. For both television news and newspapers, they exceed the average usage established by previous research. Senior officers are the heaviest users of the media overall and consider newspapers to be their primary source of news. Junior officers prefer television. The respondents indicate surprisingly strong support for the media with 76 percent saying their level of confidence in newspapers is "high" or "moderate." Six of ten revealed a similar level of confidence in television news. Nine of ten officers read at least one book in the last year.

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INTRODUCTION

This thesis marks the culmination of a career-long interest in the use of the news media by military professionals. One tends to characterize the military as being singular in purpose--and in opinion. Yet, the military, like any other organization of its size, has represented within its ranks nearly every point of view and background. Beyond this obvious diversity, however, many believe there are matters on which there is striking unanimity. One has always been assumed to be the military's almost universal distrust of the news media.

Historically, the military has remained somewhat aloof from the rest of society. In simpler times, senior leaders viewed their military roles as apolitical. Their sole purpose was to accomplish national objectives, defined by Constitutionally elected representatives of the people. The efficacy or morality of those objectives was not a military issue.

But the relationships between the armed forces and society have become increasingly complex, owing at least in part to exposure given to the military by the news media. Media coverage of Watergate, the Vietnam conflict and the Iran scandal have made many in the military--and many citizens as well--skeptical about the news media

and its aims. Similarly, reports of poor procurement policies, inept decisionmaking, and fraud and abuse have wreaked havoc on the credibility of the Department of Defense.

The charges and counter-charges between the media and the military over the past two decades have led to what many view as near open hostilities. Beyond a number of subjective analyses, however, very little research has been done to determine just how deep these hostilities are. Do the majority of officers truly distrust the news media, holding little confidence in the media's ability--or desire--to accurately portray the news? Are their attitudes and opinions reflected in their use of the news media? And, are the demographics of the military market's use of the media substantially different from the general public's? This study is a first attempt at investigating these questions by gauging the general attitude of a highly select group of Air Force officers toward the media and by determining their media usage patterns.

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In the May 18, 1987, issue of the Air Force Times, Fred Reed of the United Press Syndicate argues that military and national press relations are "just short of war" (p. 78). Reed paints an image of two powerful monoliths separated by such a deep schism that the chances of any future detente are almost nonexistent. Despite the fact that Vietnam ended nearly fifteen years ago, it is, according to Reed, still the root of many of the difficulties between military people and the press. Many senior officers, he says, "insist that the press lost the war. By contrast, reporters think that they merely reported the fact that the U. S. military was losing it" (p. 78).

There is no doubt that Reed espouses the commonly held point of view, not only about the military's relations with the press, but the government's as well. More than a decade ago Fry (1975), addressing the deteriorating relationship between government and the national press, indicated that "news media and government criticism of each other has apparently reached a point of bitterness and hostility that exceeds the limits of a healthy adversary relationship. Both

the news media and the government are hypersensitive to criticism by the other. Neither is receptive to such criticism" (p. iv). As the Vietnam conflict drew to a close, Friendly (1971) predicted the frayed relations that would result between the press and the military. There has developed, Friendly reported, "such a climate of distrust between the government and the news media . . . that the end result may be a deadly sense of cynicism" (p. 20).

Nowhere should the air of distrust between the press and the military be stronger than in Washington, D. C., the seat of this nation's government. Because of the number of senior government officials and of the abundance of high-ranking military leaders, military news is highly salient in the capital area. If the distrust between the military and the media exists, it should be possible to substantiate it in Washington.

Purpose of the Study

Given the fertile research environment, a number of timely research questions emerge:

- * What are the general media use patterns of military officers assigned to the Pentagon and how do they compare with those of the nation as a whole?

* What is the level of confidence of military officers in the various news media?

* Does that level of confidence differ from medium to medium and does it change as one's rank increases?

In addition, the research instrument was designed to collect data on two secondary research questions, which provide a broader context from which to view officers' media usage. These questions probe the respondents' overall reading habits:

* What professional reading is done by military officers (with respect to their military specialty and to any related civilian specialty)?

* What part of officers' bookreading is military career-related?

Need for the Study

It is necessary to obtain Headquarters, United States Air Force, approval before any type of research is performed using Air Force subjects. The request for approval of this effort met with great enthusiasm, because it is the first time, according to informed sources, that anyone has undertaken a systematic analysis of the media usage habits of Air Force

officers. The Air Force has an extensive internal information program, but little research has been done concerning its utility. This study subtly addresses that question.

In many respects, the Pentagon is also Mecca for the military. Most senior leaders--and officers who become senior leaders--will serve at least one tour in the Pentagon, and some will serve many. While the opinions gathered in a survey of Pentagon officers may not be generalizable to the military as a whole, those opinions should be quite representative of those individuals who traditionally experience the greatest success with promotions. Such efforts, therefore, help this group better understand its own character.

There is also the question of the strained relationship between the media and the military. If it is real, it bears attention. Although it would be naive to expect to ever fully resolve disagreements between the two, it would most certainly be beneficial to understand why they occur. The better military officers understand their attitudes about the media, the more effective they will be as senior leaders.

It should be noted, too, that this study was conducted just two weeks before Lieutenant Colonel Oliver North appeared before the special joint congressional committee on the Iran-Contra Affair, a

period in which the relationship between the government and the national news media was particularly sensitive.

Assumptions and Limitations

The primary limitation of this study was in the selection of the sample. The data necessary to develop a meaningful random sample was available at the time of this study for Air Force officers only. Additionally, because of their workloads and because of the high likelihood that such a survey might be intercepted and filled out by a well-meaning subordinate, general officers were excluded from the survey. If this effort proves to be valuable, another study, involving face-to-face interviews with general officers, might be considered. Given this limitation, the sample was drawn from all Air Force officers in the grades of second lieutenant through colonel who were assigned to the Pentagon on April 30, 1987.

Since the sample was drawn from Air Force officers only, it also cannot be assumed that the results of the research are generalizable to members of the other services. Depending on the outcome of this effort, such ventures may be productive as follow-on studies to this one.

It is also important to keep in mind that this first effort is exploratory in nature. As a general rule, the questionnaire delves lightly into many areas, providing at best rough estimates of the salience of the various questions investigated. Officers' attitudes toward the media, for example, could be developed in much greater detail with a more sensitive instrument. But it will be left to future studies to fully investigate such questions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Historical Considerations

The conflict between the press and the military has existed as long as there have been printing presses and uniforms. The so-called "St. Clair Disaster" gave the fledgling American nation its first hint of the impending conflict between the press and the military. Nearly 600 American troops lost their lives in 1792 when Indians attacked the soldiers' encampment on the banks of the Wabash River. Claiming for the first time what later came to be known as "executive privilege," President George Washington refused to release information about the incident either to Congress or to the public (Rivers, 1970).

Since that time, military-press relations have been rocky and inconsistent. During the War of 1812, many newspapers decried American involvement in "a useless and unnecessary war" (Mott, 1969, p. 174), but they praised the victory at the Alamo twenty-five years later. The press also supported the Mexican War in 1836, a war which Americans were able to follow with relative timeliness, thanks to the invention of the

telegraph and to the first use of war pictures, which were printed from woodcuts (Mott, 1969).

The Civil War brought the first direct conflict between military commanders and the press, as reporters attempted to hone the new technique of battlefield reporting while the government, for the first time, formally attempted to censor news of the war. Press censorship and access to soldiers and the battlefield were the major concerns of the newspapermen covering the war. Relations between the press and some senior leaders were quite strained. General Sherman, for example, is said to have commented upon hearing of the death of three correspondents, "Good, now we shall have news of hell before breakfast" (Hohenberg, 1971).

For nearly a century after the Civil War, the nation was engaged in popular wars, characterized by strong support and cooperation between the press and the military. The slow movement into World War I and World War II, for example, allowed for a national debate of the issues and the building of a national consensus.

The Korean War began with little press censorship, but ended with strong disagreement between the military and the media. Expressing his concern not only for military information but for stories "that would injure the morale of U. S. Forces or would embarrass the United States" (Emery, 1978, p. 345),

General Douglas MacArthur at one point placed reporters under the Uniform Code of Military Justice, an order that was not withdrawn until the general was relieved. In many respects, the Korean conflict set the stage for the bitter feud which resurfaced between the press and the military during the Vietnam War. That feud was fanned again only half a decade ago as the government attempted to limit the press's involvement during the rescue of American students in Grenada.

One cause of this continuing feud is the press's concern that, when the military is cooperative, it is attempting to use the media. Bagdikian (1972) explored this aspect of the relationship.

The quantity of military secrets that appear in the press is directly related to appropriation hearings for the military services. If the Air Force wants a few billion dollars for a new weapons system, it leaks a few secrets that put the system in a good light. Two days later, the Navy leaks other secrets about the same weapons system showing that it fails much of the time. (p. 22).

Such manipulation may seem inconsistent and contradictory. In reality, however, it is not. According to Janowitz (1960), the military dislikes contradiction and, therefore, attempts to control journalists-- "particularly obnoxious sources of public criticism" (p. 395)--by controlling their access to information. In many cases, the military is successful since there are often no other reasonable sources of

information or verification. According to Strole (1970), such control of the news leads to the perception among journalists that reporters are little more than "kept lackeys," reporting news managed by the Pentagon. The military feels, as Fry (1975) pointed out, that such policies best serve the public interest; journalists, on the other hand, feel belittled and used, leading to greater antagonism on both sides.

It is within this historical context that the press-military relationship must be viewed. Given the lessons of history, it is not surprising that some animosity exists between the two. Reed (1987) argues that there is a natural divisiveness in their relationship.

We in the news racket tend to be bullheaded, assertive, superficially self-assured but with prickly egos beneath, and not very reverent toward authority. . . . A reporter spends most of his time being lied to by people who want either to manipulate him or to brush him off. . . . Officers also tend to be combative and superficially sure of themselves--not assured in reality, but very inclined toward respect for authority. (p. 78).

Survey of Research

The research relevant to this study falls into two broad categories: (1) past studies examining the military members' use of the media and their attitudes

toward those media; and, (2) readership, media usage and attitudinal research involving populations other than the military. Research relating to the military is extremely limited. Research that is available on other groups is more abundant but is still somewhat sketchy and equivocal, particularly as it relates to attitudes. Much of the meaningful recent research in the area of media usage has been performed on the effects of cable television, a relatively new technology, on media usage patterns.

Looking specifically at the military-related research, Raschke (1975) found that officers generally have a somewhat negative attitude toward the news media's performance. Winston (1965) had earlier determined that Army Generals were even more critical of journalists than was the total population of officers. Only 52 percent of Winston's sample of 100 generals in the Washington area felt the press was serving the people's right to know in an appropriate manner. Many of the generals believed the press stressed the sensational over the significant, and nearly one-third of them felt that pre-publication clearance of stories was appropriate.

Sharpe (1986) found similar sentiments among senior officer students at the Army War College, virtually all of whom had had experience in Southeast Asia. Only two

percent felt commanders should not have the authority to censor information concerning military operations. In contrast, however, better than 50 percent indicated a "moderate" to a "high" level of trust in the media.

Orwant and Ullman (1974) found Pentagon civilians to be more tolerant of the press than officers stationed at the Pentagon. From their sample of 204 officers and 110 male civilians, they discovered that officers generally showed more concern about the press's performance in covering military news. Approximately six of every ten officers sampled indicated that the publication of the Pentagon Papers was "more harmful than helpful" while only four of every ten civilians had similar feelings. Both groups, however, were uncertain about the press's ability to report military news in an objective manner.

Readership and attitude studies concerning the nation's civilian population are much more plentiful, but even they have their weaknesses. In an analysis of the types and kinds of research needed in the future, Gans (1983) addressed the need to place more emphasis on the investigation of news audiences. Gans singled out Bogart's 1981 treatise on newspaper audiences, Who Reads What, When, Where, and Why in American Newspapers, as the sort of work he is advocating. Bogart's 285-page analysis was, at the time of its publication, the

authoritative work on the public's reading habits and on their attitudes toward newspapers.

Bogart followed his book with another major effort in 1982, the Newspaper Readership Project, in which a national sample of 1,979 adults was asked to share information concerning their exposure to newspapers (and other media) and their attitudes about them. In his 1983 analysis of the results of that effort in Public Opinion Quarterly, Bogart found that about the same proportion of Americans, approximately 67 percent, are exposed to newspapers and television each day. However, only 30 percent identified the newspaper as their most important information source, compared with 45 percent for television. Radio accounted for only six percent of the responses.

Bogart confirmed the newspaper's role of providing follow-up, indepth news. Eighty percent of his respondents said "seeing the news on TV makes it easier to understand what's happening" (p. 712); however, 53 percent felt they did not get ample news from TV and indicated they needed the detail found in newspapers. Bogart also reported that a surprising 78 percent of newspaper readers read editorials, with 35 percent reporting that they read them on a regular basis.

To determine the public's attitude concerning newspapers, Bogart addressed nine different news topics

and asked his respondents to rate the job their newspaper was doing in each area. Not a single topic received a majority approval from readers as doing "a very good job." (p. 714) The range ran from 14 percent indicating "a very good job" on pollution problems to 44 percent on crime stories.

Bogart's work was preceded by a number of other excellent efforts. In 1979, the Library of Congress published the results of a report and seminar on the reading habits of Americans (Cole and Gold). The project was built around the results of a six-month survey conducted by Yankelovich, Skelly and White, Inc., and sponsored by the Book Industry Study Group, Inc. The effort surveyed the reading habits of 1450 Americans over the age of sixteen and was hailed as "the most comprehensive study on this topic thus far undertaken" (p. 3) The researchers reported that only six percent of Americans can be classified as non-readers. Of the 94 percent who do read, 39 percent reported reading only periodicals, such as newspapers and magazines while 55 percent reported reading at least one book in the past six months.

McEvoy and Vincent (1980) of Yankelovich, Skelly and White further explained their data in a special issue of the Journal of Communication concerning the reading habits of Americans. They reported that their

sample spent an average of 16 hours per week watching television, 15 hours listening to the radio, and ten hours per week reading. They could not substantiate, however, that involvement in other media directly reduced reading time, because of the wide variance in other variables, such as age and income, which affected the sample.

In the same issue of Journal of Communication, Robinson (1980) used four studies conducted between 1946 and 1977 to longitudinally analyze changes in reading habits. He documented an apparent decrease in newspaper reading from 77 percent of the sample in 1957 to 63 percent in 1978. The 1947 study, conducted by Schramm, was not directly comparable to the other three studies but reported estimated national newspaper readership at 85 percent of the population. Magazine and book readership remained a good deal more stable over the course of the study. The percentage of those reading a magazine "yesterday" ranged from 25 to 28 percent over the three latter studies while the percentage of those reading a book "yesterday" ranged from 17 to 22 percent. In Schramm's 1946 study, 38 percent were estimated to have read a magazine yesterday and an estimated 20 percent were credited with reading a book yesterday.

The data also hinted that it was young adults who accounted for much of the decrease in reading over the

30-year span of the study. Correlational analysis revealed, however, that this decline was evidenced only in certain types of reading materials. The young particularly derived little enjoyment from reading newspapers, Robinson reported.

Robinson and Jeffres (1981) looked at the phenomenon of declining young readers by analyzing newspaper exposure data from five major research efforts. Between 1965 and 1978, newspaper readership "yesterday" declined from 78 percent to 67 percent. Only one of the studies, however, surfaced the decline in newspaper readership among young adults. Robinson and Jeffres also reported that as television viewing increased, newspaper reading decreased.

Hornik and Schlinger (1981) took a somewhat different path to reach their conclusion that the media cannot be considered as substitutes for each other. Yet, they also found that radio and television account for approximately 80 percent of the time that individuals spend with the various media while only 20 percent is accounted for by the print media.

Roper (1983) tied previous surveys from his organization with two national stratified samples of 2,000 respondents each in 1982 to investigate the changing relationships among the various media. Roper found that Americans generally considered television to

be their main source of news, and even rated it as the most credible source. Wulfemeyer (1983) reported similar findings in his study of media exposure among San Diego residents. According to Wulfemeyer, 42 percent of his 400 respondents indicated that television was their major source of information for local news as compared to 29 percent for newspapers and 18 percent for radio.

Adams (1981) came to the opposite conclusion in his telephone survey of three communities in southern California. The majority of Adams' respondents reported using television as their main source of national and international news, but his sample indicated they used newspapers for local news. Becker, Sobowale and Casey (1979) took the question a bit further by delving into individuals' use and reliance on the various media for national and local government news. Their telephone survey instrument also included a measure of respondent knowledge of national and local government news. Their most salient finding was that persons who depended on television for their news of local government were less knowledgeable than those who depended on newspapers.

There have also been other approaches to the question of media usage. Reagan and Ducey (1983), in a systematic random telephone survey of nearly 600 residents of Lansing, Michigan, found that their

respondents watched an average of two hours of television during the previous day, listened to about two hours of radio, and spent approximately 45 minutes with their newspaper. The slant of their research was on the use of the media for state government news, and they learned that newspapers were by far the greatest source of such news. Nearly three-quarters of their sample reported using multiple sources to gather state government news.

Lynn and Bennett (1980) reported from their study of small non-metropolitan newspapers in Tennessee that readers have a strong orientation to their papers, a finding that possibly could be explained by the reduced number of information outlets available in such communities. Looking at another rural group, 1200 adults from a Northeastern county predominantly known for its farming, Poindexter (1980) found little difference in the television news viewing habits of his respondents from the national average. Approximately 67 percent of those sampled watched a television newscast on a regular basis. He did provide, however, some insight into the nonviewers. Twenty-one percent of his respondents watched no television news while another seven percent reported watching no network news. Only five percent indicated they did not watch local news. Poindexter also reported that most nonnews viewers used

some other medium, generally radio or newspapers, for their news.

The advent of cable television has compounded the media usage equation even further, but it has, as one would expect, also offered a fertile environment for research--not all of it consistent. Jeffres (1978), in a before-and-after study regarding the introduction of cable television into a community, found that television viewing time actually went down among respondents after they received cable. Kaplan (1978) found no evidence of a decline in television usage but did find that media habits changed considerably. The greatest losers with cable television, according to Kaplan, appear to be the local television stations. Becker, Dunwoody and Rafaeli (1983), in a study involving Columbus, Ohio's, Qube cable system, hypothesized that cable reduced the use of the radio for news and weather information. They also found, however, that cable subscription correlated positively with newspaper readership.

In recent years, media use by women has been a research area of great interest. These studies are particularly useful to this effort, since they represent the treatment in research of a specific segment of society. One report (Simmons Market Research, 1982) hypothesized that the media use patterns of working women run counter to the patterns of the population in

general. Radio is the medium of the working woman, according to the report. She spends more time with it than either newspapers or television. Johnson and Gross (1984) tested eleven hypotheses, concerning the use of the media by women in decision-making positions, and found that such women use the media as a method of communicating with each other. Andreasen and Steeves (1983) looked at media use of women based on a measure of their assertiveness. They concluded that assertive women listen to more news and read more professional women's magazines than other women.

What appears to be emerging from the research is a media environment that is in a constant state of change and growth. New technology leads to new options for the public, which leads to altered media usage habits. It is safe to hypothesize, for example, that television has had some effect on the newspaper, that it has affected over time the number of newspaper readers and their perception of what the newspaper is offering them, i. e., details versus immediacy. But it is difficult to venture far beyond that point. Bogart (1982) feels that a sort of equilibrium has been reached and that it is unlikely that great metropolitan newspapers will continue to die. He indicates, however, it is now clear the public wants from its newspapers more than a printed copy of television news. The public wants news on a wide

variety of subjects--and it wants depth. McCombs and Einseidel (1980) made similar observations following their major review of the motives, attitudes and content involved in explaining newspaper readership. Content, they argue, along with readers' attitudes toward the newspaper and their motivations for reading the paper, are essential variables in explaining newspaper readership.

The literature then, given some caveats, provides a reasonably well-defined model of media usage. In today's media environment, six to seven of every ten Americans watch television news and read a newspaper daily. A much smaller percentage rely on radio for their news. Approximately four out of ten individuals read magazines on a daily basis. For a high percentage of those Americans, just under half, view television as their primary information source. But many also indicate that the information is often too shallow, so they consequently must rely on newspapers to provide the detail. It is against that model that the media usage habits of Air Force officers will be compared.

A second area of concern in this study is the public's attitude toward the news media. Research in this area is fairly plentiful and provides a good baseline of comparison for the officer questionnaire. But it is quickly apparent that past studies have

uncovered very mixed feelings on the credibility and fairness of the media. Immerwahr and Doble (1982) offered the conclusion, based on their study of the public's attitudes toward the responsibilities of the media, that people "want and expect the communications media to provide equal coverage to opposing political candidates and to present both sides of controversial issues" (p. 177). In an analysis of a nationwide survey of nearly 3,000 individuals sponsored by the Los Angeles Times, Schneider and Lewis (1985) reported that both newspapers and television were given high marks by respondents for the quality and reliability of their reporting. When asked to rate the job the media they used most frequently were doing, respondents gave none of the media an overall negative rating.

But there were complaints in the study. The most prevalent concerned how journalists did their job--how they collected news. More than half the respondents felt the news media stressed the negative too much and often published information that should not have been published.

Gergen (1984), in a review of the literature regarding media credibility, reported Clark's findings that in 1984 some 50 percent of Americans felt the newspapers were unfair in their news coverage.

Similarly, 63 percent indicated their disagreement with the statement that "television stories are usually fair" (p. 6).

Izard (1984), reporting the results of a 1981 Washington Post telephone poll involving nearly 1,500 people, found a good deal of respect for the news media. Izard's questionnaire delved deeply into attitudes and opinions regarding the media, looking both at media praise and media criticism. On the negative side of his findings, he determined that half his respondents believed journalists intentionally asked more difficult questions to people with whom they disagreed. Even more important, he uncovered that almost 70 percent of those he polled felt that journalists "violate the privacy of individual citizens" (p. 250).

One of the most recent and most extensive studies of press credibility was the American Society of Newspaper Editors' two-phased effort in 1984-85 (McGrath and Gaziano, 1986). Phase one, a series of focus group interviews, was followed by phase two, a national telephone survey of more than 1,600 adults. More than a thousand of those adults also completed a mail questionnaire and a second telephone interview. Nearly six of ten respondents felt the press often takes advantage of ordinary people when they are getting their story. Only four of ten believed the daily newspaper

"tells the whole story" (p. 58). The results also indicated that attitudes concerning newspaper credibility are related to respondents' media use habits and to their views on press freedom.

Studies on media credibility abound (Greenberg, 1965; Meyer, 1973; Olien, Donohue and Tichenor, 1978; Paletz and Entman, 1981; and, Mulder, 1980, to name just a few). Despite the emphasis, however, research has developed no clear signals. On the one hand, it is obvious that the public manifests strong confidence in the media, but, on the other, they have shown a special sensitivity to situations in which the press oversteps its bounds. By a two-to-one margin, for example, the respondents in an ABC poll felt that the government should be given the right to censor news that might lead to a breach of national security (Gergen, 1984).

For the researcher looking for a model by which to gauge his or her findings, media credibility is not a "quick study." Consequently, the emphasis in this study will be on broad comparisons with past research and will focus on the direction and intensity of Air Force officers' feelings concerning the media.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Given the easy availability of the target population and the time constraints under which this study was performed, the sample survey provided the best vehicle for providing expeditious, meaningful results. Since the survey was considered to be exploratory in nature, the questionnaire was rather loosely structured, covering a wide variety of variables relating to the media use habits of Air Force officers rather than pursuing one or two variables in great depth.

The Sample

Nearly 3300 Air Force officers below the rank of General are stationed in the Pentagon. In order to draw a sample of those officers, a data file was developed using ATLAS, an Air Force-unique retrieval language designed to create statistical and by-name reports. An ATLAS inquiry was run against the Air Force's master personnel file, located at the Air Force Military Personnel Center in San Antonio, Texas. The inquiry pulled from the master personnel file all the active duty

U. S. Air Force officers who were assigned to offices located in the Pentagon. Officers assigned to the Headquarters, United States Air Force, the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the Department of Defense and to other support functions were all included in the inquiry.

As a rough estimate, to ensure results significant at the 95 percent confidence level or higher with an expected questionnaire return rate of 50 percent, approximately 500 officers should be sent questionnaires. To create that sample of 500, a computer routine was developed using the SAS (trademark) personal computer software package. Each of the 3300 individuals identified in the inquiry against the master file was assigned a uniform random number variable, and the resulting file was then sorted by increasing order. The first 500 names identified in this manner were used for the sample.

Ultimately, survey instruments (Appendix) were sent to 497 Air Force officers using the Department of Defense's internal Pentagon distribution system. Officers were informed in the cover letter (Appendix) accompanying the questionnaire that their participation was completely voluntary and that, should they elect to participate, they would in no way be individually identified in the report of findings. Addressed envelopes were included in each questionnaire package.

Surveys which were returned within ten days of distribution were included in the study. During that period, 305 surveys were returned for a return rate of better than 61 percent. Only five questionnaires, or one percent, were returned as being "undeliverable." That low rate is directly attributable to the currency of the personnel file from which the sample was drawn.

As a test of the strength of the sample, several comparisons were made with known characteristics of all Air Force officers serving in the Pentagon. On all counts, the sample proved to approximate the universe from which it was drawn.

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the internal checks on the sample. In Table 1, the number of Air Force officers serving in each grade in the Pentagon was compared with the number in each grade returning the questionnaire. The mean of the combined difference for all grades was 1.1 percent with no grade having more than a 2.1 percent individual difference.

The source of entry into the Air Force for the Pentagon population of officers and the sample group was also compared. Officers enter the Air Force in one of four ways: (1) through the Air Force Academy; (2) through the Officers Training School; (3) through Air Force Reserve Officers Training during college; or, (4) as a direct appointee in a special program, such as the

TABLE 1

GRADES OF OFFICERS SERVING IN PENTAGON
VERSUS OFFICERS RETURNING QUESTIONNAIRE
(AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL)

	Pentagon	Sample
Second Lieutenant	1.8%	3.0%
First Lieutenant	3.9%	4.0%
Captain	17.3%	18.8%
Major	25.8%	27.1%
Lieutenant Colonel	35.4%	33.3%
Colonel	15.8%	16.2%

TABLE 2

COMMISSION SOURCE OF PENTAGON OFFICERS
VERSUS OFFICERS RETURNING QUESTIONNAIRE
(AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL)

	Pentagon	Sample
Air Force Academy	14.7%	15.8%
Officers Training School	33.5%	36.3%
Air Force ROTC	49.2%	45.9%
Direct Commission	2.5%	2.0%

Medical Corps. The sample again mirrored the population in the percentage that entered through each program, as shown in Table 2.

A third internal test on the data involved the flying status of the officers surveyed. In the general Pentagon population, approximately 35.5 percent of the officers carry aeronautical ratings as either a pilot or navigator. The remaining 64.5 percent of Air Force officers in the Pentagon are nonrated, meaning that they are not trained as pilots or navigators. In the sample, 61.7 percent of the respondents were nonrated and the remaining 38.3 percent were rated.

From these internal tests, it appears that the sample validly represents the target population and that inferences suggested by the data can be applied to the entire complement of officers assigned to the Pentagon.

Instrumentation

Prior to developing the survey instrument, a review of current literature and opinion regarding mail surveys was undertaken to ensure that "state-of-the-art" techniques were used. Questionnaires for this study were not mailed, but were disseminated through the Pentagon

distribution system. The closed nature of the system alleviates many of the burdens and concerns of mailing. Since the researcher still has to contend with the question of anonymity, survey length and the like, however, much of the research still applies.

Haskins (1977) discussed one of the most critical concerns of the researcher, the need for "naturalness" in research. Tunnell (1977) had earlier explored the three dimensions of naturalness: natural settings, natural treatment, and natural behavior. Haskins' concern was with developing instruments and techniques that gauge "real" behavior and attitudes as opposed to forced instruments that bias results and ultimately findings.

Perhaps the most studied aspect of survey research may very well be the effect of the inclusion of a stamped, addressed envelope in the survey package. Certainly, the conventional wisdom is that including an envelope increases the response rate, and, one was, therefore, included with the questionnaire for this research. In an early study concerning this variable, Ferris (1951) experienced only a 26 percent response rate in his control group, those who received only an envelope, as compared to a 62 percent rate for the group which received the stamped, addressed envelope.

Survey length is a particularly perplexing variable as it regards mail surveys. It seems almost intuitively obvious that the shorter the survey, the better the response rate, but the research has not borne out that supposition. Mason, Dressel and Bain (1961) reported no significant difference when they tested a long questionnaire against a short one. Scott (1961) obtained similar results from research which analyzed the effects on response rate of two short questionnaires as opposed to one long one. Herzog and Bachman (1981), however, did find a "straight-line" response bias on long questionnaires. According to their research, respondents are more likely to give the same answers on questions in the latter part of long questionnaires.

Very little research has been performed on the use of cover letters, according to Kanuk and Berenson in their 1975 review of mail survey literature. One reason may be the absolute need to explain the purpose and use of a survey to potential respondents. The importance of insuring anonymity to respondents, however, does not suffer from the same lack of research. It is common practice to assure anonymity to respondents in one's cover letter, expecting that such an action will increase the return rate, but the research does not validate this belief. Pearlin's (1961) study compared the behavior of industrial workerw who were given the option of signing

or not signing a questionnaire. He found that both groups were equally likely to sign their questionnaires. Rosen (1960) found that, unless the questionnaire involves issues that are perceived as highly threatening to the respondent, identification is not a critical factor in the return rate.

For the Air Force, maintaining a respondent's anonymity is more a question of policy than of maximizing the response rate. Research into the media viewing habits of Air Force officers could yield unpopular results, which some might think could be used against the officers involved. For that reason, the Air Force generally requires all social and attitudinal research to solicit anonymous responses.

Research also does not support the view that fancy or expensive packaging of surveys improves response rate. Ford (1968), for example, experienced no better return rate with a printed questionnaire than he did with a mimeographed one. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) also found that the color of the paper on which the questionnaire was printed does not matter.

It is quite likely that response rate for this questionnaire was improved by many factors that are peculiar to the Pentagon or to other closed environments. Respondents are quite used to getting reproduced documents to complete and would not consider it unusual

to find a questionnaire of a similar nature in their in-baskets. Besides the five minutes required to fill out the questionnaire, the process required little effort. After completing the survey instrument, a respondent could simply seal it and put it in his out-basket. Several respondents did, however, go to extraordinary lengths to return their questionnaires. A number were mailed, at the respondents' expense, from outside the building, and others were hand-delivered to the office of origin. There is also a sense of comradery among officers, and many would be inclined to respond, if for no other reason than to fulfill the request of a fellow officer.

Survey bias, particularly as it might follow from the context of a given set of questions, was a particular concern as this research was planned. News media performance is considered to be a much "cussed and discussed" topic among military people and, as a result, implications in the questionnaire in support of or criticizing such performance could bias the results. Contextual bias is well established in the literature. For example, Schuman, Presser and Ludwig (1981) found much different responses to the same question concerning abortion in two highly respected surveys, one performed by the National Opinion Research Center and the other by the Survey Research Center. By using two split-ballot

question order experiments, they were able to show that the difference in responses was caused by the questions preceding the ones being tested.

Using this theoretical background, a three-page questionnaire was produced. A sample of the questionnaire can be found in the Appendix.

Part I of the questionnaire attempted to identify respondents' exposure to the various media and their preferred source for various types of information. Part II was designed to gather data on the respondents' attitudes regarding the media. Questions 1 through 3 were based on similar questions in Sharpe's (1986) examination of the attitudes of senior officers at the Army War College concerning the media. Question 4 asked respondents to indicate "the level of trust placed in the various media."

Part III inquired into the respondents' professional and bookreading habits, asked whether they subscribed to cable television and collected basic demographic information. No age, sex, income or education information was collected because of the homogeneity of the group being surveyed. Rank, one of the demographic variables surveyed, provides a rough estimate of age and income. As far as education is concerned, better than 99 percent of Air Force officers have college degrees and nearly 80 percent have advanced degrees. Approximately

ten percent of all officers are women. Since their numbers are relatively limited, it was decided that they would not provide enough representation in the sample to be tracked and analyzed as a separate group.

Two pre-tests were performed on the questionnaire. In the first iteration of the instrument, attitudes toward the media were measured by approximately a dozen bipolar adjectives in the semantic differential format. It was determined, however, during a pre-test involving six volunteer officers that the number of bipolar sets would have to be increased significantly to provide a meaningful test of attitude. Such emphasis would reduce the other data that could be collected and would alter the exploratory thrust of the study. For that reason, the semantic differential portion of the questionnaire was replaced with closed-ended questions.

There was a good deal of concern about the questions drawn from Sharpe's (1986) study. Question 2 of Part II of the questionnaire, for example, asked respondents to order the government, media and military as being most to least "responsible for the outcome of the Vietnam War." The question was useful because it offered an interesting and perhaps meaningful comparison with data gathered on Army officers. There has been so much discussion of Vietnam in the military that even a mention of "who caused it?" might bias the rest of the survey. During

the second pre-test, this issue was discussed at great length, but the five officers participating felt there was minimal bias, if any at all.

Two additional difficulties with the questionnaire were discovered too late to be corrected. "News magazines" were included in question 1, part I of the questionnaire, and respondents were asked to reflect their exposure: "See Daily or Nearly Everyday;" "Less Often than Daily;" or, "Seldom." Such choices are obviously unreasonable, so the data collected on this variable were disregarded.

The second oversight was the lack of parallelism of the choices listed as examples of news media in question 4, part I. Two of the choices, "60 Minutes" and "20-20," are from commercial television while the third is the "Cable News Network." Such imbalance could conceivably have biased inputs to the open-ended question. For that reason, the question was coded but was not treated as a major variable.

Questionnaires were disseminated on June 4, 1987, and most were received by respondents on the following morning. A total of 48 variables were measured by instrument.

Data Collection and Statistical Analysis

All questionnaires received on or before June 15, 1987, were included in the analysis of the data. As the questionnaires were received, they were immediately entered into an ASCII database file, built on an 80-column format.

Prior to beginning the analysis of the data, several decisions were made regarding the statistical tests that would be used to determine the significance of the findings. There was some initial concern that the data would, in large part, represent distribution-free universes and could, therefore, not be analyzed with statistics which assume a sample from a normal distribution. After a thorough review of this issue, the assumption was made, as stated by Huck, Cormier and Bounds (1974), that "most parametric statistics are robust against violations of normality and homogeneity" (p. 197).

For the most part, descriptive statistics were used to investigate the major research issues of this paper. Given the sample size, the maximum standard sampling error for data at the 95 percent confidence level was computed to be plus/minus 5.5 percent.

Correlation tables were also printed for each variable, listing the correlations for that variable with

all other variables in order from highest to lowest absolute value. The intent was to uncover any statistically significant relationships which might exist between the variables but which might not be obvious from simple analysis. A number of small but significant relationships was discovered between the variables. The relationships appeared generally to add little to the understanding of the key research questions, however, so they are not reported. Table 3, a listing of significant correlations between the key demographic variables (rank, aeronautical ratings, and source of commission), is as an example of the analysis that was performed.

Throughout the paper, rank was treated as the primary control variable, because it is the variable which best explains the sample population. Rank in the military connotes level of responsibility and depth of experience. It also gives, as mentioned earlier, a good indication of age range and income level. To preclude difficulties arising from small cell sizes, the variable was divided into three homogeneous groups for analysis purposes: (1) junior officers, consisting of second and first lieutenants and captains; (2) field grade officers, the Air Force's mid-level managers, consisting of major and lieutenant colonels; and, (3) colonels, or senior officers. While colonels obviously do not have the

TABLE 3
SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS
WITH RANK, RATING AND SOURCE VARIABLES

	Correlation	Significance
<u>Rank</u>		
Exposure to National News in a Newspaper	-0.30	0.0001
Exposure to "Current News"	-0.23	0.0001
Confidence in National TV	-0.21	0.0002
Exposure to Editorial Page	-0.20	0.0007
Exposure to Local News	-0.20	0.0007
Most Accurate Source of News	-0.17	0.0040
Constructed "Trust"		
in News Media	-0.15	0.0118
Time Spent with Newspaper	-0.12	0.0442
<u>Aeronautical Rating</u>		
Exposure to National News in a Newspaper	0.20	0.0006
Exposure to "Current News"	0.18	0.0015
Exposure to National News on Television	0.16	0.0059
Constructed "Trust"		
in News Media	0.15	0.0114
Confidence in News on Local Television	0.12	0.0407
<u>Source of Commission</u>		
Amount of Radio Listening	0.12	0.0362
Change in Views of Radio News?	-0.12	0.0394

responsibility or authority of general officers, they are nonetheless considered to be the Air Force's first line of senior management. Colonels, for example, hold positions as wing commanders and deputy chiefs of staff at the Major Air Command level. In the Pentagon, they could reasonably be expected to be serving as a senior deputy in a directorate or as a major division chief. When the chi square statistic for cross-tabulations involving this variable was significant, it was reported.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

There is a natural conflict between the soldier and the press, a conflict which over the years has, at least publicly, been characterized by strained and troubled relations. Yet, despite the rhetoric, if the results of this study are to be believed, Air Force officers not only use the news media, they place great faith in it. If, as Izard (1984) offered, people's "trust of media is related to their evaluation of how well the news media live up to their expectations" (p. 247), the media is at least somewhat successful in meeting the expectations of this group.

The purpose of this chapter is to report the results of this effort, based on the original research questions presented in Chapter I. Essentially, those questions include identifying the general media use patterns of Air Force officers in the Pentagon, examining their level of confidence in the media, comparing attitudes for the various media by rank, and looking into the professional reading habits of Air Force officers.

Media Exposure and Use

Part I, of the survey probed Air Force officers' exposure to the media. Air Force officers are heavy users of the news media. Better than 80 percent of the respondents indicated that they see a newspaper "daily or nearly everyday." Bogart's (1984) study, in contrast, reported that only 67 percent of the population as a whole read a newspaper daily. Officers also view more television news than the general public, as 74 percent said they use that medium on a daily basis. Previous studies have shown daily exposure to television news to be roughly equivalent to exposure to newspapers (Bogart, 1984; Robinson and Jeffres, 1981). Officers are also heavy users of radio news with greater than 71 percent indicating they listen to broadcasts on a "daily or nearly everyday" basis.

Air Force officers also read the editorial page, but only at about the same rate as the rest of the nation (Bogart, 1984). Approximately four out of ten reported that they read editorials "daily or almost daily." At least seven of ten read them on an occasional basis. Table 4 summarizes the data collected on exposure.

TABLE 4

EXPOSURE BY MEDIA

QUESTION 1: PLEASE CHECK THE COLUMN THAT MOST
ACCURATELY REFLECTS YOUR EXPOSURE TO THE FOLLOWING:

	See Daily Or Nearly Everyday	Less Often Than Daily	Seldom
National News in a newspaper	80.2%	15.5%	4.3%
Local News in a Newspaper	55.9%	31.0%	13.1%
Editorial Page 1 in a newspaper	40.9%	33.3%	25.8%
National Television News	73.8%	19.9%	6.3%
Local Television News		55.2%	
28.1% 16.7%			
Radio News	71.1%	17.3%	11.6%
Current News			
<u>Early Bird</u>	51.3%	29.5%	19.2%

One of the entries above, the "Current News Early Bird," is an Air Force-unique news source. On a daily basis, the Secretary of the Air Force's Public Affairs Division publishes this compendium of military news stories from the national media (radio and television reports are summarized). Some feel that this "gate-keeping" function sets the "media agenda" for the Air Force in the Pentagon. Others have hypothesized that the strong "play" of stories from publications across the nation leads to the perception among Pentagon officers that military news is more salient nationally than it really is. There is also a feeling that everyone reads the Early Bird, a feeling that proved to be untrue. In reality, only 51 percent of the officers reported seeing the publication on a regular basis. More importantly, however, as Table 5 indicates, better than 88 percent of the senior officers responding to the survey said they see the Early Bird "daily or nearly everyday." In comparison, only 38 percent of the junior officers reported seeing it on the same regularity.

In its first test in this study, rank proved to be a true discriminator of media usage. Ninety percent of senior officers indicated they read national news in a newspaper "daily or nearly everyday" and better than half

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF EXPOSURE VARIABLES BY RANK

Rank	See Daily Or Nearly Everyday	Less Often Than Daily	Seldom
<u>National News in a Newspaper</u>			
Junior Officers	62%	29%	10%
Field Graders	85%	13%	3%
Senior Officers	90%	8%	2%
<u>Editorial Page in a Newspaper</u>			
Junior Officers	28%	37%	34%
Field Graders	42%	33%	25%
Senior Officers	52%	30%	18%
<u>National News on Television</u>			
Junior Officers	77%	19%	4%
Field Graders	72%	20%	8%
Senior Officers	78%	18%	4%
<u>Local News on Television</u>			
Junior Officers	61%	19%	19%
Field Graders	56%	29%	15%
Senior Officers	46%	37%	17%
<u>News on Radio</u>			
Junior Officers	73%	10%	17%
Field Graders	68%	23%	10%
Senior Officers	80%	9%	11%
<u>Exposure to "Early Bird"</u>			
Junior Officers	38%		
Field Graders	46%		
Senior Officers	88%		

said they read the editorial page almost daily. In comparison, only 62 percent of the junior officers in the survey said they read the national news in a newspaper on a regular basis, and only 28 percent indicated they read the editorial page "daily or nearly everyday." This finding is consistent with earlier studies (Robinson, 1980) which reported that much of the decline in newspaper readership was among young adults. Exposure to local news on television for all groups showed little variance, hovering in the 50 to 60 percent range.

Another measure of exposure is the amount of time individuals invest in the various media. Tables 6 and 7 summarize the findings in this area. As a group, officers invest heavily in television. Nearly 43 percent watch "more than an hour but less than two hours" per day. Three out of ten watch more than two hours per day. National network news is one of the programs included in their daily media budget. Sixty-two percent said they watched a major network newscast (ABC, CBS and NBC) on a regular basis. Another 23 percent indicated they watched network news "less often than daily." When the data was separated by rank, only minor variations were observed, as reported in Table 8.

TABLE 6

DAILY TIME SPENT WITH NEWSPAPER

QUESTION 5: HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU
SPEND READING NEWSPAPERS IN A DAY?

Half an hour or less	Half hour to one hour	One hour or more	Don't know
45.8%	43.2%	10.3%	0.7%

TABLE 7

TIME SPENT WATCHING TV AND LISTENING TO
RADIO WEEKLY

QUESTION 7: HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU SPEND WATCHING
TV AND LISTENING TO THE RADIO IN AN AVERAGE WEEK?

	Didn't at all	An Average of hour or less/day	More than one but less than two hours/day	More than two hours per day
Radio	3.1%	56.0%	26.1%	14.7%
TV	2.0%	25.2%	42.9%	29.9%

TABLE 8
AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT WATCHING TV
OR LISTENING TO RADIO
BY RANK

	Didn't at all	An Average of hour or less/day	More than one but less than two hours/day	More than two hours per day
<u>"Watched TV"</u>				
Junior Ofcrs	1%	33%	39%	27%
Field Grdrs	3%	23%	42%	31%
Senior Ofcrs	0%	22%	50%	28%
<u>"Listened to Radio"</u>				
Junior Ofcrs	4%	54%	18%	24%
Field Grdrs	2%	58%	27%	12%
Senior Ofcrs	7%	50%	35%	9%

The officers surveyed also spend considerable time each day with their newspapers. Nearly 54 percent indicated they spend more than half an hour a day reading the news. Juniors officers spend less than the average time each day with their newspaper--six of ten spend less than a half an hour with it--while nearly half of both the field grade officers and the senior officers spend between half an hour and an hour reading the paper. Almost a fifth of the senior officers indicated they spend more than an hour with a newspaper each day.

Radio is also a popular medium with the military. Sixty-six percent of the respondents indicated they spent "an average of an hour or less per day" with the radio, and 41 percent reported spending an even greater amount of time with the medium. The analysis of radio use by rank, as reviewed in Table 8, revealed approximately the same pattern with one notable exception: the percentage of junior officers spending two hours or more with the radio (24 percent) is nearly three times the senior officers' (9 percent) and twice the field graders' (12 percent). Given the age spread of junior officers, from approximately 22 to 32, this finding is not surprising.

McEvoy and Vincent (1980) indicated that the average American spends 16 hours per week watching television and another 15 listening to radio. Although the respondents in this study were not asked to give a weekly estimate of time expended with television and radio, it does not appear from their daily usage that any of the groups spend as much time as the national average with either medium.

In question 6, Part I, respondents were also asked about the news magazines they read on a regular basis. Just over a third of the officers said they read no news magazine, a percentage that is consistent with McEvoy and Vincent's (1980) finding for the population as a whole. Readers were almost evenly split between Time (15 percent), Newsweek (13 percent) and U. S. News and World Report (14 percent) with several other publications, such as the Washington-based Insight, having small followings among Pentagon officers.

Analysis of the remaining variables as they relate to exposure yielded little of significance. One observation is worthy of mention, however. In question 4, Part I, respondents were asked to list any additional news sources they attend to on a regular basis. There was a broad difference in the percentage of nonresponses by

rank. Only 12 percent of the senior officers failed to list at least one other news source compared to 33 percent for the field graders and 29 percent for the junior officers. As has been observed throughout this analysis, senior officers reported more involvement with the media, possibly because their responsibilities are broader and their information needs are, therefore, greater.

Officers' Preferences of News Sources

Officers' preferences of news sources also indicate some deviation from the expected patterns within the general population, as shown by Table 9. In the overall sample, 42 percent of the respondents indicated they preferred newspapers for national news compared to 47 percent for television. In Bogart's (1982) study, only 30 percent of those sampled said newspapers were their preferred source of news. When the sample was broken down by rank (Table 10), significant differences were found. For example, only 30 percent of senior officers indicated television as their choice for national news, preferring instead to depend on newspapers (49 percent).

TABLE 9

PREFERRED SOURCE
BY TYPE OF INFORMATION

Question 2: Please check the appropriate column to indicate the source you prefer for various types of information.

	News— papers	TV	Radio	Maga— zines	Don't know or Other
National News	41.6%	46.7%	6.7%	4.7%	0.4%
Local News	37.6%	44.9%	14.2%	0.7%	2.6%
Sports	40.1%	41.2%	6.9%	1.9%	9.9%
Business News	46.3%	13.0%	3.7%	31.9%	5.2%

TABLE 10

PREFERRED SOURCE OF NEWS BY RANK

	Television	Newspaper
<u>National News</u>		
Junior Officers	31%	68%
Field Graders	44%	43%
Senior Officers	49%	30%
<u>Local News</u>		
Junior Officers	19%	56%
Field Graders	43%	43%
Senior Officers	41%	36%

The respondents, as a group, showed a slight preference for television over the newspaper as the source of local news (44.9 percent versus 37.6 percent). By rank, however, preferences differed greatly. Junior officers overwhelmingly favored television for local news while senior officers continued, although only slightly, their preference for newspapers. The finding follows the newspaper preference pattern already established for senior officers, but it may also be partially explained by the lower salience of local news among the junior officers. Junior officers, who are likely to watch local news on TV, are young, extremely mobile and have a variety of interests outside the community. If they have children, they are likely to be quite young. Senior officers, on the other hand, are usually older, own property in the community and have children in school there, and pay local taxes. Their vested interest in the community may explain their need for detailed local information, and consequently their preference for the newspaper to obtain such news. Bogart (1984) documented this special role of newspapers, a finding which Adams (1981) corroborated. It should also be noted, however, that in Wulfemeyer's (1983) examination of sources of local news, 42 percent of the respondents said television

was their major source of local news compared to 29 percent for newspapers.

The respondents were almost evenly divided on their preferred source for sports news with 40 percent indicating newspapers and another 41 percent indicating television. For business news, 47 percent of the sample preferred newspapers but another 32 percent listed magazines as their preference. Only 13 percent said they preferred television for business news.

For each type of information, radio provides a slight but significant alternative for those sampled. Just under five percent of the sample said they preferred radio for national news, some of them specifically identifying public radio as their choice. Another 14 percent liked radio for local news.

Level of Confidence in the Media

The second major research question addressed by this study concerns the level of confidence of military officers in the various media. To investigate this question, officers were asked to respond to several questions delving into their attitudes and opinions

concerning the media. One set of questions, reproduced in Tables 11 and 12, is similar to questions asked by Sharpe (1986) in his survey of Army officers. In these questions, which were questions 1 and 2 of Part II of the questionnaire, those sampled were asked to rank-order news sources from most to least accurate and to provide their opinions of who was responsible for the outcome of the Vietnam War. The second set of questions, questions 3 and 4 of the same section of the survey, were designed to provide a broad estimate of officers' attitudes toward the media. Respondents were asked to rate a number of news media based on how their attitudes have changed over the years concerning those media and based on their current level of trust in the media.

The print media again was identified as the favored media by respondents. The two options to question 1 which ranked the print media as the most accurate source of news were chosen by more than 61 percent of the respondents. In Sharpe's (1934) study, his respondents selected the same options 78.1 percent of the time. Significant also is the fact that 29 percent of those surveyed selected choices listing television as the most accurate source of news.

Table 13 presents an analysis fo responses by rank.

TABLE 11

QUESTION 1: WHICH ORDER BEST DESCRIBES YOUR VIEW
OF THE MOST ACCURATE SOURCE OF NEWS (MOST TO LEAST)?

Print Radio TV	Print TV Radio	Radio TV Print	Radio Print TV	TV Radio Print	TV Print Radio
33.2%	28.0%	5.6%	3.8%	15.0%	14.0%

TABLE 12

QUESTION 2: IN WHICH ORDER WERE THE FOLLOWING
RESPONSIBLE FOR THE OUTCOME OF THE VIETNAM WAR
(MOST TO LEAST)?

Gov't M'tary Media	Gov't Media M'tary	Media Gov't M'tary	Media M'tary Gov't	M'tary Gov't Media	M'tary Media Gov't
24.7%	49.8%	24.4%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%

TABLE 13

MOST ACCURATE NEWS SOURCE BY RANK

Rank	Print Radio TV	Print TV Radio	Radio TV Print	Radio Print TV	TV Radio Print	TV Print Radio
Jun Ofcrs	17%	32%	5%	2%	24%	21%
Fld Grdrs	36%	27%	6%	4%	13%	13%
Sen Ofcrs	49%	14%	13%	27%	9%	10%

Even though junior officers selected options listing print media as the most accurate source of news 49 percent of the time, they favored the choice listing television as the second most accurate medium 32 percent of the time. Senior officers, on the other hand, chose options with print as number one 63 percent of the time, but they selected the option with television as the second most accurate medium only 14 percent of the time. It is interesting, too, that junior selected choices listing television as the most accurate medium 45 percent of the time while senior officers selected such an option less than half that often (19 percent). As seems to be in most of the comparisons in this study, field grades officers are solidly in the middle of these two groups. Except in the case of junior officers, these findings contradict Roper's (1983) study of attitudes toward television which suggested that it was the most credible source.

Responses to the question of who was responsible for the Vietnam War also yielded interesting results. By a two-to-one margin, respondents selected media as the secondary cause behind the government. Nearly 75 percent listed the government as the primary cause. Another 25 percent listed the media as the primary cause.

The break-out was remarkably similar when separated by rank. A slightly greater number of senior officers saw the media as the primary cause of the Vietnam outcome (29 percent as opposed to 25 percent for the junior officers and 22 percent for the field graders). Other differences were insignificant.

It is surprising that in the Army study even fewer officers saw the media to blame in the outcome of the war. Only 17 percent of Army respondents selected an option listing the media as primarily to blame compared to nearly 25 percent for the Air Force.

Questions 3 and 4, listed in Tables 14 and 15 below, produced the most surprising results of the survey. Question 4 will be analyzed first, followed by question 3. Given the relatively high education level of officers, it was expected that there would be mild support for the news media despite the general conservative environment of the Pentagon. Yet, when asked to rate the level of confidence in the various media, the officers indicated unexpectedly strong confidence in all of them. Even national television news, the bane of many military officers (or so it had been assumed), received a "high" or "moderate" vote of confidence from more than 60 percent of those surveyed. Newspapers fared even better,

TABLE 14

QUESTION 3: HOW HAVE YOUR VIEWS CHANGED OVER
THE YEARS CONCERNING THE VARIOUS NEWS MEDIA?

	Radio News	Local TV News	National TV News	News- papers
good to poor	10.9%	12.5%	31.6%	18.1%
poor and stayed poor	14.3%	16.9%	22.6%	17.1%
good and stayed good	51.4%	41.9%	35.4%	53.4%
poor to good	9.9%	19.3%	6.7%	5.4%
don't know	13.6%	9.5%	3.7%	6.0%

TABLE 15

QUESTION 4: HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE THE LEVEL
OF TRUST PLACED IN THE VARIOUS NEWS MEDIA?

	Radio News	Local TV News	National TV News	Cable TV News	News- papers
low	14.9%	16.3%	39.2%	11.0%	23.8%
moderate	73.3%	69.7%	47.0%	51.8%	60.9%
high	11.8%	13.9%	13.9%	37.2%	15.3%

being rated in the "high" or "moderate" categories by 76 percent of the sample. Cable television was given the highest confidence rating of all with 89% of the respondents rating it in the "high" or "moderate" categories.

When the sample is broken down by rank, broad differences in attitudes are uncovered. As Table 16 indicates, junior officers were only a third as likely to list their level of confidence in national television news as "low" as were the senior officers. Some distrust of newspapers by senior officers also shows up as 31 percent of the senior officer sample chose "low" confidence in the medium compared to only 14 percent for junior officers. Field grade officers were again in the middle. All the respondents expressed great confidence in the newest news medium, cable television news, with the indicated level confidence ranging from 84 to 90 percent for the three groups.

Two additional analyses were performed on the level of confidence data. Since better than 93 percent of the newspaper subscribers in the study took the Washington Post, a paper which receives much criticism from military officials, the level of confidence in newspapers variable was resorted to examine the responses of Post

TABLE 16
LEVEL OF CONFIDENCE IN THE VARIOUS MEDIA
BY RANK

Rank	Low	Moderate	High
<u>In National Television News</u>			
Junior Officers	23.53%	51.47%	25.00%
Field Graders	39.55%	49.72%	10.73%
Senior Officers	61.22%	28.57%	10.20%
<u>In Newspapers</u>			
Junior Officers	13.85%	67.69%	18.46%
Field Graders	25.70%	60.34%	13.97%
Senior Officers	31.25%	52.08%	16.67%
<u>In Cable TV News</u>			
Junior Officers	9.23%	36.92%	53.85%
Field Graders	10.24%	58.43%	31.33%
Senior Officers	16.33%	48.98%	34.69%

subscribers. There were no significant differences in the responses between those who took the Post and those who did not, as Table 17 illustrates.

TABLE 17
LEVEL OF CONFIDENCE IN NEWSPAPERS

	Low	Moderate	High
<u>Washington Post</u> Readers Only	24.24%	59.31%	16.45%
All Subscribers	24.19%	59.68%	16.13%
All Respondents	23.80%	60.90%	15.30%
<u>Washington Post</u> Sample: 231 (93.15% of Subscribers)			
Total Sample: 294			

A second analysis involved a review of the level of confidence in the national television news variable cross-tabulated with respondents' history of watching network television news. The data revealed that 57 percent of those who indicated a low level of confidence in television news watched network news "daily or nearly everyday" while nearly 80 percent of those who listed a

high level of confidence watched with the same regularity. These results are reflected in Table 18 below.

TABLE 18
LEVEL OF CONFIDENCE IN NATIONAL TV
BY HOW OFTEN NATIONAL NETWORK NEWS IS WATCHED

Confidence in National TV	Daily or Nearly Everyday	Less Than Daily	Seldom
Low	56.52%	22.61%	20.87%
Moderate	61.31%	28.47%	10.22%
High	78.05%	9.76	12.20%

Note: Chi Square Value equals 12.071;
significant at the .05 level

But not all is rosy between the media and the military. As Table 19 indicates, a significant number of respondents expressed "poor" opinions in their response to question 3 of Part II, which asked how their views had changed over the years regarding the various media. Newspaper again, however, were more highly rated than national television news. Sixty-four of a hundred senior officers said their view of national television

TABLE 19

PERCENTAGE BY RANK INDICATING THEIR VIEWS OF
MEDIA AS "POOR AND STAYED POOR" OR "GOOD TO POOR"

Rank	National TV News	Newspapers
Junior Officers	44%	34%
Field Graders	56%	37%
Senior Officers	64%	32%

news was either "poor and stayed poor" or had regressed from "good to poor." Some 44 percent of the junior officers and 56 percent of the senior officers agreed with them. Newspapers were rated either as "poor and stayed poor" or as "good to poor" by 37 percent of the field grade officers, 34 percent of the junior officers and only 32 percent of the senior officers. Put another way, 68 percent of the senior officers sampled indicated their view of newspapers was either "good and stayed good" or had switched from "poor to good."

On the face of it, these findings might not appear to be terribly logical, but it should be remembered that military officers are trained to place great faith in the

American system. A number of respondents, in personal notes on their questionnaires, indicated that, even though they might not always agree with the news media, the media were absolutely necessary to maintaining freedom in this country.

A second factor may be the broad nature of the questions. It is common practice for one to see oneself as the exemplar of the "norm" and to see those who disagree as the minority. Such may be the case in these responses. Officers generally have great faith in the media as a whole, because, they believe, the vast majority of the media represents their point of view. Had the questions been more specific, delving into their opinions about CBS or the Washington Post, the responses might have been quite different.

Toward A Valid Measure of Confidence

Thus far, attitudes toward individual media have been reviewed. To develop an overall measure of level of confidence for the entire spectrum of news media, two variables were constructed. Variable I, the TRUST variable, combined the scores from the five variables

asking respondents to rate their level of confidence in the various media. Variable II, the VIEWS variable, combined the scores of the four variables which asked participants to rate how their views of the various media had changed. A new scale, based on the combined range of possible scores for each choice of responses, was then developed for each variable. The entire data set was restructured with the two new variables present as separate and distinct entities. To ensure the validity of the newly constructed variables, a correlation coefficient was run for each against each of the variables of which it was comprised. Correlations registered at the 0.6 level or better with a significance of 0.0001.

Under the constructed TRUST variable, which is summarized in Table 20, better than 90 percent of the officers surveyed reported a "high" to "moderate" level of confidence in the media. This percentage is somewhat higher than the individual ratings for level of confidence, because each option ("Low," "Moderate," or "High") represents a range of possible scores rather than an individual score.

Table 21 graphically portrays the strength of this variable. Junior officers indicated level of confidence

TABLE 20
CONSTRUCTED VARIABLES

Measure	Percentage
<u>Calculated Level of Trust</u>	
Low	8.4%
Moderate	57.2%
High	34.4%
<u>Calculated Level of Views</u>	
Good to poor	4.7%
Poor and stayed poor	24.4%
Good and stayed good	49.8%
Poor to good	17.1%
Don't Know	4.0%

TABLE 21
CONSTRUCTED VARIABLES BY RANK

	Jun Ofcrrs	Fld Grdrs	Sen Ofcrrs
<u>"TRUST"</u>			
Low	5.88%	7.82%	14.00%
Moderate	38.24%	65.36%	54.00%
High	55.88%	26.82%	32.00%
<u>"VIEW"</u>			
Good to poor	7.35%	3.89%	4.00%
Poor and stayed poor	19.81%	25.56%	28.00%
Good and stayed good	54.41%	47.78%	50.00%
Poor to good	13.24%	18.89%	16.00%
Don't know	5.88%	3.89%	2.00%

in the news media as "low" only 6 percent of the time as compared to senior officers who doubled that rate. Field grade officers and senior officers, on the other hand, were much more likely to rate confidence in the news media as "moderate." "High" confidence in the media was expressed by only 27 percent of the field grade officers and 32 percent of the senior officers while junior officers, the generation whose medium television is, listed confidence as "high" better than 55 percent of the time.

The VIEW variable yields similar results. In this variable, between 65 and 66 of the officers sampled indicated a good (composite of "good and stayed good" and "poor to good") attitude about the news media.

Two other variables, aeronautical rating and source of commission, were analyzed against the constructed TRUST variable with at least one interesting result. It is generally assumed that pilots are more conservative than non-flying officers; yet, according to the these analyses, pilots were only slightly less likely than nonflying officers to indicate confidence in the media as either "moderate" or "high." The cross-tabulation with source of commission yielded no significant differences.

As an additional check on the data, correlation tables were run for the control variables (rank, source of commission and aeronautical rating) against all the remaining variables. The data revealed small but significant relationships with a number of variables. None were considered strong enough to predict causal relationships. All correlations significant at the .05 probability level or higher are listed in Table 3 on page 41.

Although it was not the primary thrust of this study, some analysis was done on the effects of cable television on media use. Two cross-tabulations were analyzed. First, the effect of a cable subscription on television viewing was reviewed. Then the frequency of watching network newscasts was analyzed based on cable subscription. From the data, it appears that those with cable are more likely to watch two or more hours per day of television. More than 32 percent of the respondents with cable watched two or more hours of television per day compared to 23 percent without cable. People with cable also appeared to watch network news broadcasts more often than people without it, but the percentages (62 percent versus 59 percent for those who watched "daily or nearly everyday") are so close they are inconclusive.

Professional Reading Among the Officer Corps

This study also investigated two questions relating to the professional reading habits of Air Force officers. Part III of the questionnaire begins with the following question: "What professional publications, including newspapers, journals, magazines or newsletters, do you read on a regular basis? The responses were used to address four variables:

a. Unaided mention of Air Force Times or Air Force Magazine. These publications represent the primary "professional" publications for Air Force officers. In addition to career news, the publications, which are published by organizations outside the government, give news on new weapon systems and planned improvements in various Air Force programs. Both publications have wide distribution throughout the Air Force.

b. Unaided mention of military-related professional journals other than those above. There are many specialized journals that target various segments of the Air Force population. These journals are a major source of information regarding the Air Force's specialties.

c. Unaided mention of a professional journal in a skill or specialty outside the military. One of the

primary complaints of leadership is that loyalty often is vertical within a specific career field rather than horizontal across the Air Force as a whole. This variable is an admittedly "weak" test of that hypothesis.

d. Unaided mention of Air Force's primary internal information publication, Airman magazine.

Table 22 summarizes the findings of the analysis of these four variables. Between 30 and 40 percent of those sampled indicated they read the Air Force Times, Air Force Magazine or both. Better than half of the respondents mentioned reading at least one military professional journal. And, surprisingly, only 12 percent mentioned a professional journal outside the Air Force. Most surprising of all, only 7 percent of the respondents mentioned Airman magazine as one of the professional publications they read on a regular basis.

These findings are by no means conclusive, because of the manner in which the data were collected. Many might not have considered publications they read as part of their professional responsibilities. Others might have given a more complete answer if they had been given a "tickler" to remind them of the journals they read.

The number of books read as well as the number that were military-related were also tracked as part of this

TABLE 22
PROFESSIONAL READING

Variable	Percentages
<u>1. Unaided mention of Air Force Times or Air Force Magazine</u>	
Air Force Times	11.5%
Air Force Magazine	23.3%
Both	19.0%
Neither	46.2%
<u>2. Unaided mention of a professional military journal other than those above</u>	
Yes	52.8%
No	47.2%
<u>3. Unaided mention of a professional journal in a skill or specialty not considered military-related</u>	
Yes	12.1%
No	87.9%
<u>4. Unaided mention of Air Force's primary internal information publication, Airman Magazine</u>	
Yes	6.9%
No	93.1%

survey. Field grade officers appear to be the heaviest readers with 57% of those responding reading six or more books in the past 12 months. As Table 23 indicates, senior officers tended to read more military-related books as a percentage of the total books read. Twenty-six percent of the senior officers in the survey indicated that half or more of the books they read were military-related.

TABLE 23
BOOKS READ BY RANK

	Junior Officers	Field Grade Officers	Senior Officers
<u>Question 2: How many books have you read in the past 12 months?</u>			
None	2.86%	2.73%	4.00%
1 to 5	51.43%	38.25%	42.00%
6 to 10	20.00%	25.68%	18.00%
Greater than 10	24.29%	32.79%	26.00%
<u>Question 3: How many were career-related?</u>			
None	37.14%	28.18%	18.00%
Less than half	40.00%	46.96%	56.00%
Half or more	21.43%	18.78%	26.00%
All	1.43%	6.08%	0.00%

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This is a study marked by unexpected conclusions. It is not surprising that Air Force officers are heavy users of the media, as most of them are well-educated, have family incomes above the national average and have had a wealth of management and career experiences. There was not a shred of evidence at the outset of this study, however, that there is such strong confidence in the media among the officer corps. What is more, these respondents, contrary to national trends, put more confidence in newspapers than they do in television.

The first research question was to identify the media use patterns of military officers assigned to the Pentagon and to investigate how revealed patterns compare with those of the nation as a whole. As a group, the respondents are nearly 20 percent more likely to read newspapers daily than the population as a whole. Senior officers, voracious media users, are 35 percent more likely than the general public to read a newspaper daily. Television news is not as popular as newspapers, but the percentage of daily watchers among Air Force officers is higher than for the general population. In all other news

sources examined, officers exceeded the accepted average uses established by previous research with the exception of the total amount of time spent with radio and television.

The next two questions involved analyzing the level of confidence of officers in the various media and determining how that level of confidence changes as rank increases. The respondents indicated surprisingly strong support for the media. Seventy-six percent of those sampled listed their level of confidence in newspapers as "moderate" or "high." Six of ten rated television as being equally high. Just under 90 percent of the total sample revealed a similar level of confidence in the news media's newest entry, cable television news. The data definitely revealed a stronger bias toward network television news as rank increased. Only 38 percent of the colonels rated network news with a confidence level of "moderate" or "high" compared to nearly 76 percent of the junior officers. A greater percentage of junior officers also expressed "high" or "moderate" confidence in newspapers (86 percent), but the spread between them and senior officers was not nearly so large (69 percent). On nearly every measurement, field grade officers split the difference between junior officers and their seniors

with a slight tendency toward the more senior officers.

The final research questions investigated in this study probed officers' professional reading habits. The majority of the officers read at least one military-related journal but not necessarily those traditionally considered to be most popular. Leadership's concern over vertical loyalties, as indicated by their interest in nonmilitary professional journals, was not validated by this effort. A surprisingly small percentage, less than 10 percent of the officers surveyed, mentioned the Air Force's primary communications outlet, Airman magazine, as a professional publication they read on a regular basis.

The data also show that the vast majority of Air Force officers in the Pentagon read books regularly. More than nine of ten read at least one book last year and a third read more than ten. As a general rule, senior officers are more likely to be heavy book readers and to read more books related to the military. Seven of ten officers read at least one book relating to the military in the last twelve months.

The findings of this study call into question McCombs and Washington's (1983) suggestion that "any anti-press mood readily can be characterized as part of a

broader lack of confidence in all institutions rather than an isolated instance of public criticism of the press" (p. 5). To the contrary, officers expressed great confidence in the press; yet, anyone who has spent more than a day in the Pentagon hears numerous complaints about the news media. Admittedly, many of those complaints emanate from the Generals and senior civilian leadership, those who have been "bitten" by the press. But criticism is not the exclusive domain of the Generals. Many a captain has decried the latest illegal publication of classified information or the "unfair" treatment of a military budget issue.

So then, what explains the strong vote of confidence for the media? One suspects that vote is for the "institution" of the press, for the 67 percent of the media that agrees with the need to protect national secrets and provide for a strong defense.

The data also indicate that younger officers depend much more heavily on the electronic news media than do more senior officers. This finding is a function of age more than anything else, but it signals a change in media use patterns as today's junior officers become the Air Force's senior leadership.

This study was, in a sense, also a study of missed

opportunities. Had one even had a hint of the strong support that would be uncovered for the media, a stronger, more focused survey instrument could have been developed, such as Izard's (1984) excellent questionnaire delving into the public's confidence in the news media. It is highly likely that such an instrument would have revealed strong criticism against the Washington Post and the major network news concerns.

As it stands, this researcher must be content with the product for which he was aiming, a broad, exploratory look at the media usage habits of Air Force officers. The possibilities for additional research, however, are endless. One very important question is whether similar patterns of usage, and similar attitudes, are prevalent among General Officers, the group that is conspicuously absent from this study. The nature of the support for the press among officers should also be investigated as should the bounds of that support. In addition, a great deal of work should be done to unravel the relationship between the abundant criticism of the media and the undergirding of support expressed in this study.

The primary utility of this study is its potential as a roadmap for future investigations. But from it also sparks a glimmer of hope, hope that the broad gulf

between the press and the military might be narrower than expected. It just might be that the officers of the media generation, the generation after the "living room war," will affect a new truce with the press.

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APPENDIX



DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
HEADQUARTERS UNITED STATES AIR FORCE
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20330

2 JUL 69

REPLY TO
ATTN OF:

DPXXX

SUBJECT:

Officer Media Usage Survey (AFMPC Survey Control Number 87-69)

TO:

Fellow Pentagon Air Force Officers

Would you please help us out? You have been randomly selected from the Air Force officers serving in the Pentagon to participate in this survey looking into our media usage habits. The results will be used to complete a briefing on the subject as well as an Air Force Institute of Technology-sponsored Master's thesis. Your participation is totally voluntary, and your responses are, of course, completely anonymous and confidential.

Please return your questionnaire in the enclosed envelope as soon as possible so that we can be assured of valid results.

Thank you.

MAURICE L. STOCKS, Lt Col, USAF
Chief, Strategic Planning Branch
Personnel Plans Division

If you would like a summary of the
results, please contact us in late July.
We would be pleased to share them with
you.

AIR FORCE OFFICER MEDIA USAGE SURVEY

This is a random survey to determine which news media you use and your attitudes concerning those media. It will take just a few minutes to complete. Your responses are completely voluntary, anonymous and confidential.

PART I

1. Please check the column that most accurately reflects your exposure to the following:

	See Daily Or Nearly Everyday	Less Often Than Daily	Seldom
National News in a Newspaper	☐	☐	☐
Local News in a Newspaper	☐	☐	☐
Editorial Page in a Newspaper	☐	☐	☐
National Television News	☐	☐	☐
Local Television News	☐	☐	☐
Radio News	☐	☐	☐
News Magazines	☐	☐	☐
Current News "Early Bird"	☐	☐	☐

2. Please check the appropriate column to indicate the source you prefer for various types of information:

	News- papers	TV	Radio	Maga- zines	Don't Know or Other	Please Specify:
National News	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	_____
Local News	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	_____
Sports	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	_____
Business News	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	_____

3. During the past week, how often did you watch a national evening newscast on a major network (ABC, CBS, or NBC)?

Daily or Nearly Everyday ☐
 Less Often than Daily ☐
 Seldom or Never ☐

4. Please list any other media news sources, such as "60 Minutes," "20-20," or the Cable News Network, that you tune in/read on a regular basis:

<u>News Source</u>	<u>How Often</u>	<u>Time of Day</u>
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5. How much time do you spend reading newspapers in a day?
- | | |
|---|--|
| ☐ Half an hour or less | ☐ Half hour to one hour |
| ☐ One hour or more | ☐ Don't know |

6. Which news magazines do you read on a regular basis? (Check any that you read.)

- ☐ Newsweek
- ☐ Time
- ☐ US News and World Report
- ☐ Other (Please specify: _____)

7. How much time do you spend watching TV and listening to the radio in an average week? Indicate the appropriate responses for both TV and radio.

Radio	TV	
☐	☐	Didn't at all
☐	☐	An average of an hour or less per day
☐	☐	More than an hour but less than two hours per day
☐	☐	More than two hours per day

PART II

The following questions seek to determine your views and attitudes toward the various media.

1. Which order best describes your view of the most accurate source of news (most to least)?

- ☐ print, radio, TV
- ☐ print, TV, radio
- ☐ radio, TV, print
- ☐ radio, print, TV
- ☐ TV, radio, print
- ☐ TV, print, radio

2. In which order were the following responsible for the outcome of the Vietnam War (most to least)?

- ☐ government, military, media
- ☐ government, media, military
- ☐ media, government, military
- ☐ media, military, government
- ☐ military, government, media
- ☐ military, media, government

3. How have your views changed over the years concerning the various news media? Please indicate your response for each:

	Radio News	Local TV News	National TV News	News- papers
good to poor	☐	☐	☐	☐
poor and stayed poor	☐	☐	☐	☐
good and stayed good	☐	☐	☐	☐
poor to good	☐	☐	☐	☐
Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. How would you describe the level of trust currently placed in the various news media? Please indicate your response for each:

	<u>Radio News</u>	<u>Local TV News</u>	<u>National TV News</u>	<u>Cable TV News</u>	<u>Newspapers</u>
low	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
moderate	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
high	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

5. What do you most *like* about the news media?

6. What do you most *dislike* about the news media?

PART III

The following questions are designed to collect some basic information on your overall reading habits and to provide demographic information to allow your answers to be arranged by grade, Air Force Specialty Code (AFSC), etc.

1. What *professional* publications, including newspapers, journals, magazines or newsletters, do you read on a regular basis?

2. How many books have you read in the past 12 months?

None [] 1 to 5 [] 6 to 10 [] Greater than 10 []

3. How many were military career-related?

None [] Less than half [] Half or more [] All []

4. Please list the names of any daily newspapers to which you currently subscribe.

5. Do you subscribe to Cable News Network or another cable news service? Yes [] No [] Is it available in your area? Yes [] No []

6. What is your current Grade? _____

7. What is your current AFSC? _____

8. Are you rated? Yes [] No []

9. What is your source of commission?

- [] AFROTC [] Air Force Academy
 [] Officer Training School [] Direct
 [] Other (Please specify: _____)

VITA

Maurice L. Stocks, a native of Virginia Beach, Virginia, is a career Air Force officer, currently serving in the grade of Lieutenant Colonel. He entered the service in 1969 as a Distinguished Military Graduate of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill where he majored in Journalism.

During his Air Force career, Colonel Stocks has held positions in personnel, military planning, public affairs and administration. He has also served as speechwriter and executive assistant to a number of senior Air Force leaders, and, in 1984, was commander of the Air Force's top recruiting squadron.

The colonel is a graduate of the National War College, the government's most prestigious graduate-level program in national security. He is currently chief of the Strategic Plans Branch in the Air Force's Directorate of Personnel Plans in the Pentagon.

In August 1987, Colonel Stocks received the Master of Science in Communications degree from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Colonel Stocks is married to the former Svetlana Lubimov of Helsinki, Finland, and they have three children, Alexander, Tatyana and Nicholas.