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MASS MEDIA USE AND SOCIAL STEREOTYPES OF
AMERICANS BY FOREIGN STUDENTS

by

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CHAPTER I
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Context of the Problem

Past television researchers have focused their attention on the behavioral influences of television viewing. This emphasis has been most apparent in the research dealing with television violence and aggressive behavior. Recently, there has been a growing interest in studies exploring the effect of television on audience perceptions of social reality (e.g., Elliott & Slater, 1980).

The emphasis on the construction of social reality as an effect of mass communications is relatively new. This line of inquiry has been referred to as media "cultivation" or "enculturation" research. The crucial question is not how the media affect specific attitudes or behaviors but how they affect audience perceptions of social reality (Tan, 1981). One of the most thorough discussions of the development of social reality perceptions is provided by McLeod and Chaffee (1972). They distinguish between direct and indirect sources of information and define social reality as "the extent that one's definition is derived from communication with other people rather

than from his direction experience" (p. 51). In the present study, we investigated another possible indirect information source of social reality--television.

Mass Media Use

Mass media is definitely one of the most important socialization institutions throughout one's lifetime. Television, the most recent of the mass media, already has a dominant place in the national culture. For example, from the 1960s to the present days, television has continued to be self-described as the major source of news and the most believable mass medium for the majority of Americans. In the latest edition of Profile of Broadcasting, The National Association of Broadcasters found that 98% of American households have at least one television set. A study conducted annually by the Roper Organization further showed that television became the dominant information medium in 1963 and has steadily increased its lead since, and most Americans spend more than 20 hours per week watching television (Roper, 1981). These statistics indicate that television is a prominent part of American life.

It is thought that the content of a dominant medium, such as television, should influence the audience's image of the world. This is particularly true in situations

where the audience has little opportunity to perceive an event directly. If we accept these media images as "real" then we are more likely to learn from the media and to behave according to the models they present.

The concern that mass media images, whether accurate or inaccurate, may be accepted as representing real events has been a continuing focus for media critics and scholars (Elliott & Slater, 1980). As early as 1921, Walter Lippmann (Lippmann, 1922) suggested that the "pseudo-environment" constructed by media could be acted upon as if it were the true or real environment. Later, Boulding (1956) saw the individual's image of the world as the dominant factor governing behavior. The mass media make it more difficult for people to verify the truth or falsehood of information. Images in modern communication systems become more and more dependent on mediated sources of information.

Social Learning Theory

The hypothesis that our perceptions of social realities can be learned from the mass media is well grounded in theory. Bandura's social learning theory explains how we learn from direct experience as well as from observation or modeling. Social learning theory is particularly relevant to mass communications because

many of the behaviors we learn through modeling are first observed in the mass media (Tan, 1981).

Research on the relationship between audience's perceptions and television viewing is primarily based on two key assumptions from social learning theory. First, the audience can and do learn appropriate norms, values, and behaviors through observation of models without direct reinforcement. •Second, the audience attempts to maximize personal rewards, usually in the form of reinforcement for imitating or identifying with a model (Bandura, 1977).

Foreign Students

Although interest in the effect of television use on learning, attitudes, expectations, social values, and social stereotypes of audiences has been apparent among researchers in recent years (e.g., Beuf, 1974; Buerkel-Rothfuss, Greenberg, Atkin, & Neuendorf, 1982; Eswara & Krishnamurthy, 1978; Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, & Morgan, 1980; Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Gerbner, Gross, Jackson-Beeck, Jeffries-Fox, & Signorielli, 1978; Granzberg, 1982; Jackson-Beeck & Sobal, 1980; Tan, 1979; Volgy & Schwarz, 1980), systematic research on how particular types of programs relate to image perceptions of Americans by foreign students is lacking.

Today, there is a growing number of foreign students

studying in the United States. In the 1981/82 academic year, more than 326,299 citizens of other countries were in the United States for educational purposes (see Appendix A & B). Nearly half of the students (46.5%) were undergraduates, with the remainder working for post-graduate degree or attending institutions of higher learning for other purposes. Representing some 192 different countries and territories, the students were divided among nearly 2,900 different institutions (Institute of International Education, 1983). Foreign students attending United States colleges and universities often assume important government, business and opinion leadership positions after returning to their mother countries (Semlak, 1979). This situation is particularly true in Taiwan.

Despite the increasingly significant role of international students in the relations among groups and nations--and the consequent effects of such relationships upon individuals and institutions--little attention has been devoted to the study of media use among foreign students (Mowlana & McLaughlin, 1969).

Over the past several years, studies concentrating on problems of international students have surveyed such topics as housing of foreign students (e.g., McCullough & Mestenhauser, 1963) and how long foreign students study in the United States (e.g., Walton & Leavy, 1958).

However, the existing literature provides little information or theoretical clue as to how foreign students use the mass media, how foreign students perceive Americans and the host society, and whether social stereotypes of Americans are influenced by foreign students' media use. Understanding the relationships between mass media use, especially television, and the perceptions by foreign students of Americans is important.

Chinese Subjects

Approximately 5,000 Chinese adults come to the United States each year to study in the universities and thus experience changes in their living patterns. For example, in the 1981/82 academic year, Chinese students (from Taiwan) made up the second largest group of foreign students in the United States (see Appendix C).

Previous studies of international students in the United States indicate that they use the mass media, particularly television, as a main source of information about American culture, and that for many foreign student groups, including the Chinese, contact with Americans in social relations is limited (e.g., Kim, 1977; Lyman, 1974; Mowlana & McLaughlin, 1969; Semlak, 1979; Spaulding & Flack, 1976; Tan, 1982). We were primarily interested in this group, since we expected that they would be particularly

susceptible to the influence of television.

There have been increasingly frequent contacts between the United States and the Republic of China (also known as Taiwan) during the last forty years both through the mass media and through cultural, educational, military, and commercial exchanges between the two countries. A great deal of Western culture has been imported to the island. The younger generation born or raised in Taiwan after the end of World War II were more influenced by the American culture and were more receptive to it than the older generation who were reared and educated in the traditional Chinese way. The importance of understanding the effects of mass media upon Chinese students should not be understated.

For the above reasons, the researcher felt it necessary to conduct an empirical study of perceptions of Americans by Chinese students in this younger generation on an American campus to verify Bandura's social learning theory. It is also useful from both a theoretical and practical point of view to attempt to understand how the Chinese students learn and observe social reality from television programs for at least two reasons. From a theoretical viewpoint, it is important to know how people in different countries use the mass media, and the effects of media use on their perceptions of social reality. From

a practical viewpoint, this knowledge can help improve international images to lessen tension and conflict with other nations (Ho, 1979).

Objectives and Scope

The purpose of this research is to identify some of the key variables associated with the Chinese students' social values and their social stereotypes of the host culture. The variables considered cover a range of areas which might influence the formation of social values, and social stereotypes. They include measures of mass media use, interpersonal communication, and demographic characteristics.

The study reported here examined the effects of exposure to television programs featuring the nighttime dramatic series "Dynasty" which is considered popular and which negatively reflects the American life, and the nighttime series "Family" which is considered a positive program. In particular, this study used variables in three categories: television program contents, media exposure habits of Chinese students, and Chinese students' perceptions of Americans, and their affected social value systems.

It is expected that the subjects exposed to the negative program would have negative images of Americans

while subjects exposed to the positive program would have more positive images. It is also assumed that the Chinese students exposed to the selected treatment programs would have stronger tendency to adopt some of the social values which were shown in the programs.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Research Evidence

During the past decade television has become one of the most prominent media of mass communication in American culture. Television is probably an important factor in the images and expectations both children and adults hold in regard to social reality. Many studies of cultivation have examined the general relationships between media use and perceptions of social reality, showing media use to be an important variable. Most social scientists also agree that children's definitions of social reality are largely dependent on socially mediated information, and several have pointed out that the mass media are an important source of such information.

Bandura (1969) and Roberts (1973), for example, provided evidence of the informational function of television. Their studies showed that television can influence social behavior to the extent that it influences the norms and expectations that a child brings to the behavioral situation. Hawkins, Pingree and Roberts (1975) also suggested that television is a major source of information, ideas, attitudes, and behavior. Collins (1970)

further suggested that even when the television program is designed to entertain, facts have been learned--even by young children. There is also evidence that persons will perform what they learn from television (Comstock, Chaffee, Katzman, McCombs, & Roberts, 1978).

When television provides information about social situations and norms which is unavailable to the person from other sources--or from direct experience--that information is likely to guide overt responses if and when the person encounters a situation similar to that portrayed on television. Greenberg (1972), for example, found that children from rural and suburban backgrounds were more likely to state that they utilize television for information about how to behave with black people, while their urban counterparts, who had more direct experience to call on, reported less use of the medium for this purpose.

Moreover, there is enough evidence that television viewing is related to conceptions of occupations (e.g., Beuf, 1974; Jeffries-Fox & Signorielli, 1978), sexist attitudes among adolescents (e.g., Beuf, 1974; Gross & Jeffries-Fox, 1978), political interest and knowledge (e.g., Jackson-Beeck, 1979), chances of encountering violence, the exaggerated estimate of percentages of men employed in law enforcement and crime detection, the

estimate of percentages of crimes that are violent in the real world, and mistrust of other persons (e.g., Gerbner, Gross, Jackson-Beeck, Jeffries-Fox, & Signorielli, 1977; Elliott & Slater, 1980; Jackson-Beeck & Sobal, 1980). Attitudes toward doctors, sex role acceptance, and concern about racial problems (e.g., Volgy & Schwarz, 1980), exaggerated estimates about issues relevant to soap opera contents such as the number of doctors, lawyers, housewives, have had illegitimate children, have had abortions, and are happily married (e.g., Buerkel-Rothfuss & Mayes, 1981), beliefs about the family (e.g., Buerkel-Rothfuss et al., 1982; Cantor & Pingree, 1983), perceptions of beauty in real life (e.g., Tan, 1979), perceptions of old people (e.g., Gerbner et al., 1980), and perceptions of medicine (Robertson, Rossiter, & Gleason, 1980) are also found to be related to television viewing.

In summary, the mass media, especially television, are important instruments of learning. And the evidence that viewers (both children and adults) can and do learn from television is impressive.

The general purposes of this study are the following: (1) to investigate the use of mass media among Chinese students at Texas Tech University and to determine if their perceptions (in terms of social values and social stereotypes) of Americans are influenced by media use;

(2) to obtain a more accurate understanding of foreign students' exposure to mass media and their perceptions of Americans; and (3) to determine if media use is related to their terminal and instrumental values.

Common observation and social science surveys (e.g., Bennett & McKnight, 1956; Coelho, 1958; Diab, 1959; Ellison & French, 1958; Mowlana & McLaughlin, 1969; Semlak, 1979) indicate that the foreign students in the United States have inaccurate perceptions of Americans. The assumption is that foreign students do not have too much communication with Americans and have little contact with real American life. However, more empirical study is needed to answer specific questions, to which this thesis addresses itself:

- (1) How do the Chinese students (at Texas Tech University) use the mass media?
- (2) What are the motivations for mass media use by the Chinese students?
- (3) What social values and social stereotypes are portrayed in selected American television programs?
- (4) What are the social stereotypes of Americans as perceived by the Chinese students?
- (5) Is television viewing by the Chinese students related to their perceptions (social stereotypes) of Americans?
- (6) Is television viewing by the Chinese students related to

their terminal and instrumental values?

Social Values

The concept of value has been widely used. The sociological and social psychological literature does indeed contain careful and useful analytic discussions on the nature of values and value systems (e.g., Albert, 1968; Rokeach, 1968). How then are the concepts of value and value system to be defined? Rokeach (1973) provides the following definition:

A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance(p.5).

In discussing this definition Rokeach emphasizes a number of points. A value is assumed to be enduring; it is not completely stable, because values may change throughout life, but it is sufficiently stable to provide continuity to personal and social existence. The relatively stable characteristic of values also applies to the way in which they are organized into hierarchies of importance, that is, into value systems.

The concept of value system recognizes that some values are more important to a person than are other values

and values do change in their relative importance over the life-span. Values are defined by Rokeach as beliefs-- an unusual equating of terms because beliefs commonly are considered to be affectively neutral whereas one's values are not neutral but are held with some degree of feeling.

A further important point about Rokeach's definition is that the beliefs defining values may refer either to modes of conduct or to end-states of existence--to means or to ends. The value referring to modes of conduct are called instrumental values. The values referring to end-states of existence are called terminal values. Both terminal and instrumental values are seen by Rokeach as important constituents of a person's total system of attitudes and beliefs.

Finally, in explicating his definition of value, Rokeach emphasizes that a value is a preference as well as a conception of the desirable. According to Rokeach, an important function that values serve is to provide standards that guide behavior in various ways (Feather, 1975).

The Value Survey used by Rokeach throughout his research program, and also throughout the study to be reported in this thesis, was developed by him after several years of research. The Value Survey presents respondents with two lists of values, one a list of

terminal values and the other a list of instrumental values. The two lists were designed to be a reasonably comprehensive sample of terminal and instrumental values but they were kept as short as possible.

Appendix D shows the two lists of values in the Value Survey. Each consists of 18 values, each value accompanied by a short descriptive phrase or definition in parentheses. The values in each list are arranged in alphabetical order and, in the usual form of administration, the terminal values are presented before the instrumental values.

How were the sets of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values chosen? The terminal values were distilled from a list of several hundred values obtained from various sources: a review of the literature on values in American society and in other societies; Rokeach's analysis of his own terminal values; the values reported by a small group of 30 graduate students in psychology; and the values reported by a representative sample of about 100 adults in Lansing, Michigan, who had the notion of terminal values explained to them. After values were excluded there were synonymous or overlapping, too specific, or not really concerned with end-states of existence, it was possible to reduce the list to 18.

The instrumental values were obtained in a different way--from an analysis of Anderson's (1968) list of 555

personality-trait words. This list was reduced to less than half by excluding negative values and then other criteria were applied so as to shorten the list further. Retained were values judged as maximally different or minimally intercorrelated with one another; values deemed to provide maximal discrimination across social status, sex, race, age, religion, politics, and so forth; values judged to be meaningful in all cultures; and values that could be admitted to without appearing boastful. Only one value from a group of synonyms or near-synonyms was used. The large initial list of instrumental values was thereby cut down to a set of 18 concerned with modes of conduct. Keeping the 2 value lists short was an important consideration because the ranking procedure places a greater load on the respondents as the number of stimuli to be ranked increased (Feather, 1975).

In *Values in Education and Society*, Feather (1975) summarized three stage theories of assimilation developed by Eisenstadt (1954), Gordon (1964), and Taft (1965), respectively. Eisenstadt discusses three main criteria that one might employ to gauge the degree to which migrants may have been absorbed into the host society: acculturation, personal adjustment, and institutional dispersion. Gordon presents an influential analysis in which 7 different but interrelated subprocesses of

assimilation are distinguished. These are: (1) cultural or behavioral assimilation; (2) structural assimilation; (3) marital assimilation; (4) identificational assimilation; (5) attitude receptional assimilation; (6) behavioral receptional assimilation; and (7) civic assimilation.

Taft lists the following 5 facets: (1) cultural knowledge and skills; (2) social interaction; (3) membership identity and social integration; (4) social and emotional identification; (5) conformity to group norms.

Assimilation, according to Taft, involves a certain amount of desocialization and resocialization, as more of the old ways of adapting to society are replaced by new ones that are more appropriate to the new culture. The same considerations may be seen to apply when other forms of assimilation apart from migrant assimilation are explored. The changes that occur in a student's values, for example, when he enters a college or university and encounters a new environment will be a function of what he brings with him to the situation, the constraints imposed upon him by the situation, and the degree to which he is able to find membership in new groups that come to achieve reference status for him.

Values, as Feather (1975) pointed out, do not function in a vacuum. They are closely related to a person's psychological makeup and to information that flows to him

from his environment, especially from the groups to which he relates and from people whom he likes and respects.

Many studies on values and value systems have been done by social scientists. In 1971, Feather (1979), for example, conducted two studies of subjective assimilation on Ukrainian migrants and Latvian migrants. The first study investigated the value systems of a group of second generation Ukrainian migrants, and their relation to those of their parents and of the wider Australian community. He found that the migrant children were more assimilated to the values of the host culture than were their parents. The Australian students saw happiness, freedom, true friendship, a sense of accomplishment, and wisdom as most important among the terminal values. The four most important instrumental values for the Australian students were being honest, broad-minded, responsible, and loving. The corresponding highest terminal and instrumental values for the Ukrainian students showed a high degree of overlap with those of the Australian student group.

The Latvian study explored the effects of attending an ethnic school on value priorities and discover how accurate the Latvian and Australian groups were in perceiving the value priorities of the other. He found that the ethnic school nonattenders were more accurate judges of Australian values than were the Latvian school

attenders. The possible explanation lies in the greater social interaction of the Latvian school nonattenders within the host community.

Social Stereotypes

The term stereotype was defined by Walter Lippmann (1922) as "a standardized picture in the head," "an oversimplified pattern that helps us find meaning in the world." It satisfies our needs and helps us defend our prejudices by seeming to give definiteness and consistency to our turbulent and disorderly daily experience. Research on social stereotypes per se is not new. Katz and Braly (1933) inspected the five key traits used by 100 Princeton undergraduates to describe ten different racial groups, which included American, Chinese, English, Germans, Irish, Italians, Japanese, Jews, Negroes, and Turks. The results showed an impressively high degree of agreement in verbal characterizations and yielded a distinctive set of popular labels for each of the ten groups. In this study, Americans were described as industrious (48%), intelligent (47%), materialistic (33%), ambitious (33%), progressive (27%), pleasure-loving (26%), alert (23%), efficient (21%), aggressive (20%), straight-forward (19%), practical (19%), and sportsmanlike (19%). Most of these are considered positive. Since most students had no contact with members

of many of the stereotyped groups, it was believed that they had simply adapted prevalent images of their day and culture.

Nearly 20 years later, Gilbert (1951) repeated Katz and Braly's experiment at Princeton, with the discovery that uniformity in verbal stereotyping was considerably reduced. In general, the stereotyping in 1951 appeared to be more realistic and reasonable than before. It was suggested by Gilbert himself that the differences could be attributed to three factors. First, the entertainment and communications media were curtailing and discouraging traditional patterns of stereotyping in American culture. Second, students in 1951 were displaying more interest in social science than ever before, so that on the whole they would probably be more sophisticated about making ethnic generalizations. The third factor was the changing composition of the Princeton undergraduate population. In 1951 there was no longer the preponderance of well-to-do, "privileged" students that had once dominated the Princeton scene. As Gilbert noted, this intergroup contact is not only a broadening influence, but minimizes the superior in-group complexion of the population tested.

In 1967, the survey conducted by Karlins, Coffman and Walters (1969), employed the same procedure as Katz and Braly's (1933) and Gilbert's (1951), was again repeated

in Princeton. The study showed that most of the trends noted by Gilbert in 1951 are confirmed by the 1967 results. Younger generations show more careful thinking about ethnic generalizations than their counterparts of the 1930s. At the same time, Americans were less positively characterized by themselves than in earlier studies. The term "intelligent," "industrious," and "alert" have steadily decline in frequency and by far the majority describe themselves as materialistic (67%), ambitious (42%), and pleasure-loving (28%).

In summary, each person has a mental picture of what the world is like. Stereotypes are generalized impressions of groups, acquired by individuals from a number of sources, sometimes including direct experience with members of the stereotyped groups. And for the most part, stereotypes appear to be learned by word of mouth or from books and films (Karlins et al., 1969). In the present study, we considered another possible indirect information source of social stereotypes--television.

Cultural Conflict

A variety of definitions of culture has been given by social scientists. Though worded differently, their meanings are similar and conceptualize the essence of culture--social behavior patterns. For example, Linton

(1954) and Porter and Samovar (1976) regard culture as the cumulative and organized combination of learned behavior including language, ideas, values, attitudes, and emotional responses which is procured and passed from generation to generation. Porter and Samovar (1976) also definitely indicate that "culture is a communication problem because it is not constant; it is a variable. As cultural variance increases, so do the problem of communication" (p. 6).

When people of different cultural origins come into contact, their cultural differences in communicating turn out to be the source of cultural conflict (Stonequist, 1961). "Misunderstanding can occur and inaccuracies can be perpetrated by the application of familiar concepts in a foreign environment" (Stewart, 1976, p. 324). The culture that they enter may be very different from the one they leave. They may have to learn a new language, and they will be exposed to some patterns of beliefs and values and forms of behavior that are quite foreign to them.

In the problematic situation resulting from the exposure to the new cultural surroundings, similarities and differences are detected and some norms, perceptions, attitudes, cognition, and values of the new society are modified and adopted. Since culture is a communication problem (Porter & Samovar, 1976), to adjust to a new

culture means to adjust to a new style of communication. Moreover, when there is culture contact, there is crosscultural communication. It is inescapable that cultural minority groups have to make constant readjustments to the host culture for the sake of survival. As long as they stay in the host society, they have to go through the cultivation process involved in cultural change.

Cultivation refers to a change of "perceptions about the facts, norms, and values of society through selective presentations and by emphasizing certain themes" (Tan, 1981, p. 253). Cultivation takes place through exposure to mass media. It subsumes all of the many types of changes that occur as a result of the members of cultural groups having firsthand contacts with mass media. As migrant groups "learn" more and more about the new environment, some discrepancies may be found to be based upon false perceptions of reality, and these discrepancies may then be modified in the light of more accurate information. In this way, the migrants may build up a veridical perception of the new environment.

But, are the values that migrants learn in the course of their socialization in their homeland ever completely extinguished as a result of their contact with the new culture? Probably not. What happens is a rearrangement of priorities, just as the importance of particular values

alters over the course of the life span. For example, some values that are dominant during adolescence lose their relative importance as a person grows older, yet continue to remain as significant values within the hierarchy. Neither do they give up all of the traditional traits nor take over all of the foreign ones. As time goes by, there is a blending of cultural traits on the part of the migrant groups.

Many early studies have showed that the social stereotypes and social values of ethnic groups in the dominant society is influenced by age, length of stay, nativity, language, geography, education, occupation, socio-economic status, leadership, political position, barriers in the host society, motivation for media use, social relationship, and mass media use. Due to the fact that those ethnic groups intend to take the host society as their country and home, their daily living is probably very highly related to those factors affecting adaptation, learning and perceptions. However, foreign students may be a different case.

Foreign students who temporarily stay in the United States for further studies may show little relationship between their media use and social stereotypes. They were born in their home countries and are foreigners in the United States. They live either on campus or in the

vicinity of campus without intentionally choosing residence areas inhabited by any particular ethnic groups. They are self-supporting full-time students. They work part time and live frugally. Their ultimate goal is to earn an academic degree, not to identify themselves with American society. They can attain self-identification through academic success rather than through higher socio-economic status among Americans, higher leadership and political positions, and immediate adjustments to the host society's barriers and changes. For these reasons, this survey among Chinese students will examine their social values and social stereotypes of Americans only. Factors such as status, leadership, and political position will be discarded.

Many studies have been done on the status of Chinese immigrants in the United States. Though they deal more or less with the communication aspect, it is still necessary to investigate the construction of social reality process of Chinese students who stay in the United States for a much shorter period of time than the immigrants do and who, as in the younger generation, have had more access to American influences in their native countries. Tan's study (1982) is a meaningful start upon which further research into Chinese communication can be grounded. From their responses to the instrument, a more updated picture of Chinese communication can be obtained to support the

researcher's belief that varied television program viewing will lead to varied social values and social stereotypes among Chinese students.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the possible changes among Chinese students resulting from their cultivation to American television programs, and to determine whether media use is related to their perceptions of Americans. It is expected that the results will demonstrate a blending of value traits and perceptions as a consequence of Chinese students' exposure to American television programs.

American Television Programs

Mass media, especially television, is the chief creator of synthetic cultural patterns for the most heterogeneous mass publics. We live in terms of the stories we tell--stories about what things exist, stories about how things work, and stories about what to do--and television tells them all through news, drama, and advertising to almost everybody most of the time (Gerbner et al., 1978).

Television has made us aware of cultures, social issues, and events that few of us could experience directly. Television certainly brought something new to the household by dimming the lights and turning faces toward the screen.

The impact of television on the expenditure of leisure time has been sizable. Television, for example, has markedly increased the total amount of time spent with the mass media. Among almost 40 kinds of primary activities--exclusive categories into which the 24 hours of the day can be divided--television viewing falls behind only sleep and time spent at work (Comstock et al., 1978).

Television's absorption of leisure time naturally occurs at the expense of other activities. One of the television's most marked effects appears to have been to reduce time spent sleeping. It also appears to have reduced time spent in social gatherings away from home, in radio listening, in reading books, in miscellaneous leisure, in conversation, in travel related to leisure, in movie-going, in religious activities, and in household tasks (Comstock et al., 1978). Television should tentatively be considered a major agent of socialization.

How are Americans, in general, portrayed by American television? First, television portrays Americans as being violent and aggressive. For a number of years Gerbner and his colleagues have been profiling the amount of violence on network television, showing there has traditionally been an over-emphasis on violent crime (e.g., Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Gerbner et al., 1977; Gerbner et al., 1978; Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, Morgan, & Jackson-Beeck, 1979).

Dominick (1978) also found that prime-time television has historically devoted at least one third of its time to crime. In 1970, Katzman (1972) examined the situations most soap opera portrayed during the week of April 13, 1970, showing the world of the soap opera was full of troubles. "Criminal and undesirable activity," including violence, murders, and other aggressive behaviors, was one of the four major problems and events of the week in the world of 14 soap operas. Comstock et al. (1978) further found that violence is often the means to an end in television drama.

Another common theme in television entertainment and advertising is affluence and materialism. Seggar and Wheeler (1973) found that television drama overrepresents all groups in the professional and managerial fields. Gerbner and Gross (1976) also found that most characters in television were from middle and upper classes, displaying an affluent and consumptive way of life. Comstock et al. (1978) further reported that television drama is a world of professionals, males, departure from reality into to fantasy of violence, upper status, and freedom from economic restraints.

Other common television themes are sex and beauty. Tan (1979) found that more than 31% of all network commercials utilized beauty and sex appeal as selling points. Katzman (1972) showed that the predominant problem

and theme in daily serials involves the characters' romantic and marital affairs. Cantor (1979) also found a steady increase in sexual content since 1975 was shown in television drama. Whipple (1980) further found that females usually are depicted as domestic adjunct and sex objects.

In addition to violence, affluence, sex and beauty, other common television themes are individualism (e.g., Topping, 1965) and negative stereotyping of various ethnic groups. In 1970, for example, Dominick and Greenberg reported a smaller proportion of black characters was portrayed on programs than blacks reflected in the general population. Seggar and Wheeler found in 1973 that minority roles were over-represented in lower status positions and in brief appearances of less than three minutes. More recently, Simmons, Greenberg, Atkin, and Heeter (1977), analyzing the 1975-76 season, found that Spanish-Americans remain virtually absent from the screen.

Over the past 30 years, television has come to play an increasingly important role in American society. The messages it communicate, how they cultivate social reality, and what they mean to their audiences should be a matter of concern to all of the publics.

Hypotheses

It is the purpose of this study to investigate the social values and social stereotypes of Americans in terms of their major field of study, length of stay, sex, marital status, religion, mass media use, and interpersonal communications. Previous studies indicated that some individual differences--length of stay (e.g., Mowlana & McLaughlin, 1969), interpersonal communications, and mass media use (e.g., Tan, 1982)--would influence perceived images of the Americans. The first hypothesis of this thesis was then designed to provide the information needed to test the above assumption.

Hypothesis 1: Mass media use will be correlated with social stereotypes of Americans by the Chinese students.

Examination of the combined effects of the Chinese students' television viewing, radio listening, newspapers and magazines reading, movies watching, opinions concerning the accuracy of American television programs, their length of stay, and interpersonal communications with Americans should permit evaluation of this hypothesis.

It is also assumed that social values and social stereotypes of Americans by the Chinese students varies according to the viewing of different television programs. Different television programs may be operationally defined in terms of positive and negative programs. The general

lack of research on the establishment of the causal relationship between television viewing and perceptions of Americans leads to the second hypothesis of this thesis.

Hypothesis 2: Those subjects who viewed the positive program would have much more positive perceptions of Americans than those who viewed the negative program.

This hypothesis will be examined by determining the differences between the results of the two groups participating in the experiment using differential program viewing as the treatment stimulus. Presumably, the Chinese students exposed to the "negative" program would have stronger negative images of Americans whereas the students exposed to the "positive" program would have more positive images. It is also assumed that the Chinese students exposed to the selected treatment programs would have a stronger tendency to adopt some of the social values which were shown in the programs.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this research is to establish the causal relationship between media use and perceptions of Americans among Chinese subjects. It is the central hypothesis that viewing different types of programs would cause different social stereotypes of Americans and social values.

Subjects

Having considered the circumstances and conditions in this research, we decided what the sample size would be. The universe from which the respondents were taken was all Chinese (from Taiwan) students listed in the Directory of Chinese Students Association, a semi-annual official publication and published in the order of last name initials by the Chinese Students Association at Texas Tech University. The unit of sampling was individual student. The subjects for experiment and interview were 60 Chinese students attending Texas Tech University in the 1983/84 academic year.

Before drawing a sample, a few things should be considered: (1) methods of sampling; (2) the objectives of the study; (3) the population under study; (4) area of

study; (5) the type of analysis; (6) methods of collecting data; (7) last, but not least, it must be representative and objective. A list of numbers and countries, also the major field of study for all the foreign students attending Texas Tech University was then obtained from the Office of International Programs at the university. The list included 916 foreign students currently attending this university; 156 of them came from the Republic of China, also known as Taiwan. Since this study is to examine the relationship between media use and social stereotypes of Americans by Chinese students, the population under study is the entire Chinese student group.

A detailed description of the sampling process is presented here:

- A. First of all, one has to know the organization of the Chinese Students Association at Texas Tech University. There are more than 200 members in the Association. The Association consists of students from Taiwan, spouses of the students, and Chinese residents in Lubbock who donate money and are willing to take part in the Association.
- B. One has to calculate the actual population size by deleting residents and spouses who are not full-time students. It is my belief that spouses of students who are not full-time students have even less opportunity

than the students themselves to experience real American life. For this reason, people whose names were shown in the Directory but who were not full-time students were not used as subjects in the study.

- C. Many phonecalls were made prior to the actual experiment to ask for Chinese students' cooperation. Three main questions were asked to ascertain if the student was qualified to be one of the subjects.
1. Do you own a television set? If not, does your roommate own a television set?
 2. Do you have any evening classes on Wednesdays or Fridays? (the proposed time schedules to view the assigned programs during 4-week research period.)
 3. Are you willing to participate in an experiment requiring you to view one specific television program during a 4-week period?

When a subject met the qualifications mentioned above, he then became one of the samples in the study.

From the above process, all the names and related information of the subjects such as sex, telephone number, and major field of study were acquired and then listed in a table.

- D. After selecting 60 qualified subjects, they were randomly assigned to one of three groups: experimental group 1, experimental group 2, and control group.

Independent Variable

The main objective of this study was to determine effects of exposure to different kinds of programs on perceptions of Americans by Chinese students. This research question was investigated using a one-factor (exposure to selected programs) field controlled experiment, with one control group and two treatment groups.

One independent variable--exposure to a prime-time series--was manipulated and two dependent variables were measured. The main concern was to determine whether exposure to a prime-time series affected a viewer's perceptions of Americans and his value priorities. The treatment stimulus consisted of two different kinds of prime-time programs.

The programs chosen in this study were "Dynasty" and "Family." The former was shown on ABC affiliate KAMC-TV, Channel 28, Lubbock, Texas, 8:00-9:00 p.m. central time, Wednesdays while the latter was shown on local independent station KTAA-TV, Channel 34, Lubbock, Texas, 7:00-8:00 p.m. central time, Weekdays. Both sets of programs were equal in length (one hour per episode) and time period (both were during prime-time).

Dependent Variables

To measure perceptions of Americans, a modified

version of the Karlins, Coffman, and Walters' social stereotypes questionnaire was constructed. The social stereotypes questionnaire consisted of 36 adjectives (see Appendix E). After all items had been constructed, they were arranged in alphabetical order. The subjects were asked to pick the 10 adjectives that best describe Americans in general ~~order~~ and rank them from "1" (the strongest), "2" (the second strongest), through "10" (the weakest).

An adjective that was rated strongest by a subject was scored "10" in coding for data analysis. Each adjective had a potential scoring range from "0" to "10."

To measure social value systems of the subjects, two lists of values were employed. The two lists of values (terminal values and instrumental values) were developed by Rokeach (1973) after several years of research. Each consisted of 18 values, each value accompanied by a short descriptive phrase or definition in parentheses. The values in each list were arranged in alphabetical order and, in the usual form of administration, the terminal values were presented before the instrumental values (see Appendix D).

For each value list in the test, the subjects were instructed to study the list carefully and then to use numbers from "1" to "5" in ranking the values in each set, placing a "1" next to the value they deem to be the most important for them, a "2" next to the value that is second

in importance, and so forth.

A value that was rated most important by a subject was scored "5" in coding for data analysis. Each value had a potential scoring range from "0" to "5."

Procedure

In a typical cultivation study, systems of media content are first mapped out by content analysis to identify predominant themes, characteristics, and relationships. The next step is to determine whether exposure to these content systems cultivates in audiences media-emphasized views of social reality (Tan, 1982). Hence, the study reported here consisted of two interrelated parts: (1) Content Analysis--identifying predominant program traits of the selected television dramas, and (2) Cultivation Analysis--determining whether perceptions of Americans were influenced by mass media use in the Chinese samples.

Three methods of analysis including multiple stages of procedure with content analysis, controlled field experiment, and a face-to-face interview schedule were used for data collection in this study.

Content Analysis

Two selected experimental programs ("Dynasty" and

"Family") were pre-tested during the week of March 4, 1984 using content analysis by three different Chinese students for each program characteristics analysis. Content analysis provided data on how the social values and social stereotypes of Americans were shown in the selected television programs. This allowed possible re-socialization effects of such programs upon audiences to be more easily understood.

The content analysis questionnaire contained two major sections of questions (see Appendix F). The 72 items used as dependent variables in the data-collecting process were again employed in content analysis to test program characteristics. The first part, contained two lists of values developed by Rokeach, measuring social values (terminal and instrumental values). For each value list set in the test, the subject was instructed to select 5 of 18 social values which were always shown or emphasized in the programs they watched. The subjects were also asked to rank the 5 values they chose from "1" (the most often) to "5" (the least often). A value that was rated most often by a subject was also scored "5" in coding for data analysis.

The second part of the questionnaire, measuring social stereotypes, consisted of 36 adjectives derived from Karlins et al. 1967 social stereotypes test in

Princeton. The subjects were asked to pick 10 adjectives descriptive of Americans as portrayed in the programs they watched. The subjects were also asked to rank the 10 adjectives they picked from "1" to "10." One indicating most frequent, ten the least frequent. An adjective rated most frequent by a subject was scored "10" in coding for data analysis.

It is possible, that different standards may result due to a subject's limited English vocabulary or varied personal interaction experience with Americans and not due to the difficulty of the statements and adjectives. To minimize this possibility, Chinese translation of the values and adjectives were included in the questionnaire.

To ascertain the accuracy and correctness of the test, a more sophisticated process of obtaining accurate translation called triangulation was used prior to the content analysis.

The whole test was first worded in English. Then the researcher translated it into Chinese. The Chinese version was verified with the assistance from Dr. Yung-mei Tsai, a native Chinese from Taiwan and associate professor in the Department of Sociology at Texas Tech University. Dr. Tsai read and checked the translation against the English version to assure the exactitude of the translation.

Then the Chinese version was translated into English

by a English-major Chinese student from Taiwan without the assistance of the original English version.

Lastly, the English version translated by the Chinese student was again double checked by comparison of the original English version and the translated English version by an American student majoring in Mass Communications to make sure the meanings of the two English versions were completely accurate.

Before filling out the content analysis form, the subjects were told the purpose of this analysis, and the researcher's appreciation of their cooperation and assistance.

Experimental Design

Our experimental programs were "Dynasty" and "Family" broadcast in Lubbock, Texas, Wednesdays and Fridays respectively, over the 4 weeks from March 28 through April 20, 1984. "Dynasty" and "Family," rather than other programs, were selected because they were popular in the United States at the time of research, and they were likely to be less familiar to the subjects. None of the subjects had ever seen the series he was viewing and neither of the programs had been televised in Taiwan. Thus minimal inferences could be made.

A frequent shortcoming encountered in researching any

group is a tendency to perceive it as homogeneous by assumption. Yet with Chinese students this is often an unwarranted concern. The groups were fairly homogeneous: they had arrived in the United States after completion of their college degrees; they all spoke Chinese as their first language; all were from Taiwan; and none had been younger than 22 years of age on arrival to the United States.

The original research population consisted of 156 full-time Chinese students attending Texas Tech University in the 1983/84 academic year. Sixty subjects were randomly assigned by lottery to one of three groups: the experimental group 1, the experimental group 2, and control group. Twenty subjects (experimental group 1), 9 males and 11 females, were asked to view four episodes of "Dynasty," a program considered to be negatively reflective of American life. Another 20 subjects (experimental group 2) were asked to view four episodes of "Family" which was considered positive program. The last 20 subjects (control group) were asked not to view either of the programs selected. Presumably, subjects exposed to the negative program would have negative images of Americans while subjects exposed to the positive program would have positive images of Americans.

In order to make sure the subjects viewed the assigned programs, a telephone call was made to remind them before

the programs were shown each week. Subjects in the two experimental groups were tested in their own home using the television set available to them. Subjects were asked to view both program per se and commercials in a daily life setting. The subjects were told that the researcher was particularly interested in their point of view pertaining to the assigned American programs prior to the actual experiment. No mention was made of the actual purpose of the experiment.

Unfortunately, program viewing in fourth week was missed because of the unexpected cancellation of both scheduled programs. After the three weeks' treatment, face-to-face interviews were conducted to collect data concerning the subjects' demographic characteristics, interpersonal communication, mass' media use, social value systems, and their social stereotypes of Americans.

Data Collection

An instrument was constructed designed to gather important information after three weeks' treatment. The questionnaire obtained information in three major areas. The first area queried was the subjects' mass media use and their interpersonal communication patterns. These scores included television, radio, newspapers, and magazines. The second type of information obtained

concerned the social values of Chinese students and their perceptions of Americans. The third aspect investigated related to the subjects' demographic characteristics such as age, length of stay, sex, major field of study, classification, financial support, marital status, and religious life. The questionnaire, containing 35 questions, was identical for all three groups (see Appendix G).

To measure media use, the subjects were asked how many hours they spent weekly watching television, listening to radio, reading newspapers and magazines. In investigating exposure to mass media, every attempt was made to be as inclusive as possible, not only to learn the amount of time exposed to various media (television, radio, newspapers, and magazines), but also to obtain self-reported perceived accuracy of television, credibility of the various media in the United States, and the uses and gratifications associated with television viewing.

The subjects were also asked the average number of hours they spent watching television when they were still in Taiwan, the extent ("a great deal, fairly often, not much, not at all") they thought American life had been shown accurately in American television programs, and the average number of movies they watched in the past month.

The medium selected for more intensive investigation

was that of television. The subjects were then asked to list three television programs they usually watched and also note how often they watched each of them by ranking from "1" (the most often), "2" (the second often), to "3" (the least often). This information was used to be the control variable which might affect their perceptions of Americans.

To find out the importance of reasons why they watch television, the subjects were requested to rank the perceived importance of 8 main motivation statements: (1) to kill time; (2) to relax and release tension; (3) to avoid feelings of loneliness; (4) to improve English proficiency; (5) to understand American culture; (6) to learn how to behave among others; (7) to know what is going on in the world; (8) to learn about advertised products. Although this list is not all inclusive, it was felt to be highly representative of the population of uses and gratifications.

To find the believability of media, the subjects were asked to rank the perceived believability of four main media in the United States: television, radio, newspapers, and magazines.

To measure interpersonal communication with Americans, we asked the subjects the following questions: "In the past month, about how often have you talked to American friends,

classmates, professors, students, or other Americans?"

"Do you have (or have you ever had) an American roommate?"

and "Have you lived (or now live) in a dormitory on campus?"

Five questions concerning advertising were also designed to interfere with the subjects figuring out the actual purpose of the experiment. Social stereotypes of Americans were measured by asking the subjects to pick 10 adjectives that best describe Americans in general today and to rank them from "1" to "10." One is the strongest adjective, ten is the weakest adjective. There were 36 traits available in the questionnaire to describe the Americans. Social values of Chinese students were obtained by asking the subjects to pick 5 most important values each from terminal value lists and instrumental value lists and to rank them from "1" to "5." One is the most important value to them, five is the least important value. Chinese translation of the values and adjectives were again included in the questionnaire.

Three random samples of Chinese students were extensively interviewed, using the Chinese language as a means of communication. Each sample group consisted of 20 students, 9 males and 11 females. A method of personal interview was used for data collection. The interview schedule consisted of 35 questions.

The questionnaire was administered in April, 1984 to

60 Chinese students participating in the experiment immediately after the experiment treatment by the researcher. The sample reflects 38.46% of the population of 156 full-time Chinese students attending Texas Tech University in the 1983/84 academic year. Each subject was individually interviewed in a face-to-face interview which took approximately 15-20 minutes.

Analysis

In this research, 60 subjects from Taiwan were interviewed. Sixty interviews were analyzed. Final measures determine the acceptability of information for analysis and provide guidelines to its interpretation.

To test the hypotheses, various statistical methods were used, as dictated by specific needs of analysis:

- (1) Mean scores, standard deviations, and frequencies were computed for each variables.
- (2) Simple correlations between dependent variables and mass media use were established.
- (3) Multiple regression analyses using stepwise method were computed to ascertain the most powerful predictor.
- (4) A series of one way analyses of variance was then run to determine if exposure to the assigned programs had an effect on each of the two dependent variables.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Samples

Of the 60 Chinese students who participated in the experiment, usable interviews were completed with 60. Statistical data on important characteristics of the Chinese students is necessary prior to the analysis of selected variables.

Their average age was 27, ranging from 22 to 35; the overwhelming majority were graduate students. Those working on their Master's degrees accounted for the largest percentage of the participants (78.3%). Of these 60 subjects, 45% were males and 55% were females; 58% were single and 42% were married. Arts and sciences majors comprised the largest group of subjects with 47%. Other majors represented were engineering with 25%; business administration with 18%; home economics with 8%; and education with 2%.

Students in the sample reported varied lengths of stay in the United States, 28% having been here less than a year, 42% between one and two years, and 30% more than two years. Of the 60 subjects, nearly 65% of them showed strong intention to stay in the United States after

completion of their study. The average length they intended to stay was 10 years, ranging from 2 years to forever.

The data also revealed 77% of the subjects had part-time work and received financial support in the United States by working for different departments on campus. Of the 60 Chinese students who participated in the experiment, 65% said they did not belong to any church or congregation while 35% said they went to a church or congregation regularly.

Mass Media Use

Descriptive Analysis

Frequency of television viewing is computed from the responses to "On the average, about how many hours do you spend weekly, watching television?" Of the 60 subjects, the average time spent watching television in a week was 10.95 hours. Also on the average, the Chinese students listened to radio 10.65 hours per week, and spent 6.07 hours reading newspapers, 2.05 hours reading magazines. In moving watching, the Chinese students reported watching 5.83 movies in a month's time.

When asked how many hours they spent watching television when they were still in Taiwan, the Chinese students reported higher television exposure ($\bar{X}=14.73$

hours) than they did in the United States. They may be too busy studying and working to watch television programs in the United States. This can easily be seen by observing that 77% of the students had part-time jobs on campus. Study and work accounted for large proportions of the students' daily lives. It seems that frequent American mass media exposure is not necessary to their academic achievement.

When asked what they watched most often on television, most Chinese students answered that they watched news (36.7%), which included local and network news. On the reasons why the Chinese students watched television, the respondents agreed that television programs offered them the opportunity to know what is going on in the world (78%). They also agreed that television viewing improves their English proficiency (77%), and offered them the opportunities to relax and release tension (75%).

When asked what they thought about accuracy of the American television programs, half of the students responded that American life had been shown fairly accurate in American television programs. Most students (61.7%) also agreed that television in general is the most believable medium to them and can be used to improve their English proficiency (78.3%).

Zero-order Correlation Analysis

Statistical data regarding the correlations between television viewing and demographic characteristics was also computed. Weak but significant associations were found between television viewing and the demographic variables of sex, marital status, and religion. Of these, the association between marital status and television viewing was strongest. Male students watched significantly more television (13.3 hours per week) than female students (9.03 hours per week) ($F=4.52, p<.05$). Married students watched significantly more television (13.68 hours per week) than single students (9.00 hours per week) ($F=5.42, p<.05$). Students who have religious activities watched significantly less television (8.19 hours per week) than those who have no religious activities (12.44 hours per week) ($F=4.09, p<.05$).

Of the 8 personal needs considered in this study, only three--the need to relax and release tension ($r=.238, p<.05$), the need to improve English proficiency ($r=.344, p<.01$), the need to learn about advertised products ($r=-.227, p<.05$)--were found to be correlated with television viewing.

To determine whether social stereotypes of Americans were related to television viewing, we computed zero-order correlations between television viewing and social

stereotypes of Americans. Our results indicated that only two of the traits were significantly related to television use in the Chinese samples. Ratings of Americans as neat ($r=.254$, $p<.05$) and tradition loving ($r=.268$, $p<.05$) were related to television viewing hours.

However, since earlier analysis indicated a relatively high frequency of radio listening and newspapers reading among the Chinese students, analyses of radio listening, newspapers reading and perceptions of Americans are also provided in this study. The results showed that two of these traits were significantly related to radio listening. Ratings of Americans as aggressive ($r=.278$, $p<.05$) and ostentatious ($r=.241$, $p<.05$) were related to radio listening. The results also showed that only one of the traits--ostentatious ($r=.300$, $p<.01$)--was related to newspapers reading.

To determine whether social values of the Chinese students were related to television viewing, we also computed zero-order correlations between television viewing and social values. The results showed that only 4 of the values were significantly related to television use. Ratings of a sense of accomplishment ($r=.255$, $p<.05$), salvation ($r=-.247$, $p<.05$), self-respect ($r=-.267$, $p<.05$), and cheerful ($r=.238$, $p<.05$) were related to television viewing hours.

These limited significant results can be explained by the possible influence of other information sources such as foreign newspapers and the relatively low mass media exposure. In the present study the students were not tested to indicate how many hours they spent reading Chinese and American newspapers respectively. Some of the Chinese respondents may have included reading Chinese newspapers and magazines in the time for reading newspapers and magazines (which was intended to measure reading only of American newspapers and magazines).

Since the actual exposure to American mass media ($\bar{X}=10.95$ hours per week for television viewing; $\bar{X}=10.65$ hours per week for radio listening; $\bar{X}=6.07$ hours for newspapers reading; and $\bar{X}=2.05$ hours per week for magazines reading) is relatively low, it would be difficult to accurately measure its effects on image perceptions of Americans.

Multiple Regression Analysis

To further determine whether social values and social stereotypes of Americans were related to mass media use, we utilized hours watching television, hours listening to radio, hours reading newspapers, hours reading magazines, accuracy of American television programs, number of American movies seen, talking to Americans, and length of

stay as our predictor variables.

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis was then used to predict the relationship between personal information (e.g., mass media use and interpersonal communications) used as independent variables and social values and social stereotypes of Americans (e.g., aggressive, ambitious, and a comfortable life) used as dependent variables and to find out if there is any particular independent variable which is significantly associated with any particular dependent variable. For example, the multiple regression technique ought to give us the ability to say something like: The more a Chinese student in the United States watches television and listens to radio, the more he is likely to characterize Americans as aggressive or ambitious. We can say that with some confidence, because the regression analysis may show that the independent variables (television and radio use) account for some significant proportion of variance in the subjects' scores on the dependent variables (aggressive, ambitious, and a comfortable life).

The multiple regression technique has three purposes: (1) to obtain a regression equation that indicates how scores on the independent variables could be weighted and summed to obtain the best possible prediction of dependent variables; (2) to evaluate the accuracy of prediction; and (3) to delete independent variables that

do not add substantially to prediction accuracy (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975).

To avoid numerical difficulties, all variables are tested for tolerance prior to entry into an equation. A variable must pass a tolerance test in order to enter a regression equation. The criterion for retaining independent variables in the present study was that the proportion of R square change (or variance) is at least five percent. Those independent variables that account for less than five per cent of R square change were discarded.

With the STEPWISE method, if there are independent variables already in the equation, the variable with the smallest F value is examined for deletion. If the probability of that F is larger than the removal criterion POUT (the default value in this study was 0.10), the variable is removed. The equation is then recomputed without the removed variable and the rest of the variables are examined for removal. Once no more independent variables need to be removed, all independent variables not in the equation are examined for entry. The variable with the largest F value is entered if the probability of that F is smaller than the entry criterion PIN (the default value in this study was 0.05) and the variables pass the tolerance tests governed by the tolerance criterion,

TOLERANCE (the default value in this study was 0.05).

Once a variable has been entered, all variables in the equation are again examined for removal. This process continues until no variables in the equation need to be removed and no variables not in the equation are eligible for entry (Hull & Nie, 1981).

A series of stepwise multiple regression analyses showed, among eight predictor variables, "hours reading magazines" was the most powerful predictor variable. It can be used to predict 3 out of 36 social stereotypes of Americans and 5 out of 36 social values in this study.

Table 1 shows about 17% of social stereotypes of Americans on "aggressive" was explained by two significant predictors--talking to Americans and hours listening to radio. Frequency of talking to Americans (Beta=-.305) was negatively related to "aggressive." The more the subject talked to Americans, the less he was likely to characterize Americans as aggressive. Hours listening to radio (Beta=.251) was positively related to "aggressive." The more time the subject spent listening to radio, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as aggressive.

Table 2 shows about 10.4% of social stereotypes of Americans on "courteous" was explained by one significant predictor--talking to Americans. Frequency of talking to Americans (Beta=.322) was positively related to "courteous."

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "AGGRESSIVE" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Talking to Americans	-.327**	-1.345*	-.305
Hours listening to radio	.278*	.077*	.251
Total R ² = .170**			

** Statistically significant at or beyond the .01 level.
* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "COURTEOUS" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Talking to Americans	.322**	1.144*	.322
Total R ² = .104*			

** Statistically significant at or beyond the .01 level.
* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

✓ The more the subject talked to Americans, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as courteous.

Table 3 shows about 7.3% of social stereotypes of Americans on "faithful" was explained by one significant predictor--accuracy of American television programs. The opinion concerning the accuracy of American television programs (Beta=-.270) was negatively related to "faithful." The subjects who thought American television programs had been shown less accurate tended to judge Americans as faithful than the subjects who thought American television programs had been shown more accurate.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "FAITHFUL" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Accuracy of American television programs	-.270*	-.186*	-.270
		Total R ² = .073*	

* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

Table 4 shows about 13.4% of social stereotypes of Americans on "honest" was explained by one significant predictor--hours reading magazines. Hours reading magazines (Beta=.366) was positively related to "honest."

The more time the subject spent reading magazines, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as honest.

TABLE 4
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "HONEST" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Hours reading magazines	.366**	.388**	.366
Total $R^2 = .134$ **			

** Statistically significant at or beyond the .01 level.

Table 5 shows about 30.9% of social stereotypes of Americans on "neat" was explained by two significant predictors--number of American movies seen and hours reading magazines. Number of American movies seen (Beta=.443) was positively related to "neat." The more American movies the subject has seen, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as neat. Hours reading magazines (Beta=.351) was positively related to "neat." The more time the subject spent reading magazines, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as neat.

Table 6 shows about 9.0% of social stereotypes of Americans on "ostentatious" was explained by one

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "NEAT" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Number of American movies seen	.432***	.162***	.443
Hours reading magazines	.336**	.324**	.351
Total $R^2 = .309$ ***			

*** Statistically significant at or beyond the .001 level.
** Statistically significant at or beyond the .01 level.

TABLE 6
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "OSTENTATIOUS" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Hours reading newspapers	.300**	.212*	.300
Total $R^2 = .090$ *			

** Statistically significant at or beyond the .01 level.
* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

significant predictor--hours reading newspapers. Hours reading newspapers (Beta=.300) was positively related to

"ostentatious." The more time the subject spent reading newspapers, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as ostentatious.

Table 7 shows about 7.8% of social stereotypes of Americans on "passionate" was explained by one significant predictor--length of stay. Length of stay (Beta=-.279) was negatively related to "passionate." The longer the subject has stayed in the United States, the less he was likely to characterize Americans as passionate.

TABLE 7
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "PASSIONATE" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Length of stay	-.279*	-.058*	-.279
Total R ² = .078*			

* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

Table 8 shows about 60.3% of social stereotypes of Americans on "sensitive" was explained by two significant predictors--hours reading magazines and accuracy of American television programs. Hours reading magazines (Beta=.775) was positively related to "sensitive " The

more time the subject spent reading magazines, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as sensitive. The opinion concerning the accuracy of American television programs (Beta=.172) was positively related to "sensitive." The subject who thought American television programs had been shown more accurately tended to judge Americans as more sensitive than the subject who thought American television programs had been shown less accurately.

TABLE 8
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "SENSITIVE" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Hours reading magazines	.757***	.453***	.775
Accuracy of American television programs	.092	.293*	.172
Total R ² = .603***			

*** Statistically significant at or beyond the .001 level.
* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

Table 9 shows about 7.3% of social stereotypes of Americans on "straight-forward" was explained by one significant predictor--length of stay. Length of stay (Beta=-.271) was negatively related to "straight-forward."

The longer the subject has stayed in the United States, the less he was likely to characterize Americans as straight-forward.

TABLE 9
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "STRAIGHT-FORWARD" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Length of stay	-.271*	-.051*	-.271
Total R ² = .073*			

* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

Table 10 shows about 7.2% of social stereotypes of Americans on "tradition-loving" was explained by one significant predictor--hours watching television. Hours watching television (Beta=.268) was positively related to "tradition-loving." The more time the subject spent watching television, the more he was likely to characterize Americans as tradition-loving.

If we put all eight predictor variables together, social stereotypes of Americans can still be explained by certain predictor models. Table 11 shows ten statistically significant social stereotypes of Americans perceived by

the Chinese students. We can use these 8 predictor variables to predict social stereotypes of Americans only on aggressive, courteous, faithful, honest, neat, ostentatious, passionate, sensitive, straight-forward, and tradition-loving.

Examination of these 10 statistically significant tables (Table 1-Table 10) revealed a generally consistent tendency for the subjects with heavier exposure to mass media than the subjects with less exposure to describe Americans as more aggressive (Table 1), honest (Table 4), neat (Table 5), ostentatious (Table 6), sensitive (Table 8), and tradition-loving (Table 10).

Seven out of 36 partial betas showed statistically significant relationships between mass media use and social stereotypes of Americans. Mass media use is more

TABLE 10
RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
FOR "TRADITION-LOVING" VARIABLE

Variable	Zero-order correlation coefficient (r)	Unstandardized regression coefficient (B)	Standardized regression coefficient (Beta)
Hours watching television	.268*	.010*	.268
Total $R^2 = .072^*$			

*Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

TABLE 11
 SUMMARY TABLE OF
 STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS^a

Dependent variable	Total R ²
AGGRESSIVE	.170**
AMBITIOUS	
ARGUMENTATIVE	
ARROGANT	
ARTISTIC	
ATHLETIC	
CONCEITED	
COURTEOUS	.104*
CRUEL	
EFFICIENT	
FAITHFUL	.073*
HONEST	.134**
IMPULSIVE	
INDIVIDUALISTIC	
INDUSTRIOUS	
INTELLIGENT	
KIND	
LAZY	
LOYAL TO FAMILY TIES	
MATERIALISTIC	
MERCENARY	
MUSICAL	
NEAT	.309***
OSTENTATIOUS	.090*
PASSIONATE	.078
PERSISTENT	
PLEASURE-LOVING	
PRACTICAL	
QUIET	
RUDE	
SCIENTIFICALLY-MINDED	.603***
SENSITIVE	
SENSUAL	.073*
STRAIGHT-FORWARD	
STUBBORN	
TRADITION-LOVING	.072*

*** Statistically significant at or beyond the .001 level.

** Statistically significant at or beyond the .01 level.

* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

^a Entries are significant social stereotypes of Americans perceived by the Chinese students.

powerfully related to social stereotypes than interpersonal communications with Americans and length of stay. However, these relationships were weak in the Chinese sample.

The second independent variable, talking to Americans, was shown to be less consistently and less powerfully related to social stereotypes of Americans. Only 2 of the partial betas (aggressive and courteous) showed statistically significant relationships between talking to Americans and social stereotypes of Americans.

The third independent variable, length of stay, indicated a consistent but weak relationship with perceptions of Americans. Only 2 of the partial betas showed statistically significant relationships between length of stay and social stereotypes of Americans (passionate and straight-forward). Length of stay is less powerfully related to social stereotypes of Americans than mass media use.

The same pattern of results as described in Table 1 through Table 10 was used for 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values. The data showed similar results for social values when using stepwise multiple regression analysis. Of the 36 social values that were used in this study, 13 values (an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, a world at peace, family security, pleasure, self-respect in terminal values and broadminded, courageous,

imaginative, logical, polite, responsible, self-controlled in instrumental values) were significantly related with the 8 predictor variables.

Ten out of 36 partial betas showed statistically significant relationships between mass media use and social values. Only 2 of the partial betas showed statistically significant relationships between talking to Americans and social values of Chinese students. Only 3 of the partial betas showed statistically significant relationships between length of stay and social values.

Mass media use is more powerfully related to social values than interpersonal communications with Americans and length of stay.

Hence, hypothesis 1 was partially supported. Mass media use (including television viewing, radio listening, newspapers and magazines reading, accuracy of American television programs, and movies seen) could be used as predictors only for some social stereotypes of Americans. Overall, findings concerning hypothesis 1 were primarily positive, showing a little relationship between mass media use and social stereotypes of Americans by Chinese students.

Perceptions of Americans

Content Analysis

The content analysis was administered to three different Chinese students for each program during the week of March 4, 1984. The purpose of the content analysis was to determine how certain "facts" and aspects of social reality were presented in the selected television programs--Dynasty and Family; these "facts" were then compared with other conceptions of the same "facts" and aspects derived from surveys after the actual experiment.

They showed the extent to which program characteristics occurred in the program samples and the major difference between the two selected programs.

Table 12 shows the 5 terminal values used most often by our Chinese respondents to describe program characteristics. The Chinese saw family security, mature love, an exciting life, social recognition and a sense of accomplishment as the values that were always shown or emphasized in "Dynasty," whereas family security, mature love, true friendship, freedom, and inner harmony as frequently emphasized values in "Family."

The results of the analysis indicated that both programs comprised only two of the same values--family security and mature love--in their program characteristics. These different types of findings provided evidence that

significant differences did exist between the two selected television programs.

TABLE 12
TOP 5 TERMINAL VALUES
SHOWN IN SELECTED PROGRAMS^a

Value	Rankings of checking values	
	(Dynasty)	(Family)
An exciting life	3	
A sense of accomplishment	5	
Family security	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Freedom		4
Inner harmony		5
Mature love	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>
Social recognition	4	
True friendship		3

^aEntries are the rankings of 5 terminal values that were always shown or emphasized in the selected programs.

Table 13 shows the 5 instrumental values used most often by the Chinese students to describe program characteristics. The Chinese saw loving, ambitious, capable, clean, and logical as the values that were always emphasized in "Dynasty," whereas loving, helpful, honest, broadminded, and self-controlled as frequently emphasized values in "Family." The results showed that almost completely different characteristics existed in

the two selected television programs.

TABLE 13
TOP 5 INSTRUMENTAL VALUES
SHOWN IN SELECTED PROGRAMS^a

Value	Rankings of checking values	
	(Dynasty)	(Family)
Ambitious	2	
Broadminded		4
Capable	3	
Clean	4	
Helpful		2
Honest		3
Logical	5	
Loving	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Self-controlled		5

^aEntries are the rankings of 5 instrumental values that were always shown or emphasized in the selected programs.

Table 14 shows the 10 adjectives used most often by the Chinese samples to describe program characteristics. The Chinese saw loyal to family ties, materialistic, impulsive, passionate, arrogant, practical, kind, ambitious, sensitive, and ostentatious as the characteristics always portrayed in "Dynasty," most of which are considered to be negative traits.

The Chinese samples, however, saw loyal to family ties, individualistic, kind, practical, faithful, sensitive,

TABLE 14
 TOP 10 TRAITS
 PORTRAYED IN SELECTED PROGRAMS^a

Trait	Rankings of checking traits	
	(Dynasty)	(Family)
AMBITIOUS	8	
ARROGANT	5	
FAITHFUL		5
IMPULSIVE	3	
INDIVIDUALISTIC		2
KIND	<u>7</u>	<u>3</u>
LOYAL TO FAMILY TIES	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
MATERIALISTIC	2	
NEAT		9
OSTENTATIOUS	10	
PASSIONATE	<u>4</u>	<u>7</u>
PRACTICAL	<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>
QUIET		10
SENSITIVE	<u>9</u>	<u>6</u>
STRAIGHT-FORWARD		8

^aEntries are the rankings of 10 adjectives or traits that were always portrayed in the selected programs.

passionate, straight-forward, neat, and quiet as the characteristics always portrayed in "Family," most of which are considered to be neutral or positive.

The results showed a clear distinction between the two types of programs selected in this study indicating that the two selected different kinds of programs were

quite representative, and that the overall questionnaire was satisfactory.

Perceptions of Americans

Table 15 presents the 10 adjectives or traits most frequently assigned by the Chinese students to describe Americans in general. These traits represent the 10 "key" traits which were selected or checked by each subject as being the most characteristics of Americans.

The results showed an impressively high degree of agreement in verbal characterizations. The Chinese saw Americans as, in order of frequency, aggressive (64.8%), individualistic (60.5%), practical (52%), materialistic (30.7%), efficient (28.2%), pleasure-loving (26.3%), athletic (25.2%), conceited (24.7%), passionate (24%), and sensual (19.8%). In general, the Chinese students— used fairly favorable (or positive) attitudes to describe Americans. However, the term "intelligent," "industrious," "scientifically-minded," "persistent," and "faithful" steadily decline in frequency.

Table 16 presents the 5 most important terminal and instrumental values to the Chinese students participated in the experiment. These values represent the 5 "key" values which were selected or checked by each subject as the most important values to them at the time of study.

TABLE 15
 TRAITS FREQUENTLY USED
 BY CHINESE STUDENTS
 TO STEREOTYPE AMERICANS (n=60)

Trait	Weighted score ^a	Mean score
AGGRESSIVE	389(1)	6.48
INDIVIDUALISTIC	363(2)	6.05
PRACTICAL	312(3)	5.20
MATERIALISTIC	184(4)	3.07
EFFICIENT	169(5)	2.82
PLEASURE LOVING	158(6)	2.63
ATHLETIC	151(7)	2.52
CONCEITED	148(8)	2.47
PASSIONATE	144(9)	2.40
SENSUAL	119(10)	1.98

^aRankings of 10 most frequently used traits are indicated in parenthesis.

TABLE 16
 TOP 5 TERMINAL AND INSTRUMENTAL VALUES
 ASSIGNED BY CHINESE STUDENTS (n=60)

Value	Weighted score ^a	Mean score
<u>Terminal Values</u>		
Family security	99(1)	1.65
A sense of accomplishment	96(2)	1.60
Wisdom	88(3)	1.47
Happiness	87(4)	1.45
Inner harmony	78(5)	1.30
<u>Instrumental Values</u>		
Broadminded	125(1)	2.08
Honest	115(2)	1.92
Intellectual	101(3)	1.68
Capable	75(4)	1.25
Responsible	73(5)	1.22

^aRankings of 5 most important values for terminal and instrumental values are indicated in parenthesis.

The Chinese students saw, in order of frequency, family security, a sense of accomplishment, wisdom, happiness, and inner harmony as the most important among the terminal values. The 5 most important instrumental values for the Chinese students were, in the order of frequency, being broadminded, honest, intellectual, capable, and responsible.

•

Comparison Between Content Analysis and Experiment

This research consisted of two interrelated parts: (1) content analysis, and (2) cultivation analysis. Content analysis focused on the "facts" portrayed in the selected television programs. The analysis identified social values and the traits concerning the Americans that were always shown in the selected television programs. Next, we questioned the Chinese students about their perceptions of the facts.

The findings reported here focus primarily upon the portrayal of social values and social stereotypes of Americans. Presumably, the Chinese students exposed to the "negative" program would have stronger negative images of Americans whereas the students exposed to the "positive" program would have more positive images. It is also assumed that the Chinese students exposed to the

selected treatment programs would have a stronger tendency to adopt some of the social values which were shown in the programs.

Table 17 and Table 18 show the comparison between the results of content analysis and treatment stimulus for both groups.

As Table 17 shows, the results found in experiment (columns 2 and 4) did not display consistency with the results derived from content analysis (columns 1 and 3). The corresponding highest traits perceived by the Chinese students in content analysis showed a low (4 out of 10 in "Dynasty" and 3 out of 10 in "Family") degree of overlap with those of the experimental groups.

There are some general differences between the traits perceived by the Chinese students in comparison with the results from content analysis and from the experiment. Traits such as "arrogant," "materialistic," "ostentatious," and "practical" still existed along with some "cultivation" effects in the "Dynasty" group, while "individualistic," "passionate," and "practical" existed in the "Family" group. No matter which television program the subject viewed, there was a tendency for both groups of students to give almost the same weight of ratings to each adjective. With the experiment in this study, however, we could tell small differences after stimulus, but we

TABLE 17
 TRAITS DISTRIBUTION: COMPARISON OF
 CONTENT ANALYSIS AND EXPERIMENT
 FOR BOTH GROUPS

Trait	(Dynasty) ^a		(Family) ^a	
	Content analysis (1)	Experiment (n=20) (2)	Content analysis (3)	Experiment (n=20) (4)
AGGRESSIVE		1		1
AMBITIOUS	8			
ARROGANT	<u>5</u>	<u>8</u>		10
ATHLETIC		7		6
CONCEITED		5		
EFFICIENT				8
FAITHFUL			5	
IMPULSIVE	3			
INDIVIDUALISTIC		3	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>
KIND	7		3	
LOYAL TO FAMILY TIES	1		1	
MATERIALISTIC	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>		4
NEAT			9	
OSTENTATIOUS	<u>10</u>	<u>9</u>		
PASSIONATE	4		<u>7</u>	<u>9</u>
PLEASURE LOVING		6		7
PRACTICAL	<u>6</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>
QUIET			10	
SENSITIVE	9		6	
SENSUAL				5
STRAIGHT-FORWARD		10	8	

^aEntries are the rankings of 10 adjectives perceived most frequently by the Chinese students for each test.

TABLE 18

TERMINAL AND INSTRUMENTAL VALUES
DISTRIBUTION: COMPARISON OF CONTENT
ANALYSIS AND EXPERIMENT FOR BOTH GROUPS

Value	(Dynasty) ^a		(Family) ^a	
	Content analysis (1)	Experiment (n=20) (2)	Content analysis (3)	Experiment (n=20) (4)
<u>Terminal Values</u>				
A sense of accomplishment	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>		1
An exciting life	3			
Family security	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
Freedom			4	
Happiness		3		
Inner harmony		4	5	
Mature love	2		<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>
National security				4
Social recognition	4			
True friendship			3	
Wisdom		5		3
<u>Instrumental Values</u>				
Ambitious	2			5
Broadminded		1	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>
Capable	3			2
Clean	4			
Helpful			2	
Honest		2	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
Intellectual		3		1
Logical	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>		
Loving	1		1	
Responsible		4		
Self-controlled			5	

^a Entries are the rankings of 5 values checked most often by the Chinese students for each test.

would have no way of knowing if the two groups had the same degree of stereotypes initially.

Table 18 shows similar results for the comparison. The corresponding highest values (both terminal and instrumental values) checked by the Chinese students in content analysis also showed a low (2 out of 5 in both "Dynasty" and "Family" for terminal value, 1 out of 5 in "Dynasty" and 2 out of 5 in "Family" for instrumental value) degree of overlap with those of the experimental groups.

These findings signify a weak relationship was found between social values, social stereotypes of Americans and television viewing. We can hence summarize that differential program viewing has no significant effect on social values and perceptions of Americans by Chinese students.

Mass Media Use and Perceptions of Americans

To determine whether television viewing influenced how often respondents marked adjectives as descriptive of Americans, respondents were divided into three groups according to differential television program viewing--controlled earlier in the experiment period. Those who watched the "negative" program--"Dynasty"--were in group

1; those who watched the "positive" program--"Family"-- were group 2 and group 3 was for those who viewed neither of the programs.

Mean scores for the adjectives were then computed for each of these groups, and a series of one way analyses of variance was used to determine whether ratings of the adjective and value differed between groups. Because our interest was in actual social stereotypes of Americans and Chinese students' affected social values and in finding out the image differences between groups, only 36 adjectives and 36 values were analyzed.

Table 19 and Table 20 present mean score and analysis of variance for the adjective "ostentatious" with different program viewing as the independent variable. Apparently, the probability ($F=4.519$) in Table 20 is statistically significant at the .05 level, and the mean score for the different program viewing (Table 19) indicates a positive relationship. Those who watched "Dynasty" (i.e., group 1, which has a mean score of 2.30) were the ones who picked the adjective "ostentatious" as typical of Americans. Those who watched "Family" (i.e., group 2, which has a mean score of 0.60) were the ones who were least likely to pick this adjective.

TABLE 19
 MEAN SCORES FOR DIFFERENT PROGRAM
 VIEWING AND THE ADJECTIVE "OSTENTATIOUS"
 PERCEIVED BY THE CHINESE STUDENTS

Group	Count	Mean
Group 1 (Dynasty)	20	2.30
Group 2 (Family)	20	0.60

TABLE 20
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TABLE 19

Source	Sum of square	D.F.	Mean square	F	p.
Between groups	28.900	1	28.900	4.519	.040*
Within groups	242.999	38	6.395		
Total	271.899	39	6.972		

* Statistically significant at or beyond the .05 level.

The same pattern of results as described in Table 19 and 20 was used for the other adjectives and the 36 social values. Of the 36 adjectives and the 36 values that were used in this study, 35 adjectives and all 36 values were not significantly related with differential program viewing by the Chinese students (they all have a F probability level greater than .05). The only adjective that appeared

to have a significant relationship with different program viewing is "ostentatious."

Hence, the hypothesis 2, which predicted the causal relationship between differential program viewing and social values and social stereotypes of Americans by the Chinese students, was not supported by the previous investigation. Different program viewing will not lead to differences in describing Americans and their social values among the Chinese students studying in the United States.

However, most of these 36 adjectives (aggressive, ambitious, arrogant, conceited, efficient, faithful, impulsive, individualistic, industrious, intelligent, loyal to family ties, materialistic, mercenary, musical, ostentatious, passionate, sensual, and stubborn) have mean scores in a direction indicating a tendency for the adjective to be mentioned frequently by the Chinese students who participated in the experiment. It means those who watched "Dynasty" would have a stronger tendency to describe Americans with negative adjectives whereas those who watched "Family" would have a stronger tendency to describe Americans positively.

One important finding in the results shows that those who viewed "Dynasty"--the negative program--were the ones who picked the adjective "ostentatious"

as typical of Americans while those who viewed "Family" --the positive program--were the ones who were least likely to pick this adjective. Ostentatious, considered a negative trait, which means likes to show off for the purpose of this study, were also considered one of the most important traits both in content analysis and in experiment (see Table 17). It means the social stereotypes of Americans on ostentatious was influenced by television use in the Chinese student samples. "Cultivation" effects of television were supported by social stereotypes of Americans on ostentatious.

We also attempted to determine if the Chinese students' perceptions of Americans were influenced by their interpersonal communications with Americans. Results of the analysis of variance showed that the Chinese students' perceptions of Americans were not affected by their communications with Americans. Adjectives "aggressive" and "courteous" are the only 2 adjectives that were significantly related with their interpersonal communications with Americans. However, the 2 adjectives have mean scores in different directions, indicating that the statistical significance found in the analyses could be only a result of coincident.

The failure to find support for hypothesis 2, plus the weak support for hypothesis 1, raises the following

question: Why do these hypotheses from social learning theory concerning cultivation effects experience only weak to non-existent support? Potentially, there are at least 5 possible answers:

- (1) The social learning theory may not be a good predictor for social stereotypes of Americans and social values.

Social learning theory concerning cultivation effects assumes that the more time people spend watching television, the more likely they are to perceive the real world in ways that reflect the patterns found in television programs. However, some researchers contend that the relationships reported between television viewing and the conception of social reality may be spurious, or the relation may hold up only under conditions that require very different theoretical explanation (Hawkins & Pingree, 1981).

The possible influence of other agents of socialization --family and peer group--can not be ignored. These influences may have neutralized the effects of television. This is especially true for the Chinese students, as we observe that Chinese students always gather together to share their problems and feelings. They communicate in the Chinese way when they are with Chinese.

Peer groups play an especially important role in the formation of social stereotypes and social values among

Chinese students. Thus, social stereotypes of Americans may be generated by past socialization, interaction with Americans, or interaction with Chinese peer groups rather than television viewing alone.

(2) The research period was too short to test the actual effects of television.

The scheduled research period was 4 weeks starting from March 28 through April 20, 1984. Unfortunately, the television viewing in fourth week was missed because of the unexpected cancellation of both scheduled programs by the television stations.

Limitations of time, resources, and size of our samples of subjects have not yet permitted the investigation of perceptual and conceptual correlations with television viewing. Furthermore, the relatively low mass media use by the Chinese students may account in part for the apparent limited effects of television viewing.

(3) The research technique using experimental test of the consequences of exposure to one particular type of television program was inappropriate.

According to the explanation of Gerbner and Gross (1976), the world of television drama consists of a complex and integrated system of characters, events, actions and relationships whose effects can not be measured with regard to any single element or program

seen in isolation.

- (4) The research measurement--stereotype check list--
was not sensitive enough to test the social stereotypes
of Americans.

Most stereotypes in this study comprised both positive and negative meanings. The consensus is never purely favorable or unfavorable, although the degree of evaluative differentiation within the stereotype varies widely from one image to another.

Positive values consistently outnumbered negative values in this study: only 11 of the 36 characterizations are decidedly unfavorable in overall composition.

How many stereotype traits would be inclusive enough to test the perceptions of Americans by a foreign student group? And how will the sets of inclusive "stereotype check list" be chosen? An up-to-date list should be carefully developed.

- (5) The methodological problem of measuring social
stereotypes of Americans.

The dependent variable used in this study--social stereotyps--was not easy to test. Most cultivation studies measure simple and single concepts or effects such as "At what age does a man become elderly or old?" (Gerbner et al., 1980); "Would you be afraid to walk in the city at night? Yes, no." (Gerbner et al., 1978); "Of every 10

parents, how many help their kids a lot?" (Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1982).

The research reported here studied social stereotypes of Americans (consisting of 36 modified adjectives or traits). It was hard for us to measure such a complicated concept like social stereotypes by using 36 adjectives.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary and Conclusions

The major objectives of this study were the following: (1) to determine how the Chinese students (at Texas Tech University) use the mass media; (2) to describe motivations for mass media use by the Chinese students; (3) to describe social values and social stereotypes of Americans from the selected television program contents; (4) to describe social values and social stereotypes of Americans as perceived by the Chinese students; (5) to determine if television viewing by the Chinese students is related to their perceptions of Americans; (6) to determine if television viewing by the Chinese students is related to their terminal and instrumental values.

The purpose of the present study was to establish the causal relationship between media use and perceptions of Americans among the Chinese students studying in the United States. The hypotheses were: (1) Mass media use will be correlated with social stereotypes of Americans by Chinese students. (2) Those subjects who viewed the positive program would have much more positive perceptions of Americans than those who viewed the negative program.

Chinese students studying in the United States were studied because of the following reasons: (1) There is a growing number of foreign students studying in the United States and the Chinese students (from Taiwan) made up the second largest group of foreign students in the United States. (2) Previous studies of foreign students indicate that they use the mass media as a main source of information about American culture and their contact with Americans in social relations is limited, including the Chinese. (3) There have been increasingly frequent contacts between the United States and the Republic of China (also known as Taiwan) during the last forty years. Basically, we expected that they would be more susceptible to the influence of television than members of the older generation who were educated in the traditional Chinese way.

Subjects were selected from "Directory of the Chinese Students Association" and randomly assigned to three groups and questionnaires were completed through face-to-face interview by the researcher.

Results were analyzed using zero-order correlations, stepwise multiple regression analysis, and analysis of variance.

Regarding how the Chinese students use the mass media, results indicate that the Chinese students are relatively low mass media users. They reported to have watched

television 10.95 hours a week and they said they watched television primarily for informational purposes. As to the kinds of television programs watched most often, the Chinese students watched more "television news," including network and local news.

For the newspaper medium, the Chinese students spent an average of 6.07 hours a week on newspapers reading. The Chinese students are low magazines readers. They spent 2.05 hours per week on magazines reading. They watched 5.83 movies in the past 4 weeks.

Regarding the perceptions of Americans by the Chinese students, the following adjectives were picked by the Chinese as typical of Americans: aggressive (64.8%), individualistic (60.5%), practical (52%), materialistic (30.7%), efficient (28.2%), pleasure-loving (26.3%), athletic (25.2%), conceited (24.7%), passionate (24%), and sensual (19.8%). Most of these traits were considered positive.

Regarding the social values of the Chinese students, they picked family security, a sense of accomplishment, wisdom, happiness, and inner harmony as their most important terminal values and broadminded, honest, intellectual, capable, and responsible as their most important instrumental values.

The correlational analysis and stepwise multiple

regression analysis show that mass media use was the most powerful predictor, although they provided only weak and partial relationship between mass media use and perceptions of Americans.

Analysis of variance was utilized to determine the relationship between differential television program viewing and social values and social stereotypes of Americans. On the whole, the results showed no causal relationship. There were no significant differences between the adjectives perceived by both groups of subjects.

Additional analysis was provided by the analysis of variance between the adjectives perceived by the Chinese as typical of Americans and their interpersonal communications with Americans. Results showed that the Chinese students' perceptions of Americans were not affected by their communications with Americans.

The findings can be explained by the coding of the adjectives in our study. Adjectives that were not perceived by our samples were coded as "0," those that were picked in the 10 adjectives list were coded as "1" (the weakest) to "10" (the strongest). The main problem is, since there are 36 adjectives, any adjective will have a fairly low and extensive frequency because there are 26 adjectives coded as "0" for each subject. This will affect the means and standard deviations and in turn

result in a low possibility for statistical significance when using analysis of variance. Also, perceptions of Americans were influenced by other agents of socialization --family and peer group--rather than television alone.

Most of the 36 adjectives (aggressive, ambitious, arrogant, conceited, efficient, faithful, impulsive, individualistic, industrious, intelligent, loyal to family ties, materialistic, mercenary, musical, ostentatious, passionate, sensual, and stubborn) have mean scores in a direction indicating a tendency for the adjective to be mentioned frequently by the Chinese students who participated in the experiment. It means those who watched "Dynasty" would have a stronger tendency to describe Americans with negative adjectives whereas those who watched "Family" would have a stronger tendency to describe Americans positively.

One important finding in the results shows that those who viewed "Dynasty"--the negative program--were the ones who picked the adjective "ostentatious" as typical of Americans while those who viewed "Family"--the positive program--were the ones who were least likely to pick this adjective. It means the social stereotypes of Americans on ostentatious was influenced by television use in the Chinese student samples. "Cultivation" effects of television were supported by

social stereotypes of Americans on ostentatious.

Suggestions for Further Study

There has been limited research on foreign students in the United States. Most of the studies fail to do a systematic and in-depth study on perceptions of Americans and the host culture and only briefly mention such aspects as their media use, life and academic adjustment, and descriptive analysis. The present study looks at Chinese perceptions of Americans in a cross-cultural communication situation and at the factors which influence Chinese students cultivation to mass media in the host society.

Although an investigation of this type does not permit broad generalizations, the ratings are especially useful for present and future investigations, and they provide us with an overall index of the stereotype composition. The findings indicate that there are no main effects of television viewing on Chinese students' perceptions of Americans. However, there are certain methodological limitations in this study.

The 5 possibilities for the failure to predict social stereotypes of Americans from the perspectives of social learning theory--cultivation research--mentioned in Chapter four provide direct suggestions for subsequent research.

Suggestions for further research of foreign students' perceptions of Americans are as follow:

- (1) A study of "change" would investigate foreign students over time, obtaining measures of their perceptions of Americans for example, before they left their home country, and measures for the same group at different periods after they had settled in the new culture.
- (2) Study in depth every information sources (including United States originated media, home country originated media, and other interpersonal communication channels) for forming an attitude or perception about Americans.
- (3) Covering a longer period of research time and a larger sample to test the actual mass media effects.
- (4) Developing more efficient test items, including closed and open-ended questions, involving situations and their representative.

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APPENDICES

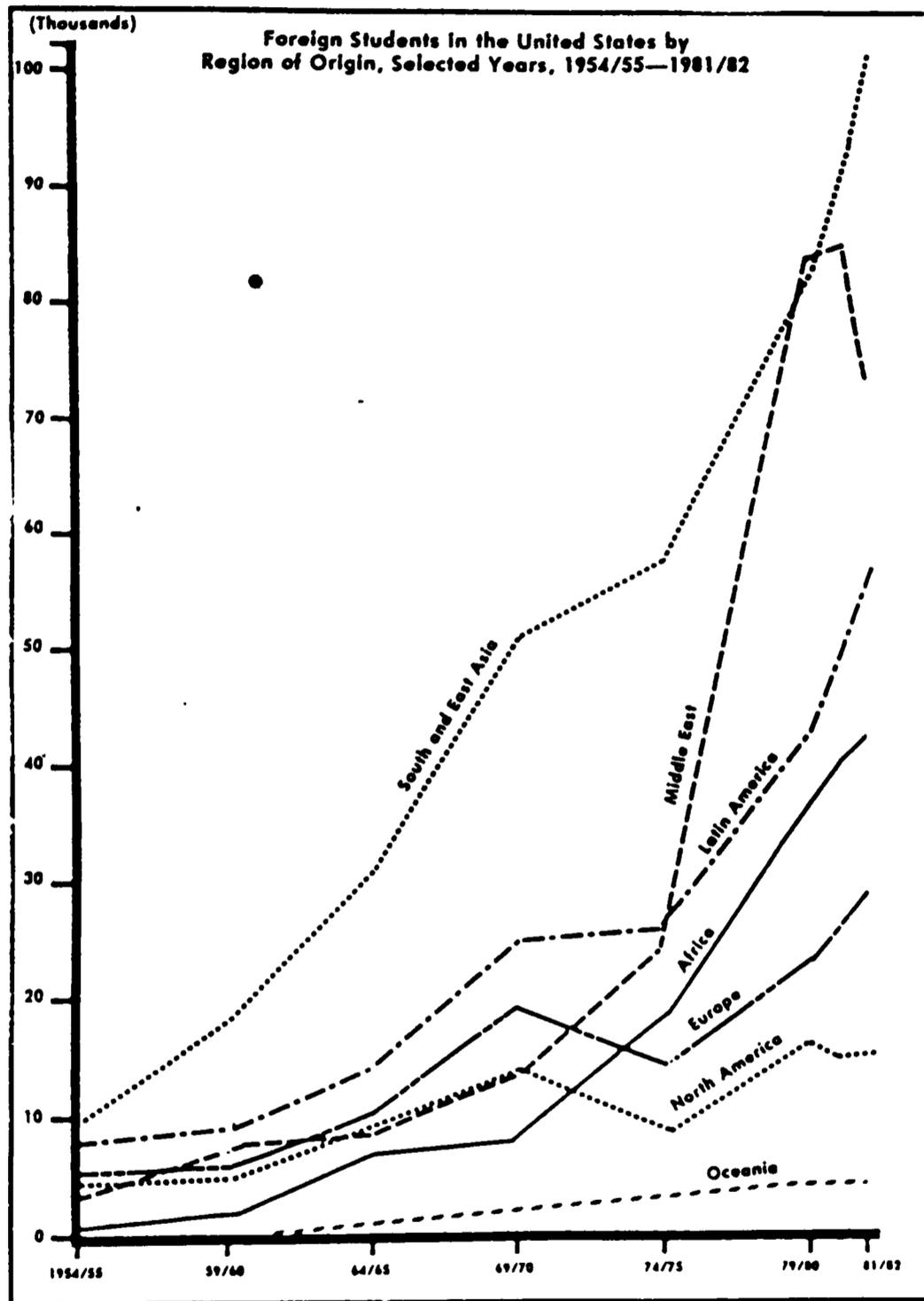
- A. FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE U.S. (1949/50 - 1981/82)
- B. FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE U.S. (1954/55 - 1981/82)
- C. LEADING COUNTRIES AND TERRITORIES OF FOREIGN STUDENTS
- D. TERMINAL AND INSTRUMENTAL VALUES
- E. MODIFIED SOCIAL STEREOTYPES LIST
- F. CONTENT ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE
- G. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THREE GROUPS

APPENDIX A: FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE U.S. (1949/50 - 1981/82)

Foreign Students Reported: 1949/50-1981/82	
Year	Students Reported
1949/50	26,433
1950/51	29,813
1951/52	30,462
1952/53	33,675
1953/54	33,833
1954/55	34,232
1955/56	36,494
1956/57	40,666
1957/58	43,391
1958/59	47,245
1959/60	48,486
1960/61	53,107
1961/62	58,086
1962/63	64,705
1963/64	74,814
1964/65	82,045
1965/66	82,709
1966/67	100,262
1967/68	110,315
1968/69	121,362
1969/70	134,959
1970/71	144,708
1971/72	140,126
1972/73	146,097
1973/74	151,066
1974/75	154,580
1975/76	179,344
1976/77	203,068
1977/78	235,509
1978/79	263,938
1979/80	286,343
1980/81	311,882
1981/82	326,299

Source: Adapted from Institute of International Education, 1983.

APPENDIX B: FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE U.S. (1954/55 - 1981/82)



Source: Adapted from Institute of International Education, 1983.

APPENDIX C: LEADING COUNTRIES AND TERRITORIES OF
FOREIGN STUDENTS

Country/ Territory	Foreign Students
Iran	35,860
Taiwan	20,520
Nigeria	19,560
Canada	14,950
Japan	14,020
Venezuela	13,960
India	11,250
Saudi Arabia	10,220
Malaysia	9,420
Hong Kong	8,990
Korea, Republic of	8,070
Mexico	7,890
Lebanon	6,800
Thailand	6,730
Jordan	6,180
United Kingdom	5,540
Vietnam	4,940
China, People's Republic of	4,350
Colombia	4,310
Greece	4,220
Indonesia	4,070
Germany, Federal Republic of	3,640
Pakistan	3,500
Philippines	3,410
Kuwait	3,330
France	2,990
Turkey	2,940
Libya	2,900
Brazil	2,820
Israel	2,550
Jamaica	2,430
Cuba	2,220
Panama	2,160
Kenya	2,090
Egypt	2,060
Peru	1,850
Singapore	1,840
Ghana	1,830
Ethiopia	1,760
Bangladesh	1,610
Iraq	1,600
Australia	1,550
El Salvador	1,550

Source: Adapted from Institute of International Education,
1983.

APPENDIX D: TERMINAL AND INSTRUMENTAL VALUES

Terminal Values

A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)
Freedom (independence, free choice)
Happiness (contentedness)
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
National security (protection from attack)
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
Salvation (saved, eternal life)
Self-respect (self-esteem)
Social recognition (respect, admiration)
True friendship (close companionship)
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

Instrumental Values

Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)
Broadminded (open-minded)
Capable (competent, effective)
Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)
Clean (neat, tidy)
Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)
Forgiving (willing to pardon others)
Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
Honest (sincere, truthful)
Imaginative (daring, creative)
Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)
Logical (consistent, rational)
Loving (affectionate, tender)
Obedient (dutiful, respectful)
Polite (courteous, well-mannered)
Responsible (dependable, reliable)
Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)

Source: Adapted from Milton Rokeach, *The Nature of Human Values*, New York: Free Press, 1973.

APPENDIX E: MODIFIED SOCIAL STEREOTYPES LIST

AGGRESSIVE
AMBITIOUS
ARGUMENTATIVE
ARROGANT
ARTISTIC
ATHLETIC
CONCEITED
COURTEOUS
CRUEL
EFFICIENT (gets things done)
FAITHFUL
HONEST
IMPULSIVE
INDIVIDUALISTIC (prefers to do things alone)
INDUSTRIOUS (hard-working)
INTELLIGENT
KIND
LAZY
LOYAL TO FAMILY TIES
MATERIALISTIC
MERCENARY (does things mainly for money)
MUSICAL
NEAT
OSTENTATIOUS (likes to show off)
PASSIONATE
PERSISTENT
PLEASURE LOVING
PRACTICAL
QUIET
RUDE
SCIENTIFICALLY-MINDED
SENSITIVE
SENSUAL (or sex-oriented)
STRAIGHT-FORWARD
STUBBORN
TRADITION-LOVING

APPENDIX F: CONTENT ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Below is a list of 18 values in alphabetical order. First, study the list carefully. Then, please pick 5 values that are always shown or emphasized in the program that you watch, and rank them from 1 to 5. One is the most often, five is the least often.

- _____ A comfortable life (a prosperous life) 舒適的生活
- _____ An exciting life (a stimulating, active life) 多采多姿的生活
- _____ A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution) 成就感
- _____ A world at peace (free of war and conflict) 和平的世界
- _____ A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts) 美麗的世界
- _____ Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all) 平等
- _____ Family security (taking care of loved ones) 家庭安全
- _____ Freedom (independence, free choice) 自由
- _____ Happiness (contentedness) 快樂滿足
- _____ Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict) 內心平衡的
- _____ Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy) 成熟的愛情
- _____ National security (protection from attack) 國家安全
- _____ Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life) 享樂的生活
- _____ Salvation (saved, eternal life) 得永生; 神恩拯救
- _____ Self-respect (self-esteem) 自尊
- _____ Social recognition (respect, admiration) 社會地位
- _____ True friendship (close companionship) 真誠的友誼
- _____ Wisdom (a mature understanding of life) 智慧

2. Below is another list of values in alphabetical order. First, study the list carefully. Then, please pick 5 values that are always shown or emphasized in the program that you watch, and rank them from 1 to 5. One is the most often, five is the least often.

- _____ Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring) 有抱負的
- _____ Broadminded (open-minded) 心胸開闊的
- _____ Capable (competent, effective) 有能力的
- _____ Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful) 愉快的
- _____ Clean (neat, tidy) 乾淨的
- _____ Courageous (standing up for your beliefs) 有胆識的
- _____ Forgiving (willing to pardon others) 寬恕的
- _____ Helpful (working for the welfare of others) 樂於助人的
- _____ Honest (sincere, truthful) 誠實的; 真誠的
- _____ Imaginative (daring, creative) 有想像力的
- _____ Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient) 自食其力的
- _____ Intellectual (intelligent, reflective) 智慧的
- _____ Logical (consistent, rational) 理性的
- _____ Loving (affectionate, tender) 充滿感情的
- _____ Obedient (dutiful, respectful) 順從的; 恭敬的

- _____ Polite (courteous, well-mannered) 有禮貌的
 _____ Responsible (dependable, reliable) 可信賴的
 _____ Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined) 自制的

3. Below is a list of several adjectives. Please pick 10 adjectives descriptive of Americans as perceived in the program that you watch, and rank them from 1 to 10. One is the most frequent, ten is the least frequent.

- _____ AGGRESSIVE 精加旺盛的
 _____ AMBITIOUS 有抱負的
 _____ ARGUMENTATIVE 好辯論的
 _____ ARROGANT 自大的; 傲慢的
 _____ ARTISTIC 有藝術才能的
 _____ ATHLETIC 多運動的
 _____ CONCEITED 自負的
 _____ COURTEOUS 謙恭的; 有禮貌的
 _____ CRUEL 殘暴的
 _____ EFFICIENT (gets things done) 有效率的
 _____ FAITHFUL 值得信賴的
 _____ HONEST 誠實的; 真誠的
 _____ IMPULSIVE 任性的
 _____ INDIVIDUALISTIC (prefers to do things alone) 獨立自主的
 _____ INDUSTRIOUS (hard-working) 勤勉的
 _____ INTELLIGENT 有才智的; 聰明的
 _____ KIND 親切的
 _____ LAZY 懶惰的
 _____ LOYAL TO FAMILY TIES 忠於家庭關係的
 _____ MATERIALISTIC 物質取向的
 _____ MERCENARY (does things mainly for money) 逐利的
 _____ MUSICAL 愛好音樂的
 _____ NEAT 乾淨的; 整潔的
 _____ OSTENTATIOUS (likes to show off) 愛誇耀的
 _____ PASSIONATE 熱情的
 _____ PERSISTENT 有恆的
 _____ PLEASURE LOVING 愛好享樂的
 _____ PRACTICAL 講實際的
 _____ QUIET 恬靜的
 _____ RUDE 粗野的
 _____ SCIENTIFICALLY-MINDED 思考有條理的
 _____ SENSITIVE 內心易感知的
 _____ SENSUAL (or sex-oriented) sexually - romantic
 _____ STRAIGHT-FORWARD 率直的
 _____ STUBBORN 頑固
 _____ TRADITION-LOVING 愛好傳統的

Thank you very much for your help.

APPENDIX G: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THREE GROUPS

1. Do you own a television set?

 Yes
 No.

If no, does your roommate own a television set?

 Yes
 No.

2. On the average, about how many hours do you spend weekly, watching television?
 hours.

3. On the average, about how many hours do you spend weekly, listening to radio?
 hours.

4. On the average, about how many hours do you spend weekly, reading newspapers?
 hours.

5. On the average, about how many hours do you spend weekly, reading magazines?
 hours.

6. On the average, about how many hours did you spend weekly, watching television when you were in Taiwan?
 hours.

7. Which television programs do you usually watch here in the United States? (Please list at least 3 programs and rank them from 1 to 3. One is the most often, three is the least often.)

_____.

8. To what extent, do you think, American life has been shown accurately in American television programs?

 A great deal
 Fairly often
 Not much
 Not at all.

9. In the past month, how many American movies have you seen? (including movies from television)

 .

10. Among the American media listed below, which in general is the most believable medium to you? (Please check and rank them from 1 to 4. One is the most believable, four is the least believable.)
- Television
 Radio
 Newspapers
 Magazines.
11. Could you tell me why you watch television? (Please rank them from 1, the most important reason, to 8, the least important reason.)
- to kill time
 to relax and release tension
 to avoid feelings of loneliness
 to improve English proficiency
 to understand American culture
 to learn how to behave among others
 to know what is going on in the world
 to learn about advertised products.
12. Do you think you can improve your English proficiency by exposing yourself to any kind of media? (TV, RD, NP, MG)
- Yes
 No.
- If yes, which one can be used to achieve the best result?
 _____.
- If no, what other sources can be used to achieve this goal?
 _____.
13. In the past month, about how often have you talked to American friends, classmates, professors, students, or other Americans?
- Almost always
 Frequently
 Sometimes
 Rarely
 Almost never.
14. Do you have (or have you ever had) an American roommate?
- Yes
 No.
- If yes, how many in total?
 _____.

15. Have you lived (or now live) in a dormitory on campus?
 Yes
 No.

16. Did you have any American friends when you were in Taiwan?
 Yes
 No.

If yes, how many in total?

_____.

17. What television commercials shown in the program that you watch (or in the past month) impressed you the most? (Please list at least three.)

 _____.

18. In your opinion, which medium of advertising is the most effective on consumers? (Please check one.)
 Television
 Radio
 Newspapers
 Magazines.

19. Do you agree or disagree that product advertisements shown on television will encourage people to buy consumer products?
 Strongly agree
 Agree
 No opinion
 Disagree
 Strongly disagree.

20. What kind of television program, do you think, is the best program format to run advertising in order to encourage people to buy some advertised products? (Please check one)
 Television movies
 Television news
 Police, detective drama
 Situation Comedy
 Children's program
 Musical variety/Entertainment
 Sports Event
 Quiz & Game
 Nighttime dramatic series
 Soap operas.

21. Do you pay attention to the advertising when you watch television?

- A great deal (almost always)
 Fairly often (sometimes)
 Not much (rarely)
 Not at all (almost never).

22. Below is a list of 18 values in alphabetical order. We are interested in finding out the relative importance of these values to you. Please choose 5 most important values to you and rank them from 1 to 5. One is the most important value, five is the least important value.

- A comfortable life (a prosperous life) 舒適的生活
 An exciting life (a stimulating, active life) 興奮刺激的生活
 A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution) 成就感
 A world at peace (free of war and conflict) 和平的世界
 A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts) 美麗世界
 Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all) 平等
 Family security (taking care of loved ones) 家庭安全
 Freedom (independence, free choice) 自由
 Happiness (contentedness) 快樂滿足
 Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict) 內心平靜寧靜的
 Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy) 成熟的愛情
 National security (protection from attack) 國家安全
 Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life) 享樂的生活
 Salvation (saved, eternal life) 得永生; 永恆生命
 Self-respect (self-esteem) 自尊
 Social recognition (respect, admiration) 社會地位
 True friendship (close companionship) 真摯的友誼
 Wisdom (a mature understanding of life) 智慧

23. Below is another list of values in alphabetical order. First, study the list carefully. Then, please choose 5 most important values to you and rank them from 1 to 5. One is the most important value, five is the least important value.

- Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring) 有抱負的
 Broadminded (open-minded) 心胸開闊的
 Capable (competent, effective) 有能力的
 Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful) 愉悅的
 Clean (neat, tidy) 乾淨的
 Courageous (standing up for your beliefs) 有胆識的
 Forgiving (willing to pardon others) 寬恕人的
 Helpful (working for the welfare of others) 樂於助人的
 Honest (sincere, truthful) 誠實的; 真誠的
 Imaginative (daring, creative) 有想像力的
 Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient) 自食其力的

- _____ Intellectual (intelligent, reflective) 智慧的
 _____ Logical (consistent, rational) 理性的
 _____ Loving (affectionate, tender) 充滿感情的
 _____ Obedient (dutiful, respectful) 順從的: 恭敬的
 _____ Polite (courteous, well-mannered) 有禮貌的
 _____ Responsible (dependable, reliable) 可信賴的
 _____ Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined) 節制的

24. Below is a list of several adjectives. Please choose 10 adjectives that best describe Americans in general and rank them from 1 to 10. One is the strongest adjective, ten is the weakest adjective.

- _____ AGGRESSIVE 精力旺盛的
 _____ AMBITIOUS 有抱負的
 _____ ARGUMENTATIVE 好辯論的
 _____ ARROGANT 自大的: 傲慢的
 _____ ARTISTIC 有藝術才能的
 _____ ATHLETIC 運動的
 _____ CONCEITED 自負的
 _____ COURTEOUS 謙恭的: 有禮貌的
 _____ CRUEL 殘暴的
 _____ EFFICIENT (gets things done) 有效率的
 _____ FAITHFUL 值得信賴的
 _____ HONEST 誠實的: 真誠的
 _____ IMPULSIVE 任性的
 _____ INDIVIDUALISTIC (prefers to do things alone) 獨立自主的
 _____ INDUSTRIOUS (hard-working) 勤勤的
 _____ INTELLIGENT 有才智的: 聰明的
 _____ KIND 親切的
 _____ LAZY 懶惰的
 _____ LOYAL TO FAMILY TIES 忠於家庭關係的
 _____ MATERIALISTIC 物質取向的
 _____ MERCENARY (does things mainly for money) 逐利的
 _____ MUSICAL 愛好音樂的
 _____ NEAT 乾淨的: 整潔的
 _____ OSTENTATIOUS (likes to show off) 愛誇耀的
 _____ PASSIONATE 熱情的
 _____ PERSISTENT 有恒心的
 _____ PLEASURE LOVING 愛好享樂的
 _____ PRACTICAL 講實際的
 _____ QUIET 恬靜的
 _____ RUDE 粗野的
 _____ SCIENTIFICALLY-MINDED 思想有條理的
 _____ SENSITIVE 內心易感知的
 _____ SENSUAL (or sex-oriented) sexually-romantic
 _____ STRAIGHT-FORWARD 率直的
 _____ STUBBORN 頑固的
 _____ TRADITION-LOVING 愛好傳統的

25. Please tell me how old you are?
 _____years.
26. How long have you been here in the United States?
 _____years_____months.
27. How long do you intend to stay in the United States?
 _____years.
28. Sex: _____Male or
 _____Female.
29. Major field of study: _____.
30. What is your classification?
 _____Undergraduate
 _____Graduate (Master's)
 _____Graduate (Doctoral)
31. Do you intend to stay in the United States after
 completion of your study?
 _____Yes, for sure
 _____Yes, probably
 _____Probably no
 _____No.
32. Do you receive any financial support in the United
 States? (excluding from Taiwan)
 _____Yes
 _____No.
 If yes, please indicate:
 _____Teaching Assistantship
 _____Research Assistantship
 _____Work for food service (restaurant or
 cafeteria)
 _____Others (please indicate) _____.
33. What is your marital status?
 _____Single
 _____Married
 _____Divorced
 _____Separated
 _____Widowed.

34. Is Texas Tech your first attended university in the United States?

Yes

No.

If no, please indicate the number:

second

third

fourth.

35. Do you belong to any church or congregation?

Yes

No.

Thank you very much for your help.







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