USES OF THE MEDIA AND MEDIA IMPACT: NEWS RECALL RECONSIDERED

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ABSTRACT

USES OF THE MEDIA AND MEDIA IMPACT:
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By

Walter Gantz

This study investigated the utility and validity of the "uses and gratifications" approach to the learning of news events from televised news programs.

Assuming media use to be goal-oriented, the uses and gratifications approach examines the interrelationships among antecedent conditions, gratifications sought, media exposure patterns, content exposure, and the intended and unintended consequences of such exposure. Falling between the "hypodermic" and "limited effects" models of media impact, this approach (1) views media effects as a blend of what is on the media and what is brought to the media by the individual, and (2) predicts that one learns best when one is motivated to learn.

Predictions were based on a division of the universe of motivations into those relating to information-acquisition and those relating to recreation/diversion. Analysis of responses to the motivation items indicated that such a division adequately reflected the underlying dimensions of news viewing motivations.

Thirteen hypotheses were offered. The first hypothesis examined the relationship between exposure to the newscast and news recall. Hypotheses 2 through 6 centered on the interplay between strength and type of gratifications (information-acquisition and recreation/diversion) sought and the number of news items recalled. The remaining seven hypotheses focused on the interrelationships among the components of the uses and gratifications model.

The design and procedures used in the study were based on the supposition that viewers can assess their own reasons for watching the national news. It also was anticipated that respondents would have difficulty verbalizing extensive lists of motivations and would tend to state the most obvious and socially desirable motivations. As such, two waves of data collection compared researcher and respondent-generated motivations for watching the news. A third wave pretested elements in the final instrument. The fourth wave included items measuring motivation states and news recall and served as the data base for the tests of the hypotheses. Respondents were 543 adults residing in the Lansing, Michigan area. All respondents were interviewed on the telephone.

Six of the hypotheses were confirmed. (1) Viewers recalled more news items than non-viewers. (2) Highly information-acquisition motivated viewers recalled more news items than those less motivated by that group of motivations.

(3) Those turning to the news primarily because of information-acquisition motivations recalled more news items than those turning to the news primarily because of recreation/diversion motivations. (4) Those more frequently engaging in discussions about national and international news turned to televised newscasts with stronger information-acquisition motivations than those less frequently engaging in such discussions. (5) Those heavily dependent on television for news about the nation and the world turned to televised newscasts with stronger information-acquisition motivations than their less dependent counterparts. (6) Those turning to televised newscasts primarily for information-acquisition gratifications more frequently engaged in newscast stimulated information-seeking than those less motivated by information-acquisition motivations. The remaining seven hypotheses were not supported.

The following conclusions were offered:

(1) Televised newscasts are effective conveyors of current events information.

(2) The uses and gratifications approach represents a significant addition to the investigation of media impact, although motivation variables alone were not powerful predictors of recall.

(3) The underlying premise "one learns best when one is motivated to learn" should be modified to "one

learns best when motivated by information-acquisition motivations."

(4) The direct assessment of motivations represents a valid technique of measuring motivations.

USES OF THE MEDIA AND MEDIA IMPACT:

NEWS RECALL RECONSIDERED

By

Walter Gantz

A DISSERTATION

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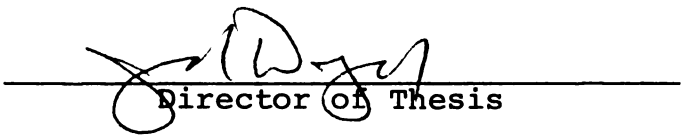
Accepted by the faculty of the Department of Communication, College of Communication Arts, Michigan State University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree.



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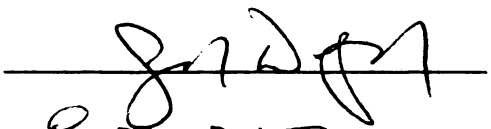
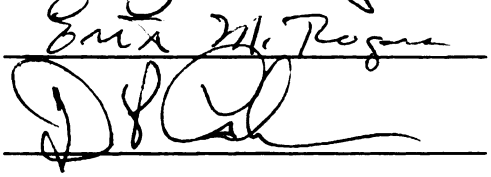
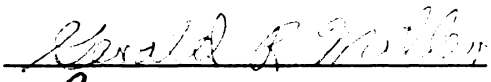
Guidance Committee:  , Chairman





To my family.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The impact of the media increasingly has been both a source of general concern as well as an area of empirical inquiry. While many studies and reviews prior to the 1970's appear to demonstrate that the media speak loudly but carry a small stick, a revitalized approach to the issue suggests that when motivations for media usage are taken into account, media effects are more substantial.

This dissertation represents an attempt to demonstrate how the "uses and gratifications"perspective can serve to uncover effects muted by the more traditional, exposure-effects paradigm of media research. Focusing on the ability of television news programs to impart knowledge about events covered on the newscasts, this effort examines the relationship between gratifications sought from exposure to national newcasts and news recall.

Chapter I sets the stage for the empirical inquiry conducted. In doing so, it will (1) inspect the findings of the small series of news recall studies, (2) outline the uses and gratifications approach, and (3) derive hypotheses linking the two, testing the utility of this paradigm for this

particular content area.

THE NEWS RECALL STUDIES

Viewers are a prerequisite for any direct media effect. While some critics have echoed the call of television's fare as a "vast wasteland," at least several hours of each broadcasting day are devoted to news, with millions of adults viewing at least one of the local or national newscasts offered. For example, in Lansing, Michigan, one can watch almost five hours a day of local and national news on VHF channels.[1] While it is extremely doubtful that many Americans watch the 7 a.m. national news on C.B.S., a late (e.g., 2 a.m.) newscast presented by a local station and all of the 5, 10, 20, and 30 minute newscasts in between, on an average weekday, about 25% of the adult population in America watches one network's national news programs. Further, 20% appear to be "regular" news viewers, watching Cronkite, Chancellor or Reasoner at least every other weekday[2] (Robinson, 1971).

Not only do Americans watch the news on television, they also view the medium as credible and the source of most of their news about the world. Roper (1974) reports that 51%

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[1]This includes the amount of time devoted to the news (on the hour and half hour) on the NBC program, Today. Newscasts aired at the same time were not summed together.

[2]On the other hand, Robinson also reports that slightly over half of his sample failed to watch any national newscasts during the two week sampling period.

of those studied would believe television when faced with conflicting reports about a news story from radio, television, newspapers and magazines. He also reports that 65% of his respondents cited TV as the source where they usually get most of their news "about what's going on in the world today," with 36% mentioning television only.[3]

The utility and perceived credibility of the medium vis-à-vis news ought to facilitate the transfer of news information and the resultant viewer ability to recall news events aired/viewed shortly beforehand. Before looking at the data though, one more stimulant of the effect needs to be mentioned--the program itself. Epstein (1974) suggests that news programs are geared to producing a final product (the news story) that is both understandable and interesting; he argues that producers act on the assumption that viewers have no prior knowledge about a subject, thus requiring stories to be self-contained "in the sense that no outside information on the part of the audience is necessary to understanding them" (p. 241). Further, given the networks' concern with "audience flows," Epstein argues that stories are reorganized in order to stimulate viewer attention and buttress against channel changing. Thus, producers "cast each event, which in

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[3]Comparing these data with Robinson's, we find more people saying they use television as their source of news than actually watch any of the national news programs aired.

itself might not be immediately relevant to the lives of most of those watching, into conflict stories that presumably have universal appeal" (Epstein, 1974, p. 241).

In short, we have a situation in which people watch and are dependent on a credible medium for news with the medium, in turn, tailoring itself to meet the viewers' intellectual and informational abilities, levels and interests.

The Empirical Findings

Only a handful of studies have examined the ability of respondents to recollect news items transmitted to the public on the mass media.[4] While the populations studied and methodologies utilized differ considerably, one generalization emerges from the data: most news events seen, read or heard on the media are not recalled. What follows is an examination of the survey and experimental research conducted in this area.

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[4]Fitzsimmons and Osburn (1968) examined 5 social issues and public affairs documentaries and found that "exposure led to significant gains in information level, irrespective of the topic" (p. 386). However, because they were concerned primarily with the attitudinal and behavioral impact of these programs, only a scant amount of additional information about this cognitive effect was provided. Given this, it is impossible to assess (1) the significance of the "significant" information gains, and (2) the relative amount of information acquired when contrasted to what was presented. This lack of data was one factor influencing the omission of the Fitzsimmons and Osburn study in the text of this section. Additionally, this researcher perceives of news programs and documentaries as conceptually and pragmatically distinct (e.g., in terms of audiences and program purposes). As such, the cognitive effects of documentaries would only be of peripheral interest in this analysis.

Nordenstreng (1970) reports that even with aided recall, 48% of those who watched an evening news program could not remember anything about the news when interviewed on the telephone immediately after the program. He feels that this figure is an underestimation, with correct answers to some of the questions a function of respondent prior awareness of the event, the process or the participants. This finding is of particular interest in that an overwhelming majority of the Finnish population from which the sample was drawn (1) follow at least one news broadcast each day, (2) watch the most important news broadcasts with "concentration," (3) rate television and radio news as reliable, and (4) are satisfied with the news programs.

Stern (1971) and Atkin[5] uncovered similar findings in America.

Stern focused on the impact of education, interest, and exposure patterns on recall of news items. When asked "Can you recall any of the news stories on the network news this evening? Do any details come to mind?", 51% of those adults telephoned within 2 1/2 hours after the newscast could not remember one news item. While these programs aired an average of 19.8 stories, an average of only 1.2 stories were mentioned in the unaided recall situation. Respondents were able to recall details of an additional 4.4 stories when

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[5]Unpublished; analysis of the data is still in progress.

given the story headlines by the interviewers. Stern concluded that the independent variables were relatively ineffective in explaining the variance in respondent recall.

Atkin telephoned adults in Detroit, Michigan, ascertaining the extent to which viewers of news broadcasts remembered, and were influenced by what they saw on the 6-7 p.m. local and network news broadcasts. Those who reported watching a national newscast that evening (n=108, 29% of the sample) were asked to list "what are some of the news stories you can remember watching . . . what topics were covered in the news program?" Viewers were able to recall an average of 1.75 news items.

Booth (1970) looked at the effects of structure, location, and frequency of news items on recall. Respondents were adults who reported media use and were willing to go to the study site under the guise of discussing what they watch, read, listen to, and think about the mass media. The 63 respondents who came to the test site were then told that the study would focus solely on "hard" news and were asked to describe "all of the news items you can recall hearing, reading, or seeing today." A content analysis of the media revealed that over the five day period, there were 2183 news items available in the media. Of these, 297 different items (14%) were recalled. The number of items recalled ranged from 1-9 with a mean of 4.7.

Finally, Atkin[6] conducted an experiment manipulating exposure to an "In the News" spot on a 15 minute videotape.[7] Subjects were second through fifth graders in the Lansing, Michigan area. When questioned about the topic of the stimulus news item, viewers averaged 3.54 correct responses (maximum was 6); the control group averaged 2.55. (Atkin also tested the effects of repeated exposure to the news item on knowledge; those who saw the stimulus twice averaged 3.90).

Critique of the Available Data

While the results appear to be fairly consistent, interpretation of this collection of data is tempered by methodological differences among the studies as well as failures to control potentially significant intervening variables. These discrepancies and deficiencies are enumerated below.

(1) Interaction between question format and recall. To what extent does the format of the interview schedule stimulate memory of the newscast? This researcher suspects that when respondents are provided with a specific frame of reference (e.g., Where did President Ford travel to today?), they will recall more news items than when told "Tell me what was

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[6]Unpublished; analysis of the data is still in progress. Atkin hypothesized that repetition will increase knowledge acquisition in response to exposure to newscasts.

[7]"In the News" is a specially designed news broadcast for child audiences aired on CBS for two minutes every half-hour on Saturday mornings.

on the news tonight." The Stern data provide support for this hypothesis; respondents said that they remembered an additional 8.7 news stories when the interviewer read a list of the events covered on that evening's newscast.

(2) Interaction between assessment of recall and recall. How much information must a respondent provide in order to be evaluated as having successfully recalled a news item? The stringency of the criteria used varied across the studies examined. In the Booth study, news items reported by the respondents were compared with those items monitored by the researchers. Only if the respondent report corresponded on at least two of the following information areas was the report considered recall: (1) role or name identification of the participants involved, (2) the place where the event occurred, (3) the action that took place, and (4) the outcome of the event. Somewhat less stringent is Atkin's written instruction to his survey interviewers: "PROBE: MAKE SURE THEY AREN'T FAKING." This was operationalized as requiring respondents to provide at least some specificity about an event or person they reported to have seen on the program--e.g., saying that there was a story about Vietnam or President Ford without going into any details would not be considered recall. In Atkin's experiment with children, subjects only had to circle what they perceived was the correct answer of the three choices provided. While this method probably inflated the scores, it is doubtful that youngsters 8 years old would be

able to sufficiently verbalize what they saw and retained without any prompting to meet the criteria specified by others such as Booth.

Stern's study provides a data base for the analysis of this interaction. Half of the news items presented were "recalled" when recall was defined as minimally involving respondent acknowledgment of item headlines provided by the interviewers. However, when defined as respondent ability to provide details to item headlines, recall rates dropped from 9.9 items recalled to 5.5.

(3) Interaction between type of news event and recall. Are hard news, soft news and commentaries perceived as interchangeable in value or do people differentially retain and recall these items? For his experimental stimulus, Atkin selected an "In the News" segment which focused on the struggle between then President Nixon and Congress over the White House tapes and transcripts--a political, "hard" news item. Booth's analysis also focused on hard news; at the study site, respondents were told that the study would exclude "all garden, sports and weather news" items. While Atkin and Gantz' survey data (1974) yielded almost identical partial correlations between a child's exposure to "In the News" programs and knowledge of political and "popular" news, Stern found that recall rates ranged from 64% for stories about the weather to 34% for the commentaries offered by Eric Severaid and Harry Reasoner, with most national and international

news hovering at 50%.

(4) Interaction between retention curves and recall. To what extent is the lack of recall a function of the amount of time between the exposure and recall periods? Booth made no attempt to control for this factor even though his respondents might have just read a newspaper on the way to the test site or not read/seen/heard the news for a number of hours. While Nordenstreng, Stern and Atkin interviewed respondents "immediately" after a news program, (1) most respondents were not reached as soon as the news program ended and (2) even for those who were reached within a short period of time, there was a minimum of 30 minutes--and 10 to 20 other news items--between their viewing of the first news item and the telephone interviews. Stern's respondents were contacted up to 2 1/2 hours after the newscast. While Stern found no changes in recall rates over time (average rates of recall for each succeeding half hour period were 51%, 50%, 48%, 51% and 50%), Atkin's survey data indicated that the amount of time between newscast and interview was a variable influencing recall: whereas those interviewed within one hour after the newscast recalled an average of 1.82 items, those interviewed between one and two hours after the program only were able to recall an average of 1.59 items.

(5) Interaction between repeated exposure and recall. To what extent does prior and/or subsequent exposure to a news item influence one's ability to recall the item? As

stated earlier, children exposed to Atkin's experimental "In the News" segment twice fared better on the test items than those who saw the stimulus once. While most adults are unlikely to encounter such complete redundancy (unless recall was measured after the late evening newscasts), considerable overlap is possible. The Atkin, Booth, and Nordenstreng surveys made no mention of controlling for this. Stern did, and found those exposed to early evening newspapers scored marginally higher on the recall items.

(6) Interaction between attention and recall. To what extent are the recall scores deflated because of respondent inability or unwillingness to pay close attention to the newscasts? The early evening news programs are often competing for the viewer's attention with all of the distractions of the home environment--spouse, children, dinner and the paper. With children not in bed, the spouse interested in a report of the day's activities, and food being passed around the table, this researcher suspects that many are unable to be as fully attentive to these news programs as they would like to be, or at least as attentive as they are to prime time programs when the paper has been read, food digested, the spouse satisfied with the day's report, and the kids either in bed or absorbed in their own activities.

Four studies provide data related to this issue. All indicate a positive relationship between attentiveness to the newscast and number of news items recalled.

(a) In an unpublished experiment conducted by this researcher, subjects viewed a local 6 p.m. news broadcast either in a classroom or at home. Those who viewed the newscast in the controlled classroom environment recalled an average of 4.7 of the 10 items under consideration: home viewers averaged 2.8. While the number of subjects in each cell was small, the results were in the hypothesized direction.

(b) When asked whether they were able to watch all, most, or just some of the stories on the national news program they viewed that evening, only 27% of Atkin's respondents reported that they were able to watch all of the stories; 40% said they only were able to watch some. The relationship between this operationalization of attention and recall was positive. Those who watched "some" of the news stories recalled an average of 1.21 items; for those who watched "most" and "all" of the stories, the mean rates of recall were 1.91 and 2.31 respectively.

(c) In Atkin's experiment, subjects were asked how much of the story at the end of the cartoon they watched. Children who reported low levels of attention to the story were significantly less knowledgeable about Nixon's transcripts than those who paid greater attention to the segment.

(d) Finally, Stern looked at the differences in recall between those who watched the entire newscast without

disruptions, those who watched the entire newscast with some disruptions, and those who watched part of the program with major disruptions. Whereas the former two groups were able to recall slightly under 60% of all the stories (using Stern's lenient criterion of recall), only one out of every three stories was recalled by those who reported major interruptions during the program. (However, those data are somewhat misleading in that the group which recalled only 36% of the stories aired, by definition, did not see all of the stories. Thus, their low recall rate appears to be an artifact of the operationalization of the dependent variable.)

(7) Interaction between reasons for reading/viewing/hearing the news and recall. To what extent is this cognitive effect mediated by why one turns to the news? Atkin asked his respondents why they watched the national news programs and then divided his sample into those who stated that they watched for information or non-information-acquisition reasons. Those who watched for information-acquisition recalled more news items although the difference was not significant (mean recall rates were 1.78 and 1.64 respectively). However, Berelson (1949) demonstrated that information-acquisition is perceived as a socially desirable response and hence used by a number of respondents for whom the news serves other functions. Had Atkin's interviewers probed and tapped these less frequently mentioned reasons, differences between

the groups might have been more substantial.

While Stern was not prepared to conclude that motives for watching the news influenced recall rates, he did find sizeable differences between those who watched the news to "keep informed" and those who watched for relaxation; the former recalled an average of 57% of the items while the latter recalled only 42%.

Other researchers did not examine the relationship between reasons for viewing and recall. However, they did discuss the role that television news appears to serve for the people studied. Allen (1968) ascertained patterns of media and effects of the mass media for ghetto residents in Pittsburgh. He suggested that his respondents fared poorly on current affairs items despite their regular news viewing habits because they did not view the news for information acquisition; instead, they viewed the news because it was on. As one respondent related, "We just watch whatever they want to show us" (p. 526). Nordenstreng lamented that "for many Finns, following the news is a mere ritual, a way of dividing up the daily rhythm. . . "(p. 7).

(8) Lack of a theoretical perspective accounting for the results. Why is it that many people can't recall any news items? Why is it that some people recall more items than others? The research efforts just discussed provide us with a base of descriptive data. If the data are valid and generalizable, predictions to other samples and populations on an

aggregate level are possible. However, on an individual level, the data have much less predictive utility because no perspective has been offered to account for the variance in recall scores. While Nordenstreng and Allen offered post hoc analyses and Stern examined some potentially significant intervening variables, the research in this area seems to be empirically rather than theoretically generated.

One could, for instance, (1) focus on demographic variables and see if the predicted cognitive effects hold for certain subgroups within the population, (2) control situational variables and determine if information is transmitted under ideal viewing conditions, (3) control for attention and ascertain differences in recall based on differential attentiveness, or (4) examine interest in the news and look at the recall rates for those "interested" and "not interested." In short, one could focus on demographic, situational, exposure, and motivation variables in an attempt to account for the findings.

Locator variables can predict and describe but in and of themselves, they cannot explain. Knowing that the educated, for example, pick up more information might have some practical, policy implications but it does not provide theorists with any rationale as to <u>why</u> the information provided is

differentially recalled.[8] Even with these predictors, we still would need to find out what it is about these groups (e.g., differential learning abilities) that makes them react in distinctly different patterns than others.

Given the amount of activity in the home during the early evening hours, it seems plausible that viewers are too busy attending to other matters to come away with much information about the day's events. Thus, researchers might try to ascertain the number of activities competing with the program and then partial them out in subsequent correlational analyses. While this approach is reasonable, the Stern data indicate that this would be less than adequate as the primary explanation for the no effects finding. Gantz' unpublished data further provide support for this position; even when viewing the newscast under conditions unlikely to be matched in any environment outside of an experiment room, subjects were unable to provide the correct answers to over 50% of the questions.

Attention is seen as another determinant of retention and recall. However, this researcher is still left wondering what are the more deeply rooted explanations and/or antecedent conditions which lead to the amount of attentiveness

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[8]While Hazard [1962] found education to be a predictor of information gains from experimental television newscasts, Stern reported no significant differences in recall based on education.

reported. (e.g., Why is it that some are attentive to the news and others aren't?)

When we turn to motivations, we are confronted with an antecedent of the exposure-effect relationship. Here, we have a predictor and explanation of the process. Consequently, this researcher recommends an approach to media effects that emphasizes motivations. What follows is one such approach.

THE USES AND GRATIFICATIONS APPROACH TO MEDIA EFFECTS[9]

One way of describing the uses and gratifications model of media effects is to view it in relation to two other perspectives. On one hand, the hypodermic model of the media assumes an all-powerful media and a vulnerable, spongelike, absorbent audience. From this stance, there is only one step in the flow of information and influence--from the media to the user--with the resultant changes in the viewers consistent with the intentions of the source. The other position is summarized by Klapper (1960) and represented by Bauer's "obstinate audience" (Bauer, 1964). Here the effects of the media are seen as limited by an extremely active and protective viewer who selectively exposes, perceives and retains

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[9]For the purposes of this dissertation, uses are defined as reasons why one turns to a content area, a medium or the media (or, stated in another way, what one hopes to get from the content area . . .); gratifications or functions are seen as consequences of usage.

information consistent with his or her predispositions. In short, one approach posits that "content equals effect," the other that "audience intention equals effect." Falling in between these polar viewpoints (but toward the Klapper and Bauer position) is the uses and gratifications model; effects are seen as a blend of what is on the media and what is brought to the media by the individual. Thus, the media are perceived as effective, although the type and amount of effect is seen as varying across viewers in relation to reasons for their exposure. Figure 1.1 presents a more complete picture of the perspective taken by this approach.

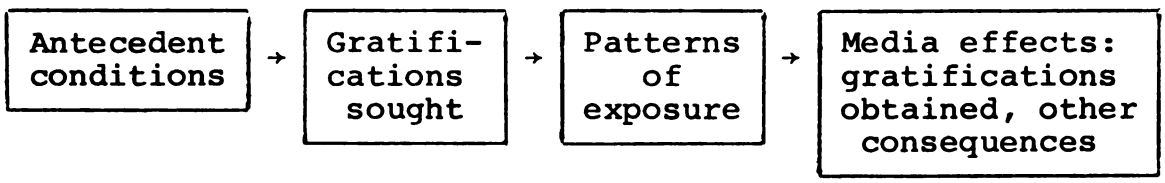

Figure 1.1. A Uses and Gratifications Model of Media Utilization and Impact

Whether the dependent variable/effect be recall, attitudes toward violence or sex role satisfaction, all involve some aspect of learning. The uses and gratifications approach tackles the question "Under what conditions does one best learn?" and posits that one best learns when one actively seeks some particular information.[10] Thus, underlying the

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[10]This does not rule out incidental learning. For example, Stern found that those who turned to the news in order to relax still were able to recall (with aid) 41.9% of the items broadcast. The issue is not an "all or nothing"

uses and gratifications position is the motivational approach to learning. While there are a number of theories of learning (e.g. the drive-reduction model which seems to fit this perspective well), it has been argued (e.g., Anderson [1959]) that all assume motivations to be an essential component in the learning process.[11]

As with any other corpus of research literature, the uses and gratifications approach (1) makes certain crucial assumptions about the process studied, (2) focuses on particular aspects of it, (3) utilizes alternative methodologies, and (4) has data testing the validity of the assumptions and value of the approach.

Assumptions

(1) The audience is conceived of as active, with much mass media use goal-oriented. Whether usage is premeditated on the conscious level or reflective of a relatively unconscious planning process, researchers in this area view the audience as purposive users of the media, turning to a

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one. Rather, the question revolves around the amount of information acquired. The uses and gratifications approach posits that those who turn to the media to learn ought to learn more than those seeking other gratifications.

[11]While other traditions in the mass media research area have not focused on the impact of motivations on knowledge, there have been both theoretical and empirical linkages (e.g., Greenberg, Brinton and Farr [1965], Fitzsimmons and Osburn [1969], Johnson [1973], and Genova [1974]) between interest and knowledge of public affairs. This researcher sees interest and motivations as closely related.

particular medium or content area for satisfaction of certain needs or desires.

(2) Media and program contributions to audience satisfactions are multifunctional. There is no single, specific function that any program or medium serves; needs filled and gratifications sought and obtained are dependent on the respondent. For example, Greenberg (1974) uncovered 7 factors emerging as reasons why children watch television: for learning, as a habit, for arousal, for companionship, to relax, to forget, and to pass time. Blumler and McQuail (1970) found four clusters of reasons why respondents watched one particular type of program--party election broadcasts: to help to strengthen party allegience, help in the voting decision, find out who will probably win the election, and to become involved in the excitment of the election races.

Other assumptions about the process have been offered--e.g., the mass media serve as a functional alternative for the satisfaction of needs (Rosengren and Windahl, 1972). However, only the two assumptions mentioned above are seen as immediately relevant to the question of recall; the uses and gratifications approach would have no predictive utility unless viewers purposively turned to the news for the satisfaction of various needs.

Focus

As Figure 1.1 indicated (p. 18), this approach encompasses antecedents as well as consequents of viewing. While

theorists such as Rosengren (1974) have discussed the relationships among all of the components in this process, most of the research has started from, and emphasized, different stages. Thus, while some researchers (e.g., Katz and Foulkes [1962], McLeod, Ward and Tancill [1965-66], Blumler, Brown and McQuail [1970]) have focused on social origins of needs and related them to media use patterns, others (e.g., Herzog [1944], Lasswell [1948], Berelson [1949], Schramm, Lyle and Parker [1961], McQuail, Blumler and Brown [1972], Robinson [1972], Katz, Gurevitch and Haas [1973], and Greenberg [1974]) have looked at and developed typologies of content/media functions, or consequences of media usage.

Methodology

A third assumption made by some researchers in this area deals with the ability of individual audience members to grasp and transmit the reasons why they turn to the media. It is assumed that "people are sufficiently self-aware to be able to report their interests and motives in particular cases, or at least to recognize them when confronted with them in an intelligible and familiar verbal formation" (Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch, 1974, p. 22). For those who take this position, respondents are questioned directly about their perceived wants and the media or programs that best satisfy those needs. Greenberg's approach (1974) illustrates this method: respondents were given a list of reasons "that other

people gave us for watching TV" and asked to mark down how much each of those reasons (originally generated by a similar sample of respondents) was like the respondent.

Not every researcher in the area has been willing to make that assumption. On the grounds that sources of bias in the self-report might mitigate the validity of the lists generated, Kline, Miller, and Morrison (1974) used indirect measures in ascertaining need states. Instead of directly asking respondents what uses they made of the media, these researchers measured respondents' perceived information congruence with their peers about family planning and predicted that "persons in these different conditions of congruency or incongruency would tend to perceive messages in the mass media differently and to obtain different types of information therefrom" (p. 116).[12] Thus, while this data collection approach would involve measures tapping media use patterns and the dependent variable (effect) under consideration, the researcher would have to infer reasons for media usage on the basis of other data gathered in the questionnaire schedule.

Findings

Some of the data gathered deals with confirmation of the assumptions made in this approach. For example, Peled and

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[12]They also based their predictions on respondent biological and chronological maturation; these were seen as indirect measures of need states.

Katz' conclusion (1974) that Israelis sought from the media relief from anxiety and used the media for participation in national grief supports the assumption that the media are used by an active, goal-oriented public. The same study also demonstrates that gratifications (both type and amount) were differentially distributed across Israelis who used the media during the Six Days War, thus providing evidence of the validity of the second assumption. Other research in the area is more descriptive, providing empirically derived lists of motivations for use of a medium and functions the media serve.

Given the validation of assumptions and development of typologies of media-related needs and functions, what is of concern now, from an empirical point of view, is the testing of the model--are media effects mediated by audience uses of the media? The available evidence appears to support this premise. For example, McLeod, Becker and Byrnes (1974) demonstrated that respondents who read political news in order to make voting decisions or keep abreast of campaign activities were less likely to have their public agenda coincide with the agenda set down by their newspaper than were those not similarly motivated. In that study, the gratifications sought from the media served to blunt media content effects. In another study, McLeod and Becker (1974) concluded that the reasons why political materials were used (e.g., "to judge what political leaders are like") and avoided ("because I'm not interested in politics") accounted for more of the variance

in political effects such as campaign issue accuracy and interest than did exposure variables. Finally, Atkin and Heald (1975) found the correlations between exposure to political advertisements and knowledge of the candidates was stronger for those respondents who reported viewing the spot announcements for information than for those who viewed the ads because the ads were on or entertaining.

In short, the uses and gratifications approach appears to be a viable paradigm for the examination of effects in that (1) it appears to meet its assumptions, and (2) its basic premise has some empirical support.

USES AND GRATIFICATIONS AND THE NATIONAL NEWS

When applied to news programming, the uses and gratifications approach would posit that recall is a function of the gratifications sought from exposure to the newscast; those using the program for certain purposes will recall more news items than those viewing for others.

Data by Berelson (1949), Cannell and Sharp (1958), Kimball (1959), Mindak and Hursh (1965), Schramm (1965), Stern (1971), Peled and Katz (1974) and Atkin (in progress) indicate that there are a variety of reasons why people use information content on the media. In examining the relationship between motivations for watching the news and news recall, the researcher is confronted with the following issue: Should the focus be on individual reasons for news viewing or

on groups of similar motivations? In the dual interest of parsimony and predictive utility, this researcher chose to move up a level of abstraction and focus on the dimensions underlying larger subsets of reasons why people watch television newscasts. Given this position, a second issue had to be faced: What set of clusters of motivations should be used in the predictions to be empirically tested?

Schramm, Lyle and Parker (1961), Stephenson (1967), and Atkin (in progress) dichotomized media uses into fantasy or reality, work or play, and information or non-information motivations. Given (1) the premise underlying the motivational approach to learning, (2) the focus on information gain as the criterion variable, and (3) the use of information content on the media for recreation and diversion as well as information purposes, this researcher decided to divide the universe of viewer motivations into those relating to information-acquisition and those relating to recreation/diversion. With the former set of motivations, the user is seen as interested in the content for information storage purposes; with the latter, the user is seen as interested in the content only as it serves to pleasantly distract and refresh the user from his or her tasks at hand. Thus, the first cluster of reasons is akin to Atkin's "information" conceptualization/terminology. However, unlike Atkin, whose second cluster implies non-purposive viewing behaviors, the second cluster in this category scheme

acknowledges that non-information-acquisition motivations are equally valid reasons for viewing the news (if not equally predictive determinants of exposure).

The dichotomy created does not rule out the coexistence of these two dimensions of motivations. It also does not negate the possibility of neither being an important influence on one's viewing of the news--some viewing is haphazard and unmotivated (e.g., "we have confronted the image of the beery, house-slippered casual viewer of television with the notion of a more 'active' audience--knowing that both images are true," [Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch, 1974, p. 301). Thus, we have four types of viewers as Figure 1.2 indicates.

		RECREATION/DIVERSION HI	RECREATION/DIVERSION LO
INFORMATION-ACQUISITION	HI	the information/ recreation seeker	the information seeker
	LO	the recreation seeker	the casual viewer

Figure 1.2. Types of Viewers of National Newcasts

Which type of viewer will recall the most news? Operating under the principle that one learns best when one is motivated to learn, strength of information-acquisition motivations ought to be the best predictor of recall. Given this, the information and the information/recreation seekers will recall more than those seeking only recreation or

viewing with no particular information-acquisition or recreation/diversion purpose in mind. Going a step further, the information seeker will recall more than the information/recreation seeker. This proposition is based on the belief that the former will be satisfied only if information is acquired, whereas the gratification of the latter's needs is not solely dependent on the information content of the newscast or the amount of news acquired.

The recreation seeker and the casual viewer will recall more than non-viewers. One serendipitous outcome of their viewing is the "incidental learning" of some news items. However, the creation seeker, viewing the program in order to obtain some gratifications, ought to be somewhat more attentive to the newscast than the casual viewer. Hence, the recreation seeker should fare better on recall tests.

Four levels of viewer recall have been predicted. Figure 1.3 summarizes these predictions.

		RECREATION/DIVERSION	
		HI	LO
INFORMATION-ACQUISITION	HI	2	1
	LO	3	4

Figure 1.3. Rate of News Recall Based on Type and Strength of News-viewing Motivations*

*1 represents greatest recall

The first six hypotheses, derived from the perspective just offered, focus on levels of news recall. Hypothesis 1 deals with the relationship between exposure to the newscast

and news recall. Hypotheses 2a through 2e center on the interplay between strength and type of gratifications sought and news recall.

H_1: Newscast viewers will recall more news items than non-viewers.

H_{2a}: The greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

H_{2b}: The greater the strength of recreation/diversion motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

H_{2c}: Strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing national newscasts is a better predictor/will account for more variance in news recall than strength of recreation/diversion motivations.

H_{2d}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

H_{2e}: Viewers motivated by information-acquisition and/or recreation/diversion motivations will recall more news items than viewers not motivated by either dimension of motivations.

In Hypothesis 2d, the term dominance is equated with exclusivity; the greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the extent to which an individual turns to the news exclusively because of those motivations. This is in contrast with strength, a term focusing on importance without implying exclusivity.

In addition to testing the relationship between gratifications sought and news recall, the research conducted

provided a testing ground for empirical examinations of (1) the interrelationships among the other elements in the uses and gratifications model, and (2) the validity of the direct assessment of motivations. The sequential ordering of the remaining hypotheses is based on the sequence of relationships suggested by the model. Thus, we turn first to the interdependence on antecedent conditions and gratifications sought from exposure to national newscasts.

Gratifications sought from the news are viewed as reflective of, and dependent on, environmental forces impinging on the individual as well as the individual's cognitive make-up and patterns of news consumption. Illustrative of these influences are the individual's (1) communication environment (e.g., amount of interpersonal discussions about news events), (2) perceived level of knowledge vis-à-vis friends and colleagues about national and world news events, and (3) dependence on television newscasts for information about national and world events. While there are undoubtedly a host of other antecedents, these were selected in that they can also function as indirect measures of internal need states.[13]

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[13]Given the question about the validity and utility of the direct measurement of respondent motivations, an examination of the relationship between these antecedents and respondent motivations serves two functions. First, measurement of the correlation between these two sets of variables can be viewed as a test of the construct validity of motivations assessed using direct measurement techniques. If the correlations were high, then one is more certain of the validity of the direct measurement approach. Second, the measures can be

Gratifications are conceptualized as satisfiers of needs; when people turn to the media seeking particular gratifications, they are searching for fulfillment of those perceived need states. Each of these three antecedents can be viewed in relation to the perceived needs of an individual. If an individual's communication environment includes regular discussion of news events or in some other way demands personal knowledge about the news, it is predicted that the individual will perceive a need for information about the news and hence, when turning to the news, seek the acquisition of information. Similarly, those who perceive themselves as uninformed when contrasted with friends or colleagues ought to be more interested in the content of the newscast than those who perceive themselves as (relatively) informed. Finally, those who get most or all of their news about the nation and the world from television ought to turn to the national newscasts because of strong information-acquisition needs. Those making more extensive use of other news sources ought to be less motivated by the need to acquire information from televised news--a greater proportion of those needs are fulfilled elsewhere.

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pitted against each other in a multiple regression equation predicting recall. Here, if the initial correlations are high, this test should suggest which approach is more useful in predicting media effects. If the correlations were low, the results of the regression equation should also point to the more valid indicator of the motivation construct.

In all three cases, it is predicted that antecedents affect internal need states and the gratifications sought from this particular program/content area. The following hypotheses are offered for testing the suggested positive relationship between strength of perceived information needs and strength of information-acquisition motivations:

H_{3a}: The greater the frequency of interpersonal discussions about national and international news, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the national news.

H_{3b}: The less the perceived knowledge vis-à-vis friends and colleagues about national and world news, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the national news.

H_{3c}: The greater the dependence on televised news for information about the nation and the world, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the national news.

The next group of hypotheses focuses on the relationship between gratifications sought from the national news and the frequency and quality of exposure to these newscasts. We will examine frequency of exposure first.

The crucial assumption underlying the uses and gratifications model is that continued exposure to a particular medium/content area is a deliberate process; it represents non-random behaviors based on personal needs that are being fulfilled. "Learning theory's fundamental law of effect [posits] that repetition does not stamp in a response unless there is reinforcement; without reinforcement, repeated

exposure would have the opposite effect of extinguishing the habit" (McGuire, 1974, pp. 168-9). Extending this position suggests that strength of purposive motivations is directly related to frequency of viewing.[14]

Quality of exposure can be divided into two components: (1) attentiveness to the newscast, and (2) amount of distractions from viewing the newscast. For these two quality of exposure components, information-acquisition and recreation/diversion functions are not expected to have equal impact. Instead, it is anticipated that those watching the news for information-acquisition purposes (1) will be more attentive to the newscast, and (2) be less likely to succumb to the numerous distractions confronting the viewer during this early evening- and often supper-hour. The rationale for this prediction is similar to the one offered for the recall hypotheses. Those who view the news for recreation/diversion functions can have those needs fulfilled without paying careful attention to every news item, reporter, or newsmaker. Further, other objects, people, and activities surrounding the viewer offer competing (and perhaps less demanding) vehicles for similar gratifications. Given this, the casual

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[14]The term "purposive" was purposely selected; while recreation-diversion functions are conceptually distinct from information-acquisition functions, they both represent intentions, or gratifications sought prior to exposure. When held constant qualitatively, the prediction is that both categories of reasons will lead to equal frequencies of exposure.

viewer, the recreation-seeker, and to some extent, the information/recreation seeker are likely to stray from the news broadcast. On the other hand, many news items are complex and interrelated, requiring a substantial amount of concentration on behalf of the viewer. Given the single important motivation of the information-seeker, it is assumed that (s)he is compelled to be more attentive to the news in order to satisfy this dominant motivation. Moreover, there are no equally attractive alternatives to distract this viewer during the newscast--at best, the day's newspaper reports about the morning news events.

Stated as hypotheses, this researcher posits the following relationships:

H_4: The stronger the purposive motivations for viewing the national news, the more frequent the viewing of the national news.

H_{5a}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition reasons for viewing the news, the greater the attentiveness to the newscast.

H_{5b}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition reasons for viewing the news, the fewer the number of distractions from the news.

The final hypothesis to be tested relates gratifications sought to a behavioral effect of the media, the stimulation of information-seeking. While information-seeking is often thought of as a determinant of media news exposure (e.g., Atkin [1972, 1973]) it also can be seen as a consequence of such exposure; news viewing can stimulate interest in additional information about an item aired on the news. While

all news viewers can be so stimulated, it is hypothesized that those who are primarily motivated to watch the news for information-acquisition purposes will be most likely to use the newscast as a springboard in the acquisition of additional knowledge. Thus:

H_6: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news, the more frequent the rate of newscast stimulated information-seeking behaviors.

SUMMARY

Data from a small series of studies tapping the recall of television news indicates that television newscasts are relatively unsuccessful in imparting significant amounts of information to the public. These results appear to be consistent with the "limited effects" model of the mass media. However, it was argued that (1) methodological differences across the studies made one hesitant to generalize from the findings, and (2) no theoretical perspective had been offered to account for either the mean rate of recall or its variance. The uses and gratifications approach to media effects was introduced, its position being that media effects are modified by viewer motivations for exposure. This approach, demonstrated as meeting its assumptions and having predictive utility, was suggested as a fruitful method of accounting for the rates of recall ascertained. Finally, hypotheses were offered testing the utility of this paradigm for this

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particular content area. The relationships in the model to be investigated are presented in Figure 1.4.

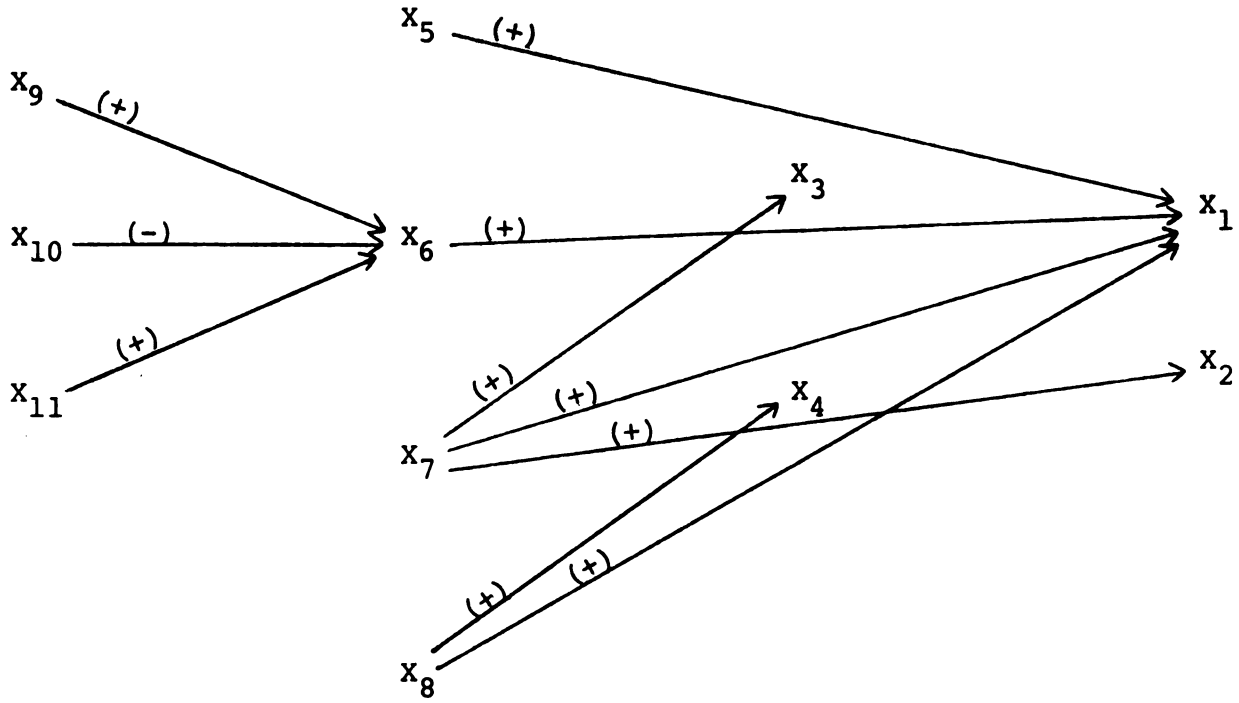

Figure 1.4. Variables and Hypothesized Relationships to be Investigated

X_1 = news recall
X_2 = information-seeking
X_3 = quality of exposure (attentiveness and distractions)
X_4 = frequency of exposure
X_5 = strength of recreation/diversion motivations
X_6 = strength of information-acquisition motivations
X_7 = dominance of information-acquisition motivations
X_8 = strength of purposive (information-acquisition and recreation/diversion) motivations
X_9 = dependence on television for news about the nation and the world
X_{10} = perceived knowledge levels vis-à-vis friends and colleagues
X_{11} = frequency of discussions about national and international news

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will focus on the methodology used in the study, beginning with a rationale for the multiple data collection approach taken and then proceeding with a description of the instrumentation and administration of each of the surveys conducted. Subsequent to that, we will discuss the interviewers used in the study.

RATIONALE

Motivations are the focal point of the uses and gratifications paradigm. However, while this concept is common to theoretical and empirical treatises in this area, there is a schism in the methodology employed and designs utilized to measure and relate it to other variables. This split is based on the evaluation of respondent abilities to accurately assess their own internal motivation states. Researchers unwilling to make this assumption use indirect measures of viewer/respondent motivations; those willing to assume such capabilities utilize direct measures.

For those who assume that viewers can assess their own motives, a second critical decision must be made. Here, the

issue revolves around how the list of motivations should be generated. There are three options available. The researcher can (1) generate the motivations him/herself, (2) rely on respondents to generate the motivations, or (3) construct a list of motivations based on self and respondent contributions.

Those choosing the first route only need one stage of data collection to examine the relationships they're interested in. However, those relying on self-generated lists of motivations face two risks. The first involves having a list that does not include some n number of motivations which lead to respondent exposure patterns. The second vulnerable point in this approach rests in the researcher's (in)ability to couch the motivations he or she generates in language compatible with respondent linguistic codes and patterns.

Those who pursue either of the remaining options are forced to engage in at least two stages of data collection--the first to generate the reasons and the second to incorporate them in the testing instrument. Researchers dependent on respondent generated motivations do not have to be concerned with the wording of the motivation items. However, because the task demanded of the respondents is a difficult one (e.g., "We'd like you to think for a minute and then tell us what are the reasons why you watch these national news programs."), researchers taking this approach run the risk of ending up with a list that is incomplete. Option 3 requires the most amount of work. Here, the researcher not only

contacts viewers and asks them in both open-and close-ended fashion why they expose themselves to a particular medium or program but also empirically assesses with a second sample, in close-ended fashion, the applicability of the combined researcher and respondent generated list of motivations. While this approach requires an additional amount of researcher time and energies, it minimizes the risks of an incomplete and/or unrecognizable (from the respondent's perspective) set of motivations.

The design and procedures used in this study are based on the supposition that viewers can deal with the reasons why they, in this case, watch the national news. It is anticipated that respondents will have some difficulty verbalizing lists of motivations and will tend to state the most obvious and socially desirable "for information" motivation. As such, the final testing instrument contains a list of motivations that were researcher and respondent generated in the first wave of data collection and then assessed in the second wave by a different sample of respondents.

Wave 1

The first wave of data collection served to (1) develop a comprehensive list of reasons why people watch the early evening national news, and (2) check on the adequacy of the test instrument. (See Appendix A for a copy of the instrument used in each wave of data collection.)

Because items on this questionnaire did not vary from day to day, interviewers were given large stacks of surveys, long lists of telephone numbers, and told that they could call respondents from their own homes, dormitory rooms, or offices in this department. None of the interviewers opted to conduct their interviews in department offices.

Interviewers were instructed to interview respondents who were at least 18 years old; even those who reported that they never watched the national news were asked a few questions. This researcher was concerned with attaining as close to a 50:50 male-female respondent ratio as possible. Assuming that more females would answer the telephone than males, the following directions were given to all interviewers:

> Ask to speak to (1) the man, or (2) the woman of the house. Do this alternatively. However, should you get four women in a row, ask for four men in a row after that.

When the desired interviewee was not available, the person who answered the telephone was requested to serve as interviewee and made to feel that his or her answers were just as important to us as those of the person we couldn't reach. Finally, interviewers were told to make at least three attempts to reach each number.

Interviews were conducted on weeknights between 7 and 10 p.m., May 15-27, 1975. A total of 376 numbers were selected from the 1975 Lansing Area Telephone Directory.[1]

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[1]Four systematic probability samples were drawn from the 1975 Lansing Area Telephone Directory, one for each of the

Two hundred interviews (53%) were completed. There was no response for 88 numbers (23%). Additionally, 17 members (5%) were disconnected or business establishments. Interviewers encountered either insurmountable language problems or no adequate respondents available with 13 numbers (3%). Fifty-eight people (15%) refused to be interviewed. Interviewers reported that they were unable to make callbacks on approximately 20% of the numbers they were given--they were still calling untried phone numbers on the last night of data collection. This is seen as a reasonable explanation for the relatively low completion rate recorded.

Respondents were predominantly female (61.4%), educated (64.7% with at least some college education), and young (60.1% younger than 40). (Appendix B supplies a more detailed demographic description of the respondents in each wave of data collection.) Finally, a total of 32 respondents (16%) indicated that they never watched the national news; these people were not asked any questions (e.g., motivations) that related to viewing these newscasts.

Motivations for the researcher-generated list were derived from research in related areas (e.g., Berelson [1949] "What 'Missing' the Newspaper Means") and discussions with colleagues and friends centering on the reasons why they

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four waves of data collection. The size of each sample selected was determined by the desired number of completions for that wave. It was possible for a telephone number to be selected for use in more than one wave of data collection.

watched the news. Final selection of the items was based on this researcher's perception of their utility in this investigation--e.g., whether they would be regarded as an important factor influencing exposure to the news by at least 10% of the sample. Of the 18 reasons selected, 7 were seen as related to information-acquisition. The remaining 11 were conceived of as measures of recreation/diversion motivations. Figure 2.1 lists these 18 motivations according to the factors this researcher predicted they would be components of.

Information-Acquisition Motivations	Recreation/Diversion Motivations
to keep up with events in other countries	to relax after a hard day
to help me plan ahead	I like to see the interesting things that happen to people
to have something interesting to talk about with my friends or family	because I have nothing else to do
to keep up with political events in our country	because other people in the house are watching it
to keep up with the latest economic news	because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	so I can forget about my problems for awhile
the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	because my friends watch
	finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life
	because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend
	I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me
	because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on

Figure 2.1. Researcher-Generated List of Motivations Classified by Researcher Prediction of Factor Composition

Within the first function of this wave of data collection, interest focused on (1) the applicability of and redundancies in the set of researcher-generated motivations for watching the national news, and (2) the ability of respondents to generate additional motivations.

(1) Respondents were told that they were going to be read "a list of reasons other people gave us for watching news programs" and asked to tell the interviewer how important each of the reasons "is when you watch the news."[2] Four response categories were provided:

not important at all
not very important
somewhat important
very important

Table 2.1 summarizes responses to this researcher-generated list of motivations. The data indicate that respondents (claim they) are strongly motivated by information needs. Most respondents tended to scorn the non-information gratifications. On the other hand, for each of these non-information reasons, at least 10% acknowledged that the reason was either "somewhat" or "very" important.

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[2]The reasons were randomly ordered with the section of the questionnaire devoted to motivations. This procedure, used in each wave of data collection, represented an attempt to protect against the formation of response sets in reaction to a series of similar motivations.

Table 2.1. Motivations for Watching the News: Respondent Reactions to the Researcher-Generated List

Reason	Percentage Responding			
	not important at all	not very important	somewhat important	very important
to relax after a hard day	28	33	27	13
to keep up with events in other countries	0	4	34	62
to help me plan ahead	23	36	24	17
to have something to talk about with my friends or family	10	23	47	19
I like to see the interesting things that happen to people	7	13	49	31
because I have nothing else to do				
to keep up with political events in our country	3	2	21	73
because other people in the house are watching it	43	35	18	4
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today	4	6	35	55
to keep up with the latest economic news	4	9	30	57
so I can forget about my problems for awhile	50	35	9	6
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	11	27	40	21
because my friends watch	56	37	5	2
the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	11	21	41	27
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life	34	34	28	4
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	31	33	29	7
I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me	48	27	15	10
because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on	63	26	9	2

Based on answers to the question "Now I'm going to read you a list of reasons other people gave us for watching the national news programs. For each reason, I'd like you to tell me how important that is when you watch the news."

These reasons were listed in order of presentation on the questionnaire.

In an effort to eliminate redundancies (operationalized as correlations above .75), intercorrelations among the reasons were examined. (See Appendix C) The highest correlation was .42. The average inter-item correlation was .17. Thus, while the reasons generated shared some variance with each other, for the most part, they were independent. As such, each of these reasons merited inclusion in the second wave of data collection.

(2) Prior to being read this researcher's list of motivations, respondents were asked "to think for a moment and then tell us what are the reasons why you watch these national news programs." Interviewers were instructed to (1) accept/encourage multiple answers, and (2) probe for motives underlying responses such as "it's a habit." A list of reasons which best fit the data was developed. Table 2.2 presents this list, along with the number of respondents mentioning each reason.

After generating their own responses and then responding to the researcher-generated list, respondents were asked if they watched that evening's national news. Those who replied affirmatively were then asked "What are the reasons why you watched tonight's newscast?" It was hoped that respondent recall of gratifications sought would be informative given the recency of the viewing. However, other than citing the desire to find out about a particular news event (interviews were conducted during the Mayaguez incident),

Table 2.2. Respondent-Generated Reasons for Watching the News

1. to be informed - find out what's going on (n=78)
2. to find out what's going on in the U.S. or world (n=31)
3. because it's entertaining, interesting, enjoy watching (n=20)
4. to be kept up to date - current news (n=18)
5. no newspaper/radio - no time and/or money (n=17)
6. it's comprehensive; it provides best coverage (n=15)
7. it supplements the newspaper or radio (n=13)
8. because of the newscaster or the commentators (n=11)
9. nothing else on TV; TV was on and the news followed another program (n=9)
10. it fits into the dinner routine/allows for other things to be done at same time (n=8)
11. it summarizes/condenses the news (n=7)
12. it satisfies need/curiosity to know (n=5)
13. it's more informative/better perspective than local newspapers/stations (n=5)
14. it's easier than newspapers/lazy (n=5)
15. for reassurance, that everything's ok or in normal state of being messed up (n=4)
16. to see the news (n=4)
17. it's a quick way to get the news (n=4)
18. because there's nothing else to do (n=4)
19. for the human interest stories (n=3)
20. because someone else in the family is watching (n=3)
21. to relax (n=2)
22. for the commentaries (n=1)

responses were similar to those mentioned previously. Table 2.3 provides this list of reasons and corresponding number of respondents mentioning each motivation.

Table 2.3. Respondent-Generated Reasons for Watching that Evening's Newscast

1.	to be informed; to see what's going on (n=22)
2.	to find out about a particular foreign event (n=17)
3.	because it's a habit (n=14)
4.	it's the only news source that day - e.g. missed reading the paper (n=8)
5.	because of a felt need/obligation to know (n=6)
6.	it's enjoyable to watch (n=5)
7.	to find out about world events (n=4)
8.	because it's on (n=4)
9.	to find out what the President is doing (n=3)
10.	it's part of dinner; it's on while we eat (n=3)
11.	to relax (n=3)
12.	to find out about particular weather problems (n=2)
13.	because there's nothing else to do (n=2)
14.	it's easy to understand (n=1)
15.	because of the newscaster (n=1)

Based on the data gathered, 11 additional reasons for viewing the news were accepted for inclusion in the second wave of data collection. Selection was based on the following criteria: (1) the perceived dissimilarity of the item

with items on the researcher generated list, and (2) the number of respondents mentioning the reason. Figure 2.2 lists these additional motivations according to the factors this researcher predicted they would be components of.

Information-Acquisition Motivations	Recreation/Diversion Motivations
it's my only source of news for the day	because it's a habit
it's more informative than the local papers or stations	it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house
to keep up with the latest breaking news	it's entertaining
to get more information about an event I heard about earlier	because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched
it's a quick and easy way to get informed	
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	
to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same	

Figure 2.2. Respondent-Generated Reasons Accepted for Inclusion in the Second Wave of Data Collection Classified by Researcher Prediction of Factor Composition

Moser and Kalton (1972) state that checking the adequacy of the test instrument is "probably the most valuable function of the pilot survey" (p. 49). While the primary purpose of wave 1 was the ascertainment of a list of reasons for viewing the news, this researcher was also interested in (1) the clarity of the questions asked, and (2) the appropriateness of the response categories provided.

(1) The concern with clarity was an attempt to, as Babbie (1973) states, "insure that the instrument will make sense to, and be useful in understanding, all types of respondents in the population" (p. 207). Here, questions were examined for multiple, "other," and qualified answers as well as failures to answer at all. Additionally, interviewers were asked whether respondents appeared to understand the meaning of the questions being asked. Based on interviewer feedback and a handful of multiple answers, it was clear that the question attempting to ascertain the respondent's source of "most of your news about what's going on in the world today . . ." (Question 10) needed revision.

(2) Appropriateness of the response categories was measured in terms of respondent understanding of the choices available and the amount of variance in the selection of responses. Interviewers reported that some respondents had difficulty grasping the distinctions between the four "importance" choices provided with the motivation items. Additionally, this researcher expected less skewness/additional variance in the responses to reasons for watching the news. Sufficient variance in responses to these items was seen as crucial to the test of the hypotheses; without it, correlations would be attenuated and, hence, suggest weak relationships. Given these problems, the motivation sequence needed revision.

Wave 2

On the basis of (1) respondent reactions to the researcher-generated list and (2) additional respondent contributions (Figure 2.2) a list of 29 gratifications sought from the news was compiled. This list was regarded as too lengthy to be included in the final instrument. Additionally, this researcher was concerned with the possibility that each respondent's motivations might fluctuate dramatically on a daily basis. Such movement was regarded as deleterious to the examination of the relationship between motivations for viewing the news and news recall. For example, someone typically turning to televised news for information, and thus replying to the question as such, might have turned to that evening's newscast for respite, thus reducing his/her recall score. The more frequent the occurrence of this, the more likely a Type II error when assessing this relationship.

The second wave of data collection served to winnow the list of motivations to a more manageable size. It also functioned as a test of the relationship between motivations for viewing the news on an in-general and that-evening basis. In short, this survey determined both the motivations and the method of assessing them to be utilized in the final instrument.

Interviews were conducted on weeknights between 7 and 10 p.m., June 23-27, 1975. A total of 390 numbers were selected from the 1975 Lansing Area Telephone Directory, and

209 interviews (54%) were completed. There was no response for 83 numbers (21%). Additionally, 49 numbers (13%) were disconnected and 4 (1%) belonged to businesses. Interviewers were unable to complete 14 calls (4%) because of insurmountable language problems or lack of an adequate respondent available. Thirty-one people (8%) refused to be interviewed. As with wave 1, this researcher accounts for the relatively low completion rate on the basis of insufficient callbacks on approximately 15% of the numbers selected. Of those interviewed, 54.1% were women, 63.2% had at least some college education, and 55.4% were younger than 40.

Interviewing procedures were identical to those followed in wave 1.

The questionnaire utilized in wave 2 was almost entirely devoted to the assessment of motivations for viewing the news. While the motivation sequence needed modification, the introduction to the section, the wording of the items, and the response categories provided remained the same, affording the researcher additional information on which to base the final instrument.

A total of 38 respondents (18.2%) reported that they never watched the national news. These people were asked a few demographic questions and then thanked for their time. All other respondents were asked how important each of the 29 reasons "is when you watch the news." Table 2.4 provides responses to the composite researcher/respondent generated

Table 2.4. Motivations Influencing Why One Usually Watches the News: Respondent Reactions to the Respondent and Researcher-Generated List

	Percentage Responding			
	not important at all	not very important	somewhat important	very important
to have something to talk about with my friends or family	19	35	32	12
because it's a habit	35	32	26	5
because the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	17	21	36	23
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today	4	6	37	51
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	7	24	39	29
to keep up with political events in our country	5	9	37	48
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	30	31	28	10
it's my only source of news for the day	33	26	24	15
it's more informative than the local papers or stations	6	14	46	32
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life	23	39	24	13
because my friends watch	63	29	4	2
to keep up with the latest breaking news	1	2	38	57
it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house	41	32	19	6
to get more information about an event I heard about earlier	3	6	42	47
because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on	53	35	6	4
to keep up with the latest economic news	5	12	42	39
it's entertaining	24	24	43	7
so I can forget about my problems for awhile	55	32	8	3
it's a quick and easy way to get informed	1	2	50	45

Table 2.4 (cont'd)

because I have nothing else to do	58	31	6	3
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	4	8	42	44
to relax after a hard day	32	29	32	6
I like to see interesting things that happen to people	5	13	59	22
because other people in the house are watching	47	29	17	6
because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched	58	30	8	3
I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me	53	22	13	11
to keep up with events in other countries	3	7	44	44
to help me plan ahead	23	28	35	12
to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same	31	36	26	6

list. Reactions were similar to those recorded in wave 1; information-acquisition items were evaluated as important, recreation and diversion motives as relatively unimportant. This pattern was discernible in the respondent-generated items as well as in those items developed by the researcher.

Those who watched that evening's newscast (n=56, 26.8% of the entire sample) received a double dose of the motivation items; immediately after providing an answer to each motive, these respondents were asked, "And how important was that reason for you when you watched the news tonight?" As can be imagined, the task of asking or answering each

motivation twice was by no means an easy one.

Motivations for viewing the news on any one particular evening did not appear to dramatically differ from the reasons generally motivating respondents to engage in this media behavior. As Table 2.5 indicates, the correlations of motivations with themselves when assessed on an in general and that evening basis are extremely high. The magnitude of the relationship might raise some doubts about the validity of the responses provided--e.g., perhaps respondents failed to grasp the distinction between why they usually watched the news and why they watched the news that evening. Anticipating this possibility, interviewers were instructed to repeat and/or clarify instructions to those who gave identical importance scores to the in general and tonight portions of the first few motivations. Interviewers indicated that respondents were aware of the distinction; when asked, a number of respondents mentioned that their answers were identical because they watched the news that evening for the same reason(s) they usually watched the news. Given these findings, this researcher's concern about assessing atypical motivation states was considerably diminished. As such, it was decided that the final instrument would assess the gratifications sought from that evening's newscast.

Table 2.5. Correlation between the Measurement of Motivation in an In General and Tonight Basis

Reason	Correlation Coefficient
to have something to talk about with my friends or family	.76
because it's a habit	.81
because the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	.92
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today	.84
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	.83
to keep up with political events in our country	.71
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	.92
it's my only source of news for the day	.86
it's more informative than the local papers or stations	.98
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life	.90
because my friends watch	.98
to keep up with the latest breaking news	.90
it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house	.87
to get more information about an event I heard about earlier	.66
because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on	.82
to keep up with the latest economic news	.94
it's entertaining	.95
so I can forget about my problems for awhile	.99
it's a quick and easy way to get informed	.95
because I have nothing else to do	.92
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.94
to relax after a hard day	.90
I like to see interesting things that happen to people	.80
because other people in the house are watching	.85
because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched	.61

Table 2.5 (cont'd.)

I feel a little better knowing others are even worse off than me	.99
to keep up with events in other countries	.86
to help me plan ahead	.96
to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same	.94

Selection of Motivations for the Final Test Instrument - Cluster analyses were performed on the researcher-generated motivations measured in wave 1 and the in general assessment of motivations measured in wave 2. (Similar analyses were not performed on the respondent-generated motivations in wave 1 and the tonight assessment of motivations in wave 2; there were not enough responses/respondents in either situation to make the procedure meaningful.) The cluster analysis routine employed in this study was succinctly described by Roloff (1975):

> 1. A principal component's factor analysis is done using each variable's largest correlation as its communality and Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalue being greater than 1.00 for determining the number of factors.
> 2. A varimax factor analysis is done and the items reordered on each factor by their highest factor loading on all factors and within each factor in descending order by factor loading.
> 3. A correlation matrix is printed using as clusters the variables with their highest factor loadings on a given factor.
> 4. The correlations are examined for inter-correlations among cluster items and cluster true scores (highest correlation corrected for attenuation) and correlations between cluster items and other cluster true scores (pp. 43-44).

Two factors emerged from the varimax factor solutions of the wave 1 data, accounting for 29% of the variance. (See Table 2.6) The standard score coefficient alphas were high (.75 and .71). On the basis of the factor loadings, the first factor appeared to center around recreational and diversionary gratifications associated with the news. The second factor clearly related to information-acquisition motivations. This two factor information-acquisition recreation/diversion solution was as anticipated.

Three factors emerged from the varimax factor solutions of the wave 2 data, accounting for 32% of the variance. (See Table 2.7) The standard score coefficient alphas were high (.73, .80, .77). The second factor clearly dealt with the acquisition of information. Given the factor solution of the wave 1 data, this researcher was surprised to find two additional factors. However, it appears that instead of one factor encompassing both recreation and diversion motivations, two factors emerged, one (factor 1) primarily dealing with recreation motives, the other (factor 3) embracing diversion motivations.

The final procedure in a cluster analysis involves the reduction of the clusters to those making the most empirical, theoretic, and intuitive sense. There are no formal rules for the researcher to follow when finalizing the clusters. Final clusters for the data in wave 1 and for the data in wave 2 were determined on the basis of researcher judgment

Table 2.6. Varimax Factors for Watching the News: Wave 1*

Item	Factor 1 Recreation/ Diversion	Factor 2 Information Acquisition
so I can forget about my problems for awhile	.68**	.16
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	.54**	.29
because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on	.53**	-.29
I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me	.53**	-.24
because my friends watch	.51**	.06
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life	.48**	.17
I like to see interesting things that happen to people	.46**	.24
to help me plan ahead	.45**	.36
because I have nothing else to do	.41**	-.23
to relax after a hard day	.37**	.25
because other people in the house are watching it	.23**	.10
to keep up with the latest economic news	.02	.65**
to keep up with events in other countries	-.09	.57**
to keep up with political events in our country	-.04	.52**
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	.28	.52**
to have something to talk about with my friends or family	.18	.48**
the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	.33	.39**
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today	.27	.34**
Proportion of Variance	.16	.13
Standard Coefficient Alpha	.75	.71

*Based on responses to the researcher-generated list of motivations

**Highest factor loading

Table 2.7. Varimax Factors for Watching the News: Wave 2*

Item	Factor 1 Recreation	Factor 2 Information Acquisition	Factor 3 Diversion
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life	.62**	.08	.19
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	.62**	.11	-.01
it's my only source of news for the day	.51**	-.15	.01
I like to see interesting things happen to people	.49**	.22	.14
because the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	.47**	.18	.05
to relax after a hard day	.47**	-.05	.15
I feel a little better knowing others are worse off than me	.44**	.07	.30
to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same	.44**	.03	.28
to have something to talk about with friends or family	.41**	.37	.21
it's a quick and easy way to get informed	.40**	.18	-.02
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today	.38**	.20	-.11
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	.37**	.34	.05
it's more informative than the local papers or stations	.34**	.09	-.16
it's entertaining	.33**	-.02	.10
because it's a habit	.31**	.08	.25
to keep up with events in other countries	.01	.77**	-.14
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.11	.68**	-.16
to keep up with political events in our country	-.11	.61**	-.20
to keep up with the latest economic news	.12	.55**	0
to keep up with the latest breaking news	.25	.48**	-.21
to help me plan ahead	.28	.39**	.24
to get more information about an event I heard about earlier	.02	.26**	.02
because I have nothing else to do	.04	-.27	.66**
because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched	-.02	-.12	.64**

Table 2.7 (cont'd.)

because I like to watch TV and there's nothing else on	.21	-.12	.61**
because other people in the house are watching	-.14	.06	.56**
so I can forget about my problems for awhile	.31	-.13	.52**
it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house	.44	-.07	.46**
because my friends watch	.13	.05	.43**
Proportion of Variance	.12	.10	.10
Standard Coefficient Alpha	.73	.80	.77

*Based on responses to the in general assessment of motivations

**Highest factor loading

following an examination of (1) the intercorrelations among the items within and across the clusters (see Appendix C), (2) the strength of the relationship between the item and its cluster true score, and (3) the magnitude of the difference of the correlations of the item with its cluster true score and other conceptually distinct clusters' true scores. (For example, in wave 2, an item in the recreation cluster would be analyzed in terms of its correlation with the recreation cluster's true score and the information cluster's true score. Because the recreation and diversion clusters are regarded as conceptually similar, no comparison would be made with the diversion cluster's true score.)

Based on this procedure, 7 items were removed from the clusters in wave 1 and 11 items were removed from the

clusters in wave 2. Table 2.8 lists the items that were removed. Table 2.9 lists the final composition of the clusters for wave 1 and for wave 2.

A number of differences exist in the composition of the final clusters that emerged in waves 1 and 2. (This was not unexpected, given the additional 11 items in wave 2.) As such, cluster composition was only one of six factors considered in the selection of motivations for the final test instrument. The other 5 factors were (1) factor loading on the varimax factor solutions, (2) intercorrelation of items within and across clusters, (3) strength of relationship with cluster true scores, (4) magnitude of difference between correlation with cluster true score and correlation with other conceptually distinct cluster true scores, and (5) correlation of responses to in general and that evening assessments of motivations. This researcher was afraid that rigid adherence to a priori inclusion/exclusion standards for each of the criteria would result in the exclusion of almost all of the items. As such, researcher judgment, rather than more scientific a priori standards, was used in the selection of the items for the final instrument.[3]

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[3]To illustrate the judgmental process, "because I had nothing else to do" was selected for inclusion in the final instrument because it (1) had the strongest loading (.66) on the diversion factor in wave 2, (2) loaded poorly on the conceptually distinct information-acquisition factor in waves 1 and 2 (-.23 and -.27 respectively), (3) was highly correlated (.69) with its cluster true score and moderately correlated (.28 to .51) with other items in its cluster in wave 2, (4)

Table 2.8. Items Removed from Clusters in Waves 1 and 2

Wave 1	Wave 2
Information-Acquisition Motivations	Information-Acquisition Motivations
to have something to talk about with my friends or family	to help me plan ahead
the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on	to keep up with the latest breaking news
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today	to get more information about an event I heard about earlier
	Recreation Motivations
Recreation/Diversion Motivations	to have something to talk about with my friends or family
I like to see interesting things that happen to people	because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today
to help me plan ahead	to see how I'll be affected by the days's events
to relax after a hard day	it's a quick and easy way to be informed
because other people in the house are watching it	it's more informative than the local papers or stations
	it's entertaining
	because it's a habit
	Diversion Motivations
	because my friends watch

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was a component in the final recreation/diversion cluster in wave 1 and the diversion cluster in wave 2, and (5) did not vary very much on the basis of method of assessment (the correlation between the in general and that evening assessments was .92).

Table 2.9. Final Composition of the Clusters for Waves 1 and 2

Wave 1	Wave 2
Information-Acquisition Motivations	**Information-Acquisition Motivations**
to keep up with the latest economic news	to keep up with the latest economic news
to keep up with events in other countries	to keep up with events in other countries
to keep up with political events in our country	to keep up with political events in our country
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events	to keep up with our country's relations with other countries
Recreation/Diversion Motivations	**Recreation Motivations**
so I can forget about my problems for awhile	because the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend
because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on	finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life
I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me	it's my only source of news for the day
because my friends watch	to relax after a hard day
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life	I like to see interesting things that happen to people
because I have nothing else to do	I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me
	to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same
	Diversion Motivations
	because I have nothing else to do
	because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched
	because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on

Table 2.9 (cont'd.)

	because other people in the house are watching
	so I can forget about my problems for awhile
	it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house

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Figure 2.3 lists the items that were selected for inclusion in the final instrument.

Information-Acquisition Motivations	Recreation/Diversion Motivations
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	to relax after a hard day
to keep up with political events in our country	because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on
to keep up with events in other countries	because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend
to keep up with the latest economic news	because I have nothing else to do
	because I like to see interesting things that are happening to people
	finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life

Figure 2.3. Motivations Accepted for Inclusion in the Final Instrument Classified by Researcher Prediction of Factor Composition

Wave 3

This effort represented an attempt to ascertain respondent abilities to comprehend and cope with ratio scale response categories this researcher hoped to use in the final instrument. The ratio scales used were bound on both sides, zero being the lower bound and 100 the upper bound. This range was selected because of its similarity with the decimal system respondents make daily use of--e.g., money, grades in school . . . .

In essence, wave 3 pretested a sizable portion of the final questionnaire.

Interviews were conducted during the last weekend in June, 1975, between 2 and 5 in the afternoon. While those hours and the early summer weekend were expected to yield a disproportionate number of interviews with the elderly, this was regarded as a conservative test of the scaling approach. Fifteen people were interviewed by an experienced interviewer who was intimately familiar with the study and fully aware of the purpose of this wave of data collection.

No formal (e.g., statistical) analysis was performed. Instead, the interviewer was queried and the data were eyeballed in terms of (1) the extent to which respondents required help using the response categories, (2) the extent to which the full range of the scales was utilized, and (3) the amount of data that was missing. While several respondents required examples illustrating the scaling procedure,

everyone caught on and appeared to be able to use some value between 0 and 100 to represent their position vis-à-vis each of the questions asked.[4] There were no missing data. Given these findings, this researcher decided to use ratio scale response categories whenever appropriate.

Wave 4

The survey conducted in wave 4 represented the culmination of this data gathering process; information collected here served as the data base for this researcher's test of the hypotheses generated.

All calls were made from offices in the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. There were three reasons for this. First, the recall items on the questionnaire changed every day and were not available until after the network news was over. Second, and related to this, this researcher wanted calls to begin by 7:30 p.m., one half hour after the newscast ended. Had the interviewers come to the Department to pick up their surveys and then gone home to begin making calls, interviewing wouldn't begin until one hour after the newscast ended. Because the full interview schedule was expected to take 15 minutes and no interviews

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[4]In wave 3, the following variables were assessed using ratio scales: (1) attentiveness to the newscast, (2) dependence on television for news about the country and the world, (3) perceived informedness about national and international events, and (4) motivations for watching the national news.

were to begin after 9:30 p.m., the 8 p.m. starting time would severely curtail the number of interviews to be completed. Finally, anticipating interviewing problems (see the section on interviewers), this researcher wanted to be as accessible as was physically possible to answer on the spot questions about interviewing procedures. Having the interviewers in adjacent offices satisfied this.

Each interviewer was expected to complete 4 "CBS" and 4 "non-CBS"[5] interviews during the two-hour interviewing sessions. Most respondents did not watch the CBS news on the evening they were called. In an attempt to obtain the desired number of "CBS" completions, interviewers were given instructions to switch to the following introduction after they completed 4 "non-CBS" interviews:

> Hello, my name is _____ and I'm calling from the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. We're calling adults in the Lansing area who've watched the national news tonight on CBS, asking them their opinions about television news programs. Did you watch the national news tonight on CBS? (IF YES) Can we ask you some questions about the news? (IF NO) Did any other adult in your home watch the CBS national news tonight?

After three nights, it appeared as if CBS (as well as NBC and ABC) news viewers were an endangered species.[6] As

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[5]"Non-CBS" represents respondents who (1) watched an early evening national newscast on NBC or ABC, or (2) did not watch any national newscast that evening.

[6]This is attributed to two factors: (1) the perfect summer weather, and (2) the lack of dramatic events being reported.

a result of this scarcity, interviewers tended to complete their "non-CBS" interviews by 8:30, with the majority of CBS viewers interviewed between 8:30 and 9:30 p.m. To counter this potential source of bias (recall that comparisons were going to be made between viewers and non-viewers), interviewers were instructed to begin searching for CBS viewers after two "non-CBS" respondents were contacted.

No attempt was made to reach each number on three different evenings; it was feared that such a method would leave the interviewers with an inordinate amount of "no answer" telephone numbers on the final nights of the study. Instead, interviewers were given fresh lists of numbers (n=40) each evening and requested to make callbacks on all "no answer" numbers before that evening's interview session terminated.

Interviews were conducted on weeknights between 7:15 and 9:30, July 1, 2, 3, and 7-10, 1975. The number of days and hours of data collection were selected in order to (1) allow for the development and dissemination of each evening's news recall items, (2) protect against the contamination of the results based on overly differential amounts of time between the viewing of the newscast and the interview, and (3) protect against the data being gathered on a single night in which the news might be unrepresentative.

A total of 4,018 numbers was selected from the 1975 Lansing Area Telephone Directory and 563 interviews were

completed (14%). (Twenty of these completions were discarded because of substantial amounts of missing data or data inaccurately recorded by the interviewer.) There was no response for 1388 numbers (35%). Additionally, 364 numbers (9%) were disconnected and 25 numbers (1%) belonged to business establishments. Interviewers encountered either insurmountable language problems or no adequate respondents available with 58 numbers (1%). Three hundred and twenty-eight people (8%) refused to be interviewed. Interviews were not conducted with 1292 people (32%) who appeared receptive but failed to meet the criterion of viewing the national news on CBS that evening. Of those interviewed, 58.8% were female, 61.4% had at least some college education, 53% were younger than 40, and 91.4% were Caucasian.

The Test Instrument - The test instrument included items which measured the following variables: (1) frequency and patterns of exposure to the early evening national newscasts; (2) exposure and attention to, and distractions from, that evening's newscast; (3) perceived knowledge levels about national and world events; (4) motivation for watching that evening's newscast (if watched); (5) recall of news items aired on CBS that evening; (6) frequency of national news-stimulated information-seeking; (7) frequency of interpersonal discussions about American and world events; (8) perception of friends' attitudes toward the value of being informed about national and world events; and (9) respondent

demographic characteristics.

Additions; News Recall - In order to develop the news recall items, this researcher and two undergraduate communication majors who assisted him viewed and audiotaped each evening's CBS national newscast. Among the three, a full set of notes was taken about each of the items covered. At the end of each newscast, 10 news items were selected for inclusion in that evening's questionnaire; every other news item broadcast was selected.

The method of assessing recall was similar to the one used by Stern (1971). Those who watched the news were asked if they could recall any stories aired on the program. For each story recalled, respondents were asked if they (1) could provide any additional details, and (2) had heard about the event prior to watching the news that evening. When the respondent appeared to be unable to recall any (additional) stories in this unaided fashion, the interviewer then proceeded to read a list of 10 stories (minus the ones already recalled) taken from that night's newscast. After each story, the interviewer asked if the respondent recalled seeing or hearing it in the newscast. For each affirmative reply, the interviewer asked for additional details and whether the respondent heard about the story previously. In short, for those who watched that evening's CBS news, there were four types of recall for each of the news items on the questionnaire: (1) no recall at all, (2) aided recall with

the respondent providing no additional details, (3) aided recall with the respondent providing additional details, and (4) unaided recall.[7]

Those not watching the CBS news were read a list of "some stories making today's news" and asked to tell the interviewer if they remembered hearing about the story that day. For each story recalled, respondents were asked if they could supply additional details about it. Thus, for "non-CBS" respondents, there were three levels of recall for each news item: (1) no recall at all, (2) aided recall without additional details provided, and (3) aided recall with additional details provided.

Modifications: (1) Combining of Items - Two sets of two question items were collapsed into one question items. The first set dealt with frequency of exposure to the national

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[7]A second method of measuring recall for CBS viewers was attempted. Rather than assessing recall on the basis of respondent (1) ability to recollect new items without any help or (2) reaction to summary statements about each news event, here recall was assessed on the basis of responses to questions about news items on the program. (e.g., "Why did the Federal Government close down the Crater Lake National Park in Oregon?")

It was hoped that comparisons in recall scores on the basis of method of assessment would be made. However, this method of assessing recall was not initiated until the fourth evening of data collection. Additionally, because of the scarcity of CBS news viewers, this method was used only when there were enough interviewers on a given evening to guarantee sufficient number of completed interviews with CBS news viewers ($n \approx 30$) using the primary measure of recall. As such, this alternative method was used on three evenings; 50 interviews were completed. This n was not seen as sufficient to allow for valid comparison between the two methods.

news, the second with frequency of national news stimulated information seeking.

Frequency of Exposure:

(waves 1-3) First, do you ever watch the national news programs that are shown each evening at 6:30? ___yes ___no

(IF YES) About how often do you watch one of these national newscasts? ___less than once a week
___once or twice a week
___three or four times a week
___ almost every day

(wave 4) About how often do you get a chance to watch one of the national news programs that are shown each evening at 6:30? Would you say less than once a week, once, twice, three, or four times a week, or just about every day?

Information Seeking:

(wave 1) Sometimes, something in the news on TV will make some people want to find out more information about that news item. Has this ever happened to you? ___yes ___no

(IF YES) About how often do you find yourself going to other media or friends to get more information about something you saw on the national news?
___less than once a week
___about once a week
___a few times a week
___almost every day
___every day

(wave 4) About how often do you find yourself going to the media or to friends to get more information about something you saw on the national news? Would you say less than once a week, once, twice, three, or four times a week, or just about every day?

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Tw

sc

Modifications: (2) Measurement of Respondent Motivations - Several modifications were made in the assessment of respondent motivations for watching the news. Two changes represented attempts to reduce the perceived social desirability of particular responses.

(a) One phrase was added to the introduction to the motivation items. Thus,

> There are a lot of reasons why people watch the news, with no one reason better or worse than any others. I'm going to read you a list of reasons other people gave us for watching the news. I'd like you to tell me how important each of these reasons was when you watched the news tonight. Here, zero equals not at all important and 100 equals very important.

It was hoped that respondents would feel less inhibited in acknowledging the true strength of their information-acquisition and recreation/diversion motivations.

(b) As can be seen in the introduction (above), instead of the four qualitative response categories used previously (e.g., "not important at all"), a numeric ratio scale was provided. There were three reasons for this: (1) to obtain a more precise measure of strength of motivations, (2) to obtain less skewness/greater variance in responses for the statistical

analyses,[8] and (3) to obfuscate the perceived socially desirable response categories.

The third modification in the assessment of respondent motivations involved the wording of the motivation items themselves: Some respondents were confused by the pronouns in the items, e.g., "because I have nothing else to do." To rectify this, the pronouns used were switched from the first person singular to the second person. Thus, for example, the item just mentioned was changed to "because you have nothing else to do."

Modifications: (3) Use of Ratio Scale Response Categories - The final modification in the test instrument involved the use of ratio scale response categories. The following variables were measured using ratio scales: usual level of attention to the national news programs;

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[8]The numeric ratio scale was not uniformly successful in decreasing the skewness/increasing the variance in responses to the motivation items. While the scale served to decrease the negative skewness of the information-acquisition motivation items, it tended to increase the positive skewness of the recreation/diversion motivation items. For example, while the skewness of the information-acquisition motivation item "to keep up with the latest economic news" was -1.329 when using the four qualitative response categories in wave 1, it decreased to -.854 when using the numeric ratio scale in wave 4. On the other hand, whereas the skewness of the recreation/diversion motivation item "to relax after a hard day" was .269 when using the four qualitative response categories in wave 1, it increased to .891 when using the numeric ratio scale in wave 4. (Glass and Stanley [1970] state that skewness generally ranges between +3 and -3. For symmetric distributions, the skewness is zero.) Appendix D provides a table of the skewness measures of motivation items common to waves 1, 2, and 4.

dependence on television for news about the nation and the world; attention to and distractions from that evening's newscast; perceived knowledge levels about national and world events; motivations for watching the news (just discussed); and, perception of friends' attitudes toward the value of being informed about national and world events.

Index Construction

Much of the analysis was dependent on the construction of indices of motivations. In order to determine (1) the number of motivation indices that needed construction, and (2) the composition of each index, the ten motivation items appearing in the final questionnaire were cluster analyzed.

Two factors emerged, accounting for 51% of the variance. Table 2.10 presents the composition of these factors. The first factor contained recreation and diversion motives for viewing the news. As such, this cluster was labeled recreation/diversion. The second cluster was equally predictable; all four items dealt with the acquisition of information from the newscast. This cluster was labeled information-acquisition. Their standard coefficient alphas were .78 and .86 respectively, both very high.

On the basis of its correlations with the clusters' true scores, one item ("because you like to see interesting things that happen to people") was removed from the first cluster. No other changes were made. Figure 2.4

lists the final composition of the clusters obtained in this analysis.

Table 2.10 Varimax Factors for Watching the News: Wave 4

Item	Factor 1 Recreation/ Diversion	Factor 2 Information-Acquisition
to relax after a hard day	.70*	-.01
because you like to watch television and there's nothing else on	.69*	-.09
because you have nothing else to do	.69*	-.03
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to your life	.57*	.34
because when the newscasters talk it's like listening to a friend	.52*	.24
because you like to see interesting things that happen to people	.49*	.44
to keep up with events in other countries	.07	.83*
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.08	.81*
to keep up with political events in our country	-.06	.79*
to keep up with the latest economic news	.14	.69*
Proportion of Variance	.23	.28
Standard Coefficient Alpha	.78	.86

*Highest factor loading

Information-Acquisition and Recreation/Diversion - Two motivation indices were constructed, both isomorphic

with the cluster represented. Components contributed equally to the indices. Thus, an individual's score on each index was equal to the sum of his/her scores on each of the contributing elements.[9]

Recreation/Diversion

to relax after a hard day

because you like to watch TV and there's nothing else on

because you have nothing else to do

finding out what's happening adds some excitement to your life

because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend

Information-Acquisition

to keep up with events in other countries

to keep up with our country's relations with other countries

to keep up with political events in our country

to keep up with the latest economic news

Figure 2.4. Wave 4: Final Composition of the Clusters

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[9]Weighted indices also were constructed. There, an individual's score was computed by multiplying his or her score on each motivation item by the item's factor score coefficient and then summing all of the products. The correlations between the two unweighted indices and their weighted counterparts were very high, .86 for the information-acquisition indices and .79 for the recreation/diversion indices. Weighted and unweighted index correlations with the criterion variables were very similar. As such, because there was no theoretical rationale dictating the use of weighted indices, the unweighted indices were used in the testing of the research hypotheses.

Scores could and did range from 0 to 500 on the recreation/diversion index and from 0 to 400 on the information-acquisition index. The standard coefficient alpha for the recreation/diversion index was .76. As stated before, the standard coefficient alpha for the information-acquisition index was .86.

Purposive Motivations - All motivations in the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices were seen as legitimate motivating forces. Because the indices consisted of unequal numbers of items, an individual's purposive motivation score was defined as the sum of his/her average score on the information-acquisition index and his/her average score on the recreation/diversion index.

$$\text{Purmot} = \frac{\text{i-a score}}{4} + \frac{\text{r/d score}}{5}$$

where

Purmot = purposive motivations
i-a score = information-acquisition index score
4 = number of items in the information-acquisition index
r/d score = recreation/diversion index score
5 = number of items in the recreation/diversion index

Scores could and did range from 0 to 200.

Dominance of Information-Acquisition Motivations - Dependence was defined as the ratio of an individual's average score on the information-acquisition index to the sum of his/her average scores on the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices (the purposive motivation index).

$$\text{Dominance} = \frac{\text{average information-acquisition score}}{\text{purposive motivation score}}$$

Scores could and did range from 0.0 to 1.0.

Perceived Informedness - This was conceptualized as the respondent's perception of how informed about the nation he or she usually was. Two items measured this.

> Compared with your friends, how informed would you say you usually are? (Zero equalling much less informed and 100 equalling much more informed)
>
> Compared with those you work with, if you work outside the home?

The correlation between these items was .71. The perceived informedness index was equal to the sum of these items. Scores could and did range from 0 to 200.

Frequency of News Discussions - Two items measured the frequency of news discussions:

> How often do you find yourself talking about America and world events with your family? Less than once a week, once, twice, three, four, or five times a week, or just about every day?
>
> How often do you find yourself talking about America and world events with your friends? (Same response choices utilized)

The correlation between these items was .21 ($p<.01$). Responses to these items were summed together to form this index. Scores could and did range from 0 to 12.

Total Recall - For each news item, respondents received a 3 if they were able to recall it without aid, 2 if they recalled the news item with aid but could provide additional details about it, 1 if they recalled the item with aid but could not provide additional details, and 0 if they were unable to recall the item at all. Total recall was

operationalized as the sum of the number of "unaided recall" items, the number of "aided recall with details" items, and the number of "aided recall without details" items. Maximum possible score was 10, the number of items on each evening's list. The obtained range was from 0 to 10.[10]

Interviewers

Two experienced interviewers (both females) were paid for their efforts. All others were undergraduate communication majors, enrolled in "Leadership" or "Mass Communication" courses. For these students, interviewing served to partially fulfill research activities required of them in the courses mentioned. Approximately half of these students reported previous telephone interviewing experiences.

This researcher trained all of the interviewers. For waves 1 and 2, training sessions typically lasted about one hour and included the following activities: (1) a description of the study being conducted, (2) a review of each of the items on the questionnaire, (3) a lecture on correct dialing

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[10]A second, weighted index of recall was also computed. There, a respondent's total recall score was equal to the sum of his or her scores on each of the news items. Thus, for example, a respondent would score 30 if he or she was able to recall all 10 news items in unaided fashion or a 20 if he or she with aid was able to recall all 10 news items and provide additional details about each.

The correlation between this index and the recall index just described in the text was .84. The weighted index was viewed as redundant and hence not used in the testing of the hypotheses.

and interviewing procedures, and (4) a role-playing exercise in which each interviewer "interviewed" and then "was interviewed by" one of his or her peers attending the training session. Four people served as interviewers during wave 1, six during wave 2. Given these numbers, the training sessions ran smoothly; at the end of each session, the interviewers appeared to be fully aware of the demands and nuances of the interviewing tasks.

Wave 4 required a large pool of interviewers as well as a much closer review of the interviewing procedures to be followed. Forty students from two mass communication courses served as interviewers. Those who attended class first heard a 50-minute lecture about the study. One week later, a second class session was devoted to training these students as interviewers. Those who missed either of these sessions met privately with this researcher or one of two students assisting him.

Training 20 people at one time proved to be a formidable task. Because of time restrictions and numbers of questions raised by the students, these students did not role-play in class. While they were cajoled by the researcher to corner their friends and/or roommates and practice before they conducted their first interview, it is doubtful that all did this.

It was assumed that at the end of the training sessions, some questions would be left unasked. To counter this, each

evening just before the interviewing began, we reviewed the somewhat detailed procedures that needed to be followed on the questionnaire. By the end of the first evening of data collection, it was apparent that a number of the students attempted to answer their own questions about procedures. To overcome this, in addition to each evening's pre-interviewing review session, all interviewers were required to submit their first completed interview of the evening for inspection. Numbers of mistakes were caught. While nothing could be done about errors or omissions on the just completed interviews, it was clear that most of the mistakes would not be repeated.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

This chapter will present the results of the fourth and final wave of data collection. A total of 13 hypotheses were tested. The first six hypotheses related to the recall of televised news items; the remaining hypotheses focus on selected interrelationships among the components in the uses and gratifications model.

Preliminary Descriptive Statistics

A total of 543 adults were interviewed. Two hundred and ninety-three respondents viewed that evening's CBS national newscast. However, 50 of these viewers were not included in the analyses of Hypotheses 1 and 2a-e. (See Chapter II, footnote 7, page 71.) Additionally, eight viewers failed to provide responses to at least one of the ten motivation items. Because (1) indices were used to test the motivation hypotheses, and (2) this researcher did not want to artificially create the indices (e.g., by substituting mean values for each piece of missing data), these respondents were excluded from the analyses of Hypotheses 2a-e. Finally, 29 respondents watched that evening's national

newscast on another network. In order not to blur the distinction between the viewing and non-viewing groups, these respondents were not included in any of the analyses undertaken.

Three sets of viewer/non-viewer comparisons are worth noting (See Table 3.1 for descriptive data about each of the variables used in the study.) Demographically, viewers tended to be male and older than their non-viewing counterparts. Both groups had similar proportions reporting at least some college education and were overwhelmingly white.

The second set of comparisons focused on consumption of televised national news. Based on self-reports, viewers of that evening's newscast appeared to watch the news more frequently and be more attentive when watching; whereas 64.2% of the viewers reported that they watched the news "just about every day," only 29.4% of the non-viewers reported watching the national news with such regularity. Moreover, while viewers averaged 78.9 out of 100 on an attention scale where 100 equaled completely attentive, their counterparts averaged only 71.8. There was no difference between the groups' perceived dependency on television for news about the nation and the world; both groups averaged approximately 60 where 0 equaled not at all dependent and 100 equaled totally dependent on television for national and international news.

Table 3.1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Obtained Ranges for Variables Used in the Analyses

Variable*	Non-Viewers (maximum n=221) X	sd	obtained range	Viewers (maximum n=293) x	sd	obtained range	Entire Sample (maximum n=514) X	sd	obtained range
Often	2.70	1.92	0-5	4.30	1.12	0-5	3.61	1.71	0-5
Depend	60.09	27.49	0-100	62.44	24.80	0-100	61.56	25.84	0-100
Att	71.81	23.00	0-100	78.93	18.02	20-100	76.26	20.31	0-100
Attention		-		57.67	29.66	0-100	same as viewers		
Distract		-		43.83	31.75	0-100	"	"	"
Finform	64.38	21.54	0-100	68.90	20.95	0-100	64.94	21.31	0-100
Winform	64.03	24.13	0-100	68.49	21.63	0-100	66.45	22.88	0-100
Famtalk	2.78	2.28	0-6	3.14	2.28	0-6	2.98	2.28	0-6
Frdtalk	2.80	2.04	0-6	2.92	2.09	0-6	2.87	2.07	0-6
Infoseek	2.04	1.69	0-5	2.23	1.95	0-5	2.16	1.86	0-5
Age	36.33	16.29	18-81	44.27	18.70	18-86	40.86	18.12	18-86
Ed	3.80	1.03	1-5	3.74	1.14	1-5	3.77	1.09	1-5
Race	1.10	0.30	1-2	1.07	0.27	1-2	1.08	0.28	1-2
Sex	1.64	0.48	1-2	1.55	0.51	1-2	1.59	0.50	1-2
Motivation Items									
Relax		-		28.20	34.70	0-100	same as viewers		
NothonTV		-		18.18	31.27	0-100	"	"	"
Relation		-		71.86	26.87	0-100	"	"	"
Poli		-		69.03	27.89	0-100	"	"	"
Newscaster		-		30.98	34.52	0-100	"	"	"
Nothtodo		-		14.99	28.38	0-100	"	"	"
Othcoun		-		66.99	28.22	0-100	"	"	"
Seeint		-		60.27	32.95	0-100	"	"	"
Eco		-		69.19	29.17	0-100	"	"	"
Excit		-		39.71	35.04	0-100	"	"	"

Table 3.1 (cont'd.)

Indices									
Tottalk	5.55	3.42	0-12	6.07	3.41	0-12	5.85	3.42	0-12
Pin	128.42	41.39	0-200	138.65	38.16	0-200	133.98	39.93	0-200
Totrecal	2.641	1.934	0-10	6.280**	2.33	0-10	4.55	2.79	0-10
Info		-		277.07	93.83	0-400	same as viewers		
Rec		-		129.58	115.13	0-500	"	"	"
Purmot		-		95.20	35.75	0-200	"	"	"
Dominance		-		0.749	.183	0.0-1.0	"	"	"

*
where: Often = frequency of exposure to the national news
Depend = dependency on television for news about what's going on in the country and the world
Att = attention usually given to the national news when watched
Attention = attentiveness to that evening's national newscast
Distract = amount of newscast missed because of distractions from the newscast
Finform = perceived informedness vis-à-vis friends
Winform = perceived informedness vis-à-vis colleagues
Famtalk = frequency of discussions about national and international news with one's family
Frdtalk = frequency of discussions about national and international news with one's friends
Infoseek = frequency of newscast stimulated information seeking
Age = respondent age
Ed = respondent level of education
Race = respondent race
Sex = respondent sex
Relax = to relax after a hard day
NothonTV = because you like to watch television and there's nothing else on
Relation = to keep up with our country's relations with other countries
Poli = to keep up with political events in our country
Newscaster = because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend
Nothtodo = because you have nothing else to do
Othcoun = to keep up with events in other countries
Seeint = because you like to see interesting things that happen to people
Eco = to keep up with the latest economic news
Excit = finding out what's happening adds some excitement to viewer's life

Table 3.1 (cont'd.)

Totalk = frequency of news discussions index
Pin = perceived informedness index
Totrecal = total recall index; number of news items recalled
Info = information-acquisition index
Rec = recreation/diversion index
Purmot = purposive motivations index
Dominance = dominance of information-acquisition motivations index

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** n=243

The third set of comparisons revolved around how informed respondents perceived themselves to be about national and world events. Viewers perceived themselves as usually more informed than non-viewers. When asked how informed they perceived themselves to be about national and international events, viewers averaged 73.5 (100 equals fully informed); non-viewers averaged 59.2. Additionally, viewers perceived themselves as slightly more informed about national and world news than their friends or colleagues. Where zero equals much less informed and 100 equals much more informed, viewers averaged 68.9 vis à vis their friends and 68.5 vis à vis their colleagues. Non-viewers averaged 64.4 when compared with friends and 64.0 when compared with colleagues. Finally, viewers perceived themselves as more informed about that day's national and international news; whereas viewers averaged 63.9 (100 equals fully informed), non-viewers averaged only 49.7. Hypothesis 1 tests the accuracy of this last perception.

Hypothesis 1

> Newscast viewers will recall more news items than non-viewers.

The early evening national newscast is not the only source providing information about the day's national and international events; regularly scheduled newscasts and special bulletins on radio and television, interpersonal sources, and to some extent newspapers diffuse the day's

news to the public. As such, even non-viewers were expected to recall seeing or hearing about a few of the items on each evening's news recall test.

Viewers recalled an average of 6.280 of the 10 news items selected for each day's news recall segment of the test instrument. Non-viewers were able to recall 2.641 news items. (See Table 3.2) The difference between viewer and non-viewer recall scores was statistically significant ($t=15.60$, $p<.01$). Viewers reported having been previously exposed to 1.358 news items that they recalled seeing or hearing on the newscast. (For viewers, the correlation between prior exposure and number of items recalled was .2679, $p<.01$). Even when subtracting this figure from the total number of items recalled, viewers recalled an average of 4.921 news items from the newscast.[1]

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[1]No formal predictions were offered about the relationship between viewer demographic attributes and the number of news items recalled. However, this researcher anticipated that males and the more educated would recall more than their counterparts, thus potentially confounding the relationship between reasons for viewing the news and number of news items recalled. Recall scores were not significantly different on the basis of education. (Men did recall significantly more news items than women. Men recalled an average of 6.606 news items; women recalled an average of 5.976 [$t=2.06$, $t<.05$].) However, differences in recall on the basis of sex of the respondent did not meaningfully alter the data assessed in the examination of the hypotheses in this study. This researcher did not anticipate significant differences in recall based on respondent age or race and they did not exist in the data.

Table 3.2. Comparison between Viewers and Non-Viewers; Number of News Items Recalled

Type of Recall	Non-Viewers (n=221)	Viewers (n=243)
Unaided recall	a	1.246
Aided with details provided by the respondent	0.184	1.742
Aided without details provided by the respondent	2.456	3.292
Total number of items recalled	2.641	6.280*

[a] not assessed

* t=15.60, p<.01 (one-tailed)

Several additional points about the recall scores are worthy of notation.

(1) Of the 6.280 items viewers recalled, only 1.246 items were recalled in the unaided recall situation. This is consistent with the data provided by Stern (1971); without aid, his respondents recalled an average of 1.2 news items.

(2) Viewers were able to provide significantly more additional accurate details about news stories whose headlines were provided to them than non-viewers (t=11.12, p<.01). Viewers were able to provide additional details for 20% of the news stories they were originally unable to recollect without aid. For non-viewers, the figure was less than 2%.

(3) In the aided recall without additional details provided situation, viewers recalled significantly more items than non-viewers ($t=4.55$; $p<.01$). Thus, while non-viewers were only able to recall 31% of the news items available in this type of recall situation (those items that they did not already recall), viewers were able to recall 47% of those items available.

(4) Time of interview did not appear to influence recall; recall rates for viewers hovered around 60% throughout each evening's 1 3/4 hours interviewing sessions. (See Table 3.3) However, there was more variance in recall rates across day of interview. (See Table 3.4)

Table 3.3 Viewer Number of Items Recalled by Time of Interview

Time	$\bar{X}$ Number of Items Recalled (maximum possible = 10)
7:15-7:30 (n=13)	6.2
7:30-8:00 (n=43)	6.3
8:00-8:30 (n=56)	5.9
8:30-9:00 (n=71)	6.3
9:00-9:30 (n=57)	6.6

Table 3.4. Viewer Number of Items Recalled by Day of Interview

Day Number	$\bar{X}$ Number of Items Recalled (maximum possible = 10)
1 (n=25)	6.68
2 (n=26	6.62
3 (n=29)	6.31
4 (n=27)	7.50
5 (n=29)	5.79
6 (n=44)	5.84
7 (n=36)	5.81
8 (n=26)	6.24

Hypothesis 2a

> The greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

Stated simply, this hypothesis predicts that the more one turns to the news for information, the more information he or she will retain from the newscast.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between strength of information-acquisition motivations and number of news items recalled was .1117 ($p<.05$). Information-acquisition and recreation/diversion motivation indices were related to each other (.2194, $p<.01$). When recreation/diversion motivations were controlled, the first order partial correlation between information-acquisition motivations and number of items recalled was .1563 ($p<.01$).

In addition to the correlational measures just provided, a t-test was used to examine differences in recall scores based on a median split on the independent variable (median=287.8). (See Figure 3.1)

Information-Acquisition Motivations		
	HI	Group 1 $\bar{X}$ information-acquisition motivation score = 352.7 (n=119)
	LO	Group 2 $\bar{X}$ information-acquisition motivation score = 202.0 (n=116)

Figure 3.1 Median Split on Information-Acquisition Motivations

Those falling above the median recalled an average of 6.487 news items. Those below the median averaged 6.096. The differences in scores was not statistically significant (t=1.29).

The t-test for differences in recall scores based on the median split was seen as a conservative assessment of the relationship being tested. The correlation examination appeared to provide a better (and more liberal) indication of the strength of the relationship tested. Given the statistical significance of the correlation and the direction of the recall rates based on the median split, this hypothesis appears to be supported.

Hypothesis 2b

> The greater the strength of recreation/diversion motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

Recreation/diversion motivations were not expected to be as strongly related to recall as information-acquisition motivations (see Hypothesis 2c). Nonetheless, this researcher expected that the more one turned to the news for recreation or diversionary purposes, the more information he or she would retain from the newscast.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and recall was -.1749 ($p<.01$). When information-acquisition motivations were controlled, the first order partial correlation between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and number of news items recalled was -.2057 ($p<.01$). Thus, while the relationship was statistically significant, it was in the direction opposite to that predicted.

A median split on the independent variable (median = 101.1) provided another view of the unanticipated negative relationship. (See Figure 3.2) Those falling above the median average 5.982 news items. Those falling below the median averaged 6.587. The difference in scores was statistically significant ($t=2.00$, $p<.05$).

Recreation/Diversion Motivations

	HI	LO
HI	Group 1 $\bar{X}$ recreation/ diversion score=223.7 (n=113)	Group 2 $\bar{X}$ recreation/ diversion score=44.0 (n=122)
LO		

Figure 3.2 Median Split on Recreation/Diversion Motivations

Based on the negative relationship between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and recall, Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Hypothesis 2c

> Strength of information-acquisition motivations is a stronger predictor/will account for more of the variance in news recall than strength of recreation/diversion motivations.

This hypothesis addresses itself to the issue of predictive utility; the position taken is that knowledge of an individual's strength of information-acquisition motivations will enable one to better predict that individual's recall score than knowledge of the strength of his/her recreation/diversion motivations for watching the same newscast.

Both indices were entered into a multiple regression equation predicting the number of news items recalled. The simple correlation between strength of recreation-diversion

motivations and the number of items recalled was -.1749 ($p<.01$); the corresponding beta weight was -.2095 ($p<.01$). The simple correlation between strength of information-acquisition motivations and the number of items recalled was .1117 ($p<.05$); its corresponding beta weight was .1577 ($p<.05$). Thus, while both sets of correlations and beta weights were small but statistically significant, strength of recreation/diversion motivations was a better predictor of an individual's number of news items recalled.

Based on the correlation and corresponding beta weights, Hypothesis 2c was not supported.

Hypothesis 2d

> The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news index recalled.

Those seeking predominantly information-acquisition gratifications from the national newscasts were expected to recall a greater number of news items broadcast than those who were equally motivated by information-acquisition and recreation/diversion motivations or those primarily motivated by the latter group of motivations.

To test this hypothesis, dominance of information-acquisition motivations (defined as the ratio of the individual's average score on the information-acquisition items to the sum of his/her average scores on the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices) was correlated

with number of news items recalled. The resulting correlation coefficient was .2010 ($p < .01$).

In addition to the correlation analysis, this researcher examined the mean rates of recall for 3 of the 4 groups created by median splits on the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices.[2] (See Figure 3.3)

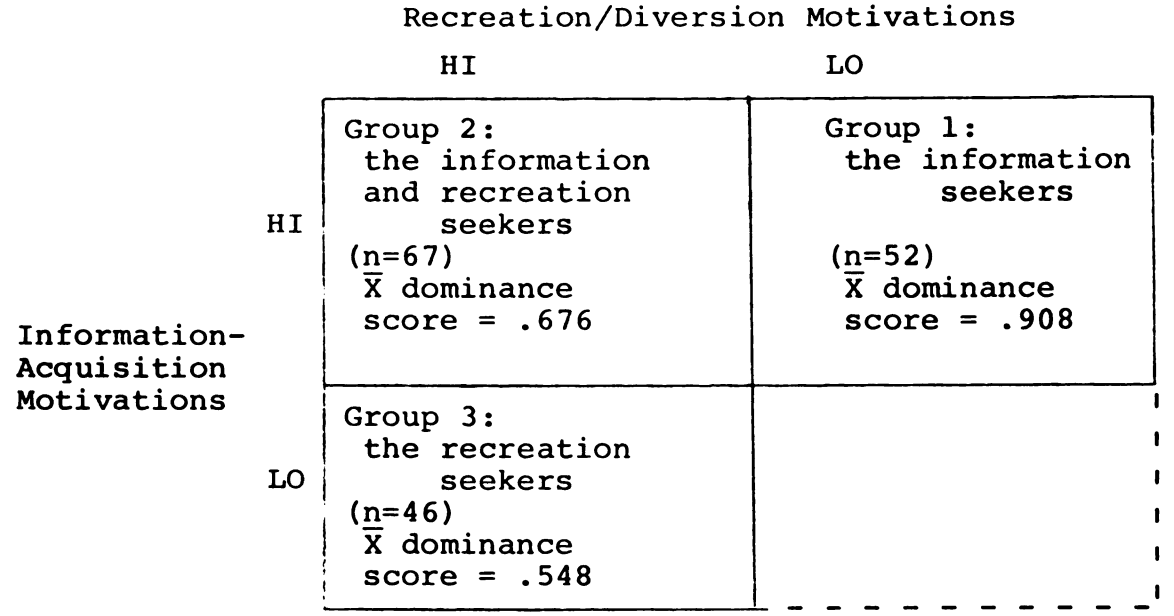

Figure 3.3. Breakdown of Viewers Based on Dominance of Information-Acquisition Motivations

[2]The casual viewer was excluded from this analysis; based on the median splits, there was no way of predicting the extent to which these people depended on information-acquisition motivations.

The information seekers, by definition those most dependent on information-acquisition gratifications, were expected to recall more news items than either of the other two groups, with the information and recreation seekers expected to recall more than the recreation seekers.

Respondents in group 1 (the information seekers) recalled an average of 6.769 news items. Those in group 2 (the information and recreation seekers), and 3 (the recreation seekers) recalled 6.269 and 5.556 items respectively. The difference among these mean scores was significant ($F=3.53$, $p<.05$).

Based on the two tests of the data, Hypothesis 2d appears to have empirical support.

Hypothesis 2e

> Viewers motivated by information-acquisition and/or recreation/diversion motivations will recall more news items than viewers not motivated by either dimension of motivations.

Previous hypotheses focused on the relationships among particular sets of motivations and news recall. This hypothesis focuses on the relationship between strength of all measured motivations and the number of news items recalled. Two tests of the hypothesis were conducted.

The first test of the relationship involved the computation of a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The correlation between strength of purposive motivations and number of news items recalled was -.0396. The correlation

was in the wrong direction but not significant. Given the positive relationship between strength of information-acquisition motivations and recall and the slightly stronger negative relationship between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and recall, the strength and direction of this correlation makes intuitive as well as empirical sense.

Recall that the median information-acquisition score was 287.8 and the median recreation/diversion score was 101.1. In the information-acquisition-recreation/diversion paradigm, 3 of the 4 groups of viewers (the information seekers, the information and recreation seekers, and the recreation seekers) ranked above the median on at least one of the two underlying motivation clusters. For the second test of this hypothesis, these three sets of viewers were combined to form the highly motivated group of viewers (mean purposive motivation score = 112.5)[3]; their counterparts were the casual viewers (mean purposive motivation score = 55.9). (See Figure 3.4) The highly motivated group recalled an average of 6.232 news items. The low motivation viewers recalled an average of 6.449.

Strength of purposive motivations and news recall appear to function almost entirely independently of each other.

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[3]The reader is reminded that purposive motivation scores were operationalized as an individual's average information-acquisition score plus his/her average recreation/diversion score.

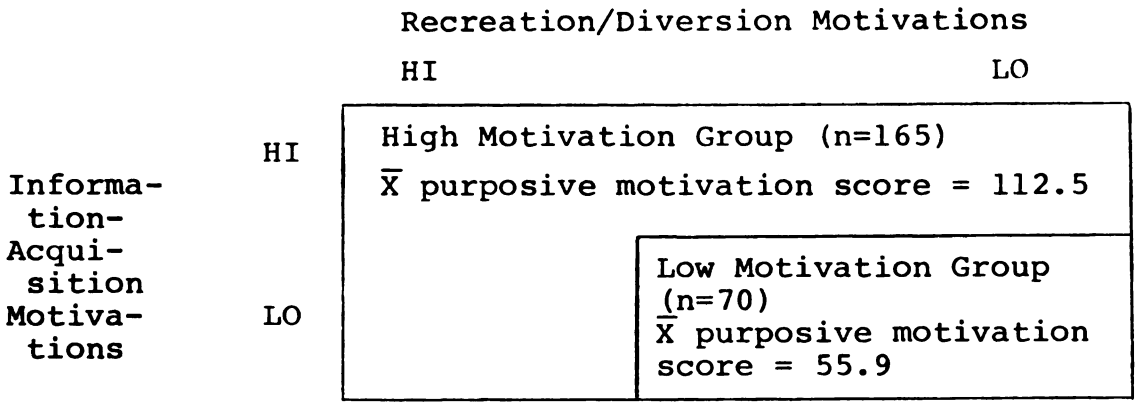

Figure 3.4. Breakdown of Viewers into High and Low Motivation Groups

As such, Hypothesis 2e was not confirmed.

To summarize, these are the results of the tests of the hypotheses dealing with recall:

(1) Viewers recalled an average of 63% of the news items selected from each evening's newscast for each evening's news recall test. Non-viewers were aware of 26% of the news items selected.

(2) Strength of recreation/diversion motivations explained more of the variance in news recall than strength of information-acquisition motivations, although the relationship between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and recall was negative, and the relationship between strength of information-acquisition motivations and recall was positive.

(3) Dominance of information-acquisition motivations was positively related to the number of news items recalled; those turning to the national news primarily because of information-acquisition motivations recalled more news items than those equally motivated by both clusters of motivations or primarily motivated by the recreation/diversion cluster.

(4) Strength of purposive motivations (both information-acquisition and recreation/diversion) and news recall were unrelated.

Hypothesis 3a

> The greater the frequency of interpersonal discussions about national and world news, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news.

It was anticipated that frequency of discussions about national and world events and strength of information-acquisition motivations for turning to the national news would vary directly with each other. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the frequency of discussion index and the information-acquisition index was positive, and while small, statistically significant (.1131, $p<.05$). Table 3.5 indicates that the correlation between the frequency of discussion index and each of the components of the dependent measure varied considerably.

Table 3.5. Correlation between Frequency of Interpersonal Discussions about the National News and Strength of Information-Acquisition Motivations for Watching the News

Information-Acquisition Motivation	Correlation Coefficient
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.0383
to keep up with political events in our country	.1707**
to keep up with events in other countries	.0975*
to keep up with the latest economic news	.0689

* $p<.05$
** $p<.01$

Correlation coefficients also were computed for the relationship between each of the components of the frequency of discussion index and the dependent measure. While frequency of discussion with friends fluctuated almost independently of strength of information-acquisition motivations (.0684), the relationship between frequency of family discussions about national and international events with strength of information-acquisition motivations was statistically significant (.1414, $p<.05$).

Additionally, this hypothesis was examined in light of median splits on the independent variables. The median score on the frequency of discussion index was 6.01 (scores ranged from 0 to 12: mean score was 6.07). Respondents scoring above the median scored an average of 296.0 on the information-acquisition index. Those falling below the median averaged 265.3 on the dependent measure. This difference was in the hypothesized direction and statistically significant ($t=2.65$, $p<.01$).

In short, the statistical significance of the correlation and the t-test suggests support of this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3b

> The less the perceived knowledge vis-à-vis friends and colleagues about national and world news, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news.

Viewers who perceived themselves as less informed than their friends and colleagues were expected to use the national

newscasts as a modus operandi for improving their relative level of knowledge. As such, these two variables were hypothesized as varying inversely with each other. However, when respondents were divided into those who perceived they knew less than, about the same amount as, and more than their friends and colleagues, the average information-acquisition motivation scores were 238.4, 290.3, and 286.0 respectively. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the independent and dependent variables reflected these figures--+.3858 ($p<.01$). Table 3.6 indicates that the correlation between the independent variable and each of the components of the dependent measure was positive and statistically significant.

Table 3.6. Correlations Among Perceived Knowledge Levels Vis-à-Vis Friends and Colleagues and Strength of Information-Acquisition Motivations for Watching the News

Information-Acquisition Motivation	Correlation Coefficient
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.3299*
to keep up with political events in our country	.3428*
to keep up with events in other countries	.3518*
to keep up with the latest economic news	.2795*

*$p<.01$

Correlation coefficients also were computed for the relationship between each of the two components of the independent variable and strength of information-acquisition motivations. The correlation between perceived knowledge level vis-à-vis friends and strength of information-acquisition motivations was .3323 ($p<.01$); the correlation between perceived knowledge level vis-à-vis colleagues and the dependent variable was .4332 ($p<.01$).

It appears as if those already in the know turn to the news in order to retain their lofty relative knowledge levels. As such, Hypothesis 3b was not supported.

Hypothesis 3c

> The greater the dependence on televised news for information about the nation and the world, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the national news.

It was predicted that those heavily dependent on television for national and international news would turn to the newscasts more strongly motivated by information-acquisition reasons than those less dependent on television for such information. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to ascertain the existence of the posited relationship; the coefficient, .3045 ($p<.01$), indicated a strong relationship between these two variables. Table 3.7 specifies the relationships among dependence on television for national and international news and each of the four components in the information-acquisition index.

Table 3.7. Correlations Among Dependence on Television for News about the Nation and the World and Strength of Information-Acquisition Motivations

Information-Acquisition Motivation	Correlation Coefficient
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.3446*
to keep up with political events in our country	.2109*
to keep up with events in other countries	.2057*
to keep up with the latest economic news	.2768*

*p<.01

The relationship between the independent and dependent variables is more graphically depicted when average scores on the dependent variable are compared on the basis of a median split on the independent variable. Television was the primary source of national and international news for most respondents; where 0 equaled not at all dependent on television for such news and 100 equaled total dependence on it, the mean response was 62.4 and the median was 59.7. Those falling below the median (those less dependent on television for national and international news) placed a value of 251.8 (maximum = 400) on information-acquisition motivations. Their counterparts, heavily dependent on television for news, averaged 298.2. The difference in the scores was significant ($t=4.16$, $p<.01$).

Hypothesis 3c was supported. Before examining the next hypothesis however, it should be noted that dependence on television for national and international news was equally related to strength of recreation/diversion motivations--.2936. Thus, it appears that the more dependent one is on television for news, the greater the strength of both these motivations for watching the newscast.

Hypothesis 4

> The stronger the purposive motivations for viewing the national news, the more frequent the viewing of the national news.

As results relating to the previous hypothesis indicated, strength of information-acquisition motivations was positively related to a (conceptually) antecedent cognitive variable, dependence on television for national and international news. Here, the focus is on the relationship between strength of purposive motivations and a (conceptually) subsequent behavior--frequency of exposure to the national news.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between strength of purposive motivations and frequency of national news viewing was low but statistically significant (.1462, $p<.01$). The correlation between strength of information-acquisition motivations and the criterian variable was .1878 ($p<.01$). However, the correlation between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and frequency of viewing the national news was .0350. Table 3.8 provides the relationships

among each of the items in the purposive motivation index and the dependent measure.

Hypothesis 4 posited a positive relationship between both motivation indices and frequency of national news viewing. The tabled data indicate that the entire relationship is located within the information-acquisition motivations. As such, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Table 3.8. Correlations Among Purposive Motivations and Frequency of Viewing the National News

Purposive Motivation	Correlation Coefficient
Information-Acquisition Index	.1878**
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries	.2195**
to keep up with political events in our country	.1924**
to keep up with events in other countries	.1143*
to keep up with the latest economic news	.0949
Recreation/Diversion Index	.0350
to relax after a hard day	.0809
because you like to watch television and there's nothing else on	-.0038
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend	.0590
because you have nothing else to do	-.0214
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to your life	.0425

*p<.05
**p<.01

Hypothesis 5a

> The greater the dominance of information-acquisition reasons for viewing the news, the greater the attentiveness to the newscast.

Those turning to the news primarily for information-acquisition purposes were expected to be more attentive to the newscast than those whose information and recreation/diversion motivations were more balanced. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient computed to test this hypothesis indicated a relationship between these two variables but in the direction opposite to what was predicted. The correlation coefficient was -.1975 ($p<.01$). Taken at face value, the correlation suggests that the more reliant on information-acquisition motivations, the less attentive one is to the newscast. Hypothesis 5a was not supported.

Hypothesis 5b

> The greater the dominance of information-acquisition reasons for viewing the news, the fewer the number of distractions from the news.

It was predicted that the more exclusively one watched the news seeking information-acquisition gratifications, the less frequently he or she would be interrupted from viewing that evening's newscast. While respondents reported missing an average of almost one half of the newscast ($\bar{X}$ = 43.8 where 0 equaled not missing any of the newscast and 100 equaled missing all of it), the Pearson product-moment

correlation coefficient (-.0356) indicated that those who watched primarily for information-acquisition purposes were no less likely to be distracted. The minuteness of the correlation suggested that the hypothesis be dropped as ill-conceived without any additional analyses undertaken.

Hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Hypothesis 6

> The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news, the more frequent the rate of newscast stimulated information-seeking behaviors.

Those turning to the news primarily for information-acquisition purposes were seen as most likely to engage in information-seeking behaviors stimulated by the newscast. To test this hypothesis, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed. While the correlation was significant ($p<.05$) and in the predicted direction, its strength (.1203) indicated a marginal relationship between these variables.

In a second test of this relationship, respondent scores on the criterion variable were compared based on a median split on the predictor variable. The median dominance of information-acquisition motivations score was .775. Viewers scoring above the median reported that they were stimulated to seek additional information 2.36 times per week. Viewers scoring below the median reported newscast

stimulated information seeking 2.10 times per week. This difference approached statistical difference (t=1.50).

On the basis of both tests, Hypothesis 6 appeared to be supported.

To summarize, these are the results of the tests of the hypotheses dealing with selected interrelationships among the components of the uses and gratifications model:

(1) Frequency of interpersonal discussions about national and international events was positively related to strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the national news.

(2) Perceived level of knowledge about national and international news vis-à-vis friends and colleagues was positively related to strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the national news.

(3) Dependence on television for information about national and international news events was positively related to strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the national news.

(4) Strength of information-acquisition motivations was positively related to frequency of exposure to national news; strength of recreation/diversion motivations and frequency of exposure were unrelated.

(5) Dominance of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news was negatively related to attentiveness to the newscast and unrelated to the amount of the newscast missed because of distractions from it.

(6) Dominance of information-acquisition motivations was positively related to newscast stimulated information-seeking.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY

This chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section, results relating to each hypothesis will be summarized. The second section will consist of discussions on the recall of televised news and the utility/validity of the uses and gratifications approach to this particular media effect. In that section, post hoc explanations will be offered for the recall hypotheses that were not supported.

SUMMARY

Each of the hypotheses tested is listed below. Accompanying each hypothesis is a statement condensing the empirical evidence relating to it.

H_1: Newscast viewers will recall more news items than non-viewers.

Viewers recalled an average of 63% of the news items selected for each day's news recall test; non-viewers were able to recall only 26% of these news items. Even when controlling for viewer prior exposure to the news items, viewers recalled substantially more items than non-viewers. The hypothesis was supported.

H_{2a}: The greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

Highly information-acquisition motivated viewers recalled approximately one-half news item more than those less motivated by that cluster of motivations. This difference approached significance. The correlation between the two variables was statistically significant. The hypothesis was supported.

H_{2b}: The greater the strength of recreation/diversion motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

Highly recreation/diversion motivated viewers recalled approximately one-half news item less than those less motivated by recreation/diversion motivations. This difference was statistically significant, as was the negative correlation between the two variables. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{2c}: Strength of information-acquisition motivations is a stronger predictor/will account for more of the variance in news recall than strength of recreation/diversion motivations.

Strength of information-acquisition motivations was positively related to number of news items recalled; strength of recreation/diversion motivations was negatively related to the dependent measure. The stronger of these two relationships was the one between strength of recreation/diversion motivations and recall. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{2d}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the number of news items recalled.

The correlation between dominance of information-acquisition motivations and number of news items recalled was positive and statistically significant. Those turning to the news primarily because of information-acquisition motivations recalled approximately 1 1/2 more items than the group of respondents turning to the news primarily because of recreation/diversion motivations. The hypothesis was supported.

H_{2e}: Viewers motivated by information-acquisition and/or recreation/diversion motivations will recall more news items than viewers not motivated by either dimension of motivations.

There was virtually no difference in recall scores between high and low motivated groups of viewers. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{3a}: The greater the frequency of interpersonal discussions about national and international news, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news.

Viewers reporting at least three interpersonal discussions per week about national and international news scored an average of 296.0 on the information-acquisition index (maximum = 400). Viewers reporting less than three interpersonal discussions per week about the news scored significantly less--265.3. The difference between these scores was significant, as was the correlation between the two variables.

The hypothesis was supported.

H_{3b}: The less the perceived knowledge vis-à-vis friends and colleagues about national and world news, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news.

The correlation coefficient between these two variables was significant but in the opposite direction. Viewers who perceived themselves as more knowledgeable than their friends and colleagues were more strongly motivated by information-acquisition reasons than those who perceived themselves as less knowledgeable. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{3c}: The greater the dependence on television news for information about the nation and the world, the greater the strength of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news.

The average viewer perceived him/herself as fairly dependent on television for national and international news. The group more heavily dependent on television news reported greater strength of information-acquisition motivations than their counterparts. The correlation between the variables was significant. The hypothesis was supported.

H_4: The stronger the purposive motivations for viewing the national news, the more frequent the viewing of the national news.

The correlation coefficient between the two variables was positive and statistically significant. However, while strength of information-acquisition motivations was

positively related to frequency of national news viewing, strength of recreation/diversion motivations and the criterion variable functioned independently of each other. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{5a}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for viewing the news, the greater the attentiveness to the newscast.

The empirical evidence indicated a significant relationship opposite to what was predicted; those less reliant on information-acquisition motivations were more attentive to the newscast. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{5b}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition reasons for viewing the news, the fewer the number of distractions from the news.

Viewers reported missing almost half of each evening's newscast. The correlation between the two variables indicated that those turning to the news primarily because of information-acquisition motivations would be no less likely to be distracted than their counterparts. The hypothesis was not supported.

H_{6}: The greater the dominance of information-acquisition motivations for watching the news, the more frequent the rate of newscast stimulated information-seeking behaviors.

Viewers scoring above the median dominance of information-acquisition motivations score reported slightly more frequent newscast stimulated information-seeking behaviors. The correlation between the variables was statistically significant. The hypothesis was supported.

In short, 13 hypotheses were tested. Six received empirical support; seven were not supported.

DISCUSSION

This section is divided into four parts. First, we will discuss the ability of television newscasts to transmit current events information to the viewing public. Subsequent to that, we will focus on the utility and validity of the theoretical perspective taken and methodology employed in this study.

News Recall

In trying to assess the ability of televised national newscasts to transmit current events information to the viewing public, it was suggested that the number of news items recalled was a function not only of exposure to the newscast but also of (1) the question format used, (2) the method of assessing recall, (3) the type of news event to be recalled, (4) the amount of time between exposure to the newscast and measurement of recall, (5) exposure to the news items prior to the newscast, (6) level of attentiveness to the newscast, and (7) the motivations stimulating exposure to the newscast. The interaction between type of news event and recall was not investigated in this study. Of those investigated, the only interaction that was not significant was (4)--the amount of time between exposure to the newscast and measurement of recall. A brief review of three of the significant

interactions will be instructive for the ensuing point on the impact of these newscasts.

Interaction between question format and recall: When asked, "What stories can you recall from tonight's national newscast?", viewers were able to recall an average of only 1.246 news items, or 12% of the news items covered on the recall test. When viewer memories were refreshed by the interviewer (e.g., "Do you recall the story about the 4 Spanish Air Force jets that collided with each other over the Mediterranian Sea today?"), viewers were able to provide meaningful details for an additional 1.742 items. Thus, viewers were able to recall almost 30% of the items covered.

Interaction between assessment of recall and recall: In the unaided and aided with additional details provided levels of recall, respondents were required to provide some information about an event before they would be credited with recall. Using this criterion, viewers were able to recall an average of 2.988 news items. However, with a more liberal operationalization (respondent acknowledgement that he or she saw/heard on the newscast the item mentioned by the interviewer), recall jumped to 6.28.

Interaction between attention and recall: The correlation between attention to the newscast and number of news items recalled was .2606 ($p<.01$); the more attentive one was to the newscast, the greater the number of news items recalled. The correlation between the amount of the newscast

missed because of distractions and the number of items recalled was -.2551 ($p<.01$); the greater the proportion of the newscast missed, the fewer the number of news items recalled.

Given the three interactions just discussed, it is clear that an evaluation of the ability of televised newscasts to transmit news/current events information to the viewing public is left to the methodologies and whims of media researchers, analysts, and critics. Is television news an effective conduit of current events information? The answer depends on the type of recall questions asked, the criteria used by the researcher to assess recall, and taking into consideration the fact that viewers aren't/ are unable to be fully attentive to all of the newscast. When stringent criteria are applied, recall scores suggest that national newscasts are relatively ineffective vehicles of information transmission. When more liberal criteria are applied, recall scores suggest that these newscasts are potent purveyors of news information.

This researcher is in favor of using liberal standards to evaluate the role of televised newscasts as transmitters of information. Two arguments are offered in support of this position. First, without the provision of a frame of reference (defined as news item headline read to the respondent), recall is seen as more a test of mental agility than amount of information stored. Second, this researcher

posits that one presents a biased indicator of newscast information transmission abilities when one does not disclose that the number of news items recalled is a function of the number of news items originally seen or heard on the broadcast.

Given this researcher's bias, television newscasts are seen as effective conveyors of current events information to the viewing public; viewers apparently can remember (with aid) almost every news item they hear and/or see on the early evening national newscasts.

Utility of the Uses and Gratifications Approach in Predicting Recall

When examined from an absolutist perspective, the data indicate that the predictive utility of the approach is marginal; the beta weights for the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices were .1577 ($p<.05$) and -.2095 ($p<.01$). Combined, these indices accounted for only 5.4% of the variance in recall scores. Given such data, a researcher doing bivariate analysis might well conclude that the uses and gratifications approach is just another, if not more difficult, method of assessing a small proportion of the variance in some criterion variable. Such is one perspective. This researcher would like to offer another.

In this age of multivariate analysis, the value of a variable is determined not only by its unique contribution to another variable but also by the extent of its

contribution in comparison to and in conjunction with other predictor variables. This researcher posits that when motivations are evaluated by these contrast and combination criteria, the uses and gratifications approach takes on more value.

Aside from measuring motivations, the final test instrument included measures of the following (alternative) predictors of recall: demographic indicators, patterns of exposure to the national news, dependence on television for news about the nation and the world, comparative perceived informedness about national and international events, and the frequency of interpersonal discussions about such news. To test the relative value of the uses and gratifications approach, its unique contribution will be compared with the unique contributions of these other independent variables. Then, the combined contributions of the motivation and non-motivation predictors will be examined.

Four demographic indicators were measured--respondent age, sex, level of education, and race. The multiple correlation between these variables and number of items recalled was .2503; combined, these variables accounted for 6.3% of the variance in recall scores. Sex was the best demographic predictor, having a standardized beta weight of -.1780 ($p<.01$). While the beta weight of age also was significant (.1732, $p<.05$), the betas for level of education and race were not.

The degree of attentiveness to the newscast and the amount of the newscast missed because of distractions were better predictors of recall than respondent demographic characteristics. The multiple R between attentiveness, distractions and number of news items recalled was .3458; these variables accounted for 12% of the variance. The beta weights for both exposure variables were significant at the .01 level; the beta for attentiveness was .2773 and for distractions -.2257.

While dependence on television for information about the nation and the world was strongly related to information-acquisition motivations for viewing the national news (.3045, [$p<.01$]), it was virtually independent of the number of news items recalled--its Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient with recall was -.0291. As such, it was of almost no value in predicting recall.

For the purposes of this analysis, the two items comprising the perceived informedness index were entered into the multiple regression procedure as individual items. The beta weight for perceived informedness vis-à-vis friends was -.0719. The beta weight for perceived informedness vis-à-vis colleagues was .0320. The multiple correlation between these two variables and recall accounted for less than 1% of the variance.

Finally, while both frequency of discussion items were entered into the multiple regression procedure, only the

relationship between frequency of news discussions with one's family and recall was assessed; the other item (frequency of news discussions with one's friends) failed to meet the minimum statistical criteria for inclusion in the final regression equation. The resulting correlation bebetween frequency of news discussions with one's family and news recall was .1288 ($p<.05$). (The beta weight for this variable was the same as its correlation coefficient with recall.)

In short, when the amount of variance accounted for by other predictors is examined, the 5.4% of the variance accounted for by motivations is not all that low. While two sets of variables accounted for somewhat more variance than the motivation items, neither packed the theoretic punch that the motivation items carried. Thus, in comparison to other predictor variables, the motivation items fared relatively well.

Predictor variables don't exist in a vacuum. Instead they operate among and through a nexus of other variables influencing each other's effect on the criterion variable. The independent impact of each of six sets of predictors of news recall has just been examined. Now we will describe the influence of each of the non-motivation predictors when coupled with the motivation indices.

The multiple correlation of locator and motivation variables with number of news items recalled was .3640 ($p<.01$).

Together, these variables account for 13.2% of the variance in recall sources, a figure substantially higher than the variance accounted for by either one of these groups of variables individually. The best three predictors of recall were sex, age, and recreation/diversion motivations, their beta weights being -.2180, .2195, and -.2190 (all significant at the .01 level). Information-acquisition motivations were significant at the .05 level (beta = .1625). The betas for level of education and race were not significant.

The multiple correlation of the patterns of exposure and motivation variables with recall was .4069. These variables accounted for 16.6% of the variance in recall. The beta weights for attentiveness, distraction, and the recreation/diversion variables were significant at the .01 level, -.2307, -.2116, and -.1998 respectively. The beta for the information-acquisition index was .1368 ($p<.05$).

R values were .2292 for the combined dependence on television news and motivation variables, .2527 for the perceived informedness and motivation variables, and .2440 ($p<.01$) for the news discussion and motivation variables. In short, the joint impact of motivations and each of the non-motivation variables was greater than either separately. While motivation and non-motivation variables shared common variance, each accounted for unique portions of the variance in recall.

One final comparison is offered. When all five sets of non-motivation variables were thrown into a multiple regression equation predicting recall, their multiple R was .5858 ($p<.01$). When the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices were added, the multiple correlation increased to .6131 ($p<.01$). While the beta weight for the information-acquisition index was not significant (.0751 [$p\geq.05$]), the beta weight for the recreation/diversion index was (-.1979 [$p<.05$]). (See Table 4.1)

Predictive utility was the issue that prompted the investigation and reporting of these multiple correlations and regression beta weights. Based on the data provided, it appears that alone, motivations are not powerful predictors of recall. On the other hand, neither was any other independent variable analyzed. More importantly, when the motivation and non-motivation variables were combined, a meaningful amount of the variance in the criterion measure was accounted for. Finally, no attempt was made to examine the relationship between (1) indices of motivations and type of news story (e.g., to correlate strength of recreation/diversion motivations with recall of human interest or "soft news" stories), or (2) individual motivation items and particular news stories (e.g., to correlate strength of the "to keep up with the latest economic news" motivation with recall of economic news items). This researcher suspects that tests of those relationships would (1) indicate a

Table 4.1. Contributions of Motivation and Non-Motivation Variables in Predicting Recall

Variable*	Standardized Beta	Multiple R	R Square
atention	.4182	.39793	.15835
rec	-.1979	.47687	.22740
sex	-.2409	.52319	.27373
age	.1914	.55194	.30464
finform	-.2032	.56743	.32198
famtalk	.1571	.58448	.34161
ed	.0842	.59354	.35229
distract	-.1180	.59883	.35860
depend	-.1159	.60577	.36695
info	.0751	.61043	.37262
race	-.0456	.61182	.37433
winform	.0552	.61286	.37559
frdtalk	-.0169	.61306	.37585

*where: atention = attentiveness to that evening's national newscast
rec = recreation/diversion index
sex = respondent sex
age = respondent age
finform = perceived informedness vis-à-vis friends
famtalk = frequency of discussions about national and international news with one's family
ed = respondent level of education
distract = amount of newscast missed because of distractions from the newscast
depend = dependency on television for news about what's going on in the country and the world
info = information-acquisition index
race = respondent race
winform = perceived informedness vis-à-vis colleagues
frdtalk = frequency of discussions about national and international news with one's friends

stronger relationship between motivations and recall, and (2) suggest that the measurement of motivations represents a significant addition in the investigation of media impact.

Validity of the Motivation Approach to Learning

In the preceding subsection, it was posited that the uses and gratifications approach was useful in accounting for additional amounts of variance in the dependent media effect, news recall. In this subsection, we will focus on the validity of the premise which underlies the approach and served as the guideline in the development of the hypotheses tested.

This researcher suggested that at the core of the uses and gratifications approach was the position, "one learns best when one is motivated to learn." Based on this premise, a two by two paradigm of viewers and rates of recall was developed. The paradigm itself was never formally tested. Instead, empirical tests were conducted on hypotheses derived from it. Several of these hypotheses received support, several others did not. At this point, an examination of the entire paradigm will be helpful in (1) accounting for the findings vis-à-vis Hypotheses 2a-2e, and (2) evaluating the accuracy/utility of the learning theory taken by the uses and gratifications approach.

Four types of viewers were delineated and four levels of viewer recall were predicted. Figure 4.1 summarizes those positions.

It was anticipated that strength of information-acquisition motivations and strength of recreation/diversion motivations both would be positively related to the number of news

Information-Acquisition Motivations	Recreation/Diversion: HI	Recreation/Diversion: LO
HI	the information and recreation seeker 2	the information seeker 1
LO	the recreation seeker 3	the casual viewer 4

Figure 4.1 Expected Levels of News Recall Based on Viewer Type/Type and Strength of News Viewing Motivations

items recalled. However, while strength of information-acquisition motivations was positively correlated with recall, its counterpart was even more strongly negatively correlated with the criterion variable. As such, the order of the relationships among viewer types was changed. Figure 4.2 presents the empirically determined order of viewers on the basis of number of news items recalled.

Information-Acquisition Motivations	Recreation/Diversion: HI	Recreation/Diversion: LO
HI	the information and recreation seeker (n=67) $\bar{X}$ number of news items recalled = 6.269 3	the information seeker (n=52) $\bar{X}$ number of news items recalled = 6.769 1
LO	the recreation seeker (n=46) $\bar{X}$ number of news items recalled = 5.556 4	the casual viewer (n=70) $\bar{X}$ number of news items recalled = 6.449 2

Figure 4.2. Actual Levels of News Recall Based on Viewer Type/Type and Strength of News Viewing Motivations

Three of the four types of viewers (the information seekers, the information and recreation seekers, and the recreation seekers) were ordered as predicted. However, while the casual viewer was expected to recall the least, that viewer type recalled more than those scoring above the median on both the information-acquisition and recreation/diversion indices (the information and recreation seekers) and those scoring above the median only on the recreation/diversion index (the recreation seekers).[1]

The ordering of viewers on the basis of number of items recalled was interpreted as indicating that recreation/diversion motivations interfere with the acquisition of information. This interpretation would account for the information and recreation seekers recalling less than the information seekers, yet more than the recreation seekers. The information and recreation seekers were more distracted by recreation motivations than the information seekers.

---

[1]The 4 viewer types recalled differential numbers of news items which they heard about prior to the newscast. The information and recreation seekers recalled 1.54 news items which they had previously heard; the corresponding number for the recreation seekers was 1.08. Between these extremes were the information seekers and the casual viewers who recalled 1.39 and 1.43 previously heard news items respectively. However, even when subtracting these figures from their recall scores, the order of viewers on the basis of recall remained unchanged. The information seekers still recalled the most number of news items (5.38), followed by the casual viewers (5.02), the information and recreation seekers (4.73) and the recreation seekers (4.48), in that order.

On the other hand, while the information and recreation seekers and the recreation seekers had equal amounts of recreation/diversion motivations, the information seekers were able to recall more because of the effects of their stronger information-acquisition motivations. Finally, this interpretation would account for the casual viewer's recall score by positing that while their strength of information-acquisition motivations was low, strength of the counteracting recreation/diversion motivations also was low. In essence, the casual viewer turns to the newscast more receptive to more kinds of stimuli and gratifications than those who turn to the news because of strong recreation/diversion motivations.

This interpretation provides a theoretic rationale for the positive relationship between dominance of information-acquisition motivations and recall (H2d) and for the rejection of the predicted positive relationship between strength of all purposive motivations and news recall (H2e). Additionally, this interference or "blinders" interpretation might have some heuristic value in the examination of the effects of media entertainment programming; viewers primarily interested in recreation/diversion gratifications will be less likely to pick up information (be it how to act on a date, how to fight, or how to vote) because they "turn off" and "tune out" those frequencies from the spectrum of messages provided by the program.

In summary, research hypotheses involving recall were derived from the premise, "one learns best when one is motivated to learn." Based on the data gathered, the following modification is offered: One learns best when one is motivated by information-acquisition motivations.

Validity of the Direct Assessment Method of Measuring Motivations

Given the inability of the researcher to "get inside the respondent's head," the validity of the direct assessment of motivations (whereby respondents react to a list of motivations presented to them) is subject to some speculation. Based on the study undertaken, this researcher evaluates the direct assessment approach as functional although the extent of its validity is unclear. Four arguments are offered in support of this position.

(1) Empirical tests provided support for a number of the conceptualized/hypothesized linkages with motivations for viewing the news. For example, strength of information-acquisition motivations was conceptualized as positively related to an antecedent condition, frequency of interpersonal discussions about national and international news, and to a consequent of exposure to the national newscasts, news recall. Both relationships were supported by the data.

(2) Rejection of several hypotheses was more a reflection of poor intuitive guesses by the researcher than a condemnation of the motivation approach/method of assessing

motivations. For instance, this researcher predicted an inverse relationship between perceived level of knowledge vis-à-vis friends and colleagues about national and international news and strength of information-acquisition motivations for watching the national news. Those who perceived themselves as less knowledgeable were perceived as turning to the news in an effort to achieve congruence of information levels with their friends and colleagues. While that conjecture made intuitive sense, the finding of a positive relationship between perceived knowledge level and strength of information-acquisition motivations is equally appealing; those ahead are ahead because they turn to information content seeking the acquisition of information.

(3) Viewers displayed consistency in responses to the motivation items. Respondents who evaluated a motivation as important tended to evaluate the other motivations within the cluster as equally important (and vice-versa). This was evidenced by the high standard score coefficient alphas for each of the empirically derived clusters. Recall that such consistency was not a function of response sets, as the motivation items were randomly ordered within the section of the questionnaire devoted to motivations. Additionally, while it could be argued that the high alphas were simply the result of the factor and cluster analysis procedures, the composition of the clusters that emerged was predicted and made conceptual sense.

(4) Finally, the alternatives to the method of assessing motivations used were (1) less informative, and (2) less useful in predicting recall. For example, when respondents were asked to tell the interviewer (in open-ended fashion) why they watched the news, responses were predictable, terse, and not illuminating (e.g., "to be informed").

While these four arguments were viewed as compelling some doubts about the validity of the measurement technique remain.

(1) It is possible that while respondents demonstrated consistency in responses, their responses need not be a reflection of the (strength of) motivations which influenced their exposure to the news earlier that evening. Thus, respondents might simply be reacting to motivations which make sense at the time of the interview but may have never entered their cognitions when the decision to watch the news was made.

(2) At least in the case of news/educational programs is the issue of the impact of respondent perception of the relative social desirability of certain responses. Viewers rated information-acquisition motivations for watching the news as important and recreation/diversion motivations as not important. Given the content on the newscast, it makes sense for viewers to turn to the news for the acquisition of information. On the other hand, television in America is primarily entertainment oriented. This orientation is

reflected in the format and style of an increasing number of newscasts produced across the nation. It is assumed that viewers who watch these more intimate/jovial/relaxed newscasts are motivated by recreation/diversion reasons as well as those relating to information-acquisition. Finally, viewers were interviewed by young adults who sounded educated and who stated that they were calling from Michigan State University. This researcher suspects that some respondents reacted in two ways to each of the motivations read to them--they tried to fit the motivation to their use of the program, and they tried to emphasize the motivations they thought would fit the interviewer.

In short, this researcher has some nagging doubts about the validity of the direct, reactions to a list, assessment of motivations. However, given the predictive utility of the measure used, this researcher is willing to (1) assume that respondent scores reflected respondent motivations, and (2) suggest the use of this approach in examining the impact of exposure to other types of content on the media.

APPENDIX A

The Questionnaires

Questionnaire: Wave 1

Hello, my name is_____ and I'm calling from the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. We're calling people in the Lansing area to ask their opinions about television news programs, and we have a few questions we'd like to ask you (the man/woman of the house). This will only take about 5 minutes and we'd be very grateful for your help.

1. First, do you ever watch the national news programs that are shown each evening at 6:30?
   1 yes 2 no (GO TO 10)

2. About how often do you watch one of these national newscasts?
   1 less than once a week
   2 once or twice a week
   3 three or four times a week
   4 almost every day

3. We'd like you to think for a moment and then tell us what are the reasons why you watch these national news programs.

   _____ Probe:_____

   _____ Probe:_____

   _____ Probe:_____

   _____ Probe:_____

4. Now I'm going to read you a list of reasons other people gave us for watching the national news programs. For each reason, I'd like you to tell me how important that is when you watch the news.
   (NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL = 1) (NOT VERY IMPORTANT = 2)
   (SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT = 3) (VERY IMPORTANT = 4)

   to relax after a hard day. . . . . _____
   to keep up with events in other countries. . . . _____
   to help me plan ahead. . . . . _____
   to have something to talk about with my friends or family . . . . . _____
   I like to see interesting things that happen to people . . . . . _____
   because I have nothing else to do. . . . . _____

   to keep up with political events in our country. _____
   because other people in the house are watching it . . . . . _____
   because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today . . . . . _____

to keep up with the latest economic news . . . . _____
so I can forget about my problems for awhile . . _____
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events. _____

because my friends watch . . . . . _____
the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on. . . . . _____
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life. . . . . _____
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend. . . . . _____
I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me . . . . . _____
because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on. . . . . _____

5. Did you get a chance to watch the national news this evening?

_1_ yes _2_ no

(IF YES)

6. What were the reasons why you watched tonight's newscast?

_____ Probe: _____

_____ Probe: _____

_____ Probe: _____

_____ Probe: _____

7. How much attention do you usually pay to the national news when you do watch it? Would you say that you're

_1_ not attentive at all
_2_ not very attentive
_3_ somewhat attentive
_4_ very attentive

8. Sometimes, something on the news will make some people want to find out more information about the news item. Has this ever happened to you?

_1_ yes _2_ no

(IF YES)

9. About how often do you find yourself going to other media or friends to get more information about something you saw on the news?

_1_ less than once a week
_2_ about once a week
_3_ a few times a week
_4_ almost every day
_5_ every day

10. Where do you usually get most of your news about what's going on in the world today- from the newspapers, radio, television, magazines or talking to other people?

_1_ newspapers
_2_ radio
_3_ television
_4_ magazines
_5_ other people

Just a few more questions.

11. What is your age? Are you in your 20's, 30's, 40's, 50's, or older?

_2_ 20's _3_ 30's _4_ 40's _5_ 50's _6_ older

12. What was the last year of schooling you completed?

_1_ less than 8th grade
_2_ some high school
_3_ high school degree
_4_ some college
_5_ college degree(s)

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

13. Sex _1_ male _2_ female

Questionnaire: Wave 2

Hello, my name is_____ and I'm calling from the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. We're calling people in the Lansing area to ask their opinions about television news programs, and we have a few questions we'd like to ask you (the man/woman of the house). This will only take about 5 minutes and we'd be very grateful for your help.

1. First, do you ever watch the national news programs that are shown each evening at 6:30?
   __1__ yes __2__ no (GO TO 5)

2. About how often do you watch one of these national newscasts? (READ CHOICES)
   __1__ less than once a week __2__ once or twice a week
   __3__ three or four times a week __4__ almost every day (__8__ DK)

3. Did you get a chance to watch the national news this evening?
   __1__ yes __2__ no

4. Now I'm going to read you a list of reasons other people gave us for watching the national news programs. For each reason, I'd like you to tell me how important that is when you watch the news.
   (FOR THOSE WHO WATCHED TONIGHT'S NEWSCAST. AFTER THEY RESPOND TO EACH REASON, ASK: And how important was that reason for you when you watched the news tonight?)
   (NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL = 1) (NOT VERY IMPORTANT = 2)
   (SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT = 3) (VERY IMPORTANT = 4)

	USUALLY	TONIGHT
to have something to talk about with my friends or family.	_____	_____
because it's a habit.	_____	_____
because the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on.	_____	_____
because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today.	_____	_____
to see how I'll be affected by the day's events.	_____	_____
to keep up with political events in our country	_____	_____
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend.	_____	_____
it's my only source of news for the day	_____	_____
it's more informative than the local papers or stations.	_____	_____
finding out what's happening adds some excitment to my life.	_____	_____

because my friends watch. . . . . _____ _____
to keep up with the latest breaking news. . . . . _____ _____
it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house . _____ _____
to get more information about an event I heard about earlier . . . . . _____ _____
because I like to watch television & there's nothing else on . . . . . _____ _____
to keep up with the latest economic news. . . . . _____ _____
it's entertaining . . . . . _____ _____
so I can forget about my problems for awhile. . . . . _____ _____
it's a quick and easy way to get informed. . . . . _____ _____
because I have nothing else to do . . . _____ _____

to keep up with our country's relations with other countries . . . . . _____ _____
to relax after a hard day . . . . . _____ _____
I like to see interesting things that happen to people. . . . . _____ _____
because other people in the house are watching. . . . . _____ _____
because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched. . . . . _____ _____
I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me . . _____ _____
to keep up with events in other countries . . . . . _____ _____
to help me plan ahead . . . . . _____ _____
to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same . . . . _____ _____

Just a few more questions.

5. What is your age? Are you in your 20's, 30's, 40's, 50's or older?
   2 20's 3 30's 4 40's 5 50's 6 older
   8 RE

6. What was the last year of schooling you completed?
   1 less than 8th grade 2 some high school 3 high school degree 4 some college 5 college degree(s)
   8 RE

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

7. Sex 1 male 2 female

Questionnaire: Wave 3

Hello, my name is_____ and I'm calling from the Dept. of Communication at Michigan State University. We're calling adults in the Lansing area asking their opinions about television news programs, and we have a few questions we'd like to ask you (the man/woman of the house). This will only take 5 minutes and we'd be very grateful for your help.

1. First, do you ever watch the national news programs that are shown each evening at 6:30? yes no (GO TO 5, SKIP 8 AND 9)

2. About how often do you get to watch one of these national newscasts? Would you say less than once a week, once, twice, three, or four times a week, or just about every day?_____

3. If zero equals not at all attentive and 100 equals completely attentive, how much attention are you usually able to pay to the national news when you watch it?_____

4. If zero equals not at all dependent on television and 100 equals totally dependent on it, how much would you say you depend on television for news about what's going on in the country and the world today?_____

5. About how informed would you say you generally are about what's going on in our country and the world today, zero equalling not at all informed and 100 equalling fully informed?_____

6. Compared with your friends and those you work with--if you work outside the house--how informed would you say you generally are?_____

7. How informed would you say you are about what's taken place <u>today</u> in our country and the world?_____

8. There are a lot of reasons why people watch the news, with no one reason better than any others. I'm going to read you a short list of reasons other people gave us for watching the news and I'd like you to tell me how important each of these reasons usually is when <u>you</u> watch the news. Here, zero will equal not at all important and 100 will equal very important.

   to relax after a hard day. . . . . _____
   to keep up with the latest economic news . . . _____
   to keep up with our country's relations with other countries. . . . . _____
   so I can forget about my problems for awhile . _____

it's something to listen to while I eat
or do other things around the house. . . . . _____
to keep up with events in other countries . . _____
finding out what's happening adds some
excitement to my life. . . . . _____
because I have nothing else to do. . . . . _____
because I like to watch television and there's
nothing else on. . . . . _____

9. Sometimes, something in the news on TV will make some people want to find out more information about that news item. Has this ever happened to you? yes no

(IF YES)
About how often do you find yourself going to other media or friends to get more information about something you saw on the national news? Would you say less than once a week, once, twice, three, or four times a week, or just about every day?

10. How often do you find yourself talking about American and world news events with your family? Less than once a week, once, twice, three, four or five times a week, or just about every day?_____

11. How often do you find yourself talking about American and world news events with your friends?_____

12. How about with those people you work with, if you work outside the home?_____

13. If zero equals not at all important and 100 equals very important, how important do you think your friends think it is to be informed about American and world news events?_____

Just a few more questions.

14. What is your age? Are you in your 20's, 30's, 40's, 50's or older?_____

15. How many years of school have you completed?_____

16. What is your occupation?_____

17. Finally, what is your race?_____

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

18. Sex male_____ female_____

Questionnaire: Wave 4

Hello, my name is_____ and I'm calling from the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. We're calling adults in the Lansing area asking their opinions about television news programs. We have some questions we'd like to ask you (the man/woman of the house). This will take only 10 minutes and we'd be very grateful for your help.

1. About how often do you get a chance to watch one of the national news programs that are shown each evening at 6:30? Would you say less than once a week, once, twice, three, or four times a week, or just about every day?

   _0_ less than once a week (IF NO, ONLY READ QUESTIONS
   _1_ once WITH * BEFORE THEM.)
   _2_ twice
   _3_ three
   _4_ four
   _5_ just about every day
   _8_ dk

2. If zero equals not at all attentive and 100 equals completely attentive, how much attention are you usually able to give to the national news when you watch it?

   _____

3. How much would you say you depend on television for news about what's going on in the country and the world? Here, zero equals not at all dependent on TV for news and 100 equals totally dependent on it.

   _____

4. Did you get a chance to watch the national news this evening?

   _1_ yes _0_ no

(IF YES)

5. Which newscast did you watch, the one on CBS, NBC or ABC?

   _1_ CBS _2_ NBC _3_ ABC _8_ dk

6. How much attention were you able to pay to tonight's newscast? (0=not at all attentive and 100=completely attentive)

   _____

7. People often report that they are distracted from watching the news because they also may be reading the newspaper, eating, talking to others or working around the house. How much of tonight's newscast did you miss because of distractions such as these? Here, zero equals not missing

any of the newscast and 100 equals missing all of it.

_____

*8. About how informed would you say you usually are about what's going on in our country and the world, zero equalling not at all informed and 100 equalling fully informed?

_____

*9. Compared with your friends, how informed would you say you usually are? (zero equalling much less informed and 100 equalling much more informed)

_____

*10. Compared with those you work with, if you work outside the home?

_____

*11. How informed would you say you are about whatever's taken place today in our country and the world?

_____ average perceived informedness

_____

12. There are a lot of reasons why people watch the news, with no one reason better or worse than any others. I'm going to read you a list of reasons other people gave us for watching the news. I'd like you to tell me how important each of these reasons was when you watched the news tonight. Here, zero equals not at all important and 100 equals very important.

to relax after a hard day. . . . . _____
because you like to watch television and there's nothing else on. . . . . _____
to keep up with our country's relations with other countries. . . . . _____
to keep up with political events in our country. . . . . _____
because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend. . . . . _____
because you have nothing else to do. . . . . _____
to keep up with events in other countries. . . _____
because you like to see interesting things that happen to people. . . . . _____
to keep up with the latest economic news . . . _____
finding out what's happening adds some excitement to your life. . . . . _____

*INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE NEWS RECALL ITEMS

FOR THOSE WHO WATCHED THE CBS NEWS:
One of the other things we're interested in is what people can recall from watching the 6:30 national news. Often, people can only remember a few stories. What stories can you recall from tonight's national newscast?

CHECK OFF STORIES LISTED. ADD TO LIST THOSE STORIES RECALLED BUT NOT ON LIST. FOR THOSE STORIES REMEMBERED, ASK: Do any details about it come to mind? THEN ASK: Did you hear about this story before the newscast?

AFTER THE RESPONDENT APPEARS TO HAVE FINISHED RECALLING STORIES, ASK:

Do you recall any other stories?
IF YES: Do any details about it come to mind?
Did you hear about this story before the newscast?
IF NO: Now I'm going to read you a list of the (other) stories on tonight.
For each story, tell me if you remember seeing or hearing it on tonight's program.
FOR THOSE STORIES REMEMBERED: Do any details about it come to mind?
Did you hear about this story before the newscast?

FOR THOSE WHO DID NOT WATCH THE CBS NEWS: I'm going to read you a list of some the stories making today's news. For each story, tell me if you remember hearing about it today.
FOR THOSE STORIES REMEMBERED: Do any details about it come to mind?

13. Stories (Monday, July 7, 1975) — recall — hear earlier

President Ford today asked Congress to make changes in the way gasoline taxes are used

hl:
details: _____

recall: 1 yes w/o aid; 1 yes w aid; 0 no
hear earlier: 1 yes; 0 no

Kennedy, speaking at the conference of mayors in Boston accused Ford of being insensitive to the needs of the cities

hl:
details: _____

recall: 1 yes w/o aid; 1 yes w aid; 0 no
hear earlier: 1 yes; 0 no

	recall		hear earlier
Dow Jones average fell 10 3/4 points today which was the biggest drop in nearly a month.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	
The race horse Ruffian will be buried at the Belmont race track.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	
United Farm Workers picketed in Mexico today to protest alien workers from crossing the border to the U.S.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	
Israel retaliated against Lebanon, killing 13 people there today.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	
That the recent fighting in Lebanon was between the Christians and Moslems there.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	
That a general strike in Argentina began today.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	
Alligators are now so numerous that they might soon be taken off the endangered species list.			
hl:	1	yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1	yes w aid	0 no
	0	no	

	recall	hear earlier
The quarter, half dollar, and dollar are being revised in honor of the Bicentennial.		
h1:	1 yes w/o aid	1 yes
details: _____	1 yes w aid	0 no
	0 no	

additional stories remembered	hear earlier
1. _____	1 yes 0 no
2. _____	1 yes 0 no
3. _____	1 yes 0 no
4. _____	1 yes 0 no
5. _____	1 yes 0 no
sum of additional stories	_____

14. About how often do you find yourself going to the media or friends to get more information about something you saw on the national news? Would you say less than once a week, once, twice, three, or four times a week, or just about every day?

0 less than once a week
1 once
2 twice
3 three
4 four
5 just about every day
8 dk

*15. How often do you find yourself talking about American and world events with your family? Less than once a week, once, twice, three, four, or five times a week, or just about every day?

0 less than once a week 8 dk
1 once
2 twice
3 three
4 four
5 five
6 just about every day

*16. How often do you find yourself talking about American and world events with your friends?

0 less than once a week
1 once
2 twice
3 three

4 four
5 five
6 just about every day
8 dk Sum_____

*17. If zero equals not at all important and 100 equals very important, how important do you think your friends think it is to be informed about America and world events?

_____

Just a few more questions.

*18. What is your age?_____

*19. How many years of school have you completed?
1 8th grade or less
2 some high school
3 high school degree
4 some college
5 college degree(s)
8 refused

*20. Finally, what is your race?
1 white
2 black
3 Mexican-American
4 American Indian
5 other
8 refused

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

*21. Sex: 1 male
2 female

APPENDIX B

Respondent Demographic Characteristics

APPENDIX B

Respondent Demographic Characteristics

	Wave 1 (n=200)	Wave 2 (n=209)	Wave 4 (n=514)
Sex			
Male	38.6%	45.9%	40.9%
Female	61.4%	54.1%	59.1%
Education			
Less than 8th grade	3.9%	3.3%	3.9%
Some high school	9.5%	5.7%	6.8%
High school degree	22.2%	27.8%	27.7%
Some college	28.3%	27.3%	30.7%
College degree(s)	36.4%	35.9%	30.7%
Age			
18-29	34.8%	35.8%	40.4%
30-39	25.3%	19.6%	12.7%
40-49	14.1%	13.9%	13.9%
50-59	12.6%	13.4%	10.9%
Older	13.1%	17.2%	22.1%
Race			
White	-	-	91.4%
Black	-	-	6.5%
Other	-	-	2.0%

APPENDIX C

Correlation Matrices for Motivations for Viewing the News

APPENDIX C

Correlation Matrices for Motivations for Viewing the News

Wave 1

Key

Variable 1 = to relax after a hard day
2 = to keep up with events in other countries
3 = to help me plan ahead
4 = to have something to talk about with my friends or family
5 = I like to see interesting things that happen to people
6 = because I have nothing else to do
7 = to keep up with political events in our country
8 = because other people in the house are watching it
9 = because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today
10 = to keep up with the latest economic news
11 = so I can forget about my problems for awhile
12 = to see how I'll be affected by the day's events
13 = because my friends watch
14 = the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on
15 = finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life
16 = because when the newscasters talk, its like listening to a friend
17 = I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me
18 = because I like to watch television and there's nothing else on
501 = recreation/discussion cluster sum
502 = information-acquisition cluster sum

FACTOR INTERCORRELATIONS AND LOADING MATRIX,

COMMUNALITY IN THE DIAGONAL

	11	16	18	17	13	15	5	3	6	1	8	10	2	7	12	4	14	9	501	502
11	55	39	25	35	42	42	33	39	31	30	8	6	11	9	33	12	28	21	75	34
16	39	38	18	19	18	31	37	28	19	38	25	17	7	12	26	34	34	18	61	42
18	26	15	21	40	27	19	13	15	40	6	8	-13	-19	-6	4	-11	6	4	46	-19
17	35	19	40	19	21	21	26	13	9	6	9	-15	-23	-13	3	0	6	11	43	-9
13	42	18	27	25	24	33	19	21	10	16	17	6	-1	4	17	16	12	19	49	21
15	42	31	19	21	37	23	16	23	10	18	8	5	18	12	22	3	15	26	48	29
5	33	37	13	23	19	15	19	23	5	14	17	17	5	1	32	26	34	30	44	39
3	39	28	15	13	21	23	23	23	20	27	11	32	19	3	37	30	32	18	48	49
6	31	19	40	9	10	10	5	20	11	15	3	-8	-16	-7	-6	-5	4	-8	34	-13
1	30	38	6	6	16	18	14	27	15	15	13	15	10	1	11	30	24	20	39	31
8	8	28	8	9	17	8	17	11	3	13	6	7	-2	10	12	10	6	2	25	13
10	6	17	-13	-15	7	5	17	32	-8	15	7	46	32	41	35	33	31	20	13	68
2	11	7	-19	-23	-1	18	5	19	-16	10	-2	32	23	38	28	22	8	17	2	48
7	9	12	-6	-13	4	12	1	3	-7	1	10	41	38	29	26	19	20	15	5	54
12	33	26	4	3	17	22	22	37	-6	11	12	35	28	26	35	24	34	26	36	59
4	12	34	-11	0	16	3	26	30	-5	30	10	33	22	19	24	19	14	21	29	44
14	28	34	6	6	12	15	34	32	4	24	6	31	8	20	34	14	16	17	39	40
9	21	18	4	11	19	26	30	18	-8	20	2	20	17	15	26	21	17	14	31	37
501	75	81	45	43	49	48	44	48	34	39	25	13	2	5	36	29	39	31	100	44
502	34	42	-10	-9	21	22	39	49	-15	31	13	68	48	54	59	44	40	37	44	100

Wave 2 Key

Variable 1 = to have something to talk about with my friends or family
2 = because it's a habit
3 = because the commentaries at the end of the program help me understand what's going on
4 = because I enjoy seeing things that have happened today
5 = to see how I'll be affected by the day's events
6 = to keep up with political events in our country
7 = because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend
8 = it's my only source of news for the day
9 = it's more informative than the local papers or stations
10 = finding out what's happening adds some excitement to my life
11 = because my friends watch
12 = to keep up with the latest breaking news
13 = it's something to listen to while I eat or do other things around the house
14 = to get more information about an event I heard about earlier
15 = because I like to watch television & there's nothing else on
16 = to keep up with the latest economic news
17 = it's entertaining
18 = so I can forget about my problems for awhile
19 = it's a quick and easy way to get informed
20 = because I have nothing else to do
21 = to keep up with our country's relations with other countries
22 = to relax after a hard day
23 = I like to see interesting things that happen to people
24 = because other people in the house are watching
25 = because the TV was on and the news followed another program someone in the house just watched
26 = I feel a little better knowing that others are even worse off than me
27 = to keep up with events in other countries
28 = to help me plan ahead
29 = to assure me that everything in the world is pretty much the same
501 = recreation cluster sum
502 = information-acquisition cluster sum
503 = diversion cluster sum

FACTOR INTERCORRELATIONS AND LOADING MATRIX,

COMMUNALITY IN THE DIAGONAL

	10	7	8	23	3	22	26	29	1	19	4	5	9	17	2	27	21	6	16	12	28	14	20	25	15	24	18	13	11	501	502	503
10	42	45	29	31	26	37	31	35	33	16	32	25	14	26	21	9	7	-4	5	21	22	12	15	6	15	6	34	38	22	65	19	34
7	45	35	33	28	31	31	31	34	34	13	20	23	21	12	17	9	26	-2	17	20	18	-7	-3	-4	9	-8	21	24	7	60	22	11
8	29	33	18	20	22	17	30	18	12	30	14	5	14	17	14	-12	-4	-23	5	13	6	-10	6	1	13	-2	11	24	13	43	-6	17
23	31	28	20	33	34	22	28	29	30	32	29	32	18	16	16	14	11	1	13	23	29	17	5	20	23	3	11	20	-0	58	29	20
3	26	31	22	34	25	26	22	29	32	23	15	22	20	13	7	12	24	13	0	15	21	3	-4	9	5	-2	20	20	11	50	24	15
22	37	31	17	22	26	19	20	21	8	13	13	9	13	34	15	-1	2	-1	3	0	7	9	13	5	15	3	32	35	11	47	5	29
26	31	31	30	28	22	20	23	39	23	18	10	22	7	1	21	-1	5	-8	14	12	28	-15	12	24	26	12	26	27	18	47	9	39
29	35	34	18	29	29	21	39	25	34	16	9	18	16	4	17	-0	5	-13	1	-6	17	1	19	23	21	16	14	25	14	50	1	33
1	33	34	12	30	32	8	23	34	26	25	15	35	7	10	22	18	28	19	25	14	38	3	3	5	17	-2	14	25	29	51	39	23
19	16	13	30	32	23	13	18	16	25	18	27	19	26	10	10	11	14	3	12	32	16	12	-4	4	9	-1	10	8	5	43	27	8
4	32	20	14	29	15	13	10	9	15	27	12	21	8	14	1	19	16	17	6	27	21	4	-4	-11	4	-13	0	14	-4	35	29	-4
5	25	23	5	32	22	9	22	18	35	19	21	19	20	14	15	13	19	25	25	14	37	3	-9	-6	5	-4	7	16	12	44	37	5
9	14	21	14	18	20	13	7	16	7	26	8	20	11	11	18	15	7	-1	4	12	5	28	-16	-13	-7	-3	-2	7	-7	33	19	-10
17	26	12	17	16	13	34	1	4	10	10	14	14	11	10	25	5	-1	-3	7	-2	4	7	9	7	14	-2	22	21	9	32	5	20
2	21	17	14	16	7	15	21	17	22	10	1	15	18	25	11	5	3	-9	11	7	31	-8	13	-1	24	15	18	31	17	34	11	29
27	9	9	-12	14	12	-1	-1	-0	18	11	19	13	15	5	5	80	61	53	42	45	23	31	-29	-17	-12	-2	-16	-11	-7	17	90	-24
21	7	26	-4	11	24	2	5	5	28	14	16	19	7	-1	3	61	46	34	46	37	19	10	-26	-20	-19	-2	-12	-6	-5	23	68	-23
6	-4	-2	-23	1	13	-1	-8	-13	19	3	17	25	-1	-3	-9	53	34	24	22	25	14	11	-37	-15	-25	-6	-19	-15	-3	3	49	-30
16	5	17	5	13	0	3	14	1	25	12	6	25	4	7	11	42	46	22	31	35	26	5	-12	-21	-5	-0	4	7	12	29	55	-4
12	21	20	13	23	15	0	12	-6	14	32	27	14	12	-2	7	45	37	25	35	30	17	15	-27	-16	-6	-9	-3	-3	-10	29	55	-18
28	22	18	6	29	21	7	28	17	38	16	21	37	5	4	31	23	19	14	26	17	10	9	17	5	19	-1	9	11	18	44	32	20
14	12	-7	-10	17	3	9	-15	1	3	12	4	3	28	7	-8	31	10	11	5	15	9	5	-4	5	-2	10	-2	8	-5	9	23	3
20	15	-3	6	5	-4	13	12	19	3	-4	-4	-9	-16	9	13	-29	-26	-37	-12	-27	17	-4	48	39	51	30	44	35	28	8	-32	69
25	6	-4	1	20	9	5	24	23	5	4	-11	-6	-13	7	-1	-17	-20	-15	-21	-16	5	5	39	36	47	48	33	22	14	10	-21	60
15	15	9	13	23	5	15	26	21	17	9	4	5	-7	14	24	-12	-19	-25	-5	-6	19	-2	51	47	42	17	40	43	17	28	-14	65
24	6	-8	-2	3	-2	3	12	16	-2	-1	-13	-4	-3	-2	15	-2	-2	-6	-0	-9	-1	10	30	48	17	21	20	16	29	3	-3	46
18	34	21	11	11	20	32	26	14	14	10	0	7	-2	22	18	-16	-12	-19	4	-3	9	-2	44	33	40	20	39	46	27	35	-11	63
13	38	24	24	20	20	35	27	25	25	8	14	16	7	21	31	-11	-6	-15	7	-3	11	8	35	22	43	16	46	31	29	40	-3	56
11	22	7	13	-0	11	11	18	14	29	5	-4	12	-7	9	17	-7	-5	-3	12	-10	18	-5	28	14	17	29	27	29	16	23	0	40
501	65	60	43	58	50	43	47	50	51	43	35	44	33	32	34	17	23	2	22	29	44	9	8	10	28	3	35	49	23	100	39	39
502	19	22	-6	29	24	5	9	1	39	27	29	37	19	5	11	90	68	49	55	55	32	23	-32	-21	-14	-3	-11	-3	0	30	100	-21
503	34	11	17	20	15	29	37	33	23	8	-4	5	-10	20	29	-24	-23	-30	-4	-18	20	3	69	60	65	46	63	56	40	30	-21	100

Wave 4

Key

Variable 1 = to relax after a hard day
2 = because you like to watch television and there's nothing else on
3 = to keep up with our country's relations with other countries
4 = to keep up with political events in our country
5 = because when the newscasters talk, it's like listening to a friend
6 = because you have nothing else to do
7 = to keep up with events in other countries
8 = because you like to see interesting things that happen to people
9 = to keep up with the latest economic news
10 = finding out what's happening adds some excitement to your life
501 = recreation diversion cluster sum
502 = information-acquisition cluster sum

FACTOR INTERCORRELATIONS AND LOADING MATRIX,
COMMUNALITY IN THE DIAGONAL

	1	2	6	10	5	8	7	3	4	9	501	502
1	48	48	50	37	38	31	6	7	-6	9	69	5
2	48	36	57	36	29	21	0	7	-9	2	60	-0
6	50	57	37	26	27	24	7	6	-0	6	61	6
10	37	26	26	39	43	57	26	26	18	32	63	33
5	38	29	27	43	32	36	23	20	17	22	56	26
8	31	21	24	57	36	30	33	33	26	43	54	43
7	6	0	7	26	23	33	74	72	66	57	26	86
3	7	7	6	26	20	33	72	70	67	52	27	84
4	-6	-9	-0	18	17	26	66	67	61	50	13	78
9	9	2	6	32	22	43	57	52	50	42	31	64
501	69	60	61	63	56	54	26	27	13	31	100	31
502	5	-0	6	33	26	43	86	84	78	64	31	100

APPENDIX D

Skewness of Motivation Items Common to Waves 1, 2, and 4

Skewness of Motivation Items
Common to Waves 1, 2, and 4*

Variable**	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 4
relax	.269	.210	.891
nothontv	1.388	1.315	1.650
newscaster	.280	.279	.731
nothtodo	1.225	1.426	1.916
excit	.321	.302	.393
othcoun	-.966	-1.065	-.679
poli	-2.239	-1.100	-.792
eco	-1.329	-.865	-.854
seeint	.841	-.727	-.492

*in waves 1 and 2, four qualitative response categories were provided (not important at all, not very important, somewhat important, very important). In wave 4, a numeric ratio scale was provided (zero equalling not at all important and 100 equalling very important).

**where relax = to relax after a hard day

newscaster = because when the newscaster talks, it's like listening to a friend

nothtodo = because I/you have nothing else to do

excit = finding out what's happening adds some excitment to my/your life

othcoun = to keep up with our country's relations with other countries

poli = to keep up with political events in our country

eco = to keep up with the latest economic news

seeint = because I/you like to see interesting things that happen to people

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