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USES OF CABLE TELEVISION AMONG KOREAN STUDENTS: AN EXPECTANCY-VALUE APPROACH

By

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ABSTRACT

USES OF CABLE TELEVISION AMONG KOREAN STUDENTS: AN EXPECTANCY-VALUE APPROACH

By

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This thesis is aimed to examine the uses of cable television by Korean students. Expectancy-value theory, integrated with uses and gratifications research, provided a theoretical framework for the present study. It was hypothesized that students' expectancy-value judgements would be strongly related to their attitudes toward cable television and gratifications sought from exposure to cable television. Analyses of survey data of one hundred Korean students in the United States supported the proposed hypothesis. An exploratory factor analysis further revealed that Korean students watch cable television for instrumental purposes in that *Information* was perceived by all three viewer groups as the primary outcome while *Arousal* was perceived as the least salient outcome.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Overview

In recent years American television environment has undergone dramatic changes with the advent of new communication technologies, which include cable television. Since the middle of the 1960s when cable television began to be viewed as an alternative to the three existing commercial television networks (Henke, 1974), cable television now has become a major competitor to networks for claiming viewer's "attention," "money," and "time." (Becker & Schoenbach, 1983) and it changed the patterns of television viewing behavior. By 1993, cable television was available to 97 percent of the total US households and cable penetration was reaching 59 percent of the total television households (TV dimensions, 1994). During this period, on the other hand, the prime-time audience share for major networks combined was 60 percent, compared to 87 percent in 1980 (Broadcasting and cable, 1994). This networks' shrink can partly be explained from the fact that cable television was perceived by adults to be very similar to network television in satisfying traditional communication needs (Perse and Courtright, 1993). Networks'

revenue share per audience was already surpassed by cable television (Electronic Media, 1989). Of more importance is that declines in both networks' viewing share and revenue share are expected to continue in the future (Krugman and Rust, 1993). Moreover, basic subscribers and pay-cable subscribers watch more television than nonsubscribers (Heeter and Greenberg, 1987 or Perse and Ferguson,1993). This finding has important implications for networks in that the actual television viewing time did not increase during the 1980s (Bower, 1985). One major contributor to the success of cable television is the greater channel capacity which can accommodate a variety of viewer interests and gratifications sought. Scholars from the tradition of economic models have gone as far as to suggest that the future success of television hinges on the production of programs well focused to viewer interests (Waterman and Grant, 1991). So, understanding of the viewers' needs is very important.

As of 1994, a typical cable television household could receive 37 channels (TV Dimensions, 1994) depending on the regions and systems. Some may argue that as long as the tradition of American political economy of the mass media industry (Neuman, 1985) coupled with viewers' excessive tastes

for entertainment fares (Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, & Morgan, 1980) continues reinforcing homogeneity of television programming to attract as many viewers as possible, the increased channel capacity does not necessarily guarantee diversity of television content. Nevertheless, to the extent that cable television has the potential of offering various program options to viewers, there is a practical increase in diversity (Webster, 1986). Viewers, in fact, have a variety of program options in news and information, children's programming, religious programming, sports, music, and minority programming.

As television contents diversify, viewer's involvement in television consumption becomes more active and selective. For instance, viewers actively use remote control device to "graze" across multiple channels until they settle down on a specific content or channel that they perceive would result in maximum satisfaction of television viewing (Morgan, Shanahan, and Harris). Viewers' active participation also can take the form of "zapping" which is intended to skip unwanted contents (Heeter, 1985; Greenberg and Heeter, 1985). The sheer result of these activities by viewers is greater viewer control during communication processes. Viewers can control what to

watch or not to watch through their own evaluation of a particular medium or content based on their perceived utilities of that medium or content in satisfying their needs. Blumler (1979) suggested that to better understand how actively viewers participate in the communication, we must go beyond studying "what" medium or content viewers choose to or not to watch and must look at "why" they select what they watch and what rewards they get from the exposure. In fact, Lin (1993) suggested that active participation in media consumption enhances gratifications obtained and the effects of exposure. In a similar vein, Palmgreen and Rayburn (1979) and Galloway and Meek (1981) maintain that seeking of gratification may enhance viewers' future media exposure. This is consistent with the uses and gratifications perspective which assumes that television viewing is a self-motivated and goal-directed activity to seek various gratifications. So viewers are seen as active rather than passive participants in the communication process (Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch, 1974). These active viewers become more active in the new television environment where content choice options are diverse (Walker, 1988).

The present study is to investigate how students' seeking

of gratifications from cable television viewing can explain their cable television viewing behaviors. More specifically, this study tries to examine what gratifications Korean students in the United States are seeking from cable television viewing and how this seeking of gratifications is related to their exposure to cable television. Korean students are sampled for two purposes. So far, most of television gratifications research have been done for US college students. So the first purpose is to see how Korean students are different from US students in attending to cable television. The other goal of the study is to demonstrate the basic tenets of uses and gratification approach widely replicated in the US to new sample : Korean college students.

Chapter II

Literature Review and Hypotheses

Prior research on cable television

From the early days of development, cable television became a subject matter because of its envisioned implications for the television industry and academic settings. For both groups, assessment of audience exposure to cable television was an essential part of their research. For instance, the media and related industries are spending millions of dollar each year to document, analyze, and project patterns of exposure. The net result of these efforts is indexed by "ratings", which sometimes determine the performance of a particular medium or program. A.C. Nielsen produces standard audience measurement data for both cable television and broadcast networks and stations nationally which includes ratings, audience size, and simple demographics of television audiences. Arbitron's Scan America integrates viewing habits with product purchasing behavior.

These ratings can have only limited value in the complex and competitive television environment. This concern has often been addressed by the cable television industry. Virginia

Westphal of Viacom Cable suggested that "perhaps operators should ask whether audience ratings adequately describe the way cable viewers use their cable networks" (Making Cable, 1986). Gunter (1993) further suggested that "broadcasters and their program makers become better informed, not simply about how many viewers are watching television, but how involved they are in what they are watching. Although important, the traditional television ratings do not necessarily indicate the degree to which viewers are involved in, and receptive to, what they are watching."

A related concern arises from the difficulties of measuring exposure created by the unique characteristics of new television environment. Increased content options provided by cable television and audience fragmentation make it almost impossible to keep track of each individual viewer's television viewing behavior by traditional diaries and meters (Webster and Wakshlag, 1985), let alone measure "why" and "how much" they are involved in the exposure. Ratings data, in fact, do not report these matters. Moreover, it is believed that traditional quantitative measurements of cable television exposure are underestimating the performance of cable television. And standard measures of audience size make no

distinction between viewers in terms of their involvement with programs because they measure all "viewing" equally. Far more important are qualitative measures that assess what values viewers place on a particular medium or content and what motivational schemes lead to the exposure (Gunter, 1992).

Measurement of audience exposure to cable television is also important for academic researchers. Most of the research done by academics centers on cable's impacts on the existing networks and society, and audiences of cable television. For example, Kaplan (1978) in telephone interviews found that respondents, as a result of cable television viewing, reported less viewing of local network television, reduced use of radio for news, less often attendance of movies, and decreased reading of newspapers. Similar result was held by Agostino (1980) who found that in three or four-station markets, most local stations experienced serious net loss of audience as cable brought about more options to choose. Henke, Donohue, Cook, and Cheung (1984) provided evidence that once nontraditional national news sources become available, the market share captured by network news programs declined substantially. This decline was most obvious among viewers who had cable longer than among newer subscribers. Local news

viewing was virtually not affected by cable subscription. More recently, Krugman and Rust (1993,1987), based on Nielsen's ratings data, found higher penetration of cable television to be responsible for networks' decline in shares of audiences and advertising revenues. All these researche implies that cable television serves as a functional alternative to the traditional media in satisfying the needs of television viewing.

Other research cable television has examined audiences of cable television and their reasons for subscribing. Collins, Reagan, Abel (1983) tried to predict cable subscribership by the discriminant analysis between subscribers and nonsubscribers and found lower television use, having fewer persons in the household, and lower income were related to higher cable television subscribership. Becker, Dunwoody and Rafaeli (1983) and Webster (1983), on the other hand, found that cable subscribers spent more time with television than do decliners. Agostino (1980) also identified greater subscription rates were related with larger families. Ducy, Krugman, and Echrich (1983) attempted to identify factors distinguishing between basic subscribers and pay subscribers. They found that higher income, more children in a household,

and a greater orientation toward movies are more likely to describe pay subscribers. Krugman (1985), after review of the previous studies, maintained that cable subscribers were younger, wealthier, better educated, and more avid television consumers than their nonsubscribing counterparts. Yet, despite their success in distinguishing subscribers from nonsubscribers, not all the studies in this research tradition were illuminative due to the inconsistencies in their findings. Umphrey (1988) and Collins et al. (1983) attributed these contradictions to variances in cable services from market to market. Sparkes (1983), on the other hand, pointed to the lack of theoretical base as the more reasonable reason. These studies of segmenting cable subscribers were based on media variables and viewers' demographics for analyses and did not take viewers' social and psychological needs as reasons for subscribing cable television into account in their investigations of cable television viewing.

So far, relatively little is known about the reasons viewers have for cable television viewing. Nevertheless, some research does provide information regarding reasons people have for attending to cable television. Jeffres (1978) found that the number one reason for cable subscribing was a greater

variety of programming. This was followed by improved reception of television signals. Krugman and Eckrich (1982) and Kaplan (1978) found receiving out-of-market stations and sports programming that viewers would not ordinarily get to be the primary reason for subscribing cable television. Rothe, Harvey, and Michael (1983) found movies to be the top reason for subscribing.

In a somewhat different approach, Jeffres (1978) questioned how the patterns of psychological status such as conscious intentions (motives) that people have for watching television are affected when cable television greatly expands available content. He outlined motivational schemes of television viewing into five categories: "media-seeking," where viewer seeks the medium regardless of content; "generic content-seeking," where viewer seeks a particular type of program; "program content-seeking," where viewer seeks a particular program; "information-seeking," where the viewer moves towards some content within a program; and "mixed," where both television content and non-content bases are used to direct one's viewing.

He anticipated that as viewers become familiar with cable television, viewers' motivational scheme would change from

media-seeking to content-seeking, thus showing greater viewer selectivity. He found, however, the opposite result that showed increase in media-seeking motives and decrease in content-seeking after the introduction of cable television.

Although the author acknowledged the difficulty of generalizing the results because of measurement problems involved, this study was the first to consider viewers' psychological motives for television viewing in examining cable television viewing. This study, however, still did not look at different motivational schemes each segment of cable television audience and non-cable audiences might have when they attend to television fares. LaRose and Atkin(1988), based on a "confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm," attempted to predict cable subscribership by looking at how viewers' reported satisfaction with cable television was associated with their decision to watch or continue watching cable television. They found that satisfaction variables, when operationalized as perceived value of cable, customer service, complaint last year, and expectation met from cable viewing, were better predictors of intention to disconnect than demographic and media variables. The results of this study imply that viewers' initial orientations, such as perceived

value and expected utility of cable television in satisfying their needs, can be important variables of attitude formation toward cable television which, in turn, serve as intervening variables in determining viewing decision.

Since little research on cable television has addressed the importance of individuals' attitudes and needs in determining exposure, the present study tries to reconcile this disappointment in a more theoretical framework. The uses and gratifications perspective assumes that people expose themselves to cable television to satisfy certain goals or needs (Katz et al., 1974). Furthermore, they actively evaluate various media and contents including cable television in an expectation of gratifications obtained. Importance in this perspective is its applicability to new television environment where increased channels expand viewing options, thus requiring more active participation from viewers. This notion was addressed by Palmgreen, Wenner, and Rosengren (1985) who maintained that "a major challenge that confronts uses and gratifications researchers is that of adapting and molding the current conceptual framework to deal with new communication technologies" (p.34). So far, few uses and gratifications researchers have focused on studying cable television.

Uses and Gratifications Research

The uses and gratifications approach to understanding media related audience behavior has developed as a departure from the "powerful media effects." Within this approach, more attention was given to the power of audience rather than the mass media institutions and their content. Audience members are viewed as active agents whose exposure to media and media contents is motivated by certain internal needs and specific gratification-seeking motives. This seeking of gratification is conceived to be a significant determinant of audience members' exposure to a particular medium or content. In an attempt to fulfill their gratification expectations, audience members dictate their selection of media or content from among various sources of need satisfaction. So media consumption is viewed as voluntaristic and selective behavior rather than passive attention to uniformly-patterned messages.

Researchers within this framework are commonly concerned with "(1) the social and psychological origins of (2) needs, which generate (3) expectations of (4) the mass media or other sources, which lead to (5) differential patterns of media

sources, which lead to (5) differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in (6) need gratifications and (7) other consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones" (Katz et al., 1974, p.20).

In its simplest form, uses and gratifications research tries to explain the ways in which reasons for media consumption or gratification seeking motives influence the effects of consumption (Katz et el., 1974). Uses and gratifications research is deterministic, in its approach in that motivations of gratification seeking are seen as cause of media consumption behavior in much the same way as basic human needs motivate other behavior. So, for better understanding of exposure to cable television, we must not look at what content options are available, but look at what expectations they have about those offerings (Becker & Schoenbach, 1983).

Research on uses and gratifications has centered on two major areas. First, researchers have addressed the role of social and psychological contexts in generating motivations for media consumption (e.g., Greenberg, 1974; Kippax and Murray, 1980; Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1979; Rosengren and Windahl, 1977; Rubin, 1981). The general finding from these researches is that the gratification seeking process had

empirical ties with such variables as age, education, sex, income, and psychological variables including arousal motives. More recently, Donohue, Palmgreen, & Rayburn (1987) examined how social and psychological factors, including need for activation, interact to produce different life styles and patterns of media use.

A second major area of study includes typological studies of media gratifications and their relationship to measures of media or content exposure (e.g., Becker and Fruit, 1982; Kippax and Murray, 1980; McLeod and Becker, 1974; Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1982; Rubin, 1982, 1983; Wenner, 1983). These studies commonly showed that gratification seeking is related to medium and content choices. For example, Kippax and Murray (1980) and Becker and Fruit (1982) consistently found that audience members' comparisons of gratifications obtained from different media are related to choices of medium or content among various alternatives.

Some other studies have investigated the relationship of gratification seeking to content choice within a single medium. Rubin and Rubin (1981) found that viewing of daytime serials and game shows was associated with seeking of companionship, relaxation, arousal, habit, and passing the

time, while viewing television news, documentary magazines, and talk shows was associated most strongly with an information-learning motive.

Even though many of these studies have found significant relationship between gratification seeking and exposure to mass communication, the relationship still ranged from "low to moderate correlations." (Palmgreen et al., 1985, p.30). More recent studies even reported that gratification seeking is weakly related to exposure (Rubin, 1985; Perse, 1986; Wenner, 1986; Babrow, 1986). Barbow (1986), for example, showed that gratification seeking has been found to explain 8% to 10% of the variance in levels of exposure to media. These findings may have been related to lack of theoretical rigor in the perspective claimed by Blumler (1979) and Elliott (1974).

This criticism resulted in the introduction of various theories from other disciplines and theoretical integrations and applications within the framework of uses and gratifications. An approach that has special promise for advancing understanding of the influence of gratification seeking on exposure consists of research that integrates expectancy-value theories with the uses and gratifications framework.

Expectancy - Value theory

Expectancy-Value theories are based on the proposition that a person's behavior is the result of her perceived probability (expectancy or belief) that an object possesses a particular attribute or that behavior will have a particular consequence weighted by evaluation-that is, the degree of affect, positive or negative, toward an attribute or behavioral outcome (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975, 1967; Galloway and Meek, 1981; Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1982, 1984; Barbrow and Swanson, 1988, 1989; Van Leuven, 1981). This theory assumes that human behavior is 'volitional' and 'goal-directed' rather than 'capricious' and also assumes that people consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not engage in given behavior.

Under this theoretical umbrella, Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) have proposed a "theory of reasoned action" that specifies in a mathematical way the relationships among beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. According to this theory, behaviors are directly caused by behavioral intentions to perform (or to not perform) those behaviors. So, behavioral

perform (or to not perform) those behaviors. So, behavioral intention is regarded as the single most important predictor of behavior.

Measuring a person's behavioral intention is not always easy, however. Fishbein and Ajzen(1980) suggested that a person's behavioral intention is a function of her individual and social factors. The individual factor, called attitudes, refers to the positive and negative evaluation a person holds toward performing the behavior. People usually differ in their attitudes. We may assume that these differences will lead to different behavioral consequences. The social factor in determining behavioral intention refers to the subjective norm that is the person's perception of social pressure put on him to perform or not to perform the behavior in question.

In sum, a person is very likely to engage in a particular behavior when she judges the behavior positively and when people important to her think she should perform the behavior. Attitudes and subjective norms are identified as independent variables which indirectly affect final behavior through their effects on behavioral intentions. In general, this model has a recursive-chain causal structure where the preceding variable becomes the antecedents of the following variable

(Liska, 1984). Fishbein and Ajzen's(1975) model deserves further explanations for its influences in gratifications study.

Expectations, Evaluations, attitudes, and gratifications

Because of its information-processing assumptions and its goal-directed and volitional view of an audience in the communication process, many uses and gratifications researchers have attempted to adopt this theory in their audience research.

For instance, Galloway and Meek (1981) proposed a basic expectancy-value model adapted for measurement of audience uses and gratifications, and they suggested that a person is likely to expose herself to a particular content (or medium) if the gratifications sought from television viewing are both highly expected and valued.

In the similar view, Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982) based on the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) aforementioned attitudinal and behavioral intention model, postulated that media exposure is the result of attitudes toward the media object and the seeking of various gratifications from the viewing experience.

positive and negative feelings about engaging in behavior such as viewing a particular medium or content (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), are the function of one's beliefs about viewing a medium or a content and one's evaluative responses.

In this way, students' attitudes toward cable television viewing can be calculated from the following formula:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} bi ei$$

where *bi* refers to the belief (or perceived probability) that cable television viewing results in a consequence of *i* (obtaining of gratification *i*), and *ei* refers to the affective evaluation of the consequence *i*. Thus a person's attitude toward cable television viewing may be estimated by multiplying each salient belief by evaluation and summing the products over the domain of all relevant gratifications.

According to Fishbein and Azjen (1975), attitude is a generalized predisposition to act in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner toward some object and does not necessarily predispose a person to perform any specific behavior. Attitude, however, is related to behavioral

intentions, which is considered to be a direct cause of behavior.

This model has drawn empirical support from Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982) in a study of television news viewing. Strong correlation of .54 ($p<.001$) was found between students' attitudes toward television news and $\Sigma biei$ products. This result was replicated by Barbrow and Swanson (1988), who found a strong relationship between college students' attitudes and their expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma biei$) of television news viewing.

By the same token, Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982, 1984) further postulated that seeking of gratifications (GS) from a particular medium or content is a function of both the beliefs (expectancy) a person holds about exposure to a media or content and the affective evaluations a person attaches to that exposure. Accordingly, we can calculate students' general tendency to seek various gratifications (ΣGSi) from cable television viewing from the formula as follows:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} biei$$

where *bi* is the beliefs (expectancy) that a particular media source (e.g. cable television) provides a gratification *i* or beliefs that exposure to cable television results in fulfillment of gratification *i*, and *ei* is the affective evaluation of the gratification *i*. From this reasoning, it is logical to expect a person to participate in cable television viewing through the active seeking of gratifications as long as she thinks that seeking is good and believes that the cable television viewing will result in obtaining of what she sought.

Although the same formula is used to predict both attitudes toward cable television viewing and gratification seeking behavior, it does not necessarily mean that attitudes and gratification seeking are tautological concepts. According to Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982), attitudes and gratification seeking are two distinct generalized orientations. However, they proposed that the antecedents (*biei*) of attitudes toward cable television are also the antecedents of gratifications sought from the cable television viewing. So, *biei* is supposed to predict both attitudes and gratification sought (*GSi*) independently (p. 567).

This model further posits that strong beliefs

(expectancy) or strong evaluation alone do not necessarily lead to a strong seeking of gratifications in a particular direction. For example, a person may perceive that being entertained by viewing television or a particular program would be very attractive but may not necessarily lead herself to active seeking of that gratification if her expectation about the television's or the program's ability to entertain her is low. Moreover, the same behavior (viewing cable television) may lead to many different consequences to different people. So, the two components, beliefs (expectancy) and evaluations, need to be combined and then summed over all gratifications.

Based on this reasoning and empirical support, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H1a: There will be a positive relationship between student's attitudes toward cable television viewing and the strength of their expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma b_i e_i$) of exposure to the cable television.

H1b: When Σbi and Σei are allowed to be related to the attitudes independently, the strength of the relationships will become weaker (or nonsignificant) than the strength of relationship between attitudes and combined measure of $\Sigma biei$.

Even if positive attitudes do not always guarantee media exposure, we may, however, expect that students who value a particular gratification sought from viewing cable television highly and believe cable television has something to offer that gratification are more likely to subscribe to cable television. In reverse, students whose beliefs (expectancy) and evaluation of cable television are low are less likely to subscribe to cable television services. This tendency, for example, will be most prominent among nonsubscribers who may have been dissatisfied with the existing cable services or among students who are actively exposing themselves to other media alternatives. For the latter students, the costs of obtaining the information they seek from cable television may be perceived to be more than the costs of obtaining the same information (i.e. comparable gratifications) from other media

sources (Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1982, 1984).

Previously, it was suggested that a person's high expectancy (beliefs) and evaluations of media source ($\Sigma bi ei$) result in active seeking of multiple gratifications(ΣGSi) from the media source. This formulation, in turn, suggests:

H2a: There will be a positive relationship between students' seeking of various gratifications(ΣGSi) from cable television viewing and the strength of students' expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$) of exposure to the cable television.

H2b: When Σbi and Σei are allowed to be related to the ΣGSi independently, the strength of the relationships will become weaker (or nonsignificant) than the strength of the relationship between ΣGSi and combined expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$).

If $\Sigma bi ei$ is correlated to both attitudes and

gratifications seeking measures (ΣGSi), then it is reasonable to expect:

H3: There will be a positive relationship between attitudes and ΣGSi of cable television viewing.

In sum, students who believe strongly that viewing basic cable television or a particular channel (e.g., CNN) is very informative or students who believe strongly that viewing a movie channel (e.g., HBO) is entertaining may feel very positive toward these attributes (e.g., entertaining and informative). Students' expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma biei$) then become antecedents of both generalized orientation to seek various gratifications from cable television viewing (or pay-channels) and attitudes toward those media sources.

Palmgreen and Rayburn's (1982) model has been subject to empirical tests by subsequent studies (Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1982, 1984; Barbrow and Swanson, 1988) to examine the relationships among variables of $\Sigma biei$, ΣGSi, attitudes, and television news viewing. One common finding in these studies

was that expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$) did not directly predict television viewing. This may have been so because of the model's recursive-chain causal structure, where attitudes or ΣGSi were mediating the effects of $\Sigma bi ei$ on the television viewing intention which, according to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), is the direct cause of television viewing behavior. It also explains why the predicting power of attitudes and ΣGSi for media exposure was higher than $\Sigma bi ei$ (Palmgreen and Palmgreen, 1982). The stronger the relationships of $\Sigma bi ei$ to attitudes and ΣGSi are, the weaker the relationship between $\Sigma bi ei$ and cable television viewership will be.

Subjective norms, Behavioral intentions, and Behaviors

Although measures of attitudes and ΣGSi predicted television news viewing behaviors, the correlations were low to moderate (Palmgreen and Rayburn,1982). These relatively nonsignificant relationships assume that there may be other intervening variables (Barbrow and Swanson, 1988). Indeed, Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982) argue that "the various media

consumption studies show low to moderate correlations (.15 - .40) between the gratifications measures and consumption indices." (p.30).

One possible explanation may be that measurement issues can effect the ability of attitudes (or ΣGSi) to predict behavior (e.g., television exposure)(Davison and Jaccard, 1979). For example, Palmgreen and Rayburn's (1982) definition of attitudes toward television news viewing as satisfaction with the news might have caused poor prediction of attitudes for exposure. Earlier, Fishbein and Ajzen's model (1980) suggested that the immediate determinant of a person's overt behavior was that person's intention to perform (or not to perform) that behavior, and that a person's behavioral intentions could be predicted indirectly by measuring a person's attitude and subjective norm. Subjective norms refer to beliefs about the behavioral expectations of others, weighed by the motivation to conform to them. In other words, subjective norms refers to a person's perceptions of the social pressures to perform or not perform a particular behavior in question.

Barbrow and Swanson (1988) cautioned to distinguish

subjective norms from various social-structural forces such as availability of or accessibility to cable television that might also influence a person's exposure to a media source. Palmgreen and Rayburn (1982) also suggest that the behavioral influence of significant others may effect media exposure. For instance, they found that among those respondents who usually deferred viewing decisions to other household members, viewing behavior of the decision maker predicted television viewing much better than gratifications sought and obtained (1979). Similarly, Blumler (1979) also emphasized the normative influences on what individuals aim to get out of media exposure to the media source.

Barbrow and Swanson (1988) also reasoned that normative perceptions might play a key role in determining audience exposure levels and tested it empirically in students' soap opera viewing in which self-concept, a normative predictor, was the single strongest predictor of viewing intentions. This notion of normative influence on communication behavior would be very important in understanding the patterns of family communications or group communications, especially in the new video media environment where cable television and video cassette recorders provide audience members with

multiple program choices, including adult programming. In such an environment, normative influences can take various forms such as "mediation", "rules", "prohibitions", and "discussions" (Atkin, Greenberg, and Baldwin, 1991). Nevertheless, gratification researchers have not examined this notion extensively.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1973, 1980) contention, subjective norms can be measured by a person's normative belief --her expectations that significant others endorse performing the behavior-- and her motivation to comply with significant others.

This model also specifies that a person's subjective norms, combined with her attitudes toward an act determine behavioral intentions that are the direct cause of overt behavior. Both Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Liska (1984) agree that behavioral intentions predict overt behavior to the extent that behavior are volitional rather than habitual, skillful, or cooperative. Accordingly, behavioral intention of television viewing may be a poor determinant of television exposure for students whose television viewing behavior is influenced by habitual and time-consuming activities. Moreover, Fishbein (1973) suggests that behavioral prediction

can be improved if we can measure intentions that a person holds for other alternative courses of action. For example, even though a student's intention to subscribe to cable television is very high, she does not necessarily subscribe to cable television if her intention regarding other sources of media (e.g., newspapers, VCR, or magazines) is much higher. In other words, students frequently do not do what they intend to do, but are only constrained by a lack of resources and opportunities (Liska, 1984). In general, however, volitional or goal-directed behavior is best predicted by intention.

In sum, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) "theory of reasoned action" specifies that the single best predictor of cable television viewing (or subscribing) is the intentions students hold regarding that exposure. These intentions are viewed as a function of two other factors: (1) students' attitudes toward cable television viewing, (2) students' subjective norms with respect to the exposure. Students' attitudes about the exposure is a function of their beliefs (expectancy) about the exposure or perceived likelihood that exposure will result in gratifications obtained (*bi*) and the evaluations of obtaining gratifications (*ei*). The subjective norms are a

function of the students' perceptions that significant others think the exposure should or should not be performed and the student's motivations to comply with these others. Based on the reasoning discussed above, we can expect that:

H4: There will be a positive relationship between students' attitudes toward cable television viewing and students' intentions to subscribe cable television.

H5: There will a positive relationship between students' seeking of various gratifications (ΣGSi) from cable television viewing and students' intentions to subscribe cable television.

H6: The relationship between students' expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma biei$) and their intention to subscribe to cable television will become weak (or nonsignificant) when attitude and gratifications sought (ΣGSi) are controlled constant.

The reasoning behind this prediction relates to the mediating

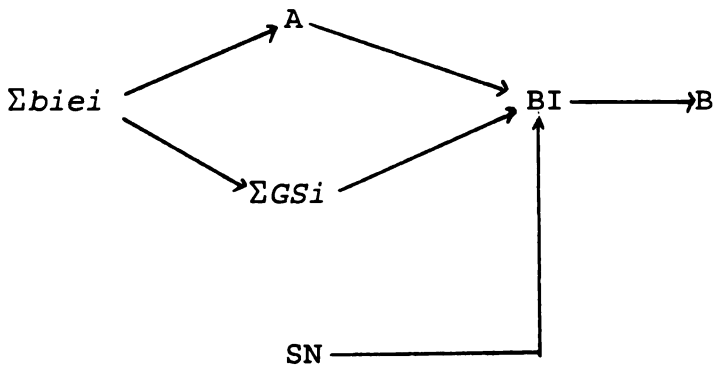
effects of gratifications sought and attitude between expectancy-value judgements and intention. Tests of this hypothesis will provide interesting information for comparing it to Triadis' (1980) contention that expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$) may independently affect intentions and behaviors.

H7: There will be a positive relationship between students' perceptions of subjective norms and their intentions to subscribe cable television.

H8: There will be a positive relationship between students' intentions to watch cable television and their cable television viewing.

A summary diagram of students' attitude-behavior model of cable television viewing will be like this:

Expectancy-Value Model of Gratification Sought from Cable Television Viewing: adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen (1975).



bi = the beliefs (expectancy) that cable television viewing will result in a gratification *i*.

ei = the affective evaluations of the gratification *i*.

A = attitudes toward cable television viewing.

Σ*GSi* = a general orientation to seek gratification *i* from cable television viewing

SN = subjective norms

BI = behavioral intentions to subscribe to cable television

B = subscribing cable television

Besides the suggested hypotheses, the present study is intended to examine other relationships between variables.

For instance, contrary to the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) specifications of the relationships among variables, Liska (1984) concluded that even if behavioral intentions were better predictors of behavior than were attitudes, the direct effects of attitudes were still substantial. In the same corollary, Liska argues that beliefs alone may affect behavioral intentions and behavior independently of the effect of attitudes. In other words, attitudes do not completely mediate the effect of beliefs on intentions and behavior, because human information processing, linking beliefs to attitudes, is inexact and inefficient. Liska further reasoned that attitudes and subjective norms may not be independent. They both appear to represent similar beliefs and to influence each other. And most interestingly, contrary to the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) assumption of recursive-causal structure of the model, Liska suggests that behavior may affect both intentions and attitudes. From this line of thoughts, the present study raises the following questions:

RQ1 : Are attitudes related directly to behaviors?

RQ2 : Are beliefs alone related directly to behavioral intentions and behaviors?

Chapter III

Methodology

The Sample and Procedure

The sample in this study was drawn from a population of all the Korean students enrolled at Michigan State University in 1994. There were 381 Korean students listed in the directory of Korean Student Organization. This number includes students both in undergraduate and graduate levels and students in English Learning Center. They are unevenly populated both in Lansing and East Lansing, Michigan, areas with the majority (90 percent) living in East Lansing area. Twenty-five percent of the total students are living in on-campus resident halls and 65 percent are living in three different university apartments. Given the relatively small size of sampling frame, the researcher tried to reach as many students as possible. Thus the sample is purposive, not randomly selected. Students were contacted by either telephone calls or personal contacts and, as a result, a total of 100 students agreed to participate in the research.

The sample consisted of 64.2% of male and 35.8% of female. The majority (69.1%) of students were ranged in age between 25-34 and 12.4%, 9.3%, 9.3% were between 20-24, 18-19,

and 35-44, respectively. 91.7% of students were identified as full-time student, and 8.3% as part-time student. 62.9% were married, and 37.1% were single students. Among married students, 40% had 1 child, 34.3%, 22.9%, and 2.9% had 0, 2, and 3 children respectively.

Table 1.

Characteristics of the sample

Sex	Male Female	61 (64.2%) 34 (35.8%)
Age	.18-19 20-24 25-34 35-44	9 (9.3%) 12 (12.4%) 67 (69.1%) 9 (9.3%)
Status	Full-time Part-time	88 (91.7%) 8 (8.3%)
Marital status	Single Married	61 (62.9%) 36 (37.1%)
No. of children	0 1 2 3	12 (34.3%) 14 (40.0%) 8 (22.9%) 1 (2.9%)
Grade	Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior Graduate	13 (13.5%) 2 (2.1%) 5 (5.2%) 9 (9.4%) 67 (69.8%)
Subscribership	Basic only Pay Non-cable	54 (54.0%) 9 (9.0%) 37 (37.0%)

Seventy percent of the sample were attending graduate program, and 13.5% were freshman, 9.4% were senior, 5.2% were junior, and 2.1% were sophomore. 63% of respondents were subscribing cable television and 37% were not. Among those respondents getting cable television, 86.2% were basic only and 13.8% were pay subscribers.

The data were collected over a three-day period in October 1994. A survey questionnaire was administered to 100 Korean students without rewards for participation. Students were briefly instructed by the researcher about the purpose of the study, anticipated length of time to finish, and the proper procedures to answer the questionnaire. The questionnaire was organized into eight major parts.

Measurement

Preliminary questions (6 items). The first section of the questionnaire (item 1-6), starting with a short introduction, was a series of screening questions which included location of residence (1= on-campus, 2= off-campus), ownership of a working television set (1= Yes, 2= no), availability of cable television (1= yes, 2= no), subscribership (1= yes, 2= no), and number of pay services. If a respondent did not have any working television set, he or she was instructed to quit answering the questionnaire , on the assumption that they did not watch television. Students who responded that they received pay channels were asked to provide the number of pay channels they received.

Gratifications sought from television viewing in general (23 items). One of the most difficult problems facing scholars conducting empirical researches on the gratifications audience members seek from the media is measurement of the gratifications themselves (Blumler, Gurevitch, and Katz, 1974). But how to measure gratifications is a core part of uses and gratifications study (Palmgreen et al., 1985), as it is in this study, as well. Becker (1979) suggests three ways of gratifications measurement. First is to infer what gratifications audience members are seeking based on measurement of some separate, yet related variable. For instance, inferences can be made about the informational needs of audience members--and gratifications sought--based on such variables as sex and age. The second method is to rely on reports from the audience members. For this strategy, respondents are usually provided a list of gratifications--developed from earlier research--and asked to indicate which of the gratifications applied to them. Finally, gratifications can be measured by manipulating in field or laboratory settings the gratification subjects have upon receipt of various communication messages. In a simple experiment, for

example, subjects could be instructed to pay attention to a given message for a specific reason somehow related to the purpose of the experiment. These subjects then could be compared to others having been given different instructions or gratifications to learn of the gratifications on subsequent behavior.

To measure gratifications students seek from television viewing in this study, students were asked to rate on a five-point scale their degrees of agreement on 23 reasons for watching television in general (1= strongly agree, 5= strongly disagree). For instance, respondents were asked to estimate on a five-point scale how much they agreed with the gratification statement, "I watch television to learn something new." Twenty-three gratifications items were borrowed from the earlier works done by Frank and Greenberg (1979) and Rubin (1980).

These items were evaluated for all students participating, regardless of whether they were receiving cable television. The gratifications items were subject to factor analysis to examine meaningful dimensions of television viewing. Exploratory factor analytic methods have been the prevailing tools in gratifications research (Dobos and

Dimmick, 1988). To examine interrelationships among factors, oblique rotations and interfactor correlations methods were employed. The earlier works done by Frank and Greenberg and Rubin found five dimensions: Diversion, Information, Entertainment, Special Programs, and Arousal. The results of the factor analysis will be compared with these dimensions.

Program Preferences (20 items). The third section asked students what kind of program they preferred to watch. The five-point scale ranged from very often (5) to very seldom (1). Program types for the preference questions were based on the A.C. Nielsen's categorization (1989).

Nielsen categorized programs into twenty types, including talk shows (e.g., Larry King), the national evening news (e.g., CNN, ABC), the local news, morning news show (e.g., Today), quiz and game shows, religious programs, feature programs, general dramas (e.g., Matlock), comedies (e.g., Cosby), action and adventure (e.g., MacGyver), do it yourself (e.g., Hometime), sports, travel shows or documentaries, hobbies, music, outdoors, health (e.g., Getting Fit), home shopping, and children's program.

Television (2 items) **and Other Media Exposure** (4 items). The program preferences items were followed by items measuring television exposure. Students are asked to rate on a five-point scale the number of television viewing hours both on a weekday and weekend, followed by the number of hours spending reading newspapers and listening radio in a typical day. Students are also asked how many movies they rent on video cassette and how many movies they attend at a theater in a typical week.

Evaluations (*ei*, 23 items). The fifth section asked students to evaluate how important for cable television to have each of the gratification items. For example, students were asked to rate on a five-point scale (1= very good, 5= very bad) whether it is good or bad for cable television to have such characteristic as "makes me feel less lonely." These questions were asked to all the students regardless of subscribing cable television in the hope that different viewer groups might have different perceived values for cable television viewing.

Beliefs (*bi*, 23 items). The sixth section addressed students' perceived probability that cable television would provide them

with each of the same characteristics mentioned above. The five-point scale ranged from "very definitely (1) to very definitely not (5)." The expectancy - value scores were obtained by multiplying measures for beliefs and evaluations and then summing across items. So the possible scores ranged from 24 to 600. Here again, all the students were asked to rate their perceived probability of cable television in satisfying each of the gratifications items. Students, regardless of receiving cable television, were believed to have different belief systems regarding cable television.

Attitudes (3 items). To measure students' attitudes toward viewing cable television, three bipolar attitudinal items adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen (1980: appendix B) were used (very good= 1, very bad= 5, very wise= 1, very foolish= 5, very beneficial= 1, very harmful= 5). For a composite score of attitudes, scores on each three items were summed with possible range of 3 to 15.

Subjective norms (1 item). A single item adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen (1980: Appendix B) was used to measure students' subjective norms. Students were asked to rate on a five-point

scale ranging from very likely (1) to very unlikely (5) that most people important to them (e.g., family members or friends) think they should subscribe to cable television.

Behavioral Intentions (1 item). A single item behavioral item was adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen (1980: Appendix B) and asked students whether they intended to subscribe to cable television or to continue subscribing. The five-point scale ranged from very likely (1) to very unlikely (5).

Demographics. Items for demographics included students' age, sex (1= male, 2= female), status in the university (1= full-time, 2= part-time), number of children in the family, grades (1= freshman, 2= sophomore, 3= junior, 4= senior, 5= graduate), marital status (1= married, 2= single), and race.

Data Analysis

The major analytical tool used in this study was exploratory factor analysis to identify underlying dimensions of both television viewing motives in general and expectancy-

value items of cable television viewing. The purpose of this was to examine possible discrepancies in students' motivational schemes when viewing television in general and cable television.

The second analytical technique was "Pearson-Product Moment" correlations to examine relationships between variables in hypothesized patterns. Finally, to further examine the relationships between variables, regression analyses were performed.

Chapter IV

Results

Measurement of variables

Television Viewing Motivations

To determine motivational schemes of television viewing in general, a varimax-rotated principal components analysis of responses with iterations on 23 gratifications items was performed using Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS). A varimax- rotation was used because of correlations among various motives for television viewing (Rubin & Perse, 1987). Exploratory analysis of students ratings on television viewing in general produced six factors with minimum eigen values greater than one. These factors explained 65.4% of the total variance. Gratifications seeking statements with a factor loading of .5 or greater were used in identifying and labeling the factors.

Factor 1, labeled *Escape*, explained 28.0% of the total variance after rotation. This factor included a total of six statements (Crocbach Alpha=.85) such as "I watch television to forget my problems for a while" and "to escape from the reality of everyday life." Factor 2, labeled *as Arousal*,

statements (Cronbach Alpha=.70) including "I watch television to get a feeling of adventure and excitement" and "to watch uncensored programs." Factor 3, labeled as *Relaxation*, explained 8.7% of the total variance. Five statements (Cronbach= .80) were included in this factor such as "I watch television because it relaxes me" and "to release tension." Factor 4, labeled as *Information,* explained 5.6% of the total variance. This factor consisted of three statements (Cronbach Alpha=.71) such as "to learn something new," "to obtain useful information for daily living," and "to learn more about what is going on in the world." Factor 5, labeled as *Pass-Time*, consisted of two items (Cronbach Alpha=.64) explaining 5.2% of the total variance. Those are items such as "because it passes the time away, especially when I am bored" and "to spend time with others while they are watching." Factor 6, labeled as *Special Programs*, explained 4.5% of the total variance. It contained only one item "when there is something on I want to see." So, it was difficult to provide meaningful interpretation for this factor. Accordingly, this factor will be exempted from subsequent analyses hypotheses. The summary of factor matrix is in table 2.

Table 2

Television Viewing Motives: Primary Factor Loadings

"I watch television..."	Viewing factors					
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Factor 1: Escape						
Makes me feel less lonely	.73	.07	.38	-.18	.16	-.01
When there is no one else to	.68	.02	.04	-.15	.38	.13
To Have emotional experiences	.72	.35	.05	.16	-.09	-.00
Something to talk about with others	.61	.32	-.15	.24	.18	-.02
Forget my problems for a while	.80	.09	.07	-.02	.16	-.08
Escape from the reality of life	.76	.08	.21	.03	.07	-.10
Factor 2: Arousal						
It is thrilling	.16	.65	.18	.10	-.25	-.23
Adventure/ Exitement	-.09	.64	.22	.41	.16	-.11
For companionship	.26	.49	.28	-.08	.07	.38
Watch uncensored film	.07	.69	.03	-.06	.19	.12
Be interesting and stimulating	.44	.63	.05	.26	-.03	-.04
It peps me up	.38	.59	.00	.15	.08	.26
Factor 3: Relaxation						
It amuses me	-.04	.13	.63	.40	.06	-.42
It relaxes me	.13	.05	.78	-.01	.07	.26
It is enjoyable	.08	.20	.77	.22	.08	.05
It entertains me	.21	.02	.57	.51	.09	-.16
It release tension	.52	.11	.56	-.07	.09	.03
Factor 4: Information						
To learn something new	-.10	.06	.08	.74	-.29	.21
To obtain useful information	.13	.30	.05	.71	.02	.06
To learn more about the world	-.01	.01	.15	.77	.26	.13
Factor 5: Pass-time						
Pass the time away when bored	.22	-.00	.25	.00	.76	-.24
Spend time with others	.33	.22	.04	.11	.63	.17
Factor 6: Special Programs						
Something on I want to see	-.18	.06	.11	.35	-.07	.72

For the discriminant analysis among different viewer groups, each motivational factor was compared in terms of means and standard deviations. For the entire sample of respondents, *Information* was the most salient motive for cable television viewing with a mean score of 2.40 (SD= .81) followed by *Relaxation* (M= 2.64, SD= .72), *Special Programs* (M= 2.73, SD= 1.08), *Pass-Time* (M= 2.93, SD= .98), *Escape* (M= 3.31, SD= .87), and *Arousal* (M= 3.35, SD= .68).

The same procedures were employed to different viewer groups: basic-only, pay-subscribers, and non-subscribers. The complete matrix of comparision among each viewer groups is summraized in table 3.

Information was the most salient motive with mean score of 2.44 (SD= .89) among basic-only subscribers, followed by *Special Program* (M= 2.64, SD= 1.15), *Relaxation* (M= 2.74, SD= 0.72), *Pass-Time* (M= 3.10, SD= 1.02), *Arousal* (M= 3.39, SD= .74), and *Escape* (M= 3.42, SD= .85).

For pay-subscribers, *Information* was most salient motive with a mean score of 2.15 (SD= .65), followed by *Relaxation* (M= 2.27, SD=.62), *Pass-Time* (M= 2.61, SD= .55), *Special-program* (M= 2.78, SD= 1.09), *Escape* (M= 2.94, SD= .98), and *Arousal* (M= 3.00, SD= .61).

Table 3

Mean scores for viewing motives by different viewer groups

Motives	Basic-only	pay-subs	non-subs
Escape	3.42 (.85)	2.94 (.98)	3.20 (.83)
Arousal	3.39 (.74)	3.00 (.61)	3.37 (.57)
Pass-time	3.10 (1.02)	2.61 (.55)	2.69 (.95)
Relaxation	2.74 (.72)	2.27 (.62)	2.57 (.69)
Special-Program	2.64 (1.15)	2.78 (1.09)	2.94 (1.01)
Information	2.44 (.89)	2.15 (.65)	2.44 (.72)
mean	2.96	2.62	2.87

Note: All measures could range from a low of 1 to 5 and lower scores mean more salient motivation.
Inter-coding reliabilities (Crobach alpha) for each motives were.85(Escape), .70(Arousal), .80(Relaxation). 64(Pass-Time), and .71(Information).

Television was viewed by those students who did not subscribe to cable for the purpose of *Information* with a mean score of 2.44 (SD= .72), followed by *Relaxation* (M= 2.57, SD= .69), *Pass-Time* (M= 2.69, SD= .95), *Special-Program* (M= 2.94, SD= 1.01), *Escape* (M= 3.20, SD= .57), and *Arousal* (M= 3.37, SD= .57). The result shows no significant differences among three viewer groups in terms of cable television viewing motivations.

Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma biei$)

Before measuring students' expectancy-value judgement ($\Sigma biei$) of cable television, expectancy-value scores were calculated for each of the 23 gratifications items by multiplying students' beliefs (perceived probability of cable in satisfying each suggested gratifications) by evaluations (perceived values of cable television to have each gratifications features). The belief measures were ranged from 1 (very definitely) to 5 (very definitly not) and evaluation measures rated between 1 (very good) to 5 (very bad). So, the possible scores for expectancy-value (biei) could range 1 to 25. The products of expectancy (beliefs) and value (evaluation), then, were subject to a varimax-rotated principal components analysis for exploratory factors. A varimax-rotated factor analysis of 23 corresponding expectancy-value (biei) items produced four exploratory factors with minimum eigenvalue greater than 1 which explained 73.9% of the total variance. Items with a factor loading of .5 or greater were used to identify and label the factors (See table 4 for complete matrix of primary factor loadings).

Table 4

Factor matrix for Expectancy-Value Judgements of Cable Viewing

	Expectancy-Value Factors			
	F1	F2	F3	F4
Factor 1: Escape/Companionship				
Pass the time away	.69	.49	-.01	-.00
Feeling of companionship	.63	.47	.17	.28
Feel less lonely	.75	.38	.22	.09
When there is no one else to talk	.84	.21	.22	.01
For emotional experiences	.68	.31	.25	.31
Talk about with others	.71	.19	.37	.16
Forget my problems for a while	.80	.24	.18	.15
Escape from the reality og life	.81	.26	.13	.14
Interesting and stimulating	.66	.12	.43	.35
Peps me up	.57	.25	.35	.43
Spend time with others	.77	.10	-.00	.28
Factor 2: Entertainment/Relaxation				
Amuse me	.18	.77	.37	.19
Makes me relaxed	.55	.68	.12	-.17
Makes me enjoyable	.40	.73	.25	.15
Feeling of adventure and excitement	.26	.63	.25	.35
Makes me entertained	.23	.63	.50	.26
Releases me tension	.51	.65	.13	-.15
Factor 3: Information				
Information to learn something new	.11	.18	.85	.02
Something I want to see	.18	.28	.75	.20
Useful information for daily living	.22	.16	.88	.02
Information about the world	.18	.11	.90	.03
Factor 4: Arousal				
Makes me thrilled	.17	.48	-.11	.68
Uncensored programs	.22	-.04	.17	.66

Inter-code reliabilities: .87(Escape/Companionship), .80(entertainment/relaxation), .70(Information), .42(Arousal)

Factor 1, labeled *Escape/Companionship*, explained 51.5% of the total variance. Items included in this factor were 11 items including escape items such as "forget my problems for a while" and "escape from the reality of everyday life." Companionship items such as "feeling of companionship" and "when there is no one else to talk with" were loaded highly in the same cluster. Factor 2, labeled *Entertainment/Relaxation*, explained 10.8% of the total variance. It consisted of 6 items including entertaining features of cable television such as "it amuses me" and "makes me enjoyable" and relaxation features like "it relaxes me" and "it releases tension." Factor 3, labeled as *Information* , explained 6.3% of the total variance. It contained 4 information-related features of cable television such as "information to learn something new," "useful information for daily living," and "information about the world." Factor 4, labeled as *Arousal*, explained 5.3% of the total variance. Items included in this were "makes me thrilled" and "uncensored program."

Based on this factor analysis, composite expectancy-value judgement scales were created by calculating the mean scores for each factor. So, four composite variable were constructed.

Table 5

Mean scores for Composites of Expectancy-Value judgements ($\Sigma b_i e_i$) variables

	Male	Female	Basic-only	Non-Cable	Pay
Factor 1: Escape/Companionship	10.99	9.81	10.75	10.75	9.12
Factor 2: Entertain/Relaxation	7.77	7.59	8.27	7.32	5.78
Factor 3: Information	5.85	5.42	5.9	6.53	4.11
Factor 4 Arousal	10.96	13.02	12.43	11.2	9.17

Note. All measures could range from a low of 1 to 25 with lower mean means more salient variable.

The full matrix of expectancy-value judgement variables is summarized in table 5. For example, expectancy-value judgement of *Escape/Companionship* was constructed by summing up all the scores of the products of beliefs and evaluations across 11 items clustered in factor 1. In this manner, four expectancy-value composites were created: *Escape/Companionship* with a mean of 10.70 (SD= 5.12), *Entertainment/Relaxation* (M= 7.77, SD= 4.18), *Information* (M= 5.90, SD= 4.41), and *Arousal* (M= 11.67, SD= 5.38). Each viewer group was compared in terms of salience for each expectancy-value judgements variables.

For respondents who received basic cable only, *Arousal* was

(M= 5.90, SD= 4.30) was perceived as a primary outcome from cable television viewing , followed by *Entertainment/ Relaxation* (M= 8.27, SD= 4.59), *Escape/Companionship* (M= 10.75, SD= 5.14), and *Arousal* (M= 12.43, SD= 5.60).

The computed mean scores of each factors for non-cable subscribers also indicated that *Information Arousal* was most salienttly anticipated outcome of cable television viewing (M= 6.53, SD= 5.00), followed by *Entertainment/Relaxation (M= 7.32, SD= 3.54), Escape/Companionship* (M= 10.75, SD= 5.15), *and Arousal* (M= 11.2, SD= 5.24).

Among pay-subscribers, *Information* (M=4.11, SD= 1.91) was the most strongly anticipated outcome of cable television viewing, followed by *Entertainment/Relaxation* (M= 5.78, SD= 3.26), *Escape/Companionship* (M= 9.12, SD= 4.97), and *Arousal* (M= 9.17, SD= 3.71). These findings show that "Instrumental" rather than "ritualistic" motive is the primary expectation of Korean students from cable television viewing (Rubin, 1984). There were no big differences between male and female students in terms of anticipated outcomes of cable television viewing. For male students, *Information* (M= 5.85, SD= 4.26) was the primary gratification factor expected from cable television viewing, followed by *Entertainment/Relaxation* (M= 7.77, SD=

4.22), *Arousal* (M= 10,96, SD= 5.24), and *Escape/Companionship* (M= 10,98, SD= 4.90). For female students, *Arousal* (13.02, SD=5.40), followed by *Escape/Companionship* (M=9.81, SD=5.07), *Entertainment/Relaxation* (M=7.59, SD=4.01), and *Information* (M=5.42, SD=4.17).

In general, throught the entire sample of Korean students, *Information* was most strongly expected while *Arousal* was the least anticipated outcome of the cable television viewing. In other words, Korean students tended to expose to cable television, be it basic or pay-channel, with an expectation of getting information for daily living and information about the world (see table 5).

Attitudes toward cable viewing (3 items)

General attitudes of students toward cable television viewing were rated on the three adjective-pair statements. For instance, students were asked to rate on a five-point scale about the question "I think watching cable television is very good (1)/ very bad (5) very wise (1)/ very unwise (5), and very beneficial (1)/ very harmful (5)." The sum of the three standardized scores created a composite attitude measure (M=

8.44, SD= 2.23).

Subjective Norms.

A single subjective norm item asked students about the extent to which "most people who are important to me (e.g., family members or friends etc.) think I should subscribe cable television" (M= 3.19, SD= 1.02).

Behavioral Intentions

Students' intention to subscribe cable television was measured on a single behavioral intention item of "I intend to subscribe to cable television (or continue subscribing). A five-point scale ranged from very likely (1) to very unlikely (5). The mean score was 2.72 (SD= 1.15).

Behavior (Level of Exposure to Cable Television)

Students were asked to rate number of hours they spend watching cable television on a typical weekday. A five-point scale ranged from 1 (0 to 1 hour) to 5 (more than 4 hours). A third (32%) of respondents have reported viewing cable television 1-2 hours on a typical weekday and a quarter(25%) of respondents said they watch 0-1 hours a weekday. Viewing

levels for weekend days were also rated on the same scale with 24% of respondents were watching 2-3 hours, followed by 21% on 0-1, 20% on 1-2, 18% on more than 4, and 16% on 3-4 hours. Exposure behavior also was obtained by asking subscribership to cable television (Yes= 1, No= 2). Sixty three percent of the respondents were regular cable subscribers and 37% were not subscribing to cable television.

Testing Hypotheses

The first hypothesis (H1a) predicted a positive relationship between students' attitude toward cable television viewing and the strength of their expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$) of cable television viewing. Zero-order correlation between attitude and $\Sigma bi ei$ measures indicated strong relationship with correlation coefficient of .465 ($p<.001$). The results are summarized in table 6.

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients between Attitudes and Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$)

	$\Sigma bi ei$
Attitude	.4652
	(N= 98)

Note. Attitude score are obtained by summing up three attitude items. Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$) summed scores of the products of beliefs (bi) and evaluations (ei) on 23 items.
$p<.001$.

For more detailed explanations, correlation

coefficients were computed between attitude measures and each of the four expectancy-value judgements composites (i.e., *Escape/Companionship*, *Entertainment/Relaxation*, *Information*, and *Arousal*). The results in table 7, again, support the first hypothesis of strong relationship between attitude and expectancy-value judgements. Students' expectancy-value judgements of *Information* were most strongly related to their attitude toward cable television (.43, $p<.001$), followed by *Entertainment/Relaxation* (.42, $p<.001$), *Escape/Companionship* (.36, $p<.001$), and *Arousal* (.22, $p<.05$). These findings generally supported the prediction that students' beliefs (perceived probability) about the consequences of cable television viewing (i.e., gratifications obtained) and their evaluations of the consequences would be antecedents of attitude formation toward cable television viewing. This is consistent with findings of other research done by Babrow (1989), Babrow & Swanson (1988), and Palmgreen & Rayburn (1984, 1982).

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients between Attitudes and Composites of Expectancy-Value Judgement Variables ($\Sigma bi ei$)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Attitude	.36 **	.42 **	.43 **	.22*
	(N= 97)	(N= 96)	(N= 96)	(N= 95)

Note. Factor 1 (Escape/Companionship) consists of 11 items. The mean score of 11 items was entered in factor 1. Factor 2 (Entertainment/Relaxation) includes 6 items. Factor 3 (Information) includes 4 items. Factor 4 includes 2 items. *p<.05; **p<.001.

The second hypothesis predicted that when Σbi and Σei are independently related to attitude, the strength of the relationships between attitude and each Σbi or Σei will become weaker (or nonsignificant) than the strength of relationship between attitude and $\Sigma biei$ combined. This prediction was made due to the combined effects of Σbi and Σei on attitude. The results in table 8 show that when Σbi was controlled constant, the correlation coefficient between attitude and Σei was .41 ($p<.001$) demonstrating a reduction of the strengh.

Table 8

Correlations Coefficients of attitude with Σ*bi*, Σ*ei*, and Σ*biei*.

	Σ*bi* [a]	Σ*ei* [b]	Σ*biei*
Attitude	.41*	-.13	.46*
	(N=96)	(N=97)	(N=96)

*p<.001.

[a]. When Σ*ei* was controlled. [b]. When Σ*bi* was controlled.

When the attitude was related to Σ*ei* with control for Σ*bi*, the relationship was nonsignificant supporting the suggested hypothesis (1b). This finding indicates that students' beliefs rather than evaluations toward cable television are more consistent antecedent of their attitude formation, since "evaluations are viewed as relatively stable elements that are the products of an individual's needs and value system (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1984, p.540)."

Hypothesis 1a was further tested by regression analyses. The proposed expectancy-value model poses that expectancy-value judgements best predict attitude. So,

students' attitude toward cable television was regressed on students' expectancy-value judgements regarding cable television viewing. The result in table 9 shows that attitude was strongly predicted by expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$)(Beta= .47, F(1,82)= 22.65, p<.001) supporting hypothesis 1a.

Table 9

Regression of Attitude on Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$), Belief (Σbi), and Evaluation (Σei)

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	T
$\Sigma bi ei$	.01	.00	.47**	4.76
Σbi	.08	.15	.51**	5.7
Σei	.05	.14	.32*	3.1

Note. For $\Sigma bi ei$, R= .47, R square=.21, F(1,92)= 22.65.
For Σbi, R=.52, R square=.27, F(1,93)=32.64.
For Σei, R=.33, R=.11, F(1,93)= 10.08.
*p<.01, **p<.001.

Interestingly, when regression analysis was employed, attitude was predicted most strongly by Σbi (Beta=.51,

$p<.001$). At the same time, attitude was also regressed on Σei with Beta of .32 ($p<.01$) but weaker than when regressed on $\Sigma biei$. These findings from regression tests partly supported the hypothesis 1b.

Prediction of attitude was subject to further regression analyses of attitude on four expectancy-value judgement variables: *Escape/Companionship*, *Entertainment/Companionship*, *Information*, and *Arousal*. Here again, attitude toward cable television was predicted when attitude was regressed on four composites of expectancy-value judgements variables (R square= .27, $F(4.79)= 7.45$, $p<.001$). The summary of regression test is shown in table 10.

In this analysis, factor 3, *Information* was the only significant factor in predicting attitude (Beta=.27, $p<.05$). Viewed from these findings, it is safe to conclude that Korean students' attitudes toward cable television viewing are related to their expectancy-value judgements (especially Information expectation) of the medium.

Table 10

Regression of Attitude on Expectancy-Value Judgement Variables

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T
Factor 4	.04	.05	.10	.89
Factor 3	.14	.06	.27	2.37*
Factor 1	-.01	.07	-.03	-.21
Factor 2	.16	.08	.30	1.90

Note. R=.52, R square=.27, F(4,92)= 7.46, p<.001.
Factor 1 (Escape/Companionship) consists of 11 items. The mean score of 11 items was entered in factor 1. Factor 2 (Entertainment/Relaxation) includes 6 items. Factor 3 (Information) includes 4 items. Factor 4 includes 2 items.
*p<.05.

The third hypothesis (2a) predicted a strong relationship between students' expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma biei$) and their gratification seeking (ΣGSi). To test the hypothesis, a caution was made. ΣGSi was measured by asking students reasons for viewing television in general rather than cable television and $\Sigma biei$ was a measure of students' expectancy-value judgements toward cable television. We may, then, expect that students who are not receiving cable television (non-subscribers) will rate their

reasons for television viewing based on what they are getting (usually over-the-air), while students who are subscribing to cable television will rate their reasons for television viewing based on cable television. But, when asked to rate their expectancy-value judgements regarding cable television, students in each groups will not rate in the same way. For instance, a non-cable student whose expectation and perceived value of cable television in satisfying their need of "entertainment" is very low may seek other media (usually over-the-air) sources to meet that need. For this group of students, the relationship is very unpredictable because of too many variables involved. One possible relationship is negative relationship between expectancy-value judgements and gratifications seeking in which students actively seek entertainment need from television, but, mostly from over-the-air television because of low anticipation of meeting that need by subscribing to cable television. On the other hand, a student whose expectancy-value judgement of cable television in meeting their psychological needs is very high may actively seek various gratifications by subscribing to cable television. For this kind of student group, the relationship between

expectancy-value judgement and gratification seeking will be very strong. Accordingly the hypothesis (2a) was tested for cable subscriber only.

Table 11.

Correlation Coefficients of Σ*GSi* with Σ*bi*, Σ*ei*, and Σ*biei*: cable only

	Σ*biei*	Σ*bi*[a]	Σ*ei*[b]
Σ*GSi*	.74**	.30*	.30*

*p<.01., **p<.001.
a. When Σ*ei* was controlled. b. When Σ*bi* was controlled.

The result in table 11 shows a strong relationship(.74, p<.001) between expectancy-value judgements (Σ*biei*) and gratifications seeking (Σ*GSi*) behaviors from cable television viewing among cable subscribers. For further analyses, correlation coefficients of gratifications sought (*GSi*) with *bi*, *ei*, and *biei* were computed for each corresponding gratifications items. Table 12 shows that gratifications seeking was strongly related expectancy-value judgements in 22 out of 23 items with correlation

Table 12

Correlation Coefficients of Gratifications Sought(*GSi*) with *bi*, *ei*, and Expectancy-Value Judgements (*biei*) television. (Cable Only).

	biei	*bi*[a]	*ei*[b]
It is thrilling	.33	.31	.05(n.s)
Learn something new	.44	.32	.21*
It amuses me	.47	.19(n.s)	.30
Pass the time away	.46	.17(n.s)	.26*
It relaxes me	.48	.38	.15(n.s)
It is enjoyable	.47	.31	.08(n.s)
Feel adventure and excitement.	.42	.25*	.21*
Companionship	.40	.40	.03(n.s)
Something I want to see	.04(n.s)	.03(n.s)	.05(n.s)
Uncensored program	.56	.50	.20*
It entertains me	.53	.20(n.s)	.28
Makes me feel less lonely	.64	.34	.29
No one else to talk with	.72	.37	.38
Have emotional experiences	.59	.40	.22*
To talk with others	.47	.27	.27
Forget my problems	.67	.34	.29
To release tension	.58	.30	.24*
Escape from reality of life	.66	.42	.21*
Useful information for living	.36	.26	.11(n.s)
Be interesting and stimulating	.47	.40	.08(n.s)
Learn about the world	.46	.06(n.s)	.43
peps me up	.40	.04(n.s)	.32
spend time with others	.51	.31	.11(n.s)

*p<.05. All others are p<.001.
a. When *ei* was controlled. b. When *bi* was controlled.

coefficients ranging from .33 to .72 (p<.001). Most strong relationship was found on the item, "no one else to talk with (.72, p<.001) and "forget my problem (.67, p<.001). The

least correlation was found on the item, "it is thrilling" (.33, p<.001) and similarly on the item, "useful information for living" (.36, p<.001). Correlation analyses were further employed to each dimensions of gratification seeking and expectancy-value judgements. Results of 4 by 5 correlation analyses between two composites of expectancy-value judgements and gratifications sought show that two variables are strongly related. In 18 out of 20 cases, the correlation coefficients were found to be strong at significant levels with a range of .27 to .78 (See table 13).

Interestingly, the relationship was most strong between the corresponding composites. For instance, students' *information* seeking motive (ΣGSi factor 4) from cable viewing was most strongly related to their expectancy-value judgement of *Information* ($\Sigma bi ei$ factor 3)(.50, p<.001).

When the same gratification seeking motive was related to other expectancy-value judgement factors, the relationship tended to be weaker (.23 to .40). For example, the strongest relationship of *Escape* factor of ΣGSi was with *Escape/Companionship* of $\Sigma bi ei$ (.78, p<.001). And *Relaxation* was most strongly related with

Table 13

Correlation Coefficients between both Composites of Σ*biei* and Σ*GSi*.

	Σ*biei* F1	Σ*biei* F2	Σ*biei* F3	Σ*biei* F4
Σ*GS* F1	.78***	.59**	.27*	.27*
Σ*GS* F2	.38***	.37**	.09(n.s)	.54***
Σ*GS* F3	.54***	.72***	.29*	.39**
Σ*GS* F4	.33*	.40***	.50***	.23*
Σ*GS* F5	.56***	.52***	.30*	.13(n.s)

Note. Σ*GSi* factor1:Escape, 2:Arousal, 3:Relaxation, 4:Information, 5:Pass-Time. Factor 6 Special Program was excluded in the analysis because of low variance. Σ*biei* factor1:Escape/Companionship, 2:Entertainment/Relaxation, 3:Information, 4:Arousal.

Entertainment/Relaxation factor of Σ*biei* (.72, p<.001). *Arousal* was also most strongly related with the corresponding *Arousal* factor of Σ*biei* (.50, p<.001). *Pass-Time* factor of Σ*GSi* was related with both *Escape/ Companionship* and *Entertainment/Relaxation* factor of Σ*biei* (.56 and .52, p<.001).

In sum, the complete matrix of correlation coefficients between composites of Σ*biei* and Σ*GSi* supported the

suggested hypothesis of a strong relationship between ΣGSi and $\Sigma biei$. In other words, we may expect that students who strongly believe that viewing cable television will lead to certain outcomes (i.e., gratifications sought) and also evaluate that outcome highly would actively seek various gratifications from cable television viewing.

Since two variables were found to be strongly related, an attempt was made to predict gratification seeking behaviors from cable television.

To predict gratifications seeking (ΣGSi) behavior of students from cable television, regression analysis was employed on the sum of students' expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma biei$) and Σbi and Σei. The results in table 14 shows that students' expectancy-value judgements strongly predicted their gratification seeking from cable television (R= Beta= .74, R square= .54, F(1,60)= 63.69, p<.001). More importantly, students' gratification seeking was more predictable when students' beliefs and evaluations were combined than when beliefs and evaluations were independently tested (R = Beta= .69, R square= .48, F(1,61)= 54.94, p<.001; R = Beta=.71, R square=.51, F(1,61), p<.001

respectively).

Table 14

Regression of ΣGSi on Expectancy-Value Judgements (Σ*biei*), Belief (Σ*bi*), and Evaluation (Σ*ei*).

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	T
Σ*biei*	.10	.01	.74	7.99
Σ*bi*	.68	.99	.69	7.40
Σ*ei*	.59	.08	.71	7.60

Note. For Σ*biei*, R= .74, R square=.54, F(1,60)= 63.69.
For Σ*bi*, R=.69, R square=.48, F(1,61)=54.94.
For Σ*ei*, R=.71, R square.51, F(1,61)= 58.08.
p<.001.

Students' gratifications seeking was subject to further regression analysis on the composites of expectancy-value judgements. (see table 15).

Regression of gratification seeking (Σ*GSi*) on the four composites of expectancy-value judgements (Σ*biei*) clearly supported the hypothesis 2a (R= Beta= .77, R square=.52, F(4,59)= 17.90, p<.01). In more detail, Σ*GSi* was strongly regressed on *Escape/Companionship* (Beta= .54, p<.001). These

Table 15

Regression of ΣGSi on the Composites of Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma biei$).

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T
Factor 4	.31	.26	.12	1.18
Factor 3	-.41	.39	-.12	-1.00
Factor 1	1.48	.50	.54	2.98*
Factor 2	.74	.62	.24	1.12

Note. R=.77, R square=.59, F(4,59)= 17.90, p<.001. Factor 1 (Escape/Companionship) consists of 11 items. The mean score of 11 items was entered in factor 1. Factor 2 (Entertainment/Relaxation) includes 6 items. Factor 3 (Information) includes 4 items. Factor 4 includes 2 items. *p<.001.

results strongly supported the suggested hypothesis that students' gratification seeking from cable television will be positively related to their expectancy-value judgments of cable television. And their expected *escape/companionship* outcome strongly predicted their various gratifications seeking behaviors (Beta=.54, p<.001). Other expected motives were statistically insignificant.

Hypothesis 2b predicted that students' expectations

(Σbi) and their evaluations (Σei) toward cable television viewing combined ($\Sigma biei$) will predict their gratifications seeking behavior more strongly than either Σbi and Σei alone was allowed to predict gratifications seeking. The results in table 11 clearly supported the prediction when the correlation coefficients of gratification seeking (ΣGSi) with Σbi only was reduced to .30 ($p<.01$) from .74 ($p<.001$), with the control of Σei. The same result was found between ΣGSi and Σei with control of Σbi. The correlation coefficient was again reduced to .30 ($p<.001$) from .74 ($p<.001$). This hypothesis was further tested by examining the entire 23 by 23 *GSi* verses *bi* and *ei* correlation matrix (see table 12). In 22 out of 23 cases, there were reductions in the strength of relationships when each *bi* and *ei* was separately related to the corresponding gratification seeking items (*GSi*). The means of correlations were reduced from .48 to .28 (*bi*) and to .20 (*ei*). The regression tests in table 13 also supported the hypothesis when ΣGSi was more strongly regressed on $\Sigma biei$ (.74, $p<.001$) than it was regressed on either Σbi (.69,

$p<.001$) or Σei (.71, $p<.001$). These findings, again, demonstrate the combined effects of beliefs and evaluations on students' gratification seeking behaviors (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1984).

The fifth hypothesis (H3) predicted a positive relationship between students' two generalized orientations toward cable television: attitudes and their gratification seeking behavior. This prediction was made because if students' expectancy-value judgements are related to both their attitudes and gratification seeking (ΣGSi), it is reasonable to expect a positive relationship between attitudes and gratification seeking (ΣGSi). In other words, a student who has positive attitude toward cable television may actively seek various gratifications from the exposure to cable television. By the same token, we may expect that a student who feels his or her gratifications sought have been met by exposure to cable television before may also have positive attitude toward cable television. Here again, a caution was made before testing the hypothesis. Gratifications sought were measured by asking students to rate their underlying reasons for attending television in

general. So, students not subscribing cable television may have rated their reasons based on their experiences with over-the-air or other media sources rather than cable television. For this group of students, it is very difficult to examine the relationship between their seeking of gratifications and their affective responses (attitudes) toward cable television. For example, a student who has positive attitude toward cable television may not necessarily seek "Information" from cable television. Instead, they may satisfy the same need by exposing him/herself to other media sources. In this case, this student's affective responses have nothing to do with their seeking of "Information" from television. For this reason, the hypothesis was tested for cable-only group.

The results in table 16 supported the hypothesis when students' attitudes toward cable television and their gratification sought were moderately related (.35, $p<.01$). The hypothesis was further analyzed for each composite of gratifications sought (table 17). For 3 out of 5 factors, attitudes and gratifications sought were moderately related at the significant levels. *Information* was most strongly related with attitudes (.36, $p<.01$) followed by *Relaxation*

Table 16

Correlation Coefficients between Students' Attitudes and Gratification Sought (ΣGSi) from Cable Television.

	ΣGSi	
	Cable	Non-Cable
Attitude	.35*	.26 (n.s)

Note. Cable (N=65), Non-Cable (N=35).
*p<.01

(.28,p<.05), and *Arousal* (.24,p<.05). These findings showed that students' attitudes toward cable television were related to their seeking of gratifications from cable television, but only moderately.

Table 17

Correlation Coefficients between Attitudes and Composites of Gratifications. (Cable only)

	ΣGSi				
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Attitudes	.18(n.s)	.24*	.28*	.36**	.14(n.s)

Note. F1(Escape), F2(Arousal), F3(Relaxation), F4(Information), F5(Pass-Time).
*p<.05., **p<.01.

The sixth hypothesis (H4) predicted a strong relationship between students' attitudes toward cable television and their intention to subscribe cable television. The correlation coefficient of attitudes with intention to subscribe to cable television was .53 at $p<.001$ level for all respondents. Table 18 summarizes the results among different viewer groups. The relationship was held for both cable (.54, $p<.001$) and non-cable (.44, $p<.001$) groups. So, the hypothesis was supported.

Table 18

Correlation Coefficients of Attitude with Intention to subscribe to cable television.

	Attitude	
	Cable	Non-Cable
Intention	.54	.44

Cable (N=65), Non-Cable (N=35). $p<.001$.

Since students' attitudes and behavioral intention to subscribe to cable television were strongly related, regression analysis was employed to predict students' intention for subscribing to cable television. The results

Table 19

Regression of Students' Intention to subscribe to Cable Television on Students' Attitude toward Cable Television.

	B	SE	BETA	T
All	.27	.05	.53	5.95**
Cable	.24	.05	.54	5.00**
Non-Cable	.25	.09	.44	2.76*

Note. For all: R=.53, R square=.28, F(1,98)=35.45.; For cable: R=.54, R square=.29, F(1,65)=25.02.; For non-cable: R=.44, R square=.20, F(1,35)=7.60.
*p<.0.01., **p<.001.

in table 19 supported the hypothesis again when students' intention to subscribe to cable television was regressed on students' attitudes (R= Beta= .53, F(1,98)= 35.45, p<.001). Similar result was obtained when students' intention also regressed on attitudes of both student viewer groups (basic: R= Beta= .54, F(1,65)= 25.02, p<.001; non-cable: R= Beta= .44, F(1,35)= 7.60, p<.001). So the proposed hypothesis (H4) was supported. And this finding is also consistent with that of Babrow (1989) who found students' intention to watch soap opera was strongly predicted by their attitudes toward soap opera viewing.

The seventh hypothesis (H5) predicted a positive relationship between students' gratification sought (ΣGSi) and their intention to subscribe to cable television. This hypothesis was tested for students subscribing cable television because of the possible inconsistency between two viewer groups in measuring gratifications sought. Correlation analysis showed that students' intention was positively related to their gratifications sought, but the relationship was moderate (.34, $p<.001$). The relationship was further examined between intention and each dimension of the gratifications sought. The results summarized in table 20, once again, showed that intention was low to moderately correlated to gratifications sought. *Relaxation* motive was most strongly related to intention (.55, $p<.001$), followed by *Arousal* (.27, $p<.05$), and *Information* motive (.25, $p<.05$), respectively. *Escape* and *Pass-Time* motives were nonsignificantly related to intention (.14 and .07 at nonsignificant levels). To further examine the relationship between intention and gratifications sought, students' intention to subscribe to cable television was subject to regression analysis. The complete regression analysis is

Table 20

Correlation Coefficients of Students' Intention to Subscribe Cable Television to Gratifications Sought (ΣGSi). Cable only.

	ΣGSi				
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Intention	.14(n.s)	.27*	.55**	.25*	.07(n.s)

Note. F1(Escape), F2(Arousal), F3(Relaxation), F4(Information), F5(Pass-Time).
*p<.05., **p<.001.

shown in table 21.

Overall, students' intention was moderately related to the sum of 23 gratifications sought (R= Beta= .34, F(1,63)= 7.58, p<.01). The hypothesis was further tested by regressing intention on each composite of the gratifications sought (R square= .34, F(1,63)= 5.79, p<.001. Among five gratification motives *Relaxation* motive was most strongly related to students' intention to subscribe to cable television (.65, p<.001). Other motives were statistically nonsignificant in predicting intention.

Table 21

Regression of Students' Behavioral Intention on Gratifications Sought(ΣGSi).

	B	SE	Beta	T
Escape	-.10	.13	-.10	-.79
Arousal	.09	.15	.08	.60
Relaxation	.93	.20	.65	4.56*
Information	.14	.19	.10	.69
Pass-Time	-.28	.18	-.25	-.16

Note. R=.59, R square=.34, F(1,63)=5.79, p<.001.
*p<.001.

The eighth hypothesis (H6) predicted that the relationship between students' expectancy-value judgements and their intention to subscribe to cable television will become very weak (or nonsignificant) when attitudes and gratifications sought are controlled constant. This prediction was made because gratifications sought (ΣGSi) and attitudes mediate the effects of expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma biei$) to intention.

When attitudes and gratifications sought (ΣGSi) were

controlled constant, the correlation coefficient between $\Sigma bi ei$ and intention was nonsignificant (-.03 at nonsignificant level), compared to .33 ($p<.01$) when attitudes and $\Sigma bi ei$ were not controlled for. This was further analyzed between each composite of $\Sigma bi ei$ and intention with a control of proper variables.

The results in table 22 clearly indicate that the relationship between students' expectancy-value judgements of cable television and their intention to subscribe (or continue subscribing) are statistically nonsignificant. This finding implies that attitudes and gratifications sought mediate between two variables. The same result was found by Babrow & Swanson' (1988) study of television news viewing in which they found no evidence of direct effects of expectancy-value judgements on intention. The results shown here are sharp contrast to Triandis'(1980) contention that $\Sigma bi ei$ may contribute more directly to intention. The present study further attempted to examine the direct relationship of beliefs (Σbi) to behavioral intentions (RQ2), as suggested by Liska (1984). To test this question,

Table 22

Partial Correlation Coefficients of Students' Intention to Subscribe to Cable Television to Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma bi ei$) with Control of Attitude and Gratifications Sought (ΣGSi)

	No Control	Control for Attitude	Control for ΣGSi	Control for Both
F1	.26*	.05(n.s)	.03(n.s)	-.07(n.s)
F2	.37**	.12(n.s)	.20(n.s)	.03(n.s)
F3	.27*	.02(n.s)	.18(n.s)	-.02(n.s)
F4	.24*	.14(n.s)	.15(n.s)	.09(n.s)

Note. F1(Escape/Companionship), F2(Entertainment/Relaxation), F3(Information), F4(Arousal). *p<.05., **p<.001.

proper control of variables was necessary. In this case, Σei, attitudes, and gratifications sought ($EGSi$) were controlled for because of the possibility to mediate the effects of Σbi on intention. When Σei, attitudes, and ΣGSi were partialed out, the relationship between beliefs (Σbi) and behavioral intention was statistically insignificant (-.06 at nonsignificant level). Without control, the beliefs (Σbi) were moderately correlated to intention (.33,p<.001).

Accordingly, in the present study, students' beliefs had no direct effects on students' intention to subscribe to cable television.

The ninth hypothesis (H7) predicted a positive relationship between students' perceptions of subjective norms and their intention to subscribe to cable television. A single subjective norm item asked students to rate their perceptions of social pressure from the people important to them when they intend to subscribe to cable television. A strong correlation coefficient of .60($p<.001$) was found between subjective norms and behavioral intention in supportive of the prediction for a positive relationship. Regression analysis further supported the hypothesis when intention was strongly regressed on subjective norms ($R=$ Beta$= .60$, $F(1,96)= 53.58$, $p<.001$). This finding provides an additional evidence to support the importance of social pressures when people make behavioral decisions (Babrow & Swanson, 1988; Babrow, 1989; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

The tenth hypothesis (H8) predicted a positive relationship between students' behavioral intention to

subscribe to cable television and their actual viewing behavior. Viewing behavior was measured by summing up the amount of time students spend watching cable television during both weekdays and weekends, and also measured by asking their cable subscribership (1= Yes, 2= No).

Correlation analysis showed a positive relationship between students' exposure levels and intention for subscription. For example, a moderately strong correlation coefficient (-.48, $p<.001$) was found between students' amount of cable television viewing in a typical week and their intention to subscrive to cable television. Because lower numbers on the measurement scale of intention mean higher degrees of intention and higher numbers on the measurement scale exposure level mean higher viewing behaviour, the negative relationship between two variables indicates a positive relationship between students' intention to sbscribe to cable television and their viewing behavior. This result was confirmed when intention was positively related to the students' cable television viewership relationships (.38, $p<.001$: subscribing= 1, nonsubscribing= 2). Regression analysis also showed a relatively strong relationship between two variables when

students' exposure levels of cable television were negatively regressed on intention ($R = Beta = -.48$, $F(1,95) = 27.53$, $p<.001$). So, these findings supported the proposed hypothesis of a strong relationship between viewing behavior and viewing intention.

To answer the second research question (RQ2) that the possible direct effects of attitudes on cable viewing behavior, correlation analysis was administered. When variables such as gratifications sought, viewing intention, and subjective norms were properly controlled constant, there were no relationship between students' attitudes and their viewing behavior (-.08 at nonsignificant level). So, this finding did not support the Liska' (1984) conclusion that attitudes can either directly or indirectly influence the behavior. In this study among Korean students' cable television viewing behavior, only indirect effect of attitudes was found.

Chapter V

Summary and Discussion

For both television audiences and researchers who examine the effects of the medium, the newly developed television environment is a challenge. It is challenging for audiences because they have to reallocate their limited resources when they expose themselves to the diversified media messages, so as to obtain maximum satisfactions from the viewing. So, audience members' exposure to television can be seen as an individual rather than collective decision making process. Under this circumstance, each individual is an "active" rather than "passive" agent in the communication process. As a result, any kinds of new media consumption must be understood in close relation to the process of decision making by an individual member.

New media environment is also challenging to media and audience researchers. So often did they rely on quantitative data in their attempts to untangle the complexities of the media consumption and its effects on society. For them, "quality" of exposure is sometimes preferred in favor of "quantity." So, measuring how many watch a particular medium or content is the primary concern to determine the performance of that medium or content. This practice can be

1993), in which those "numbers (e.g., number of total audiences or number of hours contributed to television viewing)" must be shared by many competing media sources. Quantitative date, then, becomes less useful than qualitative data. The present study was an attempt to investigate this concern in the context of cable television viewing by college students. More specifically, this study concerned with students' use of cable television as it is related to their motivational schemes for media uses. So, it was individual in the level of analysis, and concerned qualitative aspects of television viewing. Uses and gratifications perspective was employed as the theoretical framework in association with expectancy-value theory. The validity of this attempts has been demonstrated by researchers in various media settings (Babrow, 1989; Babrow & Swanson, 1988; Galloway & Meek, 1981; Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1984,1982).

Summary of Findings

Topology of Television Viewing

Students' reasons for television viewing generated six

factor solutions that combined explained 65.4% of the total variance. The six factors were labeled *Arousal*(3.35), *Escape* (3.31), *Pass-Time* (2.93), *Special-Programs* (2.73), *Relaxation* (2.64), and *Information* (2.40). *Special-Program,* anchored by one item, was excluded from the subsequent analyses because of difficulty in deriving meaningful interpretation. Both basic-only students and non-cable students sought *Information* motive most strongly while *Arousal* was least strongly sought. Overall, students receiving basic only were seeking various gratifications most strongly (mean= 2.96) among three viewer groups, followed by non-cable (mean= 2.87), and pay subscribers (2.62). The factor analyses clearly indicated that Korean students used television for two distinctive motives : "instrumental" and "ritualistic" (Rubin, 1982). According to Rubin, ritualistic use of television is associated with diffuse motives such as pass-time, relaxation, habit, and escape. Viewers in this type of viewing show higher affinity with the medium and they concern less with the content. Instrumental use, on the other hand, is associated with purposive and selective use of media content, usually for information seeking reason. Viewed from this distinction,

Korean students seem to show instrumental orientation in their uses of cable television.

Expectancy-Value Judgements ($\Sigma b_i e_i$)

Measures of students' expectancy-value judgements produced four underlying dimensions, which explained 73.9% of the total variance. The four composites were labeled *Escape/Companionship*, *Entertainment/Relaxation*, *Information*, and *Arousal*. *Information* was the most strongly expected gratification sought among all viewer groups followed by *Entertainment/Relaxation*. Here again, *Arousal* was perceived as the least possible outcome from cable television viewing. As in the gratifications sought, students' expectancy-value judgements of cable television clearly showed two distinctive orientations toward cable television viewing: "ritualistic" and "instrumental."

Findings Related to Hypotheses

The first hypothesis (H1a) predicted a positive relationship between students' expectancy-value judgements ($\Sigma b_i e_i$) and their attitudes toward cable television

viewing. This expectation was supported by a correlation of .47(p<.001). When each composite of the expectancy-value judgements was related to attitudes, the relationships were ranged from .22 to .43 at significant levels. The hypothesis was further tested by regressing attitudes on expectancy-value judgements and the result again supported the hypothesis (Beta= .47, p<.00`1).

The second hypothesis predicted weak (or nonsignificant) relationship between students' attitudes and either Σbi (with control of Σei) and Σei (with control of Σbi). This expectation was partially supported. When Σbi was related to attitudes independently of Σei, the relationship was reduced, but the relationship was still substantial (.41, p<.001). Furthermore, attitudes were much highly regressed on Σbi (.51, p<.001) than on $\Sigma biei$ (.47, p<.001). On the other hand, when Σei was related to attitude, the relationship was nonsignificant (-.13). As a result, the hypothesis (H1b) was partially supported.

The third hypothesis (H2a) predicted a positive relationship between students' expectancy-value judgements

of cable television and their gratifications sought(ΣGSi). The correlation coefficient score of .74 ($p<.001$) between ΣGSi and $\Sigma biei$ was found to support the hypothesis. When correlation analyses were employed to test relationships between each composites of ΣGSi and $\Sigma biei$ constructs, the relationships ranged from .23 to .78 at the significant levels. Regression analyses also supported the prediction when ΣGSi was regressed on $\Sigma biei$ (Beta=.74, $p<.001$).

The fourth hypothesis predicted a reduction in the strength of relationship when either Σbi and Σei was independently related to ΣGSi. This expectation was supported when the relationship was reduced to .30 (for both Σbi and Σei) from .74.

The fifth hypothesis (H3) predicted a positive relationship between students' attitudes toward cable television and gratifications sought from cable viewing. This expectation was supported when a moderate relationship was found between attitude and ΣGSi (.35, $p<.05$) among cable subscribers. Furthermore, three out of five ΣGSi

factors were moderately related (.24 to .38) to attitudes at the significant level ($p<.05$).

The sixth hypothesis (H4) predicted a positive relationship between attitudes and students' intention to subscribe to cable television. The correlation analysis supported the prediction for both viewer groups (cable= .54, $p<.001$; non-cable= .44, $p<.001$). Regression test further upheld the prediction when intention was regressed on attitudes toward cable (Beta= .54, $p<.001$) and non-cable (Beta= .44, $p<.01$) subscribers.

The hypothesis H5 predicted a positive relationship between students' intention to subscribe to cable television and their gratifications sought (ΣGSi). The correlation was moderate (.34, $p<.05$), still supporting the hypothesis. *Relaxation* motive(.55, $p<.001$) was most strongly related to intention, followed by *Arousal* (.27, $p<.05$), and *Information* (.25, $p<.05$). And intention was most strongly regressed on *Relaxation* motive (.65, $p<.001$).

The hypothesis H6 predicted a weak (or nonsignificant) relationship between students' intention and their expectancy-value judgements when attitudes and ΣGSi were

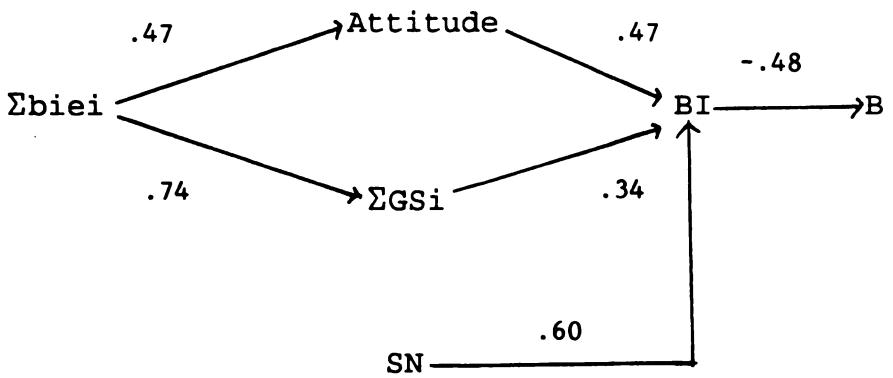
controlled. This prediction was supported when the relationship was found to be nonsignificant (-.03) statistically when both attitudes and ΣGSi were controlled constant. This result was also true when each composite of $\Sigma biei$ was nonsignificantly related to intention when attitudes and ΣGSi were controlled constant again.

The hypothesis H7 proposed a positive relationship between students' perceptions of subjective norms and behavioral intention. A strong relationship (.60, $p<.001$) between two variables supported the prediction. And intention was strongly regressed on subjective norms (Beta= .60, $P<.001$).

The hypothesis H8 predicted a positive relationship between students television viewing behaviors (exposure levels and subscribership) and their intention to subscribe to cable. Both correlation and regression analyses provided evidences to support the prediction.

Based on these findings, a complete diagram of expectancy-value model of students' cable television viewing can be drawn as follows:

Expectancy-Value Model of Gratifications Sought from Cable Television Viewing : Adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen's Model



Note. BI (behavioral intention to subscribe to cable television), SN (subjective norms), B (exposure levels and subscribership)

Discussion

Expectancy-Value Judgements of Gratifications

Results of the present study generally support the proposition of a well-known attitude-behavioral model that posits that attitude is determined by the expected outcomes of the behavior (beliefs) and the perceived values of those behavioral outcomes (evaluations). Attitude, then, becomes a determinant of behavioral intention, which is known as a direct cause of the behavior. When integrated in uses and gratifications study, this model has gained considerable supports to predict media exposure behavior. More specifically, a generalized media orientation of gratifications seeking (like attitude) was thought to be determined by the expectations of obtaining those gratifications, weighted by the subjective evaluations of those gratifications. When applied to cable television viewing by Korean college students in the United States, the present study found a strong positive relationship (.74, $p<.001$) between students' expectancy-value judgements and their gratifications sought from cable television viewing. An exploratory factor analysis indicated that Korean

students expect four dimensions of gratifications from cable television viewing: *Escape/Companionship*, *Entertainment/Relaxation*, *Information*, and *Arousal*. *Information* was perceived by all three viewer groups as the primary outcome from cable television viewing, while *Arousal* was perceived as the least important function of cable television. These results indicate that Korean students make use of cable television for instrumental purpose which is anchored by intentional or selective use of the medium. This instrumental use of cable television includes getting information about the world and for daily living. This pattern of cable television use is understandable in that, in order to settle down to new culture, Korean students might want to actively seek for information about the new country and new cultures. Furthermore, there are limited sources of information they can count on. In this circumstance, television provides the easiest access to those information. Television also can be a venue where Korean students can relax from their real-life pressures and problems occurring in the school life. So, television becomes an important means of "acculturalization" for the foreign students to the exotic cultures (Kim, 1982).

Although it is uncertain which pattern of media use, be ritualistic or instrumental, facilitates students' acculturalization processes, an early contact with mass media may certainly shape their perceptions of the social reality of the new country. This provides interesting topic for the future studies regarding the roles and effects of mass media for the students from different countries. Cultivation analyses are certainly eligible to examine these effects.

The next major finding in this study is that expectancy-value judgment was not a good predictor of behavioral intention than the general attitude and gratification sought (ΣGSi). When each composite of expectancy-value judgements was related to behavioral intention to subscribe to cable television with controls of attitudes, ΣGSi, the relationship was statistically nonsignificant. This finding is consistent with those found in other studies (e.g., Babrow, 1988; Babrow, 1989; Babrow & Swanson; 1988). These researchers concluded that a generalized attitude or gratifications sought was the stronger predictor of behavioral intention or actual

behavior than expectancy-value judgements. One explanation can be that other functional alternatives (e.g., VCR or Newspapers) may enable students to obtain those perceived gratifications (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1984). In fact, Babrow (1989) reasoned that popular media content such as soap operas represents a well-known experience for all and the perceived expectations and values of various consequences (i.e., gratifications sought) may be clear and stable. For this reason, a generalized attitude or gratifications sought may predict behavior better than expectancy-value judgements. In a similar fashion, LaRose & Atkin (1991) contended that previous studies have focused on behaviors whose consequences were highly predictable. They concluded that expectancy-value judgements can predict media behavior under certain media environment where reasoned decision making processes are needed to select a particular medium or content among various alternatives. In fact, they found that expectancy-value judgements directly predicted intention to consume pay-per-view. In the present study, the most salient anticipation perceived by Korean students from cable television viewing was *Information*, which is considered to be very intentional and instrumental viewing pattern.

Although this type of viewing pattern requires very deliberate decision making process for the exposure, it is not necessarily the case. For instance, *Information* was strongly expected across each viewer group. This means that Korean students' perceived expectations and values of cable television viewing are very stable and clear. For this reason, their expectancy-value judgements of cable were less predictive of intention to subscribe to cable television and actual viewing behavior than their generalized attitudes and gratifications seeking from cable television viewing.

Whatever the reason, it seems clear that our belief systems are far more-complex than expected. These beliefs have many origins and derive from the sum of an individual's experiences (direct and indirect) with a particular media object (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1984). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) distinguished between three kinds of belief systems: descriptive, inferential, and informational.

"Descriptive" beliefs are formed from the direct observation of an object. Korean students in this study may not have experienced much of the cable television. This may have contributed to the low predictability of behavioral intentions. "Inferential" beliefs are related more to our

personalities than direct observations. "Informational" beliefs are largely formed by information from outside sources such as friends or magazines. For some students, especially new students whose direct experiences with cable television are limited, beliefs toward cable television may be formed based on outside sources.

Overall, beliefs are formed over a long period of time. So, to understand the roles played by belief systems in media consumption, more longitudinal studies are necessary.

Attitudes, ΣGSi, Subjective Norms, and Behavioral Intention

The results in the present study support the anticipation that students' attitudes will be strongly related to their intention to subscribe to cable television. This is consistent with Barrow & and Swanson(1988) finding that students' attitudes toward news viewing directly effected both intention and exposure levels. ΣGSi, on the other hand, predicted intention only moderately (.34). The same results were observed in the present study when each composite of ΣGSi was low to moderately related to

behavioral intention. While media consumption may be related to multiple motivations (Palmgreen et al., 1985), the present study employed a limited set of motivational schemes, which was developed for studies of traditional media consumption. In fact, viewers of cable television tended to seek more differentiated gratifications from cable television viewing. For instance, Shaver (1983)found certain unique gratifications sought from cable television. Viewers tended to subscribe to cable for better receptions of signals, special programs such as children or religious programs, and more latitudes of controlling over viewing. With the consideration of these aspects, the present study might have been able to explain the relationships between students' gratifications sought and their behavioral intention in more predictable ways.

Another explanation may be that such external factors as work schedule and availability of certain media might have influenced the viewing (Bogart, 1965). In fact, college students are very limited in their use of mass media. Their tight work schedules in classes may limit their actual use of media sources for various purposes. This contention can partly be explained by the fact that *Relaxation* was a strong

predictor of behavioral intention to subscribe to cable television. Still another possibility is that Korean students are grown up in different media environment where television is free. They are not accustomed to paying monthly bill for what they used to get free-of-charge. Although these issues were not discussed in the present study, they deserve further studies.

The present study also supported the suggested importance of the perceived social pressures in television viewing decision. This emphasizes the notion that the media consumption should be understood in relation to the social contexts in which the media consumptions occur (Blumler, 1985). In a study of television news viewing, Babrow & Swanson, 1988) suggested that normative perceptions play a key role in determining audience exposure levels.

Finally, the present study predicted a positive relationship between students' behavioral intention and exposure levels of cable television and subscribership. Both correlation and regression analyses indicated a positive relationship between two variables. In consistent with the assumption of expectancy-value theory, this study showed that behavioral intention is a direct cause of actual

behavior.

Given the characteristics and size of the sample used in this study, it is very difficult to generalize the results to other population. Nevertheless, the present study provides an evidence that integration of uses and gratifications and expectancy-value model could help understand the complexities of decision making processes in media consumption behavior. More specifically, the present study shed light on the importance of television viewers' cognitive and affective involvements in understanding media consumption behaviors.

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