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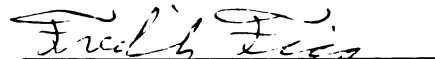
USING "BENEFIT SEGMENTATION" STRATEGIES TO DEFINE LOCAL
BROADCAST TELEVISION NEWS AUDIENCE SEGMENTS:

A SEGMENTATION MODEL BASED ON MEDIA GRATIFICATIONS
presented by

ROBERT HOWARD WICKS

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph. D. degree in Mass Media


Major professor

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Robert Howard Wicks

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN MASS MEDIA

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The recent proliferation of communication channels such as cable television and other emerging technologies suggests that programming can be provided for relatively narrow audience segments rather than for the mass audience. This research suggests a model that might be useful in defining audience segments for local television news.

Most segmentation studies employ descriptive predictors such as demographics to define audience segments. This study employed benefit-based segmentation--a strategy designed to group like-minded individuals into segment categories.

The hypotheses suggested that:

- H1 Different people expect to derive different benefits from television news and information.
- H2 Different perceived benefits are sufficient criteria for the task of defining specific audience segments.
- H3 People within these benefit-based segments are relatively homogeneous with respect to the benefits they expect to derive from television news.
- H4 A benefit-based approach to clustering audiences according to their television news viewing preferences will produce demographically heterogeneous segments.
- H5 Benefits other than entertainment may serve as dominant benefits for various audience segments.

H6 Cognitive motivations associated with news gratifications predominate for at least one of the segments.

The research employed factor analysis to identify the benefits sought from television news. Audiences were subsequently clustered around these benefits. Analysis of variance was used to demonstrate between group differences and within group similarities. Finally, discriminant analysis and the chi-square statistic were used to assess demographic differences between groups.

Support was provided for all but the fourth hypothesis. Specifically, the benefit-based segments were somewhat homogeneous with respect to gender and education.

This research contributes knowledge in three primary ways: (1) It links the communications literature associated with "media uses and gratifications" with the marketing strategy of benefit segmentation. As such, it provides a model for generating audience typologies rather than providing yet another media usage typology. (2) It provides a model by which news suppliers might efficiently segment and target specific television audience segments. (3) It suggests a new direction for journalism education. It specifically recommends that journalism and communication programs must expand their scope by training journalists to specialize in the interest of matching the information processing tendencies of the target audience with the news programs produced.

Dedicated to Hilda and Elmer

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND JUSTIFICATION

Introduction

In his book, The Coming Information Age, Dizard (1982, p. 110) explains:

"The big three networks face growing competition from a range of specialized 'fourth networks' that rely on satellite distribution of their programs. The most extensive of these grids is operated by the Public Broadcasting System and National Public Radio which have used satellites since 1978 to provide their member stations with a broad mix of national and regional programs. The result has been to give local PBS and NPR stations more control over their programming choices, a major objective of public broadcasting."

Increased competition at the broadcast network level will inevitably trickle down to the local affiliates in the 214 television markets in the United States.¹ Commercial broadcasters have historically competed among themselves in an attempt to attract a large and diverse audience (Woal, 1986, p. 348) as defined by program ratings and market share. But new and emerging technologies along with regionalized programming now threaten to erode the viewership base that has traditionally been sliced up by the network affiliates (Katz, 1982).

Programming types tend to rise and fall. Westerns, for example, have virtually disappeared while crime programs are now provided nightly. The shift up or down over a two-year period successfully predicts the rise or fall in frequency of program types in the subsequent two-year period (Comstock, Chaffee, Katzman, McCombs and Roberts, 1978, p. 24). But while entertainment program types have tended to come into and fall out of vogue over the years, the amount of time broadcasters devote to television news, information and public affairs has continued to rise steadily.

Bower (1985, p. 96) reports that broadcast time allotted for news programming has more than doubled in the span of two decades, increasing from 13 percent in 1960 to 27 percent in 1980. Coinciding with this was a marked increase in the proportions of the population that chose television over the other mass media as the one which: (1) provides "the most complete" news coverage; (2) delivers the news "most quickly"; (3) presents the "fairest news" and (4) provides the "clearest understanding of candidates and issues in national elections" (Bower, 1985, p. 96).

These findings parallel a Roper Organization study which suggests that a majority of the people polled view television as the most credible and believable news source.² And there are reasons to believe that television news will continue to maintain a pervasive role as an influential

information supplier. Dizard (1982) explains that the technological advances of the past two decades are only the beginning--that communication and information transfer capabilities are bound to advance at an ever faster rate.

This is both good and bad news for television news departments at local stations. On the positive side, news departments may benefit from advances such as satellite technology which is capable of instantly bringing news video of local interest to the station from anywhere in the world. On the negative side, new and emerging technologies such as cable television, direct broadcast satellite, video-cassette recorders and even tailoring of program line ups by independent and public television stations in individual markets now threaten to siphon off viewers leading in turn to a decline in profits at stations around the country.

One means of shoring up viewership for the "news product" is through "product differentiation" (Caves, 1982, p. 18). Product differentiation implies that consumers have different wants and needs and that provision of these perceived "salient product characteristics" or "benefits" (Haley 1968) will ultimately lead to the cultivation of a loyal consumer following. According to economic theory, the delivery of a product desired by a specific market segment(s) may in turn lead to the development of a loyal following by the target segment(s).

Television news economic considerations have become important for station management (Owen, Beebe and Manning, 1974). Local news has become a major profit center during the past decade. To provide some context of the relative economic importance of local news programming, consider that the shift of a single rating point in local news programming in a market like Detroit can mean as much as \$1 million annually in advertising revenue (Salisbury, 1984).

However, segmentation strategies should be evaluated in terms of public policy as well as economic considerations. Television news originally evolved to its present importance largely in response to licensing requirements laid down in the Communications Act of 1934.³ The Act charged the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) with assuring that proper use of the spectrum would result in programming in the "public interest." Since the broadcast spectrum could accommodate only a limited number of stations, the Commission was charged with regulating it on behalf of the public.

But the deregulation of the broadcast industry pursued recently by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) implies that local broadcasters may take certain liberties in programming for "mass audience" and consider more specialized programming for particular audience segments as dictated by market forces. Furthermore, certain news programmers may benefit economically by providing news

programs for specific and identifiable subaudiences. Hence, under certain conditions, market segmentation may make sense from both an economic and public policy standpoint.

Consequently, this research will seek to demonstrate that:

1. an effective readily employable market segmentation method exists which may be useful to broadcast news operations;
2. people can be sorted into discrete groups based on the benefits they expect to derive from television news;
3. these benefits are rooted in the theoretical approach referred to as the "uses and gratifications" perspective in mass communication research; and
4. such a strategy makes sense in an increasingly competitive marketplace from both an economic and journalistic point of view.

The specific segmentation model employed required sorting individuals into discrete categories using a marketing techniques know as "benefit-based segmentation" (Haley, 1968, p. 31). Haley contends the benefits people seek from a product can serve as the "base" upon which to segment the market. For reasons to be explained shortly, benefit segmentation was selected over a variety of other segmentation strategies.

Justification of Study for Mass Communication Theory

The blending of benefit segmentation with the uses and gratifications approach underscores a fundamental failing in

past local television news audience research--it has rarely endeavored to organize audiences into definable sub-segments. And an attempt has never been made to group individuals into gratification categories using the marketing technique of benefit segmentation.

Rosengren, Wenner and Palmgreen (1985) have challenged researchers and scholars to go beyond simply forming lists of gratifications. They argue in favor of research which might lead to audience typologies rather than gratification typologies. The application of benefit segmentation to television news audiences signifies an attempt to explain the causal root(s) associated with information usage. The blending of benefit segmentation with the uses and gratifications approach posits a method of developing a marketing strategy employing gratification typologies to generate "audience typologies."

Wenner (1985, p. 193), a noted proponent of the uses and gratifications perspective has made the following recommendation:

"Although much is known about the range of gratifications that may be derived from news, we know very little about 'population densities' for certain kinds of news gratification experiences within a society. How common or uncommon are certain kinds of gratification experiences? How do these 'population densities' vary among different segments of the audience? Answers here, as well, may be plotted on the news gratifications maps to illuminate what elements of news experience may be shared culturally versus those that may be unique to certain subparts of society."

By categorizing people into subparts according to the benefits they seek from the media, it is theoretically possible in virtually any media market to clarify the picture of the ultimate composition of the segments within the market. This is important since it would ultimately help communicators to better understand the effect that particular messages have on specific audience members or groups. As such, it posits a means of assuring that messages might be presented in a fashion such that they will be received and processed by the appropriate target audience segment(s).

Benefit segmentation may be the logical "next step" in advancing the uses and gratifications perspective. As Tolman (1932) explains, behavioral patterns in men and animals can be linked to the idea that certain behavior will lead to an anticipated outcome. For example, "purposive behavior" leads to the gratification of specific needs ranging from avoidance of dehydration while wandering in the desert to being entertained by a television situation comedy. Indeed, the uses and gratifications perspective addresses this notion under the guise of "expectancy value." Benefit segmentation may offer a means of operationalizing the expectancy value concept. It may simply provide a means by which groups of people with common expectations or can be classified into benefit-based segments (Haley, 1968).

To summarize, linking benefit segmentation strategies with the uses and gratifications approach will provide a means of analyzing the audience based on communally shared gratifications. It is therefore offered as an appropriate means by which to advance the theories rooted in the uses and gratifications tradition. As such, the linkage may serve to solidify the theoretical premise upon which the entire uses and gratifications perspective rests.

Justification of Study for Broadcast Journalism

The idea of programming local news for market segments is not new. Local news departments have historically targeted news viewers residing within geographic markets. News departments in rural farm markets would be expected to supply more farm related information to their viewers than stations in New York City which would be expected to provide more news about the New York Yankees.

But does it make sense for local broadcasters to target subcategories of the total available audience when the obvious goal of the broadcast news medium is to maximize audience size? The answer is yes because:

1. segmentation strategies embrace the notion that people are distinct in their tastes and preferences for products. Therefore, attempts to market a product that will appeal to all segments is a difficult task. Segmentation strategies are intended to reach relatively homogeneous sub-markets.

2. emerging specialized information sources such as cable television and VCR's threaten to cultivate segments with specific interests, thereby eroding the viewership base for local broadcast television news;
3. targeting and cultivation of specific homogeneous segments may serve as a means of attracting advertisers interested in communicating with specific audience segments;
4. advertisers may benefit if their messages reach their specific target audience--especially if this well defined target segment is affluent.

Many of the marketing segmentation studies in the past have been less than illuminating since they have relied on segmentation criteria such as demographic or psychographic measures which are descriptive in nature. This research will specifically address the proposition that perceived benefits associated with information acquisition--are valid as delineators of audience segments and may be useful in assessing the behavioral forces behind television news selection and preference patterns.

The concept and application of market segmentation strategies for local news would be a radical departure from the traditional role played by commercial broadcasters--that of audience maximization. Programs attract sponsors based upon their ratings--the number of viewers watching the program. But advertisers are "also interested in who is watching local news as well as how many people are watching a given program." ⁴ An advertisement for the breakfast cereal Froot Loops will likely reach the preferred target

audience when placed among the Saturday morning cartoon lineup rather than inserted in the ABC news program Nightline.

Altheide (1976) notes that broadcast managers are acutely aware of the importance of reaching a target audience. He reports that a member of a television sales staff had this to say about target audiences (Altheide, 1976, p. 32):

"If we're selling women's girdles, we probably should not be playing in the middle of baseball. If we're selling a soap product or a toothpaste we probably should be hitting in the center of a family or a woman's program, because the most important demographic, and that is the word we use to talk about the audience composition, is women 18 to 49. Why? Because women 18 to 49 control the purse strings of the average family."

The benefit segmentation approach challenges the wisdom of using demographics to describe all television audiences. Certain types of programs such as daytime serials may tend to attract reasonably homogeneous audiences in terms of demographics. But television news programs tend to attract a relatively heterogeneous audience (Frank and Greenberg, 1980). Thus benefit segmentation posits an alternative to demographic segmentation--a means by which news audiences might be described according to the anticipated benefits associated with the program.

Dominant stations (as measured by the A.C. Nielson and Arbitron ratings) in a given market will undoubtedly be

content to continue programming the for the mass audience as long as a sufficiently large audience is retained.

Segmentation strategies may appeal most to stations with poor news ratings or new stations entering a given broadcast market. Fifty-four television markets have gained an independent station during the past five years. The Association of Independent Television Stations is now 160⁵ members strong. Hence audience segmentation may be a desirable option for stations wishing to increase ratings by targeting unsatisfied audience segments.

The idea of linking the benefit segmentation approach with media uses and gratifications has important implications for broadcast journalism as well as the media establishment. It posits that audience uses and gratifications may be viewed as benefits and that audiences can be segmented according to these benefits. The uses and gratifications perspective suggests that many factors are associated with news viewing. Benefit segmentation is offered as a means of combining these benefits to provide a map detailing the segments present in a given news market.

Epstein (1973) argues that television network executives have generally tried to attract television news audiences by presenting news in terms of conflict and by enhancing the production values. But while one segment of the television news audience may turn to the news largely based on a need for titillation and excitement (immediate

rewards), the literature suggests that other segments may seek quite different gratifications (delayed rewards). Indeed, the success of ABC News Nightline and the McNeil/Lehrer news hour may be the result of an inadvertent segmentation strategy that has worked. In a nutshell, the serious "news junkie" and the "titillation seeker" may both have needs for a daily news program, although the needs are gratified in vastly different ways.

One may question whether programming for specific segments may dilute the editorial process, thereby leading to an inferior news product. This concern inevitably leads to a fundamental question--is journalism a business or a profession? Will Irwin addressed this concern in 1911:⁶

"More than one editor of a newspaper without fear and without reproach has declared to me that it [journalism] is nothing but a business. 'I am responsible, just like the manufacturer of blankets, for giving people a good product--nothing more,' says one. Yet William R. Nelson, owner of the Kansas City Star, a newspaper praised by its admirers for every stable virtue, holds the professional attitude and believes that in creating the professional spirit lies the salvation of journalism."

Ethical questions can certainly be raised when the specter of presenting a news product matched to the tastes and preferences of audience segments is raised. Do segmentation strategies simply provide a blueprint for the production of news that will be consumed irrespective of content? Do the news media have an obligation to inform and elevate as well as entertain the public?

Questions such as these have been raised throughout the course of American journalism history. They have never been fully resolved. However, the news media compete for the attention of the public. A newscast without viewers, like a newspaper without readers, will cease to exist.

Segmentation strategies simply offer a means by which messages can be matched to the tastes, preferences and comprehension abilities of the audience. And, the specification of audience segments may increase the opportunity for broadcast news editors and reporters to align themselves with news organizations suited to their news orientations and editorial philosophies.

Reporters working for the National Enquirer and for the Washington Post undoubtedly perceive their "editorial mission" quite differently. While media scholars, reporters and editors are free to make value judgments concerning the relative worth of each of these publications, the final judgment concerning the success of the publications lies with the public. Both publications are protected under the First Amendment. But broadcasters have historically enjoyed somewhat less protection under the First Amendment. In a deregulated environment, broadcasters may welcome the opportunity to seek a market niche rather than program for the mass public. And in a segmented market, it would be possible for editors and reporters to specialize in a manner similar to that of their magazine colleagues.

Justification for Journalism and Communication Education

Communication and journalism educators may also benefit from this research. Robinson and Levy (1986, p. 15) report that the public has difficulty in processing certain types of information--especially news of a "highly technical nature," stories "containing abstract concepts" or information requiring various levels of "complex reasoning." They assert that the media are largely to blame for this since reporters and editors rarely take into account the "public's limited skills and interests in processing the news content." McAdams (1985, p. 3) reports that she has often stressed the need to keep sentences short and active when teaching journalism since people "read only simple stories."

Broadcast journalism education stresses the presentation of news at an elementary level. Sentences are kept short, stories are concise and visuals and graphic material are included to enhance comprehension. Emphasis on writing and presentation styles presumably insured that the news would be communicated to the general mass public. But Robinson and Levy (1986, p. 16) point out that these techniques did not result from systematic study of the processing and comprehension abilities of the audience, but rather evolved by trial and error.

Forward looking journalists and journalism educators must realize that the emerging role of broadcast journalism

is not to provide news and information to the mass audience but rather the segmented audience. Robinson and Levy (1986) may be mostly correct in their assertion that the "people" have difficulty with certain types of information. But they have failed to acknowledge that certain people probably have no difficulty understanding while comprehension of certain news items is beyond the capabilities of other audience members.

To cope with this intellectual imbalance in society, some broadcast news editors have tailored their newscasts in a fashion that is "least objectionable" to the mass audience (Powers, 1978, p. 31). This philosophy suggests that an elementary style of presentation will suit all tastes since every available audience member is capable of comprehending the information. While such an approach may gratify a large audience, it may also alienate various audience segments. Indeed, certain segments may simply avoid television news because they perceive it as overly elementary, non-illuminating or juvenile.

Summary

The idea of testing a method of segmenting local television news audiences may be viewed as the broadcast equivalent to market segmentation in the magazine industry (Shoemaker and Inskip, 1985). Broadcast audience segmentation may offer a means by which programming might be

aimed at smaller and smaller segments of the market with special interests or special needs. As John Abel, the executive director of the National Association of Broadcasters pointed out in a speech to journalists, the recent explosion of new independent stations combined with other emerging sources paves the way for information tailored for a "segmented audience."⁷

Cable or satellite television viewers now have access to a myriad of programming news options including Cable News Network (CNN) and Headline news, the health news network Lifetime, the Entertainment and Sports Program Network (ESPN), a political news network featuring live Senate and House proceedings (C-SPAN), a financial news network (FNN), as well as public access programming and local cable programming which covers council meetings and the like.

Each of the commercial broadcast television networks (ABC, CBS and NBC) provide news programming in the morning, in the evening, on weekends and newsbreaks throughout the day. The Public Broadcasting System (PBS) provides an hour of evening news as well as specialty news programming such as Wall Street Week and Washington Week in Review. Computer data bases such as Compuserve provide the latest information for people seeking even more information. Add to that newspapers, magazines and radio and it becomes clear that people in the United States have a greater opportunity to obtain information than at any point in history.

With such a wealth of available information and new information sources seemingly emerging daily, the notion of targeting specific broadcast audiences makes and journalistic sense. Indeed, the FCC has perhaps tacitly endorsed the segmentation approach by moving in the direction of what former FCC Chairman Mark Fowler has characterized as a "marketplace approach."⁸

This research may serve as a theoretical model to guide news directors in terms of presenting a news package tailored to the tastes of target segment(s). Journalists and editors enjoy considerable latitude in information selection, delivery and stylistic considerations. If they are better able to understand the perceived benefits of specific audience segments, they may be in a much better position to decide which stories to cover and how to report them.

It would of course be inappropriate to present news of multi-car collision that claimed several lives in an "entertaining" manner simply because the primary target audience is, for example, a group defined as entertainment seekers. However, it would be appropriate for news editors to decide to provide more entertaining stories since the target audience is disposed toward entertainment. It is with this point in mind that news programmers may utilize benefit segmentation as a viable alternative to mass oriented news production.

FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER I

1

Broadcasting and Cablecasting Yearbook 1987
(Washington, D.C.: Broadcasting Publications Inc., 1987),
p. C-224.

2

See for example: The Roper Organization 1981. Roper Reports, No. 5. Richard F. Carter and Bradley S. Greenberg, "Newspaper or Television: Which Do You Believe?" Journalism Quarterly, 42:29-34 (Winter 1965). Bradley S. Greenberg, "Media Use and Believability: Some Multiple Correlates," Journalism Quarterly, 43:655-70 (Winter 1966). Harvey K. Jacobson, "Mass Media Believability: A Study of Receiver Judgments," Journalism Quarterly, 46:20-28 (Spring, 1969). Burns W. Roper, "Changing Attitudes Toward Television and Other Mass Media 1959-76," (New York: Television Information Office, May 1977).

3

1934 Communications Act (47 U.S.C. Sec. 307) provides for the issuing of a broadcast license for three years if applicant demonstrates that the public would be served. The Act acknowledges that the spectrum is owned by the public. The Commission may revoke the license if it was demonstrated that the station failed to perform in the public interest, convenience and necessity.

4

Speech by Neil H. Wasserstein, Research Director for McHugh and Hoffman, Inc., Communication Consultants, at Michigan State University, East Lansing, October 1984.

5

Broadcasting Magazine, 11 August 1986, pg. 60.

6

Will Irwin, 1911, "The American Newspaper," Collier's Weekly (21 January, 1911): 15.

7

Speech by John Abel, National Association of Broadcasters, Executive Vice President for Operations. Speech entitled "Bringing in the shares: The challenge of new technology to traditional audience shares." Presented at the annual convention of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Norman, OK, 4 August 1986.

8

See for example: Mark S. Fowler and Daniel L. Brenner, "A Marketplace approach to broadcast regulation," Texas Law Review 60 (1982): 207. Mark S. Fowler, "The Public's Interest," Communications and the Law, 4 (1982): 51-58. Todd Bonder, "A 'Better' Marketplace Approach to Broadcast Regulation," Federal Communications Law Journal, 36: 1 (Summer 1984): p. 27. Eileen M. Trauth, Denise M. Trauth and John L. Huffman, "Impact of Deregulation on Marketplace Diversity in the USA," Telecommunications Policy, 7, (June 1983), pp. 111-120.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The preceding section of this paper introduced theoretical and applied linkages between the "uses and gratifications" and "segmentation" literature traditions. It suggested that benefit segmentation may provide a means of developing empirically based "uses and gratifications" oriented audience segments. This strain of thinking implies that benefit-based segmentation is in fact a logical approach to operationalizing the theoretical approach rooted in the uses and gratifications perspective.

This review will thus provide a summary critique of these two bodies of literature beginning with a critique of the "uses and gratifications literature." This will in turn be followed by a review of the marketing literature concerning "market segmentation." These critiques are intended to serve as a focused review of the literature essential to the linkage of the two perspectives.

Exhaustive reviews of the "uses and gratifications"¹ and the "market segmentation"² literature are already in print.

Media Uses and Gratifications

Prominent Typologies

Schramm (1949, p. 260) wrote that news consumption was guided by "reality motives," which have delayed rewards, or "pleasure motives," which have immediate rewards. This simple typology suggests that media usage behavior is largely driven by a search for information or entertainment. Nearly one half of a century later, Rubin (1983, pp. 48-50) concluded that two types of television viewers exist--those who use it "to relieve boredom and for entertainment" and those who use it "to seek information and to learn."

Based on the similarities of these typologies, it would appear that the uses and gratifications perspective has not made much progress during the past 50 years. However, an evaluation of several of the prominent typologies may suggest that this approach is potentially useful in terms of characterizing media audiences. The uses and gratifications literature argues in favor of a media audience with specific and identifiable goals associated with media usage. The model assumes the presence of an audience with needs and drives that are satisfied by media and non-media sources. Those which are satisfied by the media are called media gratifications.

McCombs and Becker (1979, p. 51) have summarized the media uses and gratifications approach according to the following typology. This typology illustrates the type and

range of gratifications that might be satisfied from
³
 television news viewing.

1. Surveillance of the environment rooted in a desire to keep informed on what is generally going on.
2. Use of the media to assist in making day-to-day decisions.
3. To gain information useful in personal discussions.
4. To provide media users with a feeling that they are participating in current events.
5. To provide reinforcement of views already held.
6. To provide relaxation and entertainment.

The McCombs and Becker typology is illustrative of a broad range of gratifications that might be derived from television news.

Wenner (1985), in his four-part "news gratifications map" (Figure 2.1) agrees largely with the McCombs and Becker typology but polarizes rather than lists the components. The principal axes in the Wenner (1985, p. 175) scheme are anchored by orientational (or self-referent) and social (or other-referent) poles. Orientational gratifications refer to those with the motivations associated with surveillance and curiosity. Para-orientational gratifications refer to reinforcing information which tends to be selectively perceived by the audience member. Social gratifications are derived when information useful in conversations with others is sought. And para-social gratifications are obtained

through an identification with the news product or members of the news team.

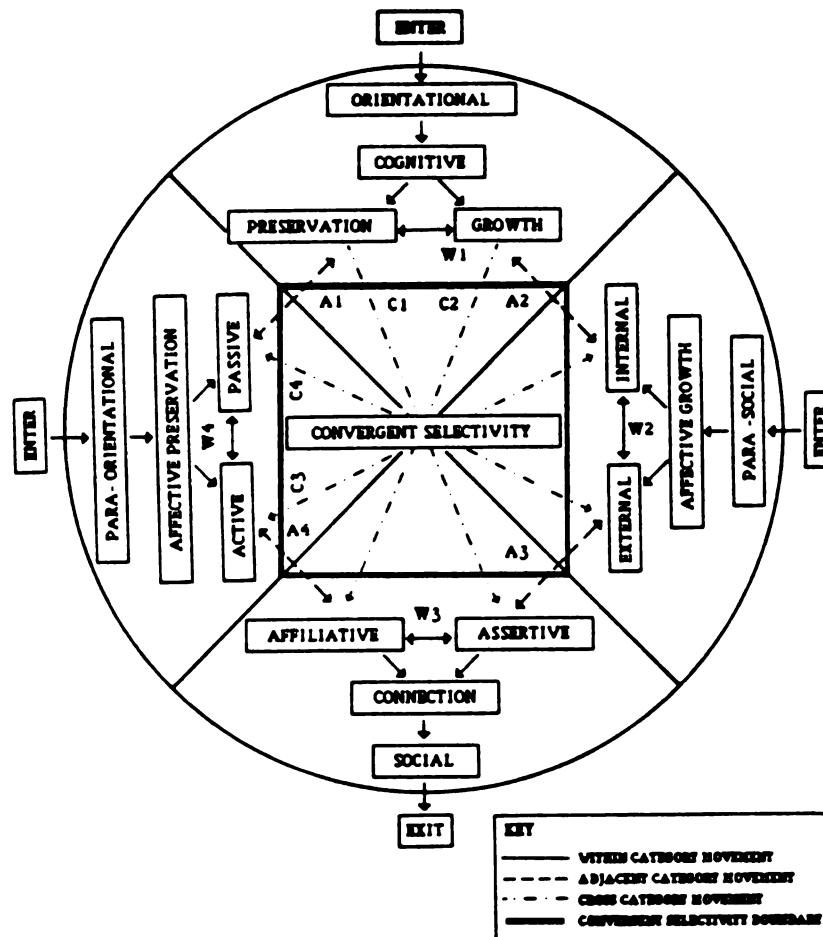


Figure 2.1. illustrates the theoretical reduction of patterns of movement among news gratifications

Blumler (1979, pp. 18-20) offers a typology echoing many of the same elements found in the Becker and McCombs typology as well as the Wenner classification map. According to the three part Blumler typology, media are consumed to satisfy three central needs:

1. Cognitive needs such as information acquisition. "Consider, for example, the viewing of TV news bulletins. In substance and presentation, they are not necessarily designed to reward only cognitive drives. The personalities of news-readers, the light-hearted sprinkling of humor and banter, and the high-lighting of conflict and drama in many news areas may all cater powerfully to other than cognitive impulses.
2. Diversion and entertainment needs. Palmgreen, Wenner and Rosengren (1985, p. 32) interpret this as media usage in which individuals are relatively uninvolved with the media but utilize it for entertainment and as a form of relaxation.
3. Personal identity and for reinforcement. McLeod and Becker (1981) explain that this broad category encompasses communications that would tend to confirm ones belief that the world [or ones community] is a good place to live. In addition, this gratification would be found when individuals seeking reinforcement during an election selectively expose themselves to content about their candidates.

All of the typologies agree that people tend to use media for information gain and to be entertained. Others such as Blumler (1979), Wenner (1985) and McCombs and Becker (1979) have offered alternatives which they argue adds precision. In any event, a common deficiency among these collective works is that they have focused primarily on the development of gratification typologies. One means of advancing the uses and gratifications perspective would be to determine whether audiences as well as gratifications can be placed into appropriate typologies.

Assumptions of the Uses and Gratifications Model

The uses and gratifications perspective is a functional approach representing a means of explaining the myriad of ways in which people use the media and other environmental resources to "satisfy their needs and to achieve their goals (Katz, Blumler, Gurevitch, 1974, p. 21)." The model⁴ includes six primary components or assumptions:

An illustrative explication of each of these assumptions will be provided in the interest of building a foundation upon which linkages between the uses and gratifications approach and benefit segmentation approaches might be constructed.

1. An Active Audience:

An assumption that the mass media audience is "active" and goal oriented (McQuail, Blumler and Brown, 1972).

The concept of an active audience is critical to an understanding of the uses and gratifications approach. This assumption is in opposition to the old "hypodermic needle" approach in which it was believed that the media establishment provides messages to an accepting and passive audience. Support for the hypodermic needle perspective has declined over the years (Dominick, 1987, p. 464). However, recent research suggests that television viewers are somewhat complacent when it comes to switching stations. Tiedge and Ksobiech (1986) for example, provide evidence

that programs with a strong lead-in show inherit a large portion of the audience from the preceding program.

But others such as Klapper (1960; 1963) and Bauer (1964) argue vehemently in favor of an active audience--an audience whose members obstinately resist media influences. Recent researchers provide convincing support favoring the active audience perspective. One such study (Heeter, D'Alessio, Greenberg and McVoy, 1983) demonstrated that cable viewers in a Florida community switched channels an average of 34 times per day--mostly on the hour or half hour. A subsequent study (Heeter, 1985) suggests that cable viewers approach the task of program selection in a variety of ways. The study concludes that "general levels of sensate and cognitive arousal needs have been linked to [the] process" associated with media choice (Heeter, 1985, p. 20).

But can these cable televisions studies which suggest the presence of a goal-oriented audience be generalized to broadcast television news audiences? Levy (1977) provides evidence that television news viewers plan their exposure to television news deliberately to satisfy specific cognitive and affective needs.

The findings supporting "audience inheritance" and "audience activity" are reconcilable on the grounds that they represent variance among people. The tendency of some audience members to carry over from one program to the next

may well suggest that choices are based simply on individual needs in certain situations--a tenet underlying the uses and gratifications approach.

2. Media Choice Based On Needs:

An assumption that the audience members choose media based largely on individual needs. This assumption stresses the belief that media in themselves have no "effect" on audiences. It is the audience that uses television rather than television that uses audiences (Schramm, Lyle and Parker, 1961).

To illustrate the functional utility of the media choice assumption in connection with uses and gratifications approach, consider a perspective advanced by Grunig (1979, p. 261):

"People use media because they enjoy them.
Little further explanation is needed."

While the Grunig perspective certainly represents a simple approach, it hardly provides clues as to the meaning of the concept of "enjoyment." Clarification of the concept of "enjoyment" is essential if one hopes to understand what components of the messages are leading people to choose to utilize media in the first place.

Generically, the term benefit may be associated with anything "contributing to an improvement in ones
5
condition." A benefit might be viewed as the factors associated with gratifications provided through media consumption. An illustrative example may provide a sense of

the range of benefits. Benefits satisfy (or gratify) a wide range of needs.

Person one (P1), for example, may chose to watch the evening news because he/she benefits from a sense of companionship (benefit 1) provided by the media. Person two (P2) may choose to view because he/she benefits from the information provided (benefit 2) by the media. Person three (P3) may chose to watch because he/she benefits from the diversionary outlet (benefit 3) provided through the entertaining banter between anchor persons. Person four (P4) benefits by receiving reinforcement (benefit 4) provided when newscasters report that the world is still intact. The uses and gratifications approach provides explanations for media usage beyond simplistic statements such as that offered by Grunig.

3. Media Competition To Satisfy Needs:

An assumption that media compete with other sources of need satisfaction.

Media compete with non-media sources and other media for viewer attention. The non-media sources range from interpersonal forms of communication to taking a drive in the country. Of greater concern here is the issue of intermedia competition.

Levy and Fink (1984, p. 26) report that videocassette (VCR) users actively alter the broadcast schedule by shifting their favorite programs into more personally

convenient time periods. The VCR penetration rate in the United States is currently in excess of 30 percent (Dominick, 1987, p. 179).

In a study on station switching in cable households, Heeter (1983) reported that when people switch to Music Television (MTV), they only stick with the program for more than 15 minutes nine percent of the time. She concludes that MTV is used more like radio--people tune in find temporary but immediate gratifications. In effect, the ritual suggests that certain audience members actively survey the available offerings and decide which is most personally valuable, useful or beneficial.

4. Research and Measurement Approaches:

An assumption that individual audience members are capable of reporting their interests in, and motives for media use, when asked to do so.

Becker (1979, pp. 54-73) has noted that researchers have employed three strategies for measuring the gratifications sought by audience members. The first involves inferring what gratifications audiences seek based on some separate but related locator (or criterion) variable such as age or gender (Kline, Miller and Morrison, 1974). A second strategy involves asking people to select from a list which media gratifications they found personally relevant (Blumler and McQuail, 1969, pp. 307-61). The third strategy involves goal-directed processing in a laboratory setting.

These three approaches (inferential, self-report and manipulation strategies) are based on the assumption that the researcher "adequately understands the relationship between positive gratifications which, presumably, lead audience members to certain media use behaviors, and negative forces, sometimes labeled avoidances, which result in nonuse of the media" (Becker, 1979).

In their study in Israel of media uses during the Yom Kippur War, Peled and Katz (1974, p. 66) employ the expectancy value approach in defining expectations of the audience as what the media should provide. The authors found "an active audience with explicit expectations of the media and an apparent ability to assess subjective utility of different kinds of content for different kinds of expectations." They reported that people used television for information, as a relief from tension and to gain a sense of "social connectedness."

Using factor analysis, Greenberg (1974) reported that children use television for six primary purposes: 1. For learning; 2. Out of habit; 3. To relax; 4. To forget; 5. For arousal; and 6. For companionship. While this study pinpoints a variety of possible media uses, it focuses specifically on children and fails to generate data on aggregates of viewers with similar viewing needs or intent. Bower (1985) has pointed out that concurrent with the aging

process is a general shift from fantasy oriented programming to reality oriented fare.

Survey research has been the mainstay of uses and gratifications research. "What has come to be known as uses and gratifications research is virtually synonymous with questionnaire surveys; or in other words, asking the consumers of media fare to explain their choices" (Zillmann, 1985, p. 225). Zillmann recommends an expansion of the use of experimental techniques to help in the development of a well rounded uses and gratifications theory.

5. Developmental Aspects Of Uses And Gratifications:

An assumption that study of audience orientations toward media usage (divorced from value judgments as to the social and cultural relevance of the media establishment) will lead to a more solid foundation upon which to build a formal "uses and gratifications" theory.

While typologies detailing media consumption can be readily assembled (McCombs and Becker, 1979; Blumler, 1979; Wenner, 1985) it seems unlikely that individuals--with their complex psychological makeup--are often motivated by a single gratification. Wenner (1985, p. 189) explains that it is more likely that "news consumption comes about because of a variety of countervailing motivations that simultaneously pull on the individual with different degrees of strength."

More than two decades ago, Stephenson (1967, p. 2) coined the term "convergent selectivity" meaning the

interaction between countervailing forces leading to information seeking behavior more than two decades ago. Yet studies have largely tended to define media gratifications in terms of lists of items rather than specifying the interaction between these gratifications. Wenner (1985) would agree with Stephenson (1967) that people must be viewed in terms of the complex of gratifications sought from the media. Indeed, the viewer of the Baseball World Series might decide to watch the sporting event equally for the following reasons:

1. Cognitive, (Surveillance): To find out which team won.
2. Diversion, (Entertainment): To pass the time.
3. Self-Identity, (Reinforcement): To reinforce the belief that one's team is the best.

The uses and gratifications approach emphasizes the message receiver rather than the message sender. But unlike message sender-oriented research in which the messages are recorded on magnetic tape or clipped from a publication and content analyzed, message receiver research inevitably must focus on the mental states of the receiver. Useful studies must tap the underlying motivations associated with media usage in an effort to explain why consumers gravitate toward certain message components while apparently avoiding others. Much of the uses and gratifications literature has focused on children or adolescents (Johnstone, 1974; Greenberg,

1974; Brown, Cramond and Wilde, 1974; Kline, Miller and Morrison, 1974). Others have keyed on age, gender and other demographic factors to describe the groups and segments under study. This research departs from these other studies in that it seeks to categorize people into expectancy value groups based on the benefits they expect to derive from local news and information.

6. Expectancy Value:

Expectancy value suggests that people expect to derive certain value from their media choices. The concept acknowledges the assumption that audience value estimations can be measured by media researchers.

The notion of expectancy value is inherent to several of the assumptions of the uses and gratifications model. The measurement approaches employed in recent studies have enhanced it.⁶ The uses and gratifications approach suggests that the active audience expects to derive specific "value" from the program. The audience member defines "value" according to his/her own criteria. This perspective endorses the proposition that people select media with the expectation that the media product will contain specific attributes and that the affect (positive or negative) will conform to the individuals preferences (Palmgreen and Rayburn II, 1985, p. 62).

The expectancy value approach may be useful in explaining why the Cable News Network (CNN) now has "a substantial following when heretofore no programmer would

have dared broadcast 24-hour news" (Palmgreen and Rayburn II, 1985, p. 71). It seems plausible that news consumers sample CNN in a fashion similar in nature to that of MTV viewers--brief doses for surveillance and and to receive other sought after gratifications. Whether one finds "value" in the form of cognitive benefits such as surveillance or diversionary benefits such as a search for entertainment--the fact that a premium is placed upon the program is an essential element of the expectancy value assumption.

The typologies provided earlier by McCombs and Becker (1979), Wenner (1985) and Blumler (1979) nicely summarize the categories inherent to the uses and gratifications approach. And Becker (1979) has offered a cogent critique of the most common measurement models. However, these approaches fail to address the notion of forming audience segments. To provide a foundation upon which to build, a body of marketing literature focusing specifically on market segmentation will now be critiqued.

Market Segmentation

The Segmentation Model

This review is concerned with the demographic and cognitive bases used to describe consumers in terms of purchase behavior. The term "consumer" means "household

consumer" or the end user of the product (Robertson, Zielinski & Ward, 1984). As the name implies "consumer behavior" seeks to explain how and why consumers behave as they do in terms of a particular product. The study of consumer behavior is often associated with predicting how consumers will respond to a product and whether the response will lead to product purchasing.

"Segmentation" refers to a division of the mass market into more homogeneous sub-categories. "Segmentation criteria" or "bases" are typically demographically or cognitively oriented. For Barnett (1969, p. 152), market segmentation has been defined as "the notion that the consumer group comprising a market for a product is composed of subgroups, each of which has specific and different needs or wants. Typically, members of each subgroup are identified by one or more 'people' characteristics" such as demographic, sociographic, or personality variables.

Smith (1956) is typically viewed as the starting point when evaluating market segmentation strategies. In his seminal work, Smith (1956, p. 8) argued that success in planning marketing activities requires precise utilization of both "product differentiation" and "market segmentation" principles as components of marketing strategy. An explanation of the concept of the "product" may help illuminate this discussion.

The Product Concept

Rachman and Romano (1980, p. 639) explain that a product may be viewed as "a good, service or idea offered for exchange that embodies 'benefits' customers seek." Products contain combinations of dimensions including the core product, the augmented product and the symbolic product.

Rachman and Romano (1980. pp. 246-247) define the core product as the bundle "of tangible and intangible features offered in the marketplace." The augmented product may be viewed as the "values added to a product by packaging, advertising, the reputation of the manufacturer, financing and delivery arrangements, or other benefits offered to the consumer by the seller." The symbolic product is the "psychological feeling about a product that influences a consumer purchase." Hence, the total product is this "complex bundle of of tangible and intangible features which satisfy consumer wants and needs."

Also of prime concern is the concept of product markets. Sissors has defined the product market as the individuals who in the past have consumed a given class of products (Sissors, 1966. p. 17). An assumption underlying the concept of the product market is that individuals who will consume a product in the future are similar to those who have consumed it in the past. Hence, a cigarette manufacturer would probably be most interested in testing a

new cigarette on smokers (the smokers market) rather than on non-smokers.

The link between a "product" and the "market" is clear--individuals who drive tend to comprise the market for automobiles or the "automobile market." Individuals (within a geographic region) who view local television news tend to make up the "local news market." Wilkie (1971, p. 317) views "market segmentation as a two stage process of (1) dividing the mass market for a given product class into meaningful consumer subgroups and (2) creating specific marketing mixes for one or more of these subgroups."

Barnett (1969, p. 153) explains that "product segmentation" operates from the assumption that "people differentiate among the various brands in a market according to their perception of the brands' real or imagined characteristics; they choose brands whose characteristics they prefer. Brands tend to vary widely in their perceived characteristics, but tend to be relatively stable (unlike and individual consumer's preference). Consequently, each brand occupies a unique 'niche' in the market, and together the brands present a usable "market structure."

Like any product, television news can be viewed in terms of the core product, the augmented product and the symbolic product--although the dividing line between these concepts can be somewhat hazy. Davis and Robinson (1986, p. 179) report that the television news product contains a

mixture of "contrasting or even conflicting news stories. Newscasters frequently juxtapose reports on the actions of world leaders alongside human interest features that highlight dramatic incidents in the lives of average persons." This conceptualization suggests that the "core television news product" is comprised of a series of news stories designed to inform the public.

The values added or the augmented product might include the selection of an anchor (packaging), advertising appeals indicating that specific attributes will be provided or the general reputation of the news department. These additional benefits inherent to the augmented product may overlap to some extent with the core product. The symbolic product in terms of local television news might best be illustrated in terms of the distinction between commercial and public broadcasting. Many of the programs on PBS seem geared to the most literate in society by providing fare geared to the arts and sciences. Commercial programming appears to appeal primarily to individuals seeking immediate gratifications associated with entertainment.

The total news product is thus a complex bundle of information, entertainment, reinforcement, production values, reputations, personalities and the like. Individuals with differing preferences would be expected to gravitate toward the television news product containing all or many of the most important perceived "benefits." Nimmo

and Combs (1981, p. 289) report that the three major television networks took very different tacts in their reporting of the nuclear accident at Three Mile Island. The American Broadcasting Company (ABC) was highly "sensational," the Columbia Broadcasting Company (CBS) was "reassuring and informative" and the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) was "didactic."

It is unclear whether the broadcast networks consciously manipulated the news product in the interest of attracting audience segments disposed toward specific benefits associated with the style of presentation. However, it would seem that consciously or not not, news managers may habitually adjust messages contained within the news product to suit the (expected) requirements of the news consumer. News editors are gatekeepers and shapers of information. They supply that which they deem useful, important, interesting or beneficial.

Scholarly journals, for example, contain product characteristics most salient to a specialized population subgroup--professors and scholars. The afternoon newspaper contains product benefits which would probably appeal to a more general audience. For Haley (1968), these salient characteristics are "benefits." The key to product segmentation thus centers on the specification of salient characteristics of the product as specified by consumers of the product.

"In his classic work, Smith (1956) wrote that market segmentation is essentially a merchandising strategy . . . representing the adjustment of market offerings to consumer or user requirements." Since the 1950's, market research firms have studied an array of segmentation strategies. A critique of these strategies will now be provided.

Demographics and Personality Bases

The segmentation model requires the specification of bases which describe the various segments. Many studies have employed demographic data such as gender, age and race as predictors of purchase behavior. These data are readily available from media and governmental sources and are easy to use in terms of delineating audiences (Plummer, 1974). For this reason, they are provocative as criterion (or independent.) variables (Wells, 1974).

But conventional demographic indicators tend to be poor predictors of purchase behavior (the ultimate dependent variable). In his study of chain restaurants, Boote (1981, p. 31) reported no difference based on gender, age or race. The proportion preferring either of two restaurant chains did not vary based on any of the demographic factors employed. This general finding is supported by a variety of other researchers (Anderson, 1971; Bieda and Kassarian, 1969; Peters, 1970) suggesting that demographics are less than ideal for use as a segmentation base.

A variety of researchers have also investigated demographic factors associated with socioeconomic status as a possible segmentation criterion. Income is the characteristic that has been considered the most useful in this regard. Myers, Stanton and Haug (1971) have argued that income is a stronger predictor of behavior than social class. Slocum and Mathews (1970) have reported that it is preferable to other variables such as occupation or social class. But Wasson (1969) has argued that income is highly questionable as a useful variable. Frank and Massey (1963) were unable to discriminate between adopters of Folger's coffee and other consumers on the basis of economic variables.

Social class has historically been treated as a composite variable comprised of income, occupation and education (Bieda and Kassarian, 1969, p. 249). This variable was successfully linked to shopping patterns--both amount of shopping and type of store frequented--in a study by Rich and Jain (1968). But this variable may simply reflect the ability of people to participate in purchasing at different levels.

Personality factors have been tested as segmentation bases. Bennett and Kassarian (1972) define personality as a consistent pattern in a person's responses to the world in coping with internal and external environments. But researchers have had most success in using personality as an

intervening variable to explain differences between other segments such as demographic bases or usage rate segments (Weisenberger, 1977). Wilkie (1970) argues that personality should be used as a descriptor [of the person] rather than a predictor of purchase behavior. Other studies suggest that personality variables fail to have much utility in the segmentation process (Evans, 1959; Koponen, 1960).

Cognitive Approaches

Scholars and academicians then began moving in the direction of cognitive bases largely resulting from a lack of any real success with demographic or personality variables. Twedt (1964) introduced a segmentation strategy that has been called the "heavy half" theory. This approach suggests that it is common for one half of the consumers in any product category to account for 80 percent of all sales. Marketers should therefore concentrate on the half that would be expected to purchase the product most while placing less emphasis on the half that is likely to account for only 20 percent of the sales. But the concept of the heavy user of a product fails to get at the causal root of consumption. Twedt has failed to identify heavy users by any other characteristic, leaving a tautology that "a heavy user is a heavy user" (Twedt, 1964).

Lifestyle and psychographics have been used as a segmentation base since the 1960s. Lifestyle may be viewed

as a composite variable that results from factors such as culture, values, activities, opinions and interests which embody "the patterns that develop and emerge from the dynamics of living in society" (Lazer, 1963, p. 140). The most widely used measures of lifestyle are activity, interest and opinion (AIO) rating statements (Plummer, 1974).

Related to lifestyle measures are "psychographics." This term refers to a broad range of general psychological and personality variables. Lifestyle research is different in that it focuses expressly on attitude, interest, opinion and activity measures (Hustad and Pessemier, 1974). Wells (1974, p. v) has attempted to differentiate between the two concepts by characterizing psychographics as "the development of psychological profiles of consumers" and lifestyles as "the distinctive modes of living of a whole society or any of its segments." Despite these distinctions, considerable overlap between the concepts appears to exist.

Tigert, Lathrope and Bleeg (1971) discriminated between users and non-users of fast food outlets using AIO (lifestyle) measures. Plummer (1974) successfully used AIO's to distinguish between "convenience" and "installment" credit card users. But as with other bases, lifestyle measures have had their problems. Weisenberger (1977) failed to find any significant correlation between the use

of convenience goods and AIO's in a study conducted in Indiana. He used soft drinks, breakfast cereals, bath soaps and pain relievers in his study. Each product was then categorized according to attribute. Bath soaps for example, were categorized as deodorant, beauty or general/family use. An exhaustive analysis of the data failed to yield results suggesting that any segment would be more prone to purchase a specific product than any other segment.

Arndt (1974, p. 25) has concluded "the search for identifiable sufficiently strong correlates of purchase behavior has mainly turned out to be a wild goose chase." But Arndt argues that segmentation strategies may be extremely useful if more emphasis is placed on finding useful predictor variables rather than simply searching for more powerful statistical tools.

The Benefit Segmentation Approach

If demographics, psychographics and lifestyle variables are relatively weak predictors of purchase behavior--then other predictor variables must be evaluated. Benefit segmentation has been used for nearly three decades and has been characterized as "a pragmatic and managerially useful technique that has successfully withstood the test of time" (Green, Krieger and Schaffer, 1985, p. 9).

Benefit segmentation has never been used to categorize television news audiences. The strategy involves an

attempt to group consumers by the benefits they expect to derive from a particular product. It is an extension of the marketing literature focusing on perceived risks and benefits associated with consumer purchase patterns. Domzal and Kernan (1983, p. 47) have suggested that the notion of the mass audience for television needs correction. Benefit segmentation offers promise as a means of developing audience segments based on perceived benefits associated with local television news.

Russell I. Haley, a marketing professor and consultant, suggests that most segmentation bases have failed because they rely on descriptive rather than causal factors for purchase behavior. He believes that psychographic measures which attempt to probe causal factors have failed because they are difficult to use. These problems led Haley (1968) to develop a more easily employable segmentation criteria which he termed "benefit segmentation." Rather than identifying buyers based on demographic, personality, lifestyle similarity and the like, Haley suggests that causal factors be used based on the belief that buyers are differentiated according to the benefits they seek. Several researchers including Hustad and Pessemier (1974), Wiseman (1971) and Appel (1970) have endorsed the notion of benefit segmentation.

Haley began working in the area of "benefit segmentation" in 1961 for Proctor and Gamble. His work has

focused on positioning consumer products in the marketplace in a manner which will attract specific consumer segments expecting to derive common benefits from the purchase of an item. As such, benefit segmentation is an attempt to group people according to their needs and uses, and the gratifications they expect to derive from the information rather than by demographics or other descriptive bases.

Haley (1985, p. 24) has argued that consumers benefit from advertising messages if they "inform, entertain and provide emotional reinforcement." These benefits in large part echo the fundamental premises upon which the uses and gratifications perspective rests (Blumler, 1979; Blumler and Katz, 1974). Benefits associated with news viewing key on the acquisition of information useful in social interaction, a means of relaxation, a system of monitoring the local community and public officials, a method of developing a sense of community involvement, among a host of other reasons. Indeed, the benefit segmentation approach may provide a systematic means of quantitatively assessing the communication perspective characterized in the "uses and gratifications" literature.

The term benefit is typically associated with an improvement in one's condition. Haley (1985, p. 26) suggests that the benefits associated with advertising messages may typically be categorized according to the following typology:

1. Cognitive benefits. Logical and rational benefits such as durability, low price and product performance.
2. Sensory benefits. How attractive the taste, feel, smell, appearance, and/or sound of the product is.
3. Emotional benefits. How you feel when you buy, use or simply own the product. Reinforcement of self-image through user images is the key in this class.
4. Affiliative benefits. Intangibles such as the reputation of the company offering the product or service, liking their style, admiring their advertising.

The key to the benefit segmentation approach concerns assumptions that (1) clusters of people are attracted to specific factor(s) and that (2) these factors are are useful in interpreting the perceived benefits associated with product. The uses and gratifications approach (Blumler 1979) suggests that all media gratifications can be reduced to diversion, cognitive and personal identity (or reinforcement). Indeed, these gratifications echo the precise language used by Haley in the typology above.

The Richardson-Haley (Haley, 1985, p. 27) model of communication processes posits an active audience in which recipients of messages are active participants in the communication process. An active audience is of course a fundamental assumption underlying the uses and gratification approach.

Haley (1985, p. 25) has argued that "selective processing" has important implications for advertisers. He has noted that people process messages based on a conscious assessment of the relative benefits to be derived from the message or product. This assumption suggests that every message, whether or not the advertiser wishes it, selects its own audience, ranging in membership from zero to viewing by the entire audience market. Indeed, this concept is apparent in the uses and gratifications literature under the rubric of media choice, audience activity and expectancy value. Additional parallels between the uses and gratifications and benefit segmentation approaches will be provided in Chapter III.

Classic benefit segmentation studies first identify the benefits that people expect to derive from a particular product.⁸ Haley used the toothpaste market to identify the key factors associated with toothpaste purchasing. The primary factors uncovered were:

1. personal oriented concerns such as flavor and appearance;
2. socially oriented concerns such as teeth brightness;
3. health oriented concerns such as prevention of tooth decay; and
4. price oriented concerns.

In a study on cranberry sauce, Haley (1985), reported that people can be categorized into four segments comprised of:⁹

1. convenience oriented consumers;
2. enthusiastic cooks;
3. disinterested consumers;
4. decorators.

Benefit factors may, of course, overlap between segments. The benefit segmentation approach simply highlights the primary motivation (or combination of motivations) that prompt specific groups of people to utilize the product.

Benefit segmentation differs from most segmentation strategies since it does not rely on general characteristics such as socio-economic status or demographics as predictor variables. General characteristics are defined as those which are "independent of the product under investigation" (Frank, Massey and Wind, 1972, p 117). This violation of an assumption underlying the segmentation model has prompted some to challenge the benefit segmentation technique.

Benefit segmentation has come under attack similar to that of the heavy half theory advanced by Twedt. Both are assumed to be demographically, psychographically and otherwise heterogeneous. This has led Plummer (1974) to suggest that benefit segmentation may be useful as a basis for multi-brand development but it is incapable of describing the consumer as a person.

Haley (1971) has responded that benefit segmentation is

not intended for placing advertisements in the media but rather as a means of determining how the advertisements should be written. In other words, benefit segmentation focuses largely on how the messages (be they newscasts or advertisements) should be prepared such that they are processable by the desired audience segment.

In terms of news viewing, benefit segmentation offers the opportunity to sort individuals according to the most important benefits of the news product. One might suspect that virtually every news viewer would utilize television news for surveillance purposes to a greater or lesser extent. One group may be highly disposed toward active surveillance while another group is somewhat less surveillance oriented. Benefit segmentation offers the prospect of charting these waters in the interest of moving the uses and gratifications literature toward "convergent selectivity" as envisioned by Stephenson (1967) more than two decades ago. And it offers the prospect of specifying "population densities" as advocated more recently by Wenner (1985).

Hence, this research seeks to bridge a theoretical and methodological chasm that has existed for two decades.

FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER II

1

See for example: K. E. Rosengren, L. A. Wenner and P. Palmgreen, eds., Media Gratifications Research: Current Perspectives (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1985). Communication Research, Vol 6 No. 1 (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1979). J. G. Blumler and Elihu Katz, [eds.], The Use of Mass Communications: Current Perspectives on Gratifications Research (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1974).

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See for example: D. W. Scotton and R. L. Zallocco, [eds.], Readings in Market Segmentation (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1980). R. E. Frank, W. F. Massy and Y. Wind, Market Segmentation (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972).

3

This typology tends to be somewhat less generic than the typologies offered by scholars such as Blumler (1979), Schramm (1949) and "news gratifications map" offered by Wenner (1985). McCombs and Becker (1979) have attempted to provide operational examples of news gratifications. In so doing, the typology tends to expand the Blumler framework by further dividing the categories. The question of which typology is appropriate should be determined by the researcher. However, it should be noted that these are not competing typologies, but rather complementary depictions for behavior associated with media gratifications.

4

E. Katz, J. G. Blumler and M. Gurevitch, "Utilization of Mass Communication by the Individual," in J. G. Blumler and E. Katz [eds.], The Uses of Mass Communication: Current Perspectives on Gratifications Research (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1974) p. 21. The assumption relating to "expectancy value" is not expressly addressed in this piece of literature. However, the assumption is implicit to each of the uses and gratifications typologies.

5

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, College Edition, (The New World Publishing Company: Cleveland, 1968): p. 138. Haley conceptualized benefits as factors associated with product usage. Cranberry sauce benefits would be decoration, flavor, etc. News benefits would be gratifications such as information acquisition and entertainment.

6

P. Palmgreen and J. D. Rayburn II, "An expectancy-value approach to media gratifications," in K. E. Rosengren, L. A. Wenner and Philip Palmgreen, [eds.], Media Gratifications Research: Current Perspectives (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1985) pp. 61-72. Tolman (1932) wrote that men tend to behave in certain ways based on expected outcomes. Hence, a benefit in this case would refer to an improvement in one's condition as a result of purposive behavior.

7

Interview with Russell I. Haley, Professor of Marketing at the University of New Hampshire and President of Russ Haley and Associates, Inc., a market research firm. Interview April 1987.

8

See for example: Russell I. Haley, "Benefit segmentation: A decision-oriented research tool," Journal of Marketing, 32 (July, 1968), pp. 30-35. Russell I. Haley, "Beyond Benefit Segmentation," Journal of Advertising Research, 11 (August 1971), pp. 3-8. Russell I. Haley, "Benefit Segments: Backwards and Forwards," Journal of Advertising Research, 24 (February/March 1984) pp. 19-25. Russell I. Haley and Philip J. Weingarden, "Running Reliable Attitude Segmentation Studies," Journal of Advertising Research, 25 (December 1986-January 1987), pp. 51-55.

9

Russell I. Haley, Developing Effective Communications Strategy: A Benefit Segmentation Approach, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1985), pp. 441-499. This work summarizes the current state of benefit segmentation. It is the first comprehensive work focusing specifically on the benefit segmentation approach.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESES

Demographic and Personality Segmentation Bases

The marketing literature reports that demographic bases associated with gender, age, income, occupation, social class and the like are relatively weak predictors of consumer purchase behavior patterns for most products (Arndt, 1974; Frank and Greenberg, 1980; Frank, Massey & Wind, 1972). Others report that demographics actually decreased the efficiency of the media-product match.¹ Certain studies also suggest that personality is a poor predictor of purchase behavior and that it is somewhat difficult to use as a predictor variable (Evans, 1959; Koponen, 1960).

Researchers have investigated social class as a variable associated with purchase behavior. One problem with social class as a predictor is that it can sometimes serve as a proxy variable for others associated with the "ability to consume" a product. For example, intent to view television news may well lead to successful execution of the act by all social classes. By contrast, intent by a poor person to amass wealth in order to buy a Rolls Royce will

not necessarily be followed by an effective execution of the intent. Hence social class may actually represent one's economic condition rather than the social class with which one is associated.

Furthermore, members of certain social classes may also feel compelled to keep abreast of the news because they believe they are expected to do so by their peers. Under this scenario, social class may actually be a proxy variable for the true variable rooted in the "perceived risk" of being caught unaware by peers. Social class therefore, appears to have numerous caveats and would be less than ideal as a predictor variable.

Cognitive Bases

A variety of researchers (Plummer, 1974; Tigert, Lathrope and Bleeg, 1971) argue that cognitive bases such as lifestyle and psychographics hold somewhat more promise. Many believe these measures designed to tap social status, attitudes and an assortment of psychological and social attitudinal variables might offer theoretical explanations not possible with descriptive measures such as demographics (Pessemier & Tigert, 1966; Plummer, 1974; Villani and Lehmann 1975; Wells, 1972). However, these bases have been quite erratic. Weisenberger (1977) formed lifestyle segments but found few "significant differences in manifest

[purchase] behavior." He used inexpensive household items in his study. Weisenberger reports that "for these low involvement, brand-dominated product categories, general life style characteristics may not offer enough discrimination between segments" (Weisenberger, 1977, p. 119).

Many researchers (Krugman, 1966; Grass and Wallace, 1974) argue that television is a "low involvement product." Unlike newspapers in which the consumer must exert energy to utilize the product, television is aimed at passive viewers. Epstein provides (1973) an analysis of the techniques used to increase viewer involvement with the television news product:²

"To maintain the interest of the audience, happenings involving visual conflict are routinely selected over less violent ones, and the ones involving recognizable figures of authority are selected over less identifiable images."

Broadcast news managers apparently presume that the viewer's involvement with news might be enhanced by providing subjects in motion rather than more static news footage (Epstein, 1973, p. 263). This suggests that they believe that this is a primary benefit associated with viewer involvement.

One fundamental aspect of product involvement concerns the "perceived risks" associated with purchasing a product. But television news consumers do not "purchase" news in the classic sense. Viewing television news is a nearly free

activity. The primary cost to the consumer is the investment of time. Hence, the risk associated with product usage would be considered quite low for most people.

In marketing parlance then, television news might best be characterized as a "low involvement\low risk product." Television news often is garnished with conflict and action to enhance its appeal. This suggests that news managers believe that the news product must provide emotion and arousing elements before the public will chose to watch it. Some television newsrooms have gone so far as to adopt the slogan--"if it bleeds, it leads."³ Indeed, "tabloid styled" newscasts stressing crime, sex and accidents would lead one to conclude that some broadcasters expect to enhance involvement through the presentation of shocking stories. Hence, psychographics and lifestyle measures which have tended to be useful in high involvement/high risk situations would seemingly be less than ideal for use as a segmentation base for local television news.

Benefit Segmentation

Influenced by Freud (1934), Schramm saw news consumption as guided by either "reality motives," which have delayed rewards, or "pleasure motives," which have immediate rewards.⁴ But as Schramm also noted, news seeking gratifications are a combination of the countervailing forces--people are not drawn exclusively by one or the

other. Wenner has observed that "even with the apparent neatness of his construct, Schramm had begun the opening of an extremely messy can of worms" (Wenner, 1985, p. 171).

Benefit segmentation may be useful for editors and journalists seeking to organize Schramm's "messy can of worms" into orderly audience segments. While benefit-based segmentation is presumed to be demographically nondescriptive, it offers the potential of grouping audience members in terms of abstract generic segments such as "reality oriented" or "pleasure seeking" news users. This may in turn lead to a system whereby journalists and editors with particular expertise may provide news and information to specific and identifiable target market segments.

Consider the overlap between the uses and gratifications typology suggested by Blumler (1979), and the benefit typology provided by Haley (1985). Both scholars acknowledge the presence of the "cognitive" component associated with information gain and decision making. Haley describes "emotional benefits" which he characterizes as "reinforcement of self-image." Blumler uses the synonym of "personal identity" to describe information that is "reinforcing" to the individual. Haley describes "sensory" which would represent a "diversionary" component.

Using the Becker and McCombs typology, "surveillance" and "decision-making" would be "cognitive benefits." Certain people recognize that they will derive tangible

benefits by keeping an eye on local issues such as proposed tax increases and the like. As such, television news consumption in this instance is a logical and rational act driven by an active consumer in search of specific gratifications.

Numerous other linkages can also be found. But Palmgreen, Wenner and Rosengren (1985, p. 34) recommend that researchers should move away from simply drawing up lists of gratifications. Researchers are challenged to use the foundation available in the typologies to build a more formal uses and gratifications theory. Implicit to this statement is the notion that these gratification typologies vary according to factors such as the subject pool from which the data is drawn, medium under examination and general social attitudinal changes over time. In response to this challenge, benefit segmentation is offered as a means of advancing the uses and gratifications perspective through the developing and typing audience segments based on media gratifications.

Indeed, this approach follows recommendations of several of the most prominent advocates of the uses and gratifications approach. Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch (1974, p. 24) for example, have often explained that mass media studies suffer from the absence of a relevant "theory of social and psychological needs. It is not so much a catalogue of needs that is missing as a clustering of groups

of needs, a sorting out of different levels of need, and a specification of hypotheses linking particular needs with particular media gratifications." ⁵ Wenner (1985) concurs with Stephenson (1967) that these needs and desires should be studied in terms of combinations of the items contained in the uses and gratifications literature.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses address this issue. The first four hypotheses deal with the similarities and differences among people in terms of the benefits they expect to derive from television news. These hypotheses are intended to demonstrate that specific factors associated with television use and nonuse can be identified. And that people can be sorted into segments based on these factors.

The first hypothesis suggests that people--with their psychological complexities--are very different in terms of the gratifications they seek from television news.

Specifically:

H1: Different people expect to derive different benefits from television news and information.

This hypotheses addresses the proposition that local television news programs have heretofore failed to acknowledge differences among audience members. Houlberg (1984, p. 423) notes that local and national news managers

believe that people select their news programs largely on the appeal of the news anchor. Epstein (1973) suggests that news managers believe that people want motion and activity in their television news. In response to these criticisms, the hypothesis asserts that programming for the mass audience may be wrong--especially in view of the emerging program distribution options and those which are now available.

This hypothesis also suggests that a better understanding of the news audience will provide evidence that cognitive desires by audience members are not in fact shared across all audience members. The personality of a news anchor may be important to some, but not for all. In the extreme case, the personality of the news anchor may be the only benefit sought by one audience segment while another segment might seek every benefit except factors associated with anchor personality factors.

The marketing theory behind benefit segmentation rejects the notion of the mass audience. It posits a means of dividing the audience into relatively homogeneous benefit seekers. The first hypothesis lays the foundation for those that follow. It is a statement arguing in favor of individual uniqueness among audience members. It is in opposition to the "hypodermic needle" approach which assumes the audience will blithely accept whatever the media choose to provide.

Furthermore, the uses and gratifications perspective and the benefit segmentation approach in tandem posit audiences in which people actively participate in the television news viewing act. They suggest that viewing behavior is based on conscious decisions made in the course of searching for specific benefits or gratifications. The benefit segmentation approach is in harmony with the expectancy value perspective in which people expect to derive tangible benefits stemming from certain purposive behavior (Palmgreen and Rayburn II, 1985; Tolman, 1932). For example, if a person values "information about current issues and events" and the affect is positive, then he or she will be motivated to seek such information from television news--if television news is perceived as a medium capable of satisfying the gratification (Palmgreen, Wenner and Rosengren, 1985, p. 22).

However, the first hypothesis should not be construed as a suggestion that television news is incapable of satisfying large groups of consumers. To say that no two people are alike in their psychological composition is much like saying that no two snowflakes are alike--an interesting point, but a point of little inherent utility unto itself. While each person may be viewed as a unique segment unto him or her self, certain people are similar enough to be satisfied by one television news program.

Hypotheses two and three address this point. These two hypotheses are related and continue to build on the first. The second hypothesis suggests that benefits are sufficient as delineators of segment membership.

Specifically:

H2: Different perceived benefits are sufficient criteria for the task of defining specific audience segments.

The third hypothesis is related to the second in that it states that people are sufficiently homogeneous within the segments.

Specifically:

H3: People within these benefit based segments are relatively homogeneous with respect to the benefits they expect to derive from television news.

These hypotheses suggest that benefit segmentation is useful in defining groups of people seeking similar benefits inherent to the product--in this case television news. Hence, benefit segmentation is posited as a means of operationalizing media uses and gratifications in the expectancy value tradition.

These methodological hypotheses are statements arguing that factors associated with television news usage are sufficiently powerful as definers of audience segments. Support for these hypotheses will be provided if people can be segmented based on the factors they find important in their search for television news. In other words, failure

to generate segments would suggest that benefit factors are incapable of serving as delimiters of segments.

However, one may argue that this hypothesis is not falsifiable. People can be sorted on virtually any set of variables ranging from age to psychographics to the type of car they drive. Computers perform the tasks demanded by their masters--when ordered to "cluster"--cluster they will.

Homogeneity refers to a search for specific and common identifiable news benefits among audience members. The uses and gratifications literature suggests that the benefits might be rooted in factors associated with surveillance, self-identity and diversion. After the segments are developed, an analysis of variance will be performed. The specifics of this procedure will be outlined in shortly, however, this technique is commonly employed to demonstrate within and between group differences (Nie, Hull Jenkins, Steinbrenner and Bent, 1975).

On their face, the first three hypotheses seem simple. However, they lay the groundwork for the integration of the benefit segmentation and the uses and gratifications approaches. Specifically, they argue that people are active in their media choice behavior and are cognizant of the elements associated with television. Further, these hypotheses suggest that benefit segmentation is an appropriate means of advancing the uses and gratifications perspective. And collectively, they posit a new method of

viewing the audience in terms of segments rather than as a "mass."

The fourth hypothesis suggests that the benefit-based segments will be demographically heterogeneous. For example, a "surveillance-oriented" segment in which significant differences based on income, gender and the like could not be found, would provide a basis for viewing demographics as predictor variables with a margin of skepticism.

Specifically:

H4: A benefit-based approach to clustering audiences according to their television news viewing preferences will produce demographically heterogeneous segments.

The hypothesis suggests that demographics are often proxy variables. While convenient, they are incapable of offering much guidance in terms of segmenting a television news audience (Boote, 1981). To test this, a discriminant analysis will be performed on the benefit-based segments. Where appropriate, cross-tabulations and chi-square tests will also be performed. Details on these techniques will be provided shortly.

Hypotheses five and six challenge the conventional wisdom associated with programming for the mass audience by suggesting specific benefits that may segment audiences. These hypotheses suggest that certain segments may be alienated by current news programming practices that tend to

cater to the entertainment and diversionary oriented news viewers. Specifically, certain segments may be motivated primarily by "cognitive" or "reality motives."

These final two hypotheses focus specifically on the factors pertaining to the entertainment and cognitive aspects of television news. Epstein (1973) notes that networks tend to present information in terms of action and conflict. Motion is also a key ingredient in the packaging of television news. This would suggest that broadcasters believe that many of the same factors leading people to tune in entertainment programs will lead people to watch television news. Police and dramatic programs typically include motion, action and conflict. These same ingredients are often stressed by news executives.

Recall that Schramm (1949) suggested that news consumption is guided by either reality or pleasure motives. The behavior of the networks tends to suggest that network executives believe that audiences are largely "diversion" or "entertainment" oriented, and that entertaining news will appeal to the greatest number of viewers. The following hypothesis calls this assumption into question.

Specifically:

H5: Benefits other than entertainment may serve as dominant benefits for various audience segments.

Consider that the relative marketing value of a particular segment may vary from market to market. In New York or Los Angeles, a segment of approximately five percent of the audience might represent more than one million viewers--a segment large enough to support specialized programming. In Lansing, MI, a broadcaster might need 20 percent of the audience to make programming profitable. Hence, it may make sense to target a small slice of a large market while somewhat illogical to target the same proportion in a smaller market.

A specific group (or groups) might be drawn toward news provided in an entertaining fashion, while, another group (or groups) might be repelled it. Thus, hypothesis five suggests that programmers may be wise to explore the benefit composition of various segments prior to programming for the mass audience. And that programmers may be wise to consider approaches other than appealing to the entertainment appetite of audience segments (Rubin, 1983). Hence, the final hypothesis suggests that at least one segment might be characterized by a search for primarily cognitive (surveillance) gratifications rather than entertainment (diversion-oriented) fare.

Specifically:

H6: Cognitive motivations associated with news gratifications predominate for at least one of the segments developed.

Support for this hypothesis will be provided if at least one segment is mostly cognitive (surveillance oriented) and the segment exceeds five percent of the total audience. In segmentation studies, segments with fewer than five percent of the market are usually considered unimportant (Haley, 1987).

FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER 3

1

H. Assael and H. Cannon. "Do demographics help in media selection?" Journal of Advertising 19:6 (December, 1979) p. 7. Assael and Cannon argue in favor of the use of "brand usage criteria in the selection of media without the use of demographics as intervening variables." These authors generally endorse the benefit segmentation approach in that it tends to be more direct than searching for useful demographic predictors.

2

E. J. Epstein. News From Nowhere, (New York: Random House, 1973), p. 265. This often cited work, although dated, provides an analysis of the manner in which production schedules and demands interface with basic editorial judgment. As a companion work, readers are directed to: Herbert J. Gans, Deciding What's News, (New York: Pantheon Books, 1979). This work expands upon the problems encountered in producing television news but contrasts the broadcast news industry with the magazine industry.

3

See for example: J. R. Dominick. The Dynamics of Mass Communication 2nd Edition, (New York: Random House, 1987), p. 336. R. Powers. The Newscasters (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1978). D. Nimmo and J. E. Combs. Nightly Horrors: Crisis Coverage in Television Network News (Knoxville: Univ. of Tennessee Press, 1985). The television news consulting firm of McHugh and Hoffman, Inc., based in Fairfax, Va., has coined the term infotainment. This term suggests that a successful newscast should attempt to provide information in an entertaining fashion. This tends to support the proposition that news managers believe that information must be embellished to be accepted by the public.

4

See for example: L. A. Wenner. "The nature of news gratifications," in K. E. Rosengren, L. A. Wenner and Philip Palmgreen, eds., Media Gratifications Research: Current Perspectives (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1985) p 171. Wilbur Schramm, "The Nature of News," Journalism Quarterly 26: pp. 259-269. Alan M. Rubin, "Television Uses and Gratifications: The Interactions of Viewing Patterns and Motivations," Journal of Broadcasting, 27:1 (Winter 1983) pp. 37-51. Closely related are the typologies by Schramm and Rubin. The Wenner typology also includes the same two primary components.

5

E. Katz, J. G. Blumler and M. Gurevitch. "Utilization of mass communication by the individual," in J. G. Blumler and E. Katz, eds., The Uses of Mass Communications: Current Perspectives on Gratifications Research (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1974) p. 24.

The uses and gratifications approach has been accused of stagnation since it has moved forward at a relatively slow rate. Perhaps this is largely a function of the inability of researchers to employ new and emerging measurement techniques. While factor analysis and clustering routines have been employed for quite some time, communication researchers have only recently begun to understand the implications. Wenner is probably correct in his assertion that the uses and gratifications approach will gain structure when researchers move beyond forming lists of gratifications and toward developing audience typologies.

6

Interview with Russell I. Haley, Professor of Marketing at the University of New Hampshire and President of Russ Haley and Associates, Inc., a market research firm. Interview April 1987.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Critique Of Segmentation Methodologies

Cross-sectional and longitudinal segmentation studies are the most common approaches to market segmentation. The vast majority of studies however fit into the cross-sectional category. The principle features of this design are the following (Frank, Massey & Wind, 1972, p. 117):

1. A household or an individual is the basic unit of analysis.
2. The analysis is cross-sectional. Inferences about the relationships under investigation are made by comparing household variation in behavior over the same fixed interval of time rather than by looking at changes in household behavior over time.
3. The desirability of a given segmentation base (i.e. benefits or demographics) is judged by relating that base to consumption behavior (viewing intent or preference) for the product (newscast) under study.
4. The most common bases are socioeconomic, demographic, psychographic and attitudinal measures. The common denominator of the customer characteristics used in virtually all of the research is that they are general characteristics of either an individual or a household. General characteristics are defined as those which are independent of the product under investigation to situation-specific measures.

Longitudinal segmentation studies typically employ time series as well as cross-sectional measures. The principal features are the following (Frank, Massey & Wind, 1972, p. 119):

1. The unit of analysis is a time period, such as a week or a month.
2. The analysis is longitudinal in nature (that is, inferences are made about the relationships under investigation by comparing variations in market share or sales from week to week to variations in one or more components of a firm's marketing program).
3. The population of customers is assumed to be heterogeneous in terms of their responses to the firm's marketing program (that is, separate response estimates are made for each market segment under consideration).
4. The only household descriptors used as a basis for defining segment membership in the few studies of this type to date are either demographic, socioeconomic or product-consumption characteristics.

Cost and time considerations have prevented widespread use of the longitudinal design. This approach is utilized primarily to evaluate the relative growth in a segment resulting from a particular marketing strategy such as an advertising campaign. Longitudinal approaches are viewed as a useful method of measuring the response by consumers to marketing strategies.

This research is not intended to market a newscast but rather to test a methodology aimed at determining whether empirical segments may be identified using the benefit segmentation method. And to determine whether these

segments may be related to the uses and gratifications literature. As such, the cross-sectional research design appropriately fits the goals of the research.

Demographic data and items associated with perceived benefits were collected. While it has already been noted that demographics have historically been weak predictors of purchase choice (media selection behavior), they have never been tested in tandem with benefit segmentation strategies in evaluating news programming. A second reason for their inclusion concerns the prominent role demographics play in audience research. Since demographics are widely used by the largest audience research agencies (A.C. Nielson, Arbitron and Simmons), their inclusion was deemed¹ essential.

Research Design and Instrument Development

Initial Phase: Item Pool Development

The research design selected for this study was a one-shot survey. The ultimate dependent variable in virtually all applied segmentation studies is purchase behavior, purchase intent or goods consumption. In the context of news audiences, the dependent variable is typically media attention, information acquisition, or intent to view the news based on perceived preference factors associated with the television newscast. The independent or predictor variable in segmentation studies is often a base such as

demographics, psychographics and the like. Since these bases have been limited in their usefulness as predictor variables for television audiences (Frank and Greenberg, 1980), benefit based segmentation will be tested in this research. Perceived benefits associated with television news gratifications will serve as the independent variables.

Haley (1985) warns that extensive exploratory work is critical in the development of workable segmentation bases and the eventual development of a useful measurement instrument. This portion of the research represents the qualitative identification of local news benefits. Uncovering the range of benefits that people expect to derive from television news was viewed as one of the most critical aspects of the project since an ignored factor could potentially invalidate the results. A battery of verbatim statements from television news viewers concerning the perceived benefits associated with television news needed to be collected.

Focus group or guided interviews were rejected as a means of generating an item pool of television news viewing benefits. While this approach provides an opportunity for rich articulation of respondent views and attitudes, it is not without pitfalls. Fern (1982) explains that individual interviews tended to generate more ideas than focus groups. But Moser and Kalton (1972, p. 299) warn that guided interviews require significant experience and skill. Since

the interviewer is free to spend discretionary amounts of time on particular topics, reliability questions stemming from interviewer bias may legitimately be raised. In this instance, the researcher may well have had strong preconceptions about television news due to his years as a television news reporter and editor. As a result, a more formal interviewing technique seemed essential to fit the goals of the research.

McKennell (1974, p. 254) recommends the use of formal telephone interviews as an economical means of generating an item pool from a fairly heterogeneous sample. The telephone interviews were intended to generate a series of a statements about television news. The questionnaire that was used represented stimulus questions rooted in the uses and gratifications tradition along with questions probing other perceived benefits associated with television news. These additional questions were aimed at tapping the concepts not included in the uses and gratifications literature (See Appendix A).

A suitable sample for this qualitative preliminary work² was about 20 individuals. The researcher may also consider stopping at the point at which the items become highly redundant (Haley, 1985, pp. 177-182). Telephone numbers were selected using systematic sampling techniques. The procedure assured that each individual in the telephone directory had an³ equal chance of being contacted.

Subjects were asked to provide open-ended statements about television news. The questionnaire sought to identify elements of the news that people found especially salient. The 12 minute interviews succeeded in generating 112 non-redundant items. The items generally reflected many often cited components of the media uses and gratifications tradition (such as surveillance and diversion) but many suggested that other factors such as production values and newscaster personality traits are relatively important conceptual domains for local news viewers.

Intermediate Phase: Task Force Survey

Many of the statements differed primarily in their phrasing. In the interest of reducing the item repertoire to a more manageable size, Haley recommends using a task force survey (Haley, 1985, pp. 182-183). This procedure involves asking a panel of "expert judges" to vote for the phrases he or she believes are most important for inclusion in the final questionnaire.

Items with similar themes were grouped together and six⁴ judges were asked to vote for items in each grouping. They were limited in selecting no more than one statement for every three items. If a grouping contained six statements, the judge selected up to two items, if the grouping included nine items, as many as three were selected, and so on. The judges were told they they could select fewer items than the maximum for the group. They were asked to select only items

that were clear, unambiguous and easy to comprehend (See Appendix B).

Final Phase: Questionnaire Development

Votes for the items were then tallied. Items with three or more votes (affirmative votes by half of the judges) were included on the final questionnaire. Those with fewer than three votes were discarded. The final instrument utilized in data collection included 50 television news attitude items. In addition, eight demographic items and two media usage frequency scales were included (See Appendix C).

The next step involved deciding upon a scale that was both precise and simple to understand. Moser and Kalton (1972, pg. 359) note that if the scale is divided too finely "the respondents will be unable to place themselves, and if too coarsely, the scale will not differentiate adequately between them." These authors report that five or seven point scales are the norm (Moser and Kalton, 1972, p. 359).

The survey instrument adopted for this project was a five-point Likert (Moser and Kalton, 1974, p. 362) rating scale ranging from (1) "strongly agree" to (5) "strongly disagree." A neutral midpoint (3) "neither agree nor disagree" was also included to prevent forcing ambivalent individuals into making a choice on a given answer. A pretest to assess clarity and time needed for completion was

conducted at the Frandor shopping mall in Lansing. The results suggested that the average respondent would complete the questionnaire within a span of six to eight minutes and its language was clear and easy to understand.

Data Collection Considerations

Sample Proximity and Size

Segmentation and uses and gratifications studies normally employ survey data. This project conforms to this data collection tradition. Many of the published segmentation studies were of a commercial nature--expense was apparently not a problem. This may explain why Haley for example, recommends personal interviews from a nationwide probability sample. While such an approach may be beneficial, feasible and desirable in certain commercial settings, it is excessive for this exploratory research endeavor. The object at this point was to determine whether local news markets can be broken into audience segments. Thus the research goals dictate that a local (rather than national) sample be employed.

Sudman (1976) suggests that the sample should be as large as possible. While this is good advice, it provides little concrete guidance in determining precisely how large the sample should be. Sudman (1976) recommends scouring the literature to develop a sense for acceptable sample sizes.

Haley describes several studies in which he used a sample of 1000 or more individuals. But the luxury of sample of 1000 was beyond the practical limitations of this research project. Comrey (1973, p. 200) reports that sample sizes of 50 are very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good and 1000 as excellent for factor analysis. A sample exceeding 500 was ultimately used. For reasons to be explained later, the working sample was reduced to 254--a figure well within the "fair to good" range.

Data Collection Techniques

Mail, telephone and personal interviews comprise the repertoire of most commonly used data collection techniques. Mail surveys can be costly and can yield mixed return rates which may in turn lead to a nonresponse bias (Simon and Burnstein, 1985). One variable affecting the response rate is the ease with which the instrument may be completed. While the pretest demonstrated that it took only several minutes to complete the 62 item questionnaire, the eight page instrument had a somewhat imposing appearance. A mail survey was thus ruled out for this reason.

Telephone interviewing overcomes many of the difficulties associated with mail nonresponse bias (Landon and Banks, 1978). But the problem with the telephone interview again centers on the length of the questionnaire. The survey instrument must be kept brief to avoid respondent

fatigue leading to interview termination. A pretest of the instrument over the telephone suggested that it might take as long as 20 minutes to complete.

A fundamental advantage of the in home personal interview over the preceding techniques is that it can be somewhat longer without running the risk of respondent fatigue (Simon and Burnstein, 1985). In addition, personal interviews are better at collecting sensitive information and in generating more in-depth responses than telephone interviews (Bush and Hair, 1985). However, the cost of personal (in-home) interviews can exceed \$75 each (Simon and Burnstein 1985).

Bush and Hair (1985) report that the shopping mall intercept approach is the fastest growing data collection method currently in use by marketers. This technique contains many attractive elements of the personal interview approach at a fraction of the cost. The approach involves positioning oneself in a shopping mall and inviting passers-by to participate in the study.

In a study pitting a telephone survey against personal interviews conducted in a shopping mall, Bush and Hair (1985) concluded that the overall quality of data from the mall intercept approach appears to be equivalent to that of telephone interviewing. Both methods are nearly equivalent concerning information omission rates. However, the mall intercept method provided the opportunity for more in-depth

questioning. Bush and Hair (1985) also conclude that people feel more anonymous in a mall setting, than when contacted in their homes, and are therefore more willing to be forthright in their answers.

While the mall intercept approach has attractive features such as economy, an ability to generate a large sample relatively quickly vis-a-vis in-home interviews and the high probability of receiving respondent cooperation the technique is far from flawless (Mayer, 1974). The primary deficiency is that the mall intercept procedures fail to generate a random sample. This may in turn lead to certain biases. For example, frequenters of malls may be different than those who shop elsewhere. People with little expendable income may also be under represented in the sample derived. And the physical location of the mall may define the geographic boundaries that are sampled.

Gates and Solomon (1982, p. 48) report that consumers on shopping trips are often busy with personal chores. They report that interviews in the 15 to 20 minute range might be a nuisance; those in the 45-60 minute range "intolerable." But while they agree that the technique is economical and efficient they warn that questions on the reliability and validity of the data collected in the mall remain unanswered.

With these caveats in mind, recall that the intent of this research is to introduce a methodology that will aid in differentiating consumers of television news according to

the benefits they expect to derive from the newscast. The intent was not to generalize to the local populace but rather to introduce a theoretical approach and test a companion methodology. As such, the mall intercept method was suitable for the goals of this research project.

Data Collection

Shopping Mall Characteristics

The management firms of the Meridian Mall in Meridian Township, MI (the east-central region of the Lansing market) and the Lansing Mall in Delta Township, MI (the west-central region) agreed to cooperate. They provided centrally situated locations with tables and chairs for data collection purposes. Meridian Mall is located in a largely white collar community near Michigan State University in East Lansing, MI. Lansing Mall is situated closer to the center of the City of Lansing and is near several automotive assembly plants.

Solicitation of Respondents

The grand sample (N=508) was collected during a four day period in late January and early February of 1987. An effort was made to exclude individuals under the age of 18, however, quotas were not used. To obtain the sample, tables were set up at a high traffic areas of the mall in areas frequently utilized for market research projects. The

precise position of the collection area was assigned by the management firms of the two malls. A sign near the table identified the project as academic research and posed the question:

"What Do You Think About Local Television News?"

Surveyors approached people in the mall and asked the following screening question:

"Good afternoon. We are conducting a study to find out what people think about local television news. Do you watch local television news?"

In the case of a negative response, the person was thanked and told that the study was designed to find out what news viewers think about television news. It seemed that non-viewers would have little to contribute in a study of this nature. In the case of an affirmative response, the individual was invited to participate in the study.

Individuals agreeing to participate were seated at a table and told to read the instruction sheet. They were advised to signal an interviewer if a question should arise. Upon completion, the questionnaire was collected and the individual was given a "Michigan State University Viewbook" in appreciation for their cooperation. The questionnaires were numbered consecutively starting with one and running through 508. They were numbered each evening after they were returned from the shopping mall.

Statistical Techniques Employed

Six hypotheses were stated in the preceding chapter of this report. Evidence intended to provide support for these hypotheses was generated through utilization of the benefit segmentation model. This model specifies the performance of factor analyses and the subsequent clustering of respondents on the factors. This was followed by the performance of an analysis of variance of the factors. A discriminant analysis was also performed to determine whether the benefit segments were demographically homogenous. Finally, cross tabulations and chi-square tests were performed on the demographic variables to assess statistical significance.

A brief description of the statistical techniques employed will now be offered. A more elaborate treatment of these techniques will be provided in Chapter 5 of this dissertation.

1. Factor Analysis:

This techniques provides the opportunity to identify the fundamental underlying dimensions (presumably, factors rooted in the uses and gratifications approach) or other criteria utilized by people in the television news selection process.

2. Cluster Analysis:

This analytical technique mathematically provides for the assignment of like-minded respondents to specific groups. Cluster analysis is utilized to sort individuals into discrete and mutually exclusive categories based on a particular set of criteria.

3. Analysis of Variance:

A means of assessing the between-cluster to within-cluster variability is to compute a one-way analysis of variance for each of the variables and examine the ratio of the between-cluster to within-cluster mean squares. Large F-scores and small observed significance levels are associated with variables that differ within cluster. Hence, the ANOVA table will suggest which factors are most useful in differentiating between segments.

4. Discriminant analysis:

Discriminant analysis statistically distinguishes between two or more groups of cases. It can provide an analysis of which variables are most useful in terms of discriminating between groups. Discriminant analysis provides the opportunity to "look inside" the segments to define the composition. It will be utilized to whether or not demographics are useful as predictor variables in relation to the benefit segments.

5. Cross tabulations and the chi-square statistic:

These techniques provide the opportunity to demonstrate statistically significant or non-significant differences between groups.

The first four hypotheses suggest: (1) that people seek different benefits from television news; (2) that different benefits are sufficient criteria for defining audience segments; (3) people within these benefit segments are homogeneous; and (4) that benefit segmentation will produce demographically heterogeneous segments.

Factor analysis was employed to provide a typology of gratifications (operationalized as benefit factors) related specifically to television news. Cluster analysis was utilized to sort people according to benefits of common

importance. Analysis of variance was utilized to determine the relative importance of the benefit factors. And discriminant analysis was employed to determine whether the demographic variables are related to the benefit factors. The chi-square statistic was used to determine whether demographic differences are statistically significant.

The final two hypotheses suggest that; (5) entertainment is not the prime motivation for certain people, and; (6) that at least one segment is cognitively (surveillance) driven in terms of television news gratifications. Support for these hypotheses will be provided if the data suggests that a predominately oriented "surveillance segment(s)" exceeds five percent of the sample.

FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER IV

1

A.C. Nielson Inc. and the Arbitron Ratings Company continuously measure audience "rating" and "share." Rating refers to the estimated percent of television households, or persons within households, tuned to a particular station for five minutes or more during an average quarter-hour of the reported time period for the area of dominant influence (ADI). Share refers to the percentage of the total households using television and persons viewing television reached by a station during a specified time. For more details and clarification on other terms associated with audience measurement, the reader is directed to "Standard Definitions of Broadcast Research Terms," published by the National Association of Broadcasters, 1771 N Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

The Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc. collects a wide range of demographic, product and media usage data. This data is often used to predict consumer behavior concerning specific products and anticipated usage patterns.

2

Interview with Russell I. Haley, Professor of Marketing at the University of New Hampshire and President of Russ Haley and Associates, Inc., a market research firm. Interview April 1987.

3

See for example: S. Sudman. Applied Sampling, (New York: Academic Press, 1976), pp. 52-65.

The specific procedure followed incorporated recommendations made by Sudman (1976). The approach was as follows:

A set of cards numbered one through ten were shuffled. Card number one was randomly selected indicating that page one would serve as the starting point.

A set of four cards were then shuffled. Card four was randomly selected indicating that column four in the telephone book would be utilized at regular intervals.

Forty-one cards were then shuffled to correspond with equal intervals in the telephone directory columns. Each number represented one quarter of an inch. Card number nineteen was selected.

Finally, four cards were shuffled to finalize the interval between place number nineteen and twenty on the column. A line was then drawn on the ruler at that point.

It was decided that in instances in which the mark on the ruler fell upon a non-residential listing, the next available number would be selected. In instances in which the entire column was composed of government or business telephone numbers, it was skipped entirely.

A telephone number was then selected from every odd page (beginning with page one) in the Lansing area telephone directory and recorded on a list. These numbers were then recorded on cards which were shuffled. The shuffled cards were then reordered according to the order in which they were selected. The final shuffling procedure assured that different geographic areas would be represented in the sample since the directory was divided according to locale.

4

Three assistant professors of journalism, two mass media doctoral students and an instructor of advertising (all students or faculty members at Michigan State University) participated in the task force. The participants were selected based on their academic and professional credentials as media scholars, as former media practitioners or both. The advertising instructor was included because of his marketing background and his familiarity with the task force technique. The author would like to express his gratitude to Tony Atwater, Carter Broach, John Clogston, Bill Cote, Steve Lacy and Angela Powers for their participation in this portion of the research project.

5

Lawrence Rosen, State Demographer for Michigan provided statistics from the 1980 census. The median annual household income for Delta Township was \$26,132 and was \$20,889 for Meridian Township. The median family income for Delta Township was \$30,011 while the median income in Meridian Township was \$27,990. Rosen characterized Meridian Township as "more upscale" attributing the income differences to the student population in Meridian Township. The average value of a home in Meridian Township was \$66,100 while the average value of a home in Delta Township was \$61,600. Interview conducted on 10 July 1987.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH RESULTS

Benefit Factor Identification and Scale Validation

As noted in Chapter IV, the items included from the survey questionnaire were generated through randomly selected telephone interviews. They appeared to reflect many of the gratifications outlined in the uses and gratifications literature thereby providing a measure of "face validity" (Nunnally, 1978, p. 111). However, Nunnally (1978, p. 91) stresses the importance of content validity--the adequacy with which a specific content domain is sampled.

Nunnally reports that factor analysis can be useful in determining whether items are useful in terms of the content they are presumed to measure (Nunnally, 1978, p. 112). Tabachnick and Fidell (1983) agree with Nunnally that factor analysis is appropriate in suggesting that particular theoretical constructs have been tapped. However, they note that the technique has developed somewhat of a "tarnished reputation" since some researchers have used factor analysis to "save" sloppy research programs. In effect, Tabachnick and Fidell suggest that the subjectivity associated with

labelling factors can lead to the creation of "apparent order from real chaos" (1983, p. 373). Researchers employing factor analysis are cautioned to make certain that they uncover "real" versus "chance" factors.¹

Split-half procedures were used in tandem with alpha reliability tests of to assess internal reliability. Reflecting sample halves in tandem with high reliability estimates should provide support for the proposition that specific factors are indeed present, and that the factors are not the result of simple chance (Nunnally, 1978, p 233; Carmines and Zeller, 1979, p. 41).

Gorsuch uses the term "factorial invariance" to characterize a stable factor structure--one which is reproducible. He notes that the concept of invariance is generally operationalized by simply stating that "two factor patterns are the same" (Gorsuch, 1974, pg. 298). If each half mirrors the other, it can be said that the scales are tapping the same underlying factors and are valid. Minor differences are assumed to be chance fluctuations around the population values. He notes that major differences should raise questions about analytic techniques or scale items included.²

To assess validity of the scales included in the final questionnaire and to test for factorial invariance, the entire sample (N=508) was divided in half. The questionnaires were numbered sequentially after they were

returned from the malls with the first half coming from the Lansing Mall and the second half coming from the Meridian Mall. To test for invariance, odd numbered questionnaires were designated as "Sample 1" and even numbered questionnaires were designated as "Sample 2" in accordance with conventional procedures recommended by Nunnally (1978, p. 233). Splitting on an odd/even basis balanced the two subsamples by geographic and time factors.³

An initial principal axis analysis with varimax rotation was conducted on Sample 1 in an effort to draw out the factors or dimensions associated with television news (See Table 1). Nunnally pointed out that rotation usually will serve to separate the "wheat from the chaff" in the sense of building up the "real" factors and rotating spurious factors to the vanishing point (Nunnally, pg. 423).

An analysis of the 50 initial items resulted in a structure containing eight factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (See Tables 5.1 and 5.2). The number of factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 is an estimate of the maximum number of true factors (Nunnally, pg. 422). A value of 1.0 is the generally accepted level for retention of a factor since those with eigenvalues below the 1.0 level would be considered nearly meaningless (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1983, p. 406; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Grablovsky, 1979, p. 231). Table 5.1 suggests the presence of eight factors with eigenvalues above 1.0.

TABLE 5.1: Factors & Variance Resulting From Sample 1
(Varimax Rotation)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance	Cumulative
1 Production	7.88	26.8%	26.8%
2 Credibility	4.46	15.2	42.1
3 Sports	3.15	10.7	52.8
4 Reinforcement	2.45	8.3	61.1
5 Weather	1.84	6.3	67.4
6 Environment Sur.	1.76	6.0	73.4
7 Government Sur.	1.48	5.0	78.4
8 Other Sur.	1.25	4.3	82.7

9 Factor	.99	3.4	86.1
10 Factor	.86	2.9	89.0
11 Factor	.78	2.7	91.7
12 Factor	.73	2.5	94.2
13 Factor	.63	2.1	96.3
14 Factor	.59	2.0	98.4
15 Factor	.48	1.6	100.0

Table 5.1 illustrates the results of a factor analysis that was conducted on Sample 1 (N=254) with all 50 scale items. Using 1.0 as the cutoff point for factor structure, the analysis yielded the eight factors above. These eight factors contained 35 items. Factors nine through 15 contained the remaining 15 items. They were left unlabelled because the loadings of the items on the factors were low making them unintelligible.

The eight factors (with eigenvalues above 1.0) accounted for 82.7 percent of the shared variance (See Appendix D for a listing of the items falling into factors one through eight). The fifteen items making up the remaining factors (those with low eigenvalues) were eliminated. This left 35 of the original scale items.

It was decided that weakly loading items and items loading on more than one factor should be eliminated. The term "factor loading" refers to the "multiple correlation of the variable on the factor" (Nunnally, pg. 425). Comrey

(1973, p. 200) and Tabachnick and Fidell (1983, p. 411) propose that loadings above .71 (50 percent variance) are excellent, .63 (40 percent) very good, .55 (30 percent) good, .45 (20 percent) fair, and .32 (10 percent of variance) poor. To separate out the strongest items, .60 was set as the cutoff criteria. This represents a score between "good and very good" on the Comrey scale. All items with factor loadings which fell below .60 were deleted (See Table 5.2).

Since the object was to find simple structure--the loading of each variable on as few factors as possible--it seemed appropriate to eliminate ambivalent items. Gorsuch (1974, pp. 186-194) characterizes loadings above .30 as "salient" meaning that the loading is sufficiently high to assume that a relationship exists between the variable and the factor.

As a result, items loading at .60 on one factor and also loading at above .30 on another factor were also deleted. This procedure left 27 of the original items to describe the eight factors. The procedure also assured that the minimum difference between loadings was never less than .30. While no set rule of thumb exists, other studies have used far less rigorous standards--even as low as .50 and .40 or a spread of only .10 (Cronen and Price, 1974).

At this point, the initial factor analysis was complete. The next step involved submitting both halves of the total sample

TABLE 5.2: Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

<u>1. Production/Timeliness</u>								
1 Live News	<u>.75</u>	.10	.07	.12	.02	.02	.14	.14
2 Catch up	<u>.72</u>	.09	.10	.16	.10	.14	-.02	-.01
3 See it	<u>.66</u>	.17	.08	.03	-.02	.29	.05	-.08
4 First	<u>.62</u>	.00	-.02	.18	.03	-.00	.12	.05
5 Casual	<u>.60</u>	-.13	.05	.22	.02	-.05	-.10	.08
6 {Personal}	.56	.10	.07	.19	.17	-.11	.05	.02
7 {Personality}	.56	.18	.10	.12	.02	.14	-.10	-.04
8 {Recency}	.45	.19	.08	-.01	.01	-.05	.01	.00
<u>2. Credibility/Professionalism</u>								
9 Newscast	.06	<u>.84</u>	-.00	-.05	-.03	.05	-.02	-.04
10 Amateur	.01	<u>.77</u>	-.03	-.01	-.04	.01	-.10	-.09
11 Jokes	.00	<u>.74</u>	-.15	-.07	-.04	.01	.11	-.02
12 Newscaster	.23	<u>.64</u>	-.01	-.05	-.01	.08	.20	.01
13 Pronunciation	.18	<u>.60</u>	-.05	-.05	-.01	-.03	.11	-.01
14 {Likability}	.35	.42	.20	.05	.06	-.00	-.10	-.03
15 {Credibility}	.40	.51	.05	.03	.01	.04	.03	.07
<u>3. Sports/Entertainment</u>								
16 Sports	.02	-.03	<u>.89</u>	.14	.08	-.01	.05	-.03
17 Athletes	.08	-.09	<u>.81</u>	.26	.02	.04	.05	-.05
18 Spts/Enter.	.03	.05	<u>.80</u>	.13	.01	.01	-.05	-.01
19 Scores	.07	.03	<u>.76</u>	-.04	.09	.02	.01	.10
20 High School	.16	-.17	<u>.68</u>	.25	-.06	.13	.02	.08
<u>4. Reinforcing News</u>								
21 Human Int.	.11	-.04	.15	<u>.85</u>	-.01	.04	-.03	.00
22 People	.12	-.10	.19	<u>.82</u>	.07	.06	.00	-.01
23 Samaritans	.24	-.03	.16	<u>.75</u>	.04	.08	.02	.04
24 Family	.22	-.14	.22	<u>.70</u>	.04	.06	.05	.16
25 {Good News}	.17	.06	.08	.55	.05	.03	-.04	.11
<u>5. Weather</u>								
26 Plan for Wex.	.06	-.02	.06	-.03	<u>.76</u>	.18	.04	.03
27 Forecast	.06	-.08	.00	.08	<u>.97</u>	.16	-.07	.06
<u>6. Environmental Surveillance</u>								
28 Job Market	.09	.04	.07	.01	.15	<u>.67</u>	.29	.19
29 Environment	-.05	.13	-.06	.07	.16	<u>.63</u>	.16	.13
<u>7. Government Surveillance</u>								
30 Local Gov.	.08	.00	.07	-.05	-.08	.11	<u>.69</u>	.03
31 Governor	.01	.14	.02	-.06	-.02	.06	<u>.69</u>	.14
32 {State Gov.}	.02	.03	-.05	.09	.07	.04	.53	.04
<u>8. Other Surveillance</u>								
33 Child Abuse	-.02	-.02	-.05	.13	-.04	.06	-.06	<u>.60</u>
34 Farming	.06	-.11	-.07	.11	.04	.05	.15	<u>.68</u>
35 {Auto Ind}	.04	.02	.20	.05	.11	.13	.09	.55

Table 5.2 illustrates the results of the initial factor analysis. Eight factors with eigenvalues above 1.0 were identified and labelled. Bracketed items were also deleted from further analysis because they loaded weakly on the factors. The criteria used was that an item must load on a factor at the .60 level and can not have a score in excess of .30 on any other factor.

to a second or confirmatory factor analysis to determine whether the basic factor structure would reappear on independent samples and might therefore be characterized as invariant.

Factor Invariance and Identification

Tables 5.3 through 5.6 demonstrate the presence of five invariant factors (Gorsuch, 1974, p. 298). The five factors found in both samples were (1) sports, (2) credibility, (3) reinforcement, (4) production and (5) weather. These were also the five most important factors (those accounting for the greatest amount of variance) in the initial factor analysis (Table 5.2).

It should first be noted that the tables presented previously (Tables 5.1 and 5.2) do not precisely match the results of Tables 5.3 and 5.4 even though the same sample of respondents was employed. This is because the removal of 23 items resulted in the creation of a somewhat different correlation matrix upon which the results were based. Since ambivalent and irrelevant items were removed, the variance accounted for naturally changed. In other words, the variance accounted for was spread out over fewer factors leading to different results. However, the same basic factor structure was replicated to the extent that none of the items shifted about between factors. And the most important factors replicated.

TABLE 5.3: Factors & Variance Resulting From Sample 1 (27 ITEMS)

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Sports	<u>5.21</u>	31.1%	31.1%
2 Credibility	<u>3.24</u>	19.4	50.5
3 Reinforcement	<u>2.29</u>	13.7	64.2
4 Production	<u>1.87</u>	11.1	75.3
5 Weather	<u>1.32</u>	8.2	83.5
6 Gov & Comm Sur.	<u>1.29</u>	7.7	91.3
7 News Profess.	<u>.57</u>	4.3	96.3
8 Other Sur.	<u>.50</u>	3.7	100.0

TABLE 5.4: Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix--Sample 1

1. <u>SPORTS</u>								
Sports	<u>.89</u>	-.06	.13	.01	.05	.05	-.02	-.06
Spts/Enter.	<u>.81</u>	-.08	.27	.07	.03	.04	-.01	-.03
Scores	<u>.80</u>	.03	.13	.04	-.02	-.04	.04	-.08
Athletes	<u>.74</u>	.03	-.01	.08	.11	.04	-.02	.09
High School	<u>.68</u>	-.17	.23	.16	-.06	.03	.10	.02
2. <u>CREDIBILITY</u>								
News cast	.02	<u>.81</u>	-.07	-.00	-.00	-.04	.06	-.05
Amateur	-.01	<u>.77</u>	-.05	-.01	-.07	-.18	.06	-.11
Jokes	-.14	<u>.74</u>	-.10	-.02	-.04	.09	-.02	-.01
News caster *	-.01	<u>.67</u>	.01	.20	.00	.19	.09	-.01
Pronounce *	-.05	<u>.63</u>	-.02	.14	.01	.15	-.01	.01
3. <u>REINFORCEMENT</u>								
Human Int.	.15	-.04	<u>.89</u>	.13	-.02	-.06	.00	.08
People	.20	-.08	<u>.84</u>	.15	.08	-.05	-.02	.10
Samaritans	.16	-.01	<u>.76</u>	.29	.02	.02	.11	-.00
Family	.24	-.14	<u>.62</u>	.23	.03	.03	.09	.14
4. <u>PRODUCTION</u>								
Live News	.09	.13	.09	<u>.76</u>	.02	.17	-.03	.16
See it	.18	.12	.14	<u>.76</u>	.11	-.03	.09	-.00
First	-.02	.02	.19	<u>.66</u>	.02	.11	-.06	.03
Catch up	.09	.20	.06	<u>.63</u>	.02	.08	.25	-.07
Casual *	.08	-.09	.23	<u>.55</u>	.01	-.11	-.03	.07
5. <u>WEATHER</u>								
Forecast	.02	-.09	.08	.08	<u>.97</u>	-.10	.13	.05
Plan Weather	.08	-.02	-.00	.07	<u>.78</u>	.01	.18	.01
6. <u>GOVERNMENT SURVEILLANCE</u>								
Governor	.01	.14	-.02	-.01	.01	<u>.79</u>	.06	.08
Local Gov.	.06	.02	-.03	.10	-.06	<u>.61</u>	.09	.02

7. <u>COMMUNITY SURVEILLANCE</u>								
Job Market *	.08	.02	.04	.12	.14	.05	<u>.81</u>	.08
Environment*	-.04	.14	.09	-.03	.21	.16	<u>.57</u>	.18
8. <u>OTHER SURVEILLANCE</u>								
Child Abuse	-.00	-.03	.11	.03	-.01	-.04	.09	<u>.81</u>
Farming	-.04	-.10	.10	.11	.06	.15	.11	<u>.48</u>

Tables 5.3 and 5.4 illustrate the manner in which items loaded on various factors for Sample 1 (N=254).

(* = items that loaded differently between samples 1 and 2)

TABLE 5.5--Factors & Variance Resulting From Sample 2 (27 ITEMS)

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Sports	<u>3.91</u>	29.3%	31.1%
2 Reinforcement	<u>2.82</u>	21.1	50.4
3 Credibility	<u>2.02</u>	15.1	65.5
4 Weather	<u>1.40</u>	10.4	75.9
5 Production	<u>1.19</u>	8.9	84.8
6 Gov & Comm Sur.	.96	7.2	92.0
7 News Profess.	.57	4.3	96.3
8 Other Sur.	.50	3.7	100.0

TABLE 5.6--Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix--Sample 2

<u>1. SPORTS</u>								
Sports	<u>.81</u>	-.06	.01	.03	-.13	-.01	-.04	-.03
Spts/Enter.	<u>.81</u>	-.12	.04	-.04	.01	-.14	.05	-.11
Scores	<u>.83</u>	.01	-.07	.17	.13	.03	-.06	-.04
Athletes	<u>.78</u>	.16	-.00	-.02	.16	-.01	.06	.02
High School	<u>.62</u>	.25	-.01	.00	.00	.05	-.13	.11
<u>2. CREDIBILITY</u>								
News cast	.10	-.01	<u>.92</u>	-.04	-.11	-.03	.07	-.02
Amateur	-.04	-.05	<u>.69</u>	.04	-.18	-.01	.19	-.12
Jokes	-.08	-.21	<u>.60</u>	.02	-.08	.09	.23	.06
<u>3. REINFORCEMENT</u>								
Human Int.	-.01	<u>.68</u>	-.04	.17	.14	.07	-.06	.02
People Story	.12	<u>.77</u>	.03	.02	.00	.10	-.13	-.01
Samaritans	-.02	<u>.70</u>	-.09	-.02	.09	.05	.11	.09
Family	.05	<u>.52</u>	-.06	.06	.13	-.07	-.07	.37
<u>4. PRODUCTION</u>								
Live News	.11	.17	-.18	-.03	<u>.59</u>	.04	-.08	-.03
See it	.08	.11	-.15	.16	<u>.60</u>	.04	-.06	-.01
First	.00	-.05	.12	.04	<u>.43</u>	-.10	-.00	.19
Catch up	.09	.12	-.12	.03	<u>.55</u>	.06	.02	.06
Casual *	.01	.35	-.22	.07	<u>.23</u>	-.13	-.04	-.06
<u>5. WEATHER</u>								
Forecast	.05	.11	-.01	<u>.94</u>	.07	.00	.00	.06
Plan Wex	.03	.10	.03	<u>.75</u>	.11	.04	-.05	.12

<u>6. GOVERNMENT & COMMUNITY SURVEILLANCE</u>								
Governor	-.10	-.01	.02	.01	-.03	<u>.74</u>	-.00	-.21
Local Gov	.05	.09	.15	-.03	.14	<u>.57</u>	-.17	.05
Environ. *	-.04	.03	-.08	.07	-.08	<u>.41</u>	.10	.30
<u>7. NEWSCASTER PROFESSIONALISM</u>								
Job Market*	.08	.02	.04	.12	.14	.05	<u>.81</u>	.08
Newscaster*	-.04	.05	.25	.06	.03	.02	<u>.45</u>	-.00
Pronounce *	-.05	-.11	.18	-.05	-.12	-.04	<u>.55</u>	-.04
<u>8. OTHER SURVEILLANCE</u>								
Child Abuse	-.05	.12	-.03	.09	.16	.12	-.08	<u>.53</u>
Farming	-.04	-.10	.10	.11	.06	.15	.11	<u>.25</u>

Tables 5.5 and 5.6 illustrate the manner in which items loaded on various factors for Sample 2 (N=254).

(* = items that loaded differently between samples 1 and 2)

Elimination of these items apparently reduced the amount of random "noise." Table 5.3 suggests that the first six factors (those with eigenvalues above 1.0) accounts for 91.3 percent of the variance. By contrast, Table 5.1 suggests that the first eight factors accounts for only 82.7 percent of the variance.

Turning now to the two halves, the factors did to some extent shift in their locations between samples one and two. Specifically, credibility and reinforcement shifted between the number two and number three positions while production values and weather shifted between the number four and number five positions (See Tables 5.3 and 5.5). However, a factor never shifted more than one position, indicating relative stability of the overall structure.

Sample 1 did produce a sixth factor (Government Surveillance) that did not appear (at the 1.0 eigenvalue level) in Sample 2 although it did appear as a weak factor (.96 eigenvalue) in the second sample. The difference in the eigenvalues can probably be explained in that the factor was composed of three items in the first sample and only two items in the second sample. Another difference in the two samples appeared when the two weakest loading items on the credibility factor in sample 1 split off to form a new factor in sample two. The new factor might be characterized as a factor associated with newscaster professionalism. While certain differences do exist between the factor

analytic structures, it would seem that the the significant finding centers more on factor invariance as characterized by Gorsuch (1974, p. 298).

Sample 1 was designated as the working sample from this point on. Since Sample 2 was used as a check on the reliability of Sample 1, it was deemed inappropriate to simply recombine the samples. Hence, the working sample (Sample 1) would be used for all succeeding analyses. A check of internal reliability of scale items contained within the various factors in the working sample was then performed (See Table 5.7) using Cronbach's Alpha.

TABLE 5.7: Reliability Estimate Coefficients For Sample 1

Sports	.90	Reinforcement	.90	Weather	.88
Credibility	.85	Production	.81	Gov. Sur	.67

Table 5.7 reports the reliability coefficients for the factors revealed in Table 5.3.

The concept of reliability generally refers to how accurate the estimate of the true score is in the population of objects that are being measured. If all of the variation in observed scores is due to errors of measurement, the reliability coefficient will be zero. If there is no error⁴ of measurement, the reliability coefficient will be 1.0.

The items in the first five factors had an alpha reliability coefficients of .80 or better. Nunnally suggests that the nature and scope of the research should dictate an acceptable reliability level and he reports that

reliabilities in the .70 range are acceptable in certain research settings. With this disclaimer, he tends to suggest that researchers are on shaky ground with reliabilities below .80 (Nunnally, pg. 245). Using this criteria, governmental surveillance which had a reliability of .67 was eliminated, leaving the five strongest factors.

Description of Sample 1

Slightly more than half (52 percent) of Sample 1 (N=254), the working sample, was collected the at Lansing Mall. The remainder of the sample was collected at the Meridian Mall. A total of 38.4 percent of the sample was from Lansing, 35.6 percent was from surrounding communities and 26 percent was from towns and cities more than 10 miles outside of Lansing.

Women accounted for a slight majority of the sample (52.4 percent) with men accounting for the remainder (47.6 percent). Surveyors were asked to solicit responses from adults (individuals 18 or older). An age screening question was not incorporated. As a result, six individuals under the age of 18 (2.4 percent of the sample) were included. Nearly one half (48.6 percent) of the sample was married, 42.7 percent were single and 8.7 percent were divorced, widowed or separated. The sample was largely white (89 percent), minorities accounted for only 8.7 percent of the sample.

In terms of family income, 11.2 percent earned less \$9,999 or less, 15.8 percent earned between \$10,000 and \$19,999, 20 percent earned between \$20,000 and \$29,999, 18.8 percent earned between \$30,000 and \$39,999, 12.1 percent earned between \$40,000 and \$49,999, 10.8 percent earned between \$50,000 and \$59,999 and 11.2 percent earned more than \$60,000.

Nearly one third (31.7 percent) had gone no further than high school. More than one half (53.0 percent) had completed or attended at least some college and 15.2 percent held advanced degrees. One quarter (25.6 percent) of the respondents were managers, professionals and executives. Nearly one third (31.7 percent) were involved in administrative support, technical or sales positions. Service, craft, repair, labor and other occupations accounted for 13.4 percent of the sample. Students comprised 13.8 percent of the sample, with retirees making up 9.8 percent of those interviewed. Homemakers totaled 5.7 percent of the sample.

Nearly one half of the sample (49.8 percent) said that they were heavy newspaper readers--six times or more per week. More than one quarter (26.5 percent) said they were light readers--two times per week or fewer. The remainder (23.7 percent) reported that they were moderate newspaper readers--between three and five times per week.

Television news viewing patterns were quite different from newspaper reading habits. The largest group was that of moderate viewers--three to five times per week--which accounted for 46.2 percent of those sampled. A total of 40 percent reported to be heavy viewers--six or more times per week. And a small group of people (13.8 percent) reported to be light viewers--two times or fewer per week.

Analysis of Benefit Segments

After the factors were developed, the next step involved developing audience clusters or segments based on the perceived benefits associated with television news. A⁵ computer clustering routine was used to accomplish this.

The clustering criterion was developed by summing and averaging the items making up each factor (Haley, 1985, pp. 220). Haley (1985) notes that between three and six clusters are normally generated. Individuals were clustered on the factors using three, four, five and six cluster solutions.

Segmentation theory suggests that the segments must be broad enough to have marketing importance, be relatively homogeneous and should be mutually exclusive. Fewer than three segments may fail to provide a precise picture of the market--the "cut" would be expected to be too rough. More than six segments would tend to provide an overly precise picture of the market--a picture of segments with marginal

marketing utility since they contain relatively few members. Haley (1985, pp. 221-224) notes the point of diminishing returns is reached when the segments become too narrow to serve as viable target audiences.

A four cluster solution was adopted based on an examination of the size of the clusters in the various solutions. Specifically, the four cluster solution produced a segment containing eight members representing only 3.1 percent of the total sample. Five and six segment solutions produced even narrower segments.

Segment 1 was excluded from further analysis for a variety of reasons. First, the group with relatively few members represented only a small portion of the total sample. While three percent might represent a relatively large group of people in a national marketing plan, it would represent relatively few people in even the largest local television news markets.

(Furthermore, an assessment of the final cluster centers suggests that members of Segment 1 are relatively ambivalent if not negative toward the television news factors generated as demonstrated by the low scores for this segment.

Specifically, this segment is the only segment in which a score of three or more is not recorded for any factor (See Table 5.8). In short, this group seemed to represent a residual group--a segment that failed to fit into the other segments possibly because the members appear to be

disinterested in local television news. Since this group was small (therefore marginally important from a marketing standpoint), heterogeneous (therefore difficult to target) and apparently somewhat disinterested in television news, they were eliminated from further analysis.

The other three clusters contained 133 cases (52 percent), 93 cases (37 percent) and 20 cases (8 percent). Once the cases were assigned to segments, it became possible to calculate the actual centers of the resulting clusters, representing the mean individual scores of the members in the cluster. Table 5.8 displays the average values of the variables for the cases in each cluster. High scores suggest that the factor is perceived as a benefit for the segment while low scores suggest it is not.

TABLE 5.8: Final Cluster Centers

Segment	Sports	Cred.	Rein.	Prod.	Weather
1 (N=8)	1.77	2.74	2.47	2.57	1.25
2 (N=133)	2.71	2.40	3.02	2.95	3.42
3 (N=93)	1.25	2.49	2.93	2.73	3.30
4 (N=20)	0.75	3.41	1.46	1.74	3.07

Table 5.8 contains the average values of the variables for each cluster.

Segment Labels

Figure 5.1 graphically depicts the three segments and the combined means for all of the segments. Segment 2 was the largest group with 54 percent followed by Segment 3 with 38 percent. Segment 4 was the smallest with eight percent.

Each segment places relative importance on the factor associated with weather information. Weather on television might be viewed as a "cultural constant"--an essential component expected by each segment. Irrespective of other differences, members of each segment simply expect the gratifications associated with weather information. Since it cuts across all segments, it will not be used in developing descriptive labels for the segments.

A qualitative evaluation of the data presented thus far suggests variance among the entire audience. The data provided in Table 5.8, displayed graphically in Figure 5.1, supports the first hypothesis which suggests that "different people expect to derive different benefits from television news and information."

For example, Segment 2 views sports as an important component part of the television newscast while Segments 3 and 4 apparently views sports as an insignificant element. Hence, a visual examination of the graphs suggest that differences exist between the segments. Supporting statistical evidence will be provided shortly.

The data also provides qualitative support for the second hypothesis which suggests that "different benefits are capable of defining discrete and mutually exclusive audience segments." Since Table 5.8 and Figure 5.1 suggest graphic differences between the segments, it can be reasonably argued that perceived benefits are useful in terms of differentiating audiences,

thereby providing a measure of intuitive support for the second hypothesis. Additional statistical evidence will be presented shortly.

GRAPH OF SEGMENTS AND MEANS

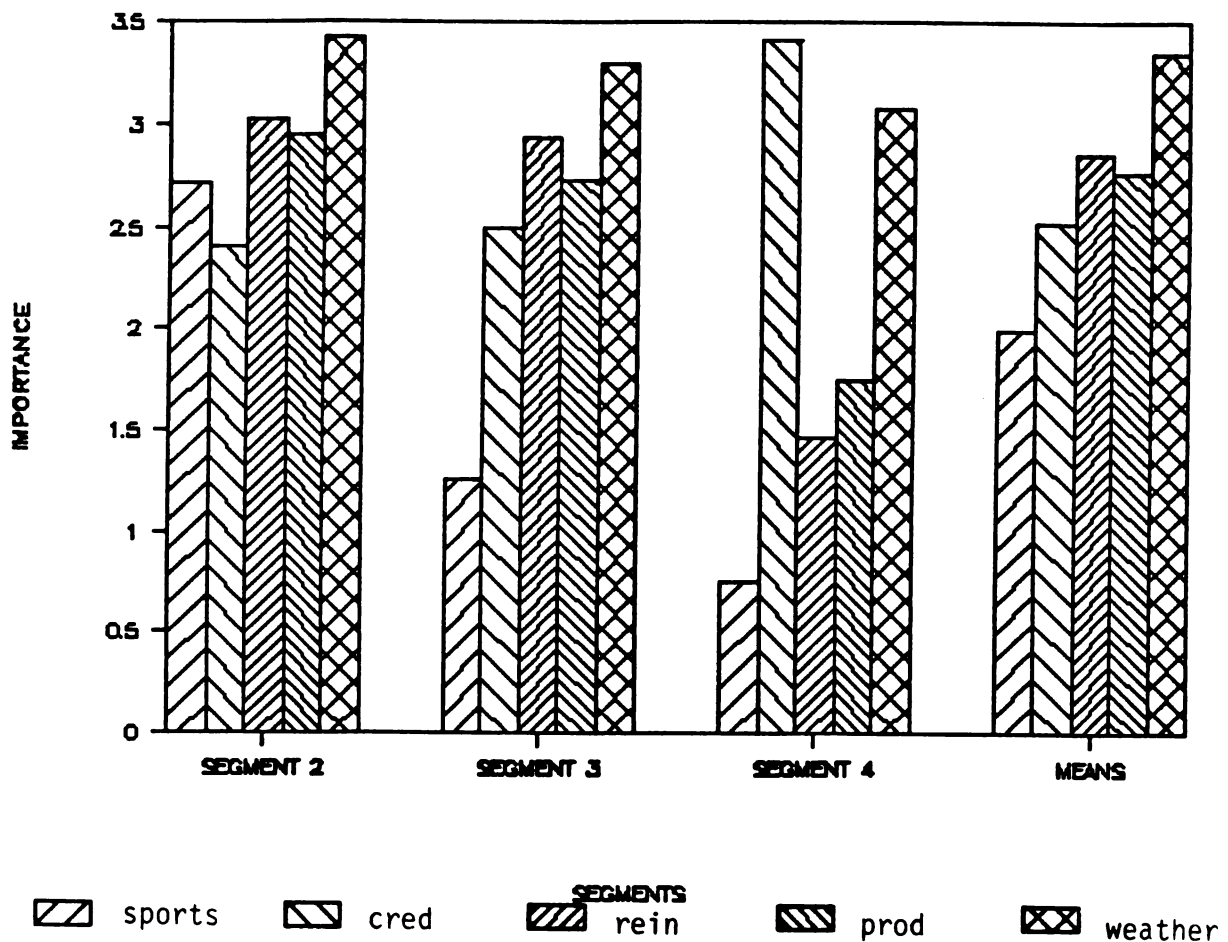


Figure 5.1 represents a comparison between Segments 2, 3, and 4. The fourth bar graph represents the grand mean.

These segments will now be assigned labels designed to describe the members contained.

Segment 2

Sports and Entertainment-Minded News Viewers

Segment 2 (N=133) places a premium on sports, reinforcement and production values (See Figure 5.2).

PIE CHART DEPICTING THE COMPOSITION OF SEGMENT 2

SEGMENT 2

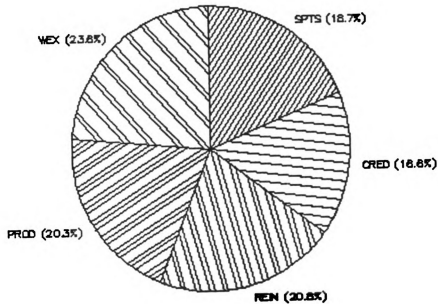


Figure 5.2 represents the relative importance that Segment 2 news viewers place on the benefit factors.

Sports is probably a factor containing some of the attributes typically associated with surveillance and

reinforcement. But televised sports is often "entertaining" competitions between teams or individuals. An affinity for sports (entertaining competitions), high production values (sensory stimulus) and reinforcing news (often news features about good samaritans and positive aspects of community life) suggests that this segment may reflect what Schramm (1949) characterized as "pleasure motives." Members of this segment would be expected to seek immediate rewards from the television news viewing experience.

An appropriate label for Segment 2 might therefore be "sports and entertainment-minded news viewers." This segment probably uses television news in much the same way that it uses television in general--largely for entertainment and diversionary purposes. However, this statement is not intended to suggest that entertainment programming might be a perfect substitute for local news as far as Segment 2 is concerned. Sports scores and information, while entertaining, may also satisfy certain surveillance and reinforcement needs.

Segment 3

Reinforcement-Minded News Viewers

Segment 3 (N=93) places a premium on factors associated with reinforcement, credibility and production values (See Figure 5.3). For this group, sports is a rather unimportant benefit of the overall news package. After weather, this

group is most disposed toward reinforcement. Consequently, this group might be distinguished as the "reinforcement-minded news viewers."

PIE CHART DEPICTING THE COMPOSITION OF SEGMENT 3

SEGMENT 3

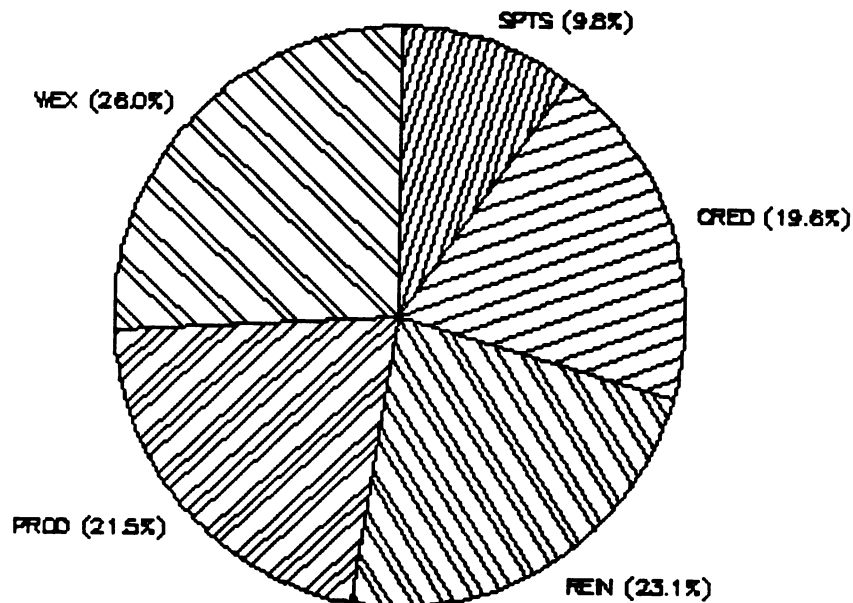


Figure 5.3 represents the relative importance that the reinforcement-minded news viewers place on the benefit factors.

This segment is also reasonably concerned with credibility and production values. Credibility would be expected to be important for reinforcement minded viewers. Individuals in search of reinforcement--an assurance that the world is good place--would also be expected to seek that information from sources that can be trusted. But again,

this label is not intended to suggest that this group is disinterested in surveillance and entertainment--but rather prefers to survey the environment through information presented in a reinforcing and credible manner.

Segment 4

Credibility-Minded News Viewers

Segment 4 (N=20) is not only the smallest segment, but also the narrowest in terms of the benefits its members expect from television news. Credibility emerged here as the element that is clearly the dominant factor for this segment (See Figure 5.4). The members of this group seem to be saying: "Keep your slick production and happy talk--just give me an honest account of the news of the day." Therefore, an appropriate label for this group might be the "credibility-minded news viewers."

Segment 4 would be expected to be interested in delayed rewards associated with television news (Schramm, 1949). This group may be expected to utilize television news largely in response to social demands--the idea that an intelligent person keeps abreast of the news. This group is financially well off (nearly half reported a family income in excess of \$50,000), young and and highly educated. This interest in credibility may stem from enhanced intellectual capabilities developed throughout the educational process.

PIE CHART DEPICTING THE COMPOSITION OF SEGMENT 4

SEGMENT 4

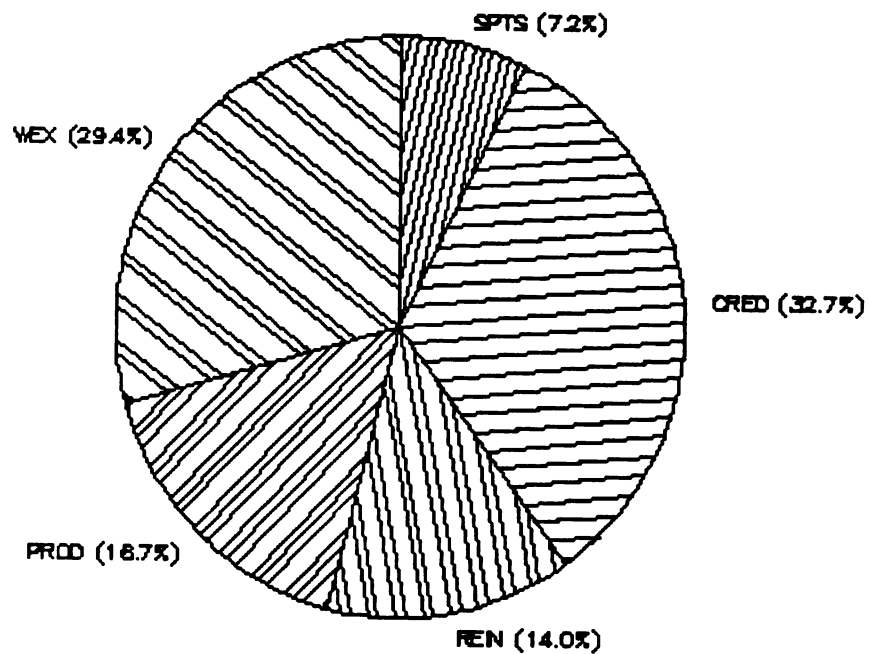


Figure 5.4 represents the relative importance that Segment 4 news viewers place on the benefit factors.

It may represent an awareness that information is subject to editorial biases and general inaccuracies. Hence, credibility may be a proxy for concepts typically associated with accuracy and honesty in the presentation of news and information.

Differences and Similarities Between Segments

Segment 2 and Segment 3, the two largest segments, accounted for 92 percent of the total sample. These segments are similar in many respects. Segment 4 is unique both demographically and in terms of benefit orientation. As such, similarities and differences between Segment 2 and Segment 3 will be contrasted concurrently. Segment 4 will be analyzed alone.

Segment 2 and Segment 3

In terms of factor preferences, Segment 2 and Segment 3 displayed similar patterns for the factors associated with weather, credibility, reinforcement and production values. Both segments agreed that reinforcing information is a benefit of television news. Segment 2 found production values to be relatively important--Segment 3 rated this factor as somewhat less important.

Segment 3 found credibility to be quite important--Segment 2 was slightly less concerned with credibility. But the most dramatic difference occurred in the area of sports. Segment 2 found sports to be a very important benefit of television news while Segment 3 found sports to be an unimportant benefit of the local television news package. This might be explained by a gender difference--Segment 2 was also largely male (56 percent) with women accounting for

a minority (44 percent). Segment 3 by contrast was comprised largely of women--65 percent versus 35 percent men. Segment 2 was also modestly more affluent than Segment 3. Chi-square analyses suggested that the gender difference was significant ($p < .01$) as was the difference in income ($p < .05$).

Other than the differences noted above, Segments 2 and Segment 3 appear fairly homogeneous in terms of demography. A plurality of people (46 percent) in both of the groups worked in administrative support, technical, sales, service, craft repair and labor positions. About one in five (22 percent) were managers, professionals and administrators. More than one third (35 percent) had gone no further than high school, more than one quarter (27 percent) had attended college while the same number (27 percent) had completed college. Only 11 percent had attended graduate, law or medical school.

A majority of these two segments (91 percent) were white with the remainder (9.4 percent) being minorities. Four in ten lived in Lansing, one third lived in the Lansing suburbs and slightly more than one quarter lived more than ten miles away. More than half were between the ages of 19 and 34 (56 percent) with the majority of the rest spread out over the remaining age categories.

Segment 4

Segment 4 (N=20) was unique both in terms of demographics and news benefit orientations. Sports information was the least important factor for this group. Production values and reinforcement both took a back seat to credibility--clearly the dominant factor for this segment.

Segment 4 was split nearly equally along gender lines. In terms of income, more than half of this group earned in excess of \$30,000 annually. But perhaps more important, nearly one third (32 percent) of Segment 4 earned in excess of \$60,000 annually. And a majority (60 percent) reported themselves to be managers, professionals and executives. Nearly two thirds of this groups (63 percent) held graduate, law or medical degrees and a large majority (84 percent) had completed college.

This segment is relatively young--a majority (84 percent) was between the ages of 25 and 44--a highly coveted target market (Assael, 1984). This group was exclusively white--not a single black, Hispanic or other minority was found in Segment 4. More than half of this group lived in the suburbs of Lansing. Approximately one quarter lived in Lansing and one quarter lived more than 10 miles away. More than half were married (58 percent), about one quarter (26 percent) was single and the remainder (16 percent) were divorced, separated or widowed.

This segment tended to be heavy newspaper readers with a large majority (57.9 percent) reading six or more times per week. They tended to be more conservative in their news viewing habits--about one quarter (26 percent) were heavy viewers while the majority (42.1 percent) were moderate news viewers. The implications of these findings associated with demographic homogeneity among the members of this segment will be discussed in detail later.

Usefulness of Benefits as Group Differentiators

The results presented thus far are interesting and useful in a descriptive sense. The data provided (Table 5.8 and Figures 5.1 through 5.4) suggest differences among segments in terms of preferences for various components of the television news package thereby providing a margin of qualitative support for the first hypothesis. However, the second and third hypotheses are critical since they suggest that the segments are discrete from each other and relatively homogenous within.

One way of assessing that the groups are mutually discrete is to perform a one perform a one-way analysis for each of the variables (benefit factors) and examine the ratio of the between-cluster to within-cluster mean squares. Large ratios (in the column labelled F) and small observed significance levels or probabilities (in the column labelled Prob.) are associated with variables that differ between the clusters (See Table 5.9).

TABLE 5.9: Analysis Of Variance

Variable	Cluster MS	DF	Error MS	DF	F	Prob.
Sports	49.24	3	.3663	247	134.5	0.0
Credibility	6.09	3	.4160	246	14.64	0.0
Reinforcement	14.69	3	.3390	249	43.34	0.0
Production	7.89	3	.2851	245	27.69	0.0
Weather	12.12	3	.3665	249	33.06	0.0

Table 5.9 contains the mean squares for examining differences between the segments. The between-clusters mean square is labeled "Cluster MS," and the within-cluster mean square is labeled "Error MS." Their ratio is in the column labeled "F."

To clarify the picture, sports with an "F" of 134.5 is the best discriminator of groups. Reinforcement with an "F" of 43.4, weather with an "F" of 33.1 and production values with an "F" of 27.7 would be moderate discriminators while credibility with an "F" of 14.6 would appear to be a somewhat weak predictor. However, the significance level for each is 0.0 indicating that each factor is useful to at least some extent in predicting group membership--although some factors are more useful than others.

In summary, the ANOVA (Table 5.9) suggests a reasonable amount of variance between groups on each of the benefit factors. Furthermore, it suggests that the groups are relatively homogeneous and mutually exclusive since each of the five factors is useful in differentiating between the groups. Hence, the ANOVA table provides support for the first three hypotheses. Specifically, (1) different people expect different benefits from television news ; (2) perceived benefits are sufficient criteria for defining

television news audience segments, and; (3) that members of various benefit segments are reasonably homogeneous.

Assessment of Demographics as Discriminators

Discriminant analysis can be useful in determining whether combinations of demographic variables are useful in characterizing the segments. Discriminant analysis is used when groups of people are defined according to a specific criterion and differences are being investigated. It might be used to distinguish between different vocational groups or college students with different majors. Discriminant analysis suggests which "discriminating functions" are most useful in predicting group membership. For example, educational level and income might be good predictors (or discriminating functions) of type of job held.

Discriminant analysis pinpoints which discriminant "functions" (operationalized here as demographics) are most useful in predicting group membership. It can also provide support for, or fail to support Hypothesis 4 which suggests that the benefit based segments will be demographically homogenous.

The direct discriminant technique was employed for the analyses. Each of the independent variables were entered into the analysis concurrently (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner and Bent, 1975, p. 446). The functions are

derived such that the first function separates the groups as much as possible. The second function separates them as much as possible in an orthogonal (right-angle) direction⁸ and so on for succeeding functions. The end result is that the groups are as distinct as possible given the original discriminating variables (Nie et. al., 1975, p. 444).

Interpreting discriminant functions involves examining the loadings of predictor variables on them. Discriminant function matrices are basically factor loading matrices that contain correlations between predictor variables and each of the discriminant functions--the canonical variates. They can sometimes be useful in naming and interpreting the functions. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983, pp. 320-321) recommend using the same rules as would apply to factor analysis--assume a loading is significant if it is greater than .30.

Tables 5.10 and 5.11 illustrate the standardized and rotated discriminant function coefficients using demographic variables.⁹ Function 1 (.86) is an education function. Function 2 appears to be associated with gender (-.71) and Function 3 is associated with race (.80). Hence, the tables suggest that demographics are useful in terms of describing the news audience segments. A closer look at these results will there be essential.

TABLE 5.10: Standardized (Unrotated) Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients Using Demographic Bases

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
F1={Education	<u>.858</u>	.147	.089
{Viewing Freq.	<u>-.425</u>	.438	-.347
F2={Gender	-.011	<u>-.711</u>	.142
{Income	.072	<u>.377</u>	.257
{Residence	-.151	<u>.344</u>	.149
{Reading Freq.	.061	.263	.161
F3={Race	-.144	-.137	<u>.796</u>
{Marital Status	.388	-.345	<u>-.599</u>
{Age	.024	-.297	<u>.477</u>
{Occupation	.061	-.054	-.122

Table 5.10 suggests that education is the most important function, followed by gender and race.

TABLE 5.11: Rotated Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients Using Demographic Bases

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
F1={Education	<u>.850</u>	.199	-.049
{Viewing Freq.	<u>-.502</u>	.418	-.258
F2={Gender	-.011	<u>-.716</u>	.142
{Income	.091	<u>.375</u>	.252
{Residence	-.144	<u>.331</u>	.179
{Reading Freq.	.072	.263	.161
F3={Race	-.001	-.162	<u>.804</u>
{Marital Status	.302	-.305	<u>-.665</u>
{Age	.120	-.304	<u>.457</u>
{Occupation	.043	-.048	-.132

Table 5.11 mirrors the results of the preceding standardized analysis.

Table 5.12 presents the eigenvalues, percent of variance and canonical correlations for each of the three functions. The eigenvalues and the canonical correlations denote the relative ability of each function to separate the groups. Hence, education is the best discriminator, followed by gender and race.

TABLE 5.12: Canonical Discriminant Eigenvalues
And Correlations Using Demographics

Discrim. Function.	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance	Cumulative Percent	Canonical Corr.
1 Education	.20	54.6%	54.6%	.41
2 Gender	.13	35.1%	89.7%	.34
3 Race	.04	10.3%	100.0%	.19

Table 5.12 presents the eigenvalues, variance and canonical correlations for each of the functions.

The Wilks' lambda is a descriptive statistic used to characterize discriminating power of each of the functions. Low scores indicate high discriminatory power while high scores indicate low discriminatory power. The Wilks' lambda statistic is inversely related to the chi-square statistic-- a low Wilks' lambda corresponds with a significant chi-square. While the chi-square statistic is appropriate for hypothesis testing, the Wilks' lambda is often instrumental in describing the relative importance of one function over another (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1983, p. 316).

Table 5.13 suggests that the three demographic functions employed concurrently are highly significant ($p < .001$) at discriminating between segments. Gender is a modestly powerful discriminator ($p < .05$). However, after these functions have been removed, a very large significance levels results (.441) this suggests that race, the third function is virtually useless as a discriminator.

TABLE 5.13: Canonical Discriminant Functions And Chi-Square Significance Level Using Demographic Bases

After Function	Wilks-Lambda	Chi-Square	DF	Significance
0	.714	73	30	0.000
1	.855	34	18	0.032
2	.964	8	8	0.441

Table 5.13 provides an analysis of the discriminatory power with all functions, two functions and one function.

These findings cast doubt on the fourth hypothesis which suggests that the clustering of audiences according to the benefits associated with television news "will produce demographically heterogeneous segments." As previously noted, Segment 2 is largely male, Segment 3 is largely female and Segment 4 is highly educated. Since statistical differences based on education and gender have been uncovered through the discriminant analysis, hypothesis four is not supported.

Table 5.14 provides an analysis of how the demographic bases were useful in predicting segment membership. Demographic function one (education), which was significant ($p < .001$) in Table 5.13 is an excellent predictor of

TABLE 5.14: Classification Results Using Demographic Bases

Actual Group	# of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
Segment 1 Correct %	8	<u>25.0%</u>	12.5%	37.5%	25.0%
Segment 2 Correct %	133	9.0%	<u>49.6%</u>	28.6%	12.8%
Segment 3 Correct %	93	17.2%	24.7%	<u>44.1%</u>	14.0%
Segment 4 Correct %	20	5.0%	5.0%	15.0%	<u>75.0%</u>

Table 5.14 reports the percent of grouped cases correctly classified was 48.82 percent.

membership in Segment 4. It was capable of predicting membership among 75 percent of the cases.

As noted previously, these findings have important implications for the fourth hypothesis. Since education serves as a strong predictor (75 percent effective for Segment 4), doubt is cast on the assumption of demographic heterogeneity in this study. This caveat may be explained in that news and information processing is an intellectual activity--individuals interested in international and national policy decisions, economics and the like will probably be the most educated members of society.

Hypotheses five and six address the notion that certain segments may be cognitive or surveillance oriented--that entertainment is not the dominant benefit for all news viewers. Figures 5.1 through 5.4 along with the ANOVA (Table 5.9) and discriminant analyses (Tables 5.10 through 5.14) provide support for these final two hypotheses.

The following figure (Figure 5.5) presents a pictorial analysis of how the demographic based segments are dispersed in two dimensions. The scatterplot suggests that the segments overlap a great deal. The separation between segments 2 and 3 is virtually indistinguishable even though differences based on gender are statistically significant. Segment 4, (the educated and affluent segment) is quite distinguishable.

SCATTERPLOT DEPICTING DEMOGRAPHIC BASES

proxy variable for cognitive or surveillance oriented gratifications. Credibility is a concept normally associated with information accuracy and trustworthiness of the source. People concerned with accurate information would likely be concerned with surveillance (the cognitive component). Indeed, the two concepts may be inseparable.

The bar graphs (Figure 5.1) and pie charts (Figures 5.2 through 5.4) do not necessarily suggest that Segment 4 objects to newscasts containing sports, reinforcement or production. This segment simply does not consider these factors to be benefits in terms of the overall television news viewing experience. Hence Segment 4 comprised of credibility seekers appears to be concerned with the cognitive elements of television news such as surveillance and information acquisition.

Evaluation of Demographics Between Segments

The data presented thus far suggest that demographics--specifically education and gender--are useful in terms of predicting group membership. Cross tabulations and the chi-square statistic can help in crystalizing the statistically significant differences between the segments. The chi-square statistic goes beyond the descriptive data provided earlier. Each of the demographic and media usage items were analyzed collectively--using all three segments--followed by analyses in which each cluster was tested against all other

clusters. Only significant chi-square tables will be presented.

Table 5.15 demonstrates that education, the first discriminant function, is significantly related to membership in Segment 4 (S4). As expected, most of the members of Segment 4 (63 percent) completed graduate, law or medical school. By contrast, relatively few members of Segment 2 (S2) or Segment 3 (S3) attended graduate school.

Norusis (1986, p. 244) warns researchers against performing chi-square analyses with small cell sizes. He suggests that five be set as the cutoff point for a cell. Hence a two by three chi-square table has been presented representing the three segments by individuals who have completed graduate school and those who have not.

TABLE 5.15: Crosstabs: Clusters By Education

		S2	S3	S4	Chi-square significance levels:	
E						
D	Coll/less	113	80	7	200	Ed. by S2 thru S4 = .0000*
U						Ed. by S2 and S3 = .8865
C	Grad. Sch.	14	10	12	62	Ed. by S2 and S4 = .0000*
A						Ed. by S3 and S4 = .0000*
T		127	90	19	236	
I						* = significant at .001 level
O						** = significant at .01 level
N						*** = significant at .05 level
						(10 Cases Missing)

Table 5.15 indicates significant ($p < .001$) differences exist between Segment 4 and the other segments. However, the difference between S2 and S3 is not significant (.8865) indicating that S4 is unique with respect to the other groups.

Table 5.16 suggests that gender, the second demographic function, is also significant ($p < .01$). Specifically, a gender difference exists between the two largest segments. Segment 2 was largely male (56 percent) while Segment 3 was largely female 65 percent. Segment 2 was highly disposed toward sports while Segment 3 was not.

TABLE 5.16: Crosstabs: Clusters By Gender

		S2	S3	S4		Chi-square significance levels:
G E N D E R	Male	75	33	10	118	Gender by S2 thru S4 = .0076**
						Gender by S2 and S3 = .0020**
	Female	58	60	9	127	Gender by S2 and S4 = .7575
						Gender by S3 and S4 = .1614
		133	93	19	245	
						* = significant at .001 level
						** = significant at .01 level
						*** = significant at .05 level
						(1 Case Missing)

Table 5.16 indicates that a significance difference exists between S2 and S3.

The chi-square analyses also yielded significant results ($p < .05$) for occupation, income and news viewing frequency. No significant differences between groups could be found for factors associated with age, race, residence, marital status, mall in which data was collected nor newspaper reading frequency (See Appendix E).

Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Having provided an analysis of each group and assigned descriptive labels to each, it would be appropriate to review the hypotheses and determine whether sufficient

Summary of
segment 2
Char 5

support has been provided. Recall that the first three hypotheses dealt with the differences and similarities among people in terms of the benefits they expect from television news. Furthermore, these expectations or perceived benefits were posited as useful delineators of group membership. And finally, the segments generated would be homogeneous and mutually exclusive.

Specifically:

- H1: Different people expect to derive different benefits from television news and information.
- H2: Different perceived benefits are sufficient criteria for the task of defining specific audience segments.
- H3: People within these benefit based segments are relatively homogeneous with regard to the benefits they expect to derive from television news.

Factor analysis provided a typology of dimensions utilized by people in approaching television news. Cluster analysis sorted people into discrete groups. And analysis of variance provided evidence that these predictor variables were useful in dividing the groups up. This in turn led to the specification and subsequent labelling a three diverse audience segments:

1. Sports and Entertainment-Minded News Viewers:
(54 percent)
2. Reinforcement-Minded News Viewers:
(38 percent)
3. Credibility-Minded News Viewers:
(8 percent)

A discriminant analysis failed to provide support for the fourth hypothesis. The fourth hypotheses suggested that benefit segmentation will lead to segments containing demographically mixed members.

Specifically:

H4: A benefit-based approach to clustering audiences according to their television news viewing preferences will produce demographically heterogeneous segments.

Chi-square analyses suggested that Segment 4 was far and away the most educated segment ($p < .001$) Segment 2 and Segment 3 were somewhat homogeneous in terms of gender--a majority of the members of Segment 2 was male while nearly two thirds of Segment 3 was female. Segment 2 was also somewhat more affluent than segment 3 ($p < .05$). It should also be noted that demographic bases, income ($p < .05$) and occupation ($p < .05$) turned out to be good predictors of membership in segment 4 (See Appendix E).

The remaining hypotheses addressed the proposition that factors other than entertainment may serve as the dominant benefits for certain groups. These hypotheses address what Schramm (1949) characterized as "reality" and "pleasure" motives. They also address the notion of "population densities" as discussed by Wenner, (1985) and notion of "convergent selectivity" (Stephenson, 1967).

Specifically:

- H5. Benefits other than entertainment may serve as dominant benefits for various audience segments.
- H6. Cognitive motivations associated with news gratifications predominate for at least one of the segments.

Indeed, surveillance turned out to be the dominant factor for each segment as evidenced through the relative importance of the weather dimension. Segments 2 and 3 found this factor to be most important while Segment 4 found it to be the second most important dimension.

But weather is probably not a "pure" surveillance factor. Weathercasters are often "entertainers" rather than "newscasters." The presentation is often spruced up with slick weather graphics. Add to that the pictures of people frolicking at the beach or the entertaining banter between the weathercasters and news personalities and it becomes clear that weather can hardly be considered a "pure" surveillance factor. Indeed, the weather report may sometimes serve more of an entertainment than information function.

Media scholars have distinguished between "hard news" and "soft news." McQuail (1983, pg. 117) for example, has described hard news as "news dealing with events, and soft news mainly as background or free time news." Solid surveillance factors such as governmental or environmental surveillance would tend to be considered hard news. Segment

4--the segment disposed toward credibility--would be expected to be cognitive or surveillance oriented. Their interest in credibility is an acknowledgment that they are concerned with receiving accurate and impartial information. Hence, if it can be said that credibility is proxy for the cognitive orientation, then a measure of support has been provided for hypotheses five and six.

FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER V

1

Factor analysis is essentially a method for uncovering clusters of related variables. It can be either "exploratory" or "confirmatory" in nature. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983, p.373) explain that exploratory factor analysis is frequently employed as an empirical data reduction technique while confirmatory factor analysis is commonly utilized to test hypotheses about an expected underlying factor structure.

The "principal component" technique (pc) is often used in exploratory work (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1983, p. 397). This technique, commonly referred to as component analysis assumes that all of the variance for each variable is relevant (Cattell, 1952; Gorsuch, 1974, p. 90). However, an alternative to the principal component technique has gained prominence during the last twenty five years.

Gorsuch reports that the principal axis factor analysis (paf), sometimes referred to as common factor analysis, has been gaining in popularity since the 1960's. The principal axis technique places communality estimates in the diagonal of the correlation matrix rather than assuming unity. In other words, the technique provides an estimate of error variance thereby making it somewhat more rigorous. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983, p. 397) report that the principal axis technique is appropriate when the research is guided by theoretical considerations. Since this research was guided largely by the theoretical perspectives rooted in uses and gratifications tradition, the appropriate choice was the principal axis technique.

2

Gorsuch (1974, p. 298) reports that factors are invariant when they are reproducible. The basic structure should be similar in distinct samples. In the case of major differences in the factor structure, Gorsuch explains that they may stem either from actual differences in the sample or unreliable scales. Differences in the sample would be expected when

samples were taken from different regions of the country or among samples in which one or more groups would be expected to differ on variables such as income. Gorsuch also notes that in situations in which questions about invariance exist, more formal statistical techniques are available to the researcher.

3

In other words, each half would be equal in terms of when and where the questionnaires were collected. This will eliminate biases associated with the individuals malls or the days and times during which the questionnaires were completed. With regard to the point made in the footnote above, it would seem unlikely that the samples would differ substantially according to demography or benefits associated with television news.

4

See for example: C. Hadlai Hull and Norman H. Nie, SPSS Update 7-9: New Procedures and Facilities for release, (1981), New York:McGraw-Hill Book Company. Edward G. Carmines and Richard A. Zeller, Reliability and Validity Assessment, (1979), Beverly Hills, Sage Publications.

5

See for example: The SPSS-X, SPSSPC+ Quick Cluster and SAS Fastclus programs are especially useful for data sets in which large numbers of items (or people) are being clustered. These programs utilize agglomerative hierarchical clustering. The procedures produce only one solution for the number of clusters requested by the user. The researcher typically requests a variety of solutions (i.e.: three to six cluster solutions) and decides upon one that fits the research or marketing goals (Haley, 1985).

Agglomerative hierarchical clustering means that cases are added to form clusters. The alternative to this approach is the divisive method (Pielou, 1969) in which the entire structure is disaggregated. Claycamp and Massey (1968) have argued that segmentation should be considered as an aggregative rather than disaggregative. The SPSS Quick Cluster and SAS Fastclus programs develop aggregative segments as conceived by Claycamp and Massey (1968).

These routines start with a number of well spaced cases representing the number of clusters requested.

The algorithm then updates the values of the initial cluster centers to derive the classification cluster centers. When a case is assigned, the procedure updates the center to the mean for the cases that are thus far in the cluster. As the routine processes cases, the centers migrate to concentrations of observations.

The final step of the algorithm reassigns each case to the nearest of the updated cluster centers. The reassignment yields the final clusters. The final cluster centers result from the variable means for the cases in the final clusters (SPSS-X, pg. 788)."

Recent work concerning cluster analysis include Klastorin (1983), Steward and Furse (1984), Funkhouser (1983), Blozan and Prabhaker (1984), and Arabie, Carroll, DeSarbo and Wind (1981).

6

A five point Likert scale was used. Answers positive toward the five factors (sports, production, reinforcement, credibility and weather) received the lowest scores since "strongly agree" was scored as one (1). Answers negative toward the five factors received the highest scores. The scores have been reversed for ease of interpretation. Hence, high scores represent a belief that the factor is an important element of local television news and low scores suggest that the factor is a relatively insignificant aspect of the television newscast.

7

The F-tests and observed significance levels in the ANOVA should only be used for descriptive purposes since the clusters have been chosen to maximize the differences among cases in different clusters. The observed significance levels are not corrected for this and thus cannot be interpreted as tests of the hypotheses.

8

Tabachnick and Fidell (1983, pg. 318) have provided an explanation of the discriminant extraction technique: "Within a single discriminant analysis, a number of orthogonal dimensions are extracted. The maximum number of dimensions is either the lesser of the number of groups minus one or, as in principal components or factor analysis, equal to the number of predictor variables. As in principal component or factor analysis however, not all of the dimensions may carry worthwhile information. It is frequently the

case that the first few discriminant functions account for the lion's share of discriminating power, with no additional information forthcoming from the remaining functions."

9

Both standardized and rotated discriminant solutions are provided since Klecka reports that users should view rotation as an experimental feature and consider it in tandem with the unrotated results (Nie et. al., 1975, p. 445). It should also be noted that the SPSS program automatically orders rotated variables by the function with largest coefficient and the magnitude of that coefficient.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This research attempted to contribute knowledge in terms of: (1) communication theory and methodology; (2) broadcast journalism and (3) journalism education. This discussion will evaluate how well the findings from this research delivered in these three areas beginning with communication theory and methodology. The conclusion will suggest future directions for media scholars, practitioners and students wishing to study benefit segmentation strategies further.

Relevance of Findings for Communication Theory and Methodology

This research sought to advance mass communication theory and methodology by offering a new way of evaluating television news audiences. It also sought to demonstrate that the abstract concepts associated with the uses and gratifications literature can be operationalized via the benefit segmentation approach.

Two theoretical approaches, that of the uses and gratifications from communications, and segmentation theory from marketing, have been linked in this dissertation. This

responded to the recommendations made by Rosengren, Wenner and Palmgreen (1985) that researchers should go beyond simply forming lists of gratifications and move toward developing a formal uses and gratifications theory.

A perspective introduced earlier by Grunig (1979) that "people use media because they enjoy them" is indisputable, if somewhat non-illuminating. The other typologies cited have moved in the direction of explaining the notion of "convergent selectivity" or the belief that people are motivated by numerous factors in their search for information (Stephenson, 1967).

Schramm (1949, p. 259) observed that "news exists in the minds of men." But he went further to suggest that "reality" and "pleasure" motives serve as the driving force behind news consumption. With this observation, Schramm may have given birth to the first formal media gratifications typology. Schramm suggested that people use the media to satisfy cognitive (reality) needs and as a form of diversion or entertainment (pleasure). For Schramm, other factors such as personal identity, reinforcement and information to be used in conversations tended to blend into these two primary categories.

Blumler (1979) saw a need to formalize a third category calling it personal identity. This category encompassed reinforcement--an assurance presented through news channels that ones community and the world are good places in which

to live. McCombs and Becker (1979) attempted to add precision in their typology. They added components associated with day-to-day decision making, information useful for conversations and attributes associated with the creation of a sense of participation (in news affairs) among audience members.

Wenner's news gratifications map (1985, p. 189) contains orientational (surveillance), para-orientational (reinforcement), social (conversational) and para-social (participation) gratifications--elements evident in the Blumler and McCombs and Becker typologies. Thus it appears that advocates of the uses and gratifications approach agree on the motivations associated with media usage. Can it therefore be said that all three typologies are synonymous? Are each of the recent typologies copies of the four decade old Schramm typology with minor new wrinkles? Are they simply old wine in new bottles?

The answer is that each typology contributes in its own unique way. Schramm's typology sets a foundation upon which to build. The Blumler typology adds a component ignored by Schramm. Wenner has assembled a map suggesting certain interrelationships between the concepts. And Becker and McCombs have provided operational definitions illustrating how these concepts are important for journalists and for the mass media community at large.

The research presented in this dissertation was designed to take the logical next step--to introduce a means of developing "audience typologies" based on these "gratification typologies." For example, weather information is enjoyed by virtually every audience segment making it a "cultural constant." But beyond this, other components such as sports, reinforcement, credibility and production values vary in their relative importance among audience segments. Wenner (1985, p. 193) has challenged researchers to specialize in studying population "subparts" to determine what elements of the news experience are enjoyed culturally and which are enjoyed by specific segments. This research has responded to that challenge.

The results of this research provide support for Stephenson's notion of "convergent selectivity." Segment 2 (sports and entertainment-minded news viewers) and segment 3 (reinforcement-minded news viewers) are gratified by all of the same factors except sports information. Both of these segments rank reinforcement as the most important attribute of television news after weather. These segments, composed largely of administrative support personnel or blue collar workers, probably need this sort of information after a hard day at the plant, a battle with the boss or a trip to the doctor to discover that one's child has chicken pox.

Using benefit segmentation strategies to assign people to groups based on similar needs and gratifications from the

media provides a means structuring the uses and gratifications approach. In response to Wenner (1985), benefit segmentation posits a method of defining "population densities"--segments of people seeking similar benefits from television news.

Benefit segmentation does not simply tell us that "people" like one component or the other. In conjunction with the uses and gratifications approach, benefit segmentation provides a means of distinguishing among large audience segments based strictly on the attributes which will satisfy their news appetites. As such, the study opens new doors to researchers wishing to investigate audience segments for all media ranging from the weekly supermarket shopper to CompuServe and other emerging and developing technologies.

A final issue concerns the relative advantage of perceived benefits over demographics as predictors of group membership. Certain demographic variables turned out in this study to be fairly strong predictors of group membership. Education, for example, was a strikingly good predictor of membership in Segment 4. Significant chi-square differences based on gender were also found between the groups.

Does it make sense to rely on these easy to use predictor variables instead of the somewhat more difficult to distinguish benefit bases? The jury is still out on this

question. Continuing research must be conducted to determine whether these segments are reproducible. More work is necessary to determine whether the five factors uncovered in this project are universal. Furthermore, if these factors are reproducible, work must continue to determine whether these segments are reproducible in other markets, at other times and among a random sample of respondents.

One might be tempted to suspect that different factors and segments would emerge if this study was replicated in a West Virginia coal mining community. Among such a sample, news items relating to the coal industry may stand out as a factor unto itself. A study conducted in Hollywood, CA, might suggest the presence of a factor associated specifically with entertainment and show business. Hence, it would be premature to suggest that these factors and segments exist in the world. But it can be argued with reasonable certainty that these factors and segments existed among a group of Lansing area shopping mall frequenters during the Winter of 1987.

But of paramount importance, this research has provided a reliable methodological blueprint for communication executives, researchers and academicians to follow in studying media markets.

Relevance of Findings for the Broadcast Industry

Segmentation strategies may provide an efficient means of fortifying or developing viewership in local news markets. Segmentation strategies call into play the same principles that now apply in the magazine industry. Time and Newsweek, for example, have emerged as highly dominant general news magazines. However, the market is sufficiently broad to support other specialized news magazines including World Press Review, Sports Illustrated and even People Magazine. Indeed, the networks may already have begun segmentation attempts with the introduction of upbeat news programs such as West 57th Street--a program seemingly aimed at certain "baby boomers" such as young urban professionals or "yuppies."

But does audience segmentation make sense from a practical standpoint at the local news level? The answer depends upon a variety of factors. The first consideration would be the market position of a particular television station. These hypothetical examples may serve to clarify the utility of market segmentation strategies.

The Dominant Station in a Market

The station with the largest audience for local news in a given market will probably be content to sit tight with a lead. If erosion of viewership should occur, the top

rated station may reassess its strategy. An analysis of how this strategy might be employed by other stations in a market will now be provided.

The Second Station in a Television Market

The second station in a market may wish to consider targeting Segment 2 (the sports and entertainment-minded news viewers) and Segment 3 (the reinforcement-minded news viewers). It has been noted that these segments are in virtual agreement on all but one component--that of sports. Since both segments are large, a prudent strategy would attempt to avoid alienating either segment. This might be achieved by appealing to the gratifications associated with reinforcement, production values and diversion.

News managers at this station may decide to stress human interest stories, news features and information characterized as soft news. Sports should be stressed for this group. In effect, such a strategy would provide the most highly coveted aspects for Segment 2 (the sports and entertainment minded news viewers) while providing only one negative component to segment 3 (the reinforcement-minded news viewers). Such a news program would be well suited for 92 percent of the population.

Advertising support for these programs might stress slogans such as:

1. WXYZ, your sports and community minded station.
2. WXYZ, the station with "good news" about your community.
3. WXYZ, lively news for a great town.
4. Stay in touch with your teams, watch WXYZ.

While such a strategy runs the risk of alienating people disinterested in sports, it also seems likely that it will attract a sufficiently large audience from the two segments.

The Third Station in a Broadcast Market:

The third station in a market may consider a somewhat different strategy. This station may evaluate the market and determine that the first two stations are splitting the audience comprised of the first two segments leaving the residual to the third station. It might be wise for this station to consider targeting either Segment 2 or Segment 3. This third station may consider the following issues in deciding upon a marketing strategy.

1. Segment 2 is far and away the largest market.
2. Segment 2 is favors sports information.
3. Segment 2 is largely male.
4. Segment 2 is a relatively heavy user of the news.
5. Segment 2 is modestly more affluent than segment 3.
6. Segment 2 is also interested in reinforcing and well produced news.

This analysis provides a good deal of information. Segment 2 is not only the largest segment but the members are relatively heavy news viewers. This fact means a great deal in terms of the advertising. In effect, this segment should be "weighted" more heavily than Segment 3 because the members of this segment watch more. Hence, advertisers may get more for their advertising dollar by effectively reaching this segment.

This segment is also partial to sports. This station should endeavor to gain the attention of sports oriented viewers by promoting the news department as committed to sports. The station may develop slogans such as:

1. WXYZ, the biggest sports staff
--the best sports news.
2. Here at WXYZ it's as simple as AB --sports,
at noon,sports at six and sports at eleven.
3. While we're keeping on top of the news of
the city--we're taking the pulse of sports
around town.

Of course, it would be illogical to be unidimensional in the approach. Advertisements should stress sports while reinforcing the fact that other elements will also be provided. However, such an appeal would be expected to attract many viewers that are avid sports fans.

Another consideration would be appeals to advertisers. It might be appropriate for the sales staff to attempt to sell advertising to sporting good stores and manufacturers, beer companies and purveyors of other such male oriented

products. Advertisers might find remarkable efficiency in such a strategy.

The Fourth Station in a Broadcast Market

The fourth station in a market may attempt the exact opposite. This station may decide to attract the viewers in segment 3. The following information is known about this group:

1. Segment 3 is the second largest group.
2. Segment 3 is largely female.
3. Segment 3 is concerned with reinforcement, production and credibility.
4. Segment 3 controls the "purse strings" in many households.
5. Segment 3 is a moderate to heavy user of the news.
6. Segment 3 is disinterested in sports.

A fourth station in a market might decide to target this segment for a variety of reasons. It is a relatively large and important segment. If women control the "purse strings," stations may sell advertising to firms with this in mind. And, as with male oriented products, the advertising might be aimed at women. Cosmetics and beauty aids for example, might find a good fit as a sponsor of this program.

The station may consider the following slogans to attract this group:

1. Good news for a great city--WXYZ.
2. Some stations say they are "sports-minded."
At WXYZ we'll keep you posted on the scores.
But we'll cover the people and your city.
3. WXYZ Country is a good place to live. We
keep you in touch with West Michigan.

The Fifth Station in a Broadcast Market

The fifth station in a market may recognize that it may have trouble competing for the larger segments and decide instead to target Segment 4. Consider the attributes of Segment 4:

1. Segment 4 is most interested in credibility.
2. Segment 4 finds reinforcement, production values and sports as relatively unimportant.
3. Segment 4 is highly educated.
4. Segment 4 is financially well off.
5. Segment 4 is managerial and professional.
6. Segment 4 is a heavy user of newspapers.
7. Segment 4 is a moderate user of television news.

While this group is quite small (8 percent), it is also influential. In marketing terms, they may be the most important segment for some advertisers. If an advertiser is going to try to sell a Mercedes Benz or a resort condominium at Aspen, he probably would be interested in utilizing an advertising vehicle that has the greatest probability of

delivering an audience with the means. Segment 4 is that audience.

This segment is a moderate user of television but a heavy user of newspapers. This might be interpreted as an indication that television news is failing to provide the proper gratifications for this group. A restructured program might attract more viewers from Segment 4 and increase the viewership for this program. The appeal for this group would probably have to be blunt, if not arrogant. This is because the news programmer would clearly have to spell out the differences. In effect, the message would be "a port in the storm for the marooned news viewers." The specific appeals might be along the following lines:

1. At WXYZ, credibility counts. You can bank on it.
2. WXYZ, the serious news station.
3. Some stations try to entertain you with their news. We don't have to. At WXYZ, we believe that you want accurate information. And that's just what you'll get.
4. WXYZ, news for thinkers.
5. Who watches WXYZ? The people in Michigan who count.

These examples illustrate how the broadcast industry might benefit by utilizing segmentation strategies to identify and target specific news segments. These illustrations suggest that the progressive station must try to understand the relative importance of each individual segment in the interest of stemming viewer erosion from

competing media and to continue attracting advertising support. In addition, segmentation models might be useful in identifying subaudiences for stations wishing to make inroads in a television news market. From a marketing standpoint, segmentation strategies would seem to make sense. But what impact will this approach ultimately have on the broadcast journalist?

Relevance of Findings for the Broadcast News Journalist

Thus far, the advantages for the audience and the broadcast industry have been evaluated. It has been suggested that stations might benefit by specializing in terms of tailoring the news package to the segmented audience. It has been argued that such an approach might ultimately lead to a loyal following as a result of a better fit between the target audience and the type of news provided. And in the process, viewers would receive customized local news programs.

However, what impact will segmentation have on television news editors and reporters? The simple answer is that it will provide a greater opportunity for journalists to develop specialized skills. Broadcast reporters tend to be jacks-of-all-trades. This is largely a function of editorial staff size. The editorial staff of the Lansing State Journal includes more than 60 people.¹ By contrast,² WILX (Channel 10) in Lansing employs only 24 news people.

Newspapers tend to utilize more personnel in the news gathering process. Of the staff of 24, at WILX, only a few would serve as reporters--most are producers, anchors and support personnel. A segmented market would enable reporters, photographers, news directors and the like to migrate toward stations with the best fit in terms of a news mission. The no-nonsense reporter interested in hard news might migrate toward the station attempting to target Segment 4. The feature reporter might find a comfortable situation with a station interested in targeting Segment 2. For the sports reporter, a position with a station targeting Segment 1 would be a dream come true.

A segmented market would pave the way for the development of skill and expertise in certain areas. Such a situation would clearly define the editorial mission of television news departments. Instead of simply providing pep talks on doing a better job of covering the city, news directors would be able to specifically outline the objectives of the news departments. As such, journalists would benefit by being in a better position to define their duties as journalists.

Relevance of Findings for Journalism Education

Robinson and Levy (1986, p. 15) report that the news media are largely to blame for failing to take into account the audience limitations in terms of news processing

abilities. They write in terms of the "mass audience." Others such as Wenner (1985) and Dizard (1982) have begun to write in terms of "audience segments." Considering this, Robinson and Levy may wish to rephrase their criticism of the media. They may say that the media have failed to identify target audiences and provide information compatible with the processing capabilities of these segments. Graber (1984 p. 215) concluded from a panel study that:

"Political information processing could be facilitated if news people learned to cast information into formats that closely matched those used by audience members for storing information. In an era when most political information was made available through mass media directed to huge audiences, personalized news casting was impossible. This era may be reaching its end. The age of electronic narrow-casting and interactive media communication has arrived, and with it the possibility to personalize political information. . . to match a wider variety of processing needs."

If this is indeed the case, then media educators must consider educational techniques aimed at training journalists in the art of tailoring information to the needs of a segmented audience. In order to achieve this, reporters, editors and especially management personnel such as broadcast news directors and assignment editors must be trained in audience analysis techniques. They must be versed in identifying who is out there. In addition, they must understand the economics of programming in order to make intelligent journalistic and business decisions.

The age of what might be called the "country reporter" is gone. Many reporters of note prior to, and throughout this century, never attended college. Journalism was viewed as a trade with skills acquired on the job. At the moment, journalism is not a profession. Medical doctors, lawyers and even beauticians are authorized to practice as professionals by recognized licensing bodies. Some editors require that their reporters and editors hold degrees from accredited journalism programs. However, this policy decision is set by the publications and broadcast operations themselves. The notion of licensing journalists runs contrary to the First Amendment--the guarantee of freedom of speech.

However, quality news operations will continue to seek the best prepared from the schools of journalism. Preparation in the 1980s and beyond requires an understanding of the audience to be served. And as demonstrated by this research, an appreciation for the segmented audience is needed as well.

In addition, industry will certainly look to the academic community for guidance in terms of market analysis. Thus journalism educators in the 1980s and beyond must be more than individuals teaching the skills of placing words on a page or images on videotape. As demonstrated by the magazine industry, the news market is sufficiently broad to support a host of specialized news products.

With this in mind, journalism educators would be wise to meet the challenge that lies ahead--the mission of training their apprentices in the art of communicating to an increasingly discriminating, segmented news audience. Multidisciplinary programs drawing on marketing management, business administration and quantitative statistics must be developed in order to provide the type of education necessary for the contemporary journalist. Journalists and news managers must be at least minimally conversant in business and marketing skills to be able to intelligently discuss the business of news with consultants hired to study the market.

These recommendations suggest that the "inverted pyramid" might be appropriate in certain instances, but not always. They suggest that summary and multiple leads are generally acceptable, but that other possibilities should be considered. While journalists need to be flexible--they must be proficient at covering the courts and the occasional tornado--they also need to develop expertise in certain areas. These recommendations argue that journalism schools must offer courses in science, sports, business, public opinion and political writing. Journalism schools might team up with departments of meteorology to train weathercasters to be reporters as well as weather personalities.

The forward looking journalism schools will recognize the need to go beyond the training of traditional skills

associated with getting to and covering a story. The big story for the journalist of the future is that he or she must be a specialist--an expert in understanding how to tell the story to a identifiable target audience segment in an increasingly segmented market.

Conclustions

This report has suggested that benefit based segmentation strategies can be extremely useful for broadcasters wishing to define and target specific audience segments. However, scant attention has been paid to what broadcast journalists should do with segmentation strategies. This issue here brings to the fore the age old debate--is broadcast journalism a business in which audience ratings (and, for newspapers, circulation figures) are the only measure of success, or is it a profession in which its practitioners have an obligation to educate and inform the public?

In considering this question, Will Irwin concluded that the press is an extraordinarily powerful institution. Irwin (1911, p. 18) wrote that:

"A newspaper may educate its public up or down; by the very power of constant iteration it may implant one or a number of fixed ideas. . . As a matter of fact, a newspaper may, by iteration, create public opinion and public taste for almost anything--provided it has not some rival contradicting all of its iterations."

Irwin is correct. The press (including the broadcast media) is a powerful institution capable of shaping public opinion. The press recently played an instrumental role in supplying information on the private behavior of a presidential candidate.³ The stories which played prominently on the evening news and were featured in headlines drew attention to a series of events which led to the withdrawal of the candidate from the race.

What is "all the news that's fit to print?" One professor suggests that it is the duty of a moral press to ignore these "murders, suicides, divorces, the follies of polite society." The vigilance with which reporters pursued the stories concerning the moral improprieties which led to the demise of Gary Hart suggests that journalists have found little agreement with this recommendation made 76 years ago (Irwin, 1911).

Irwin (1911) concluded that "the American press has more influence than it ever had in any other time, in any other country. No other extrajudicial force, except religion, is half so powerful." While this may be true in certain circumstances, Irwin neglects the fact that a press without readers or viewers is absolutely powerless. The press draws its power, both in economic and policy terms from its constituency. Quite simply, the New York Times is generally more powerful than the Detroit Free Press because the Times has more readers and is viewed as an elite

newspaper (Merrill, 1976, p. 96). However, the Detroit Free Press may be more powerful than the New York Times in terms of endorsing a Michigan gubernatorial candidate since it is probably read more widely in Michigan and perceived by most Michiganders as a more credible source on Michigan politics than the Times.

Broadcast news editors may have failed to comprehend the power at their disposal. Iyengar, Peters and Kinder (1982) report that prominently placed television news pieces are perceived as more important by the viewers. The political implications of this finding are implications are enormous. While television news agendas might be set largely by newspapers, television news serves an agenda setting function of its own. It legitimizes certain issues suggesting that these are the "important" news items.

Despite this enormous power, television news has been largely duplicative. Turow (1983, p. 111) reports that "a reliance on prepackaged features and public relations sources, coupled with a desire for upbeat, visually interesting stories, results in a similarity of soft news across programs and stations, despite differing programming strategies." Indeed, interesting video can be useful in helping the broadcast reporter convey information. Edwardson, Grooms and Proudlove (1981, p. 15) demonstrated that people did learn more about the story when it was

accompanied by interesting video rather than a "talking head."

Broadcast managers and reporters can hardly be faulted for trying to make their stories more interesting by using interesting video, motion and action to hold the attention of the audience. After all, they do need an audience in order to survive. However, they can be faulted for presuming that this programming style would satisfy the tastes of all of the viewers. Most stations keep news stories short--no more than 50 seconds with soundbites not to exceed 12 seconds (Renick, 1982, p. 198).

Ralph Renick, a broadcast news anchor and institution in Miami, FL, explains that control over the editorial product has departed the television news rooms and now resides with television news consultants. These consulting firms such as McHugh and Hoffman, Inc. and Frank N. Magid and Associates dictate these story length requirements and even set news agendas.

The time requirements along with prescriptions that news managers provide information in an entertaining manner (infotainment) may have helped to create the homogenization described by Turow (1983). But beyond stylistic concerns, consultants have begun to set news agendas. Included in a list of directives from Frank N. Magid Associates to WTVJ in Miami was a recommendation that stories be shorter and focus on action, environment, consumer protection and utilize a

"rapid fire" approach in the presentation of well-known people (Renick, 1982). Included on the list was another recommendation that "Broward County news should not be reported in any great detail" (Powers, 1978, p. 89).

Between 60 percent and 72 percent of the viewers in the ten largest television news markets now receive their news from stations affiliated with either McHugh & Hoffman, Inc. or Frank N. Magid and Associates (Wicks, 1984). News consultants may be responsible for the homogenization of local news (Turow, 1983) if Renick (1982) Powers (1978) and Rosenberg (1984) are correct in their assertions that editorial control now rests mainly with these news consulting firms. Benefit segmentation strategies may provide an opportunity for news managers to regain control of their own news programming.

It seems that all markets may have certain similarities. For example, the same five benefit factors might be expected to emerge time and again. However, university cities--ones in which a university serves as the major industry--would be expected to have a larger Segment 4. In short, the composition of the factors may vary according to the relative importance of each of the factors. Benefit segmentation is simply offered as an economical means by which news markets can be studied.

Broadcast journalists do have an obligation to inform. But broadcasting is primarily an entertainment medium. To

provide the information in an entertaining way may be appropriate for some people. Indeed, it may serve as the elixir needed to make the "news pill" more palatable and easier to swallow. Be that as it may, some stations will surely adopt entertaining news format. But as Steiner (1952) in his classic work on radio formats pointed out, audiences are quite diverse in their tastes, and that programs will continue to emerge as long as a suitably large segment exists to support a particular format.

As Bower (1985) points out, the news appetite is growing. News styles are not unlike radio formats. Broadcasters must respond to the taste of the public irrespective of whether the public is most disposed toward surveillance, reinforcement or entertainment. In a democracy in which free enterprise prevails, the media should respond to the will of the people. Hence benefit segmentation is recommended as a means of filling the void--a method of conscientiously responding to the needs of the people. And in a democracy, the journalist must assume that the people will ultimately make the proper choices in dictating how the media should perform its duties.

Benefit segmentation strategies, if used properly, will simply enable broadcast journalists to study their own markets more effectively--and do a better job of reporting the news of the day to an increasingly demanding news audience.

FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER VI

1

The State Journal in Lansing, Michigan is a newspaper owned by the Gannett Newspaper chain. A spokesman for the newspaper reported that the actual staff size fluctuates but tends to hover at approximately 60. This includes reporting support personnel such as photographers, desk and administrative editors and part-time reporters.

2

WILX, channel 10 in Lansing is an affiliate of The National Broadcasting Company (NBC). A spokesman reported that WILX approximately 24 people in the editorial ranks. However, spokesmen said that only about six members of the staff are reporters. Most members of the editorial staff are support personnel such as photographers and videotape editors, management personnel and news anchors. While news anchors may serve as the carrier of the messages, they rarely partake in the actual news gathering process.

3

Tom Morganthau, "The Sudden Fall of Gary Hart," Newsweek, May 18, 1987, pp. 22-28.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CONSTRUCT GENERATION SURVEY INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX A

CONSTRUCT GENERATION SURVEY INSTRUMENT

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE--CONSTRUCT GENERATION

Good evening, I'm _____ calling from the journalism school at MSU. We are conducting a study to find out what people think about local television news. Your number was selected at random from the telephone book.

I'd like to take about 10-minutes or so to ask you a few questions about television news.

Q 1. Now---Approximately how many times a week do you watch local news?

[If fewer than FOUR TIMES a week, terminate interview]

First, the type of news we want to know about is local television news. In this survey we are not interested in national or international news--for instance, the kind of news presented by Dan Rather or Peter Jennings. The type of news programs we want to know about deals with information, sports and weather from around Michigan.

Q 2. Some people say that an important reason for watching local television news is that it helps them to keep track of what's going on in Michigan.

a-Generally, what type of local news stories help you to keep informed about Michigan news and people?

b-Can you think of any examples of recent local news stories that were especially useful in helping you to keep up with Michigan news and people?

Q 3. Some people say that local news is entertaining. And that an important reason for watching the local news is to be entertained.

a-Generally, what type of local news stories do you find most entertaining?

b-Can you think of any examples of recent local news stories that you felt were especially entertaining?

Q 4 Some people say that they watch local television news because it helps them feel like they are more a part of the community in which they live. In other words-- they say they enjoy stories that are personally relevant.

a-Generally, what local news stories do you find to be most relevant for you?

b-Can you think of any examples of recent local news stories about Michigan people and events that you found very relevant for you?

Q 5 Some people say that they benefit in many ways from watching the local news.

a-Generally, what are the benefits that you find most important in viewing local news about Michigan people and events?

b-Can you think of any recent examples of any local news stories that were found especially beneficial for you?

Q 6 Suppose you were visiting relatives several hundred miles away and were asked to describe local television news in Lansing.

a-Generally...how would you describe it?

b-Can you give any examples of the kinds of things that come to mind?

Q 7 Suppose you had the opportunity to meet the owner of one of the local television stations.

a-What would you tell him about the newscast?

b-What changes would you tell him that you would like to see him make in the newscast?

c-What would you tell him that you would like to remain the same in the newscast?

Q 8 Would you mind telling me the name of the city or town in which you live?

Q 9 Would you mind telling me your age?

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Q 10 Gender: Male or Female

SURVEY RESPONSES--TELEPHONE No. _____

Q1. _____

Q2a. _____

b. _____

Q3a. _____

b. _____

Q4a. _____

b. _____

Q5a. _____

b. _____

Q6a. _____

b. _____

Q7a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Q8. _____

Q9. _____

APPENDIX B

TASK FORCE SURVEY DATA REDUCTION INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX B

TASK FORCE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

INTRODUCTION and INSTRUCTIONS:

My dissertation will test the proposition that a marketing strategy known as benefit-based audience segmentation might be useful in terms of defining television news audiences.

Benefit-based segmentation is largely a product of other segmentation strategies that have not worked very well. Marketing firms and researchers have labored long and hard over the years to find predictor variables that would be useful in determining product choice.

Why segment target audiences? The answer is that people are quite different in their needs and wants and specialized products tailored to specific audiences will often do quite well. For example, think about the number of specialty magazines on the news stands around Lansing. It seems that one is available for just about every taste.

But television news has been quite homogeneous over the years. Channel 6 and Channel 10 in Lansing seem quite similar--they cover mostly the same stories, provide weather and sports and have boy-girl anchor teams. They appear at the same time and run one half hour in length.

The idea behind my dissertation is that emerging technologies will pave the way for more specialized news programming. And that careful study of the make-up of the audience will provide an illustration of the various segments of the audience composition. Thus, an independent station like channel 47 here in Lansing, with its limited resources, may decide to target a narrow, but available segment that is dissatisfied with the news on the network affiliated stations. Therefore, the ultimate goal is to find predictor variables that describe the audience such that news might be provided to suit the taste of a specific audience segment.

One might be tempted to simply assume that demographic variables would be the key. Market researchers concerned with product marketing thought so. They figured that it would be a real break-through if they discovered that old people, for example, liked jellied cranberry sauce, middle aged people did not like cranberry sauce and that young people like whole berry cranberry sauce. Not surprisingly, that's not what they found. Nor did they find that purchase

behavior was often correlated to hair color, gender, race, etc., except in isolated cases.

But a body of literature soon emerged suggesting that social class is a good variable in terms of predicting purchase behavior. However, it soon became clear that social class is often a proxy variable for another variable--that of the ability to consume a product. Quite simply, poor people probably would buy just as many Mercedes Benz automobiles as rich people if they were in the financial position to do so.

Television news is a virtually free activity--the financial cost is a couple of pennies for electricity and an investment of time. Therefore, social class would not seem to be a fitting criterion variable (even as a proxy variable) because virtually anyone can partake in the activity of watching television news. Studies have also shown that the demographic and socio-economic makeup of television news audiences is extraordinarily diverse.

Thus it seemed to me that it was essential to investigate the cognitive aspects of information processing in search of usable predictor variables. The uses and gratifications literature reports that media usage can be linked to four fundamental purposes.

They are:

Surveillance of the environment rooted in a desire to keep informed on what is generally going on.

Diversion including relief from boredom and using the media for general relaxation. Diversion would also include light entertainment as well as excitement generated by adventure and drama.

Personal identity rooted in reinforcement of values and beliefs. This gives added salience to something important in the audience member's own life or situation.

Curiosity in media has often been cited in the literature as well. But some recent work has tended to ignore this reason for media usage because it tends to overlap with each of the other three

Much of the 'uses and gratifications' literature has tended to conclude with a simple laundry list like the one above. What I plan to do is employ the marketing concept of

benefit based segmentation to develop a methodology for assessing the overall market composition within a given television market.

Through factor analysis, it will be possible to uncover the cognitive factors that people employ in their assessment of television news. And with the companion technique of cluster analysis, it will be possible to describe segments according to their preferred usage factors.

To carry out the research, it was essential to conduct a series of in-depth interviews (N=20) with people in the Lansing area to generate television news concepts. I asked heavy local news viewers (4 times a week or more) to answer a series of questions concerning television news. I have included a copy of that survey instrument in this packet for your perusal. The result was a list of more than one hundred reasons that people associated with television news viewing. The interviews suggested that factors associated with surveillance, diversion and personal identity were key reasons for television news viewing. However, two other factors seemed to emerge.

They were:

Production values or the manner in which the newscast was assembled.

Anchor and reporter personality factors or the relative ability of on-air talent to please the news viewer.

I then sorted similar responses into groups of answers. You have the responses on the attached sheets.

The task of each judge is to look over the statements and decide which would be most useful for inclusion on the final questionnaire. You should select the number of statements indicated at the top of each group of statements. If you find that the statements are ambiguous and that you cannot find enough that you believe would be useful, you may select fewer statements. However, you are not permitted to select more than the number designated at the top of each group of statements.

You may simply check off the statements that you select. Please use a pencil and feel free to change your mind if you wish.

Please complete this by Tuesday, January 13, 1986. You may put your scored answer sheet in my mailbox.

PICK 3

Local news programs keep me informed about what the Michigan legislature is doing.

It's important for me to keep track of local and state politics on the news because the decisions made by officials may eventually have an impact on my life.

Stories about state government interest me because eventually they may have an impact on my life.

Stories about state agencies like the social services department are especially relevant since they may eventually affect me.

An important reason for watching the local news is to keep up on the performance of Governor Blanchard.

I turn to television to get news about political issues such as medicaid funding in Michigan.

The local news helps me to keep track of the local political scene.

Stories about the city council are very important because they help me keep an eye on local government and public officials.

PICK 3

The local news has done a good job of alerting me to social ills like the potential of child abuse in nursery schools.

Crime stories are beneficial because they may deter people from doing things when they see how people are treated after they are apprehended.

One major benefit of the news is that it helps me to keep up with my civic obligations--for example, making the right choices when I vote.

Television news helps me to make informed decisions when I vote.

The news helps me to feel more a part of the community because it familiarizes me with other parts of the city as well as keeping me up on events in my own back yard.

Medical stories are a service to the community since they can educate people on how to attend to medical problems.

Television news confirms my suspicion that some Michigan cities are going down the tubes.

PICK 3

Stories about illegal drugs in the society have been important in alerting parents and politicians to the problem of drug abuse among the young people in Michigan.

The biggest benefit of local news is that it keeps you current on local affairs.

A major benefit of watching the news is that it helps you to keep informed about the community.

Keeping up with what's happening in the community is a big benefit of local television news.

Making me aware of what is happening in the community is a key benefit of local television news.

An important reason for watching local news is to keep up on Michigan businesses and local economic issues.

The local news does a good job of keeping up with tenant-landlord issues.

Television news has done a good job of alerting me to the prison problems and the need for more prison space.

PICK 3

I really enjoy human interest stories about interesting ordinary people from around the area.

I find the 'unsung hero' segment on television news interesting and important.

'People' oriented news stories and features are interesting and entertaining.

I find stories about local good samaritans and positive aspects of community life to be very entertaining.

It seems that more features on local people--artists and musicians for example--would be a good use of television time.

I find news features about that features children and schools fun to watch.

Human interest stories like the 'unsung hero' are really interesting and enjoyable.

I like sports stories that spotlight an individual athlete.

PICK 2

The local television news media do a good job of covering disasters such as flooding and fires.

I watch the news to keep track of accidents and disasters.

Local television news departments do a good job of helping me keep track of disasters such as fires and murders.

Local television news helps me keep track of local crime such as murders and rapes.

PICK 2

I pay attention to news about pollution and the impact it is having on the environment.

Television news has helped me track of important state issues such as the rise in water levels in the Great Lakes.

I think the local news does a good job of helping me keep an eye on the universities and colleges around Michigan.

I'm glad the news keeps track of important local stories-- such as redevelopment of the downtown area in my city.

PICK 1

Local newscasts help me keep up on news about medical advances and stories about local hospitals.

Television news has helped people become aware of the AIDS epidemic.

Local newscasts do a good job of keeping up with topics like AIDS and the risks associated with blood transfusions.

PICK 2

I like stories that alert me to the schedule of upcoming events around the area.

The greatest benefit of television news is finding out what is in store in terms of the weather.

Television news helps me keep track of tax increases.

I find the weather forecast very relevant because it helps me to plan what I will wear the next day.

Overall, I'd say the weather is the most important part of the news for me.

PICK 4

I find stories that tell me how to stretch my dollar helpful.

The business and economic reports are the most relevant types of news stories for me.

Stories that help me save money are extremely beneficial for me.

I find that stories about Michigan business and the economic climate in the state are usually quite relevant for me.

I find stories about the automobile industry relevant to me.

I'm always interested in stories about the automobile industry is doing here in Michigan because it affects a lot of people.

Information about plant closings--especially automobile plant closings--is an important reason for watching television news.

Stories about employment and unemployment are of special interest to me.

Coverage of student issues--such as tuition increases--are very important and relevant to me.

One of the most important benefits of the news is to provide information on where the jobs are.

PICK 3

I enjoy television news presented in a casual and relaxed manner.

Local news should simply be down home news with a home town feel.

It seems that television news is more personal than newspapers.

Local television news reporters should try to provide more details about the people and events featured in their stories.

I wish television news programs would cut back on the crime and violence and focus more on the good news around the community.

I look for news that is hard hitting, factual and to the point.

Local television news should be just that--local... I don't want news from other areas or states.

PICK 2

A major benefit of the news is to keep up on sports.

I find sports features fun to watch.

Sports is the most entertaining portion of the newscast.

I think stories about local high school sports are entertaining and fun to watch.

PICK 1

A primary benefit of television news is that it shows you exactly what is happening--you can see the story with your own eyes.

Television news should be like your next door neighbor--friendly and honest.

PICK 2

Television news in Lansing seems quite amateur to me.

The manner in which news in Lansing is presented could certainly stand to be polished up.

Local stations should model their newscasts after ones in big cities like Detroit to make them look more professional.

I would like to see more professionalism in local newscasts.

The manner in which local news is presented is not very imaginative.

Local television news is very provincial in its' approach.

PICK 2

Newscasters should take more time to make news understandable.

It seems to me that newscasters spend too much time on bad news like crime and murders.

Newscasters in Michigan seem to be interested in news about the major universities in the state.

Most of the television news reporters in the Lansing area seem very aggressive when they cover controversial stories.

It annoys me when a television news anchor mispronounces the name of a local person or community.

It is important for television news reporters to find stories on average citizens doing good for the community.

PICK 3

Local newscasts are especially good at keeping me abreast of the most recent news.

I think new technology like the ability to cover news 'live' has helped television news to become important to me.

'Live' interviews are an important part of the news package.

I always try to get to a television set to watch the local news if something important has happened because television reports the story quickly.

I pay close attention to the most recent stories in television newscasts.

Television news keeps me more up to date than newspapers.

I like to see new news stories between 6 p.m. and 11 p.m.

Live news pieces give the impression that the television station is really on top of the story.

A big benefit of television news is that you can catch up quickly on the news without too much effort.

PICK 2

One of the most relevant stories for me was the legislative debate over medicaid funding.

Stories that benefit me most are the ones that talk about things like road repair and new places to shop.

Agricultural stories have a good deal of relevance to me.

I pay close attention to the sports scores to find out if my favorite teams have won.

Television news helped me feel a part of the recent Governor's election in Michigan.

Stories about the new Radisson Hotel and overall renovation of the downtown area give me a sense of pride in the community.

PICK 2

I enjoy seeing family oriented stories with happy endings.

Human interest stories are entertaining and fun to watch.

A relevant story for me might feature some of the good things that are happening around the Lansing area.

I would like to see more news features included on the news.

Television news stories are more interesting when they include some element of drama.

PICK 3

Some newscasters spend too much time joking around--they should just stick to the news.

I like newscasters with personality because they can make a dull story seem more interesting.

Most local newscasters seem to have pleasant personalities.

Local news reporters and anchors in Lansing seem to be mostly beginners in the news business.

Most of the local newscasters are quite boring--they just don't seem to have much of a personality.

Dan Rather and some of the other network newscasters are little too formal for my taste--they could take lessons from some of the local newscasters.

The television news anchors and reporters should strive to be a part of the community.

PICK 1

Keeping more informed than people around me is a clearly a benefit of watching local television news.

The news about downtown redevelopment is helpful because it gives me things to talk about with friends.

I benefit from television news because it gives me information to use in conversations with people.

APPENDIX C

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUMENT

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITYTELEVISION NEWS STUDY
Winter 1987ANSWER BOOKLET

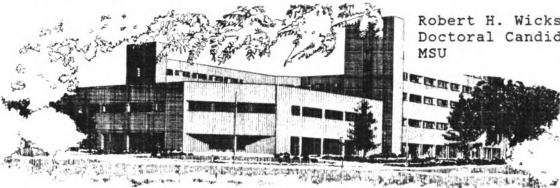
DIRECTIONS: This is a study to find out what people think about local television news. The results will be used in a doctoral dissertation and in scholarly journals. This study is purely academic--it is not connected with any commercial enterprise or local television station.

You will find a list of statements in this booklet describing local television news. Please read each statement and check off one of the statements below ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers--we are simply trying to find out what people think of local television news in the Lansing area.

On the last page of the answer booklet, you will be asked to answer a few questions about yourself. All of your answers will be kept anonymous and confidential. The booklet should take you about eight minutes to complete.

While we appreciate your cooperation, you are under no obligation to complete the questionnaire and may leave at any time. As a token of our appreciation, you will be given a Michigan State University photo book for participating in this study.

Robert H. Wicks
Doctoral Candidate
MSU



1. Stories about state and local government interest me because they may eventually have an impact on my life.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

2. An important reason for watching the local news is to keep up on the performance of Governor Blanchard and the legislature.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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3. I look to television news to help me keep track of the city council, local government activity and elected officials.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

4. Stories about illegal drugs in the society have been important in alerting parents and politicians to the problem of drug abuse among the young people in Michigan.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

5. A major benefit of watching television news is that it helps me keep informed about the community and local affairs.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

6. An important function of local television news is to help me keep up on news about medical advances and stories about local hospitals.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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7. I watch local television news to help me to keep track of disasters such as traffic accidents, fires and floods.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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8. It's important for local television news to keep up on local crime such as murders and rapes in Michigan.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

9. I pay attention to news about pollution and the impact it is having on the environment.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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10. I think the local television news should strive to keep an eye on the universities and colleges around Michigan.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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11. I'm glad the news keeps track of important local stories-- such as redevelopment of the downtown area in my city.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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12. I like stories that alert me to the schedule of upcoming events around the area.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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13. A major benefit of television news is finding out what is in store in terms of the weather.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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14. The weather forecast is very relevant for me because it helps me to plan ahead.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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15. I find stories that help me to save money are extremely beneficial.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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16. Stories about employment and unemployment are of special interest to me.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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17. An important reason for watching the news is to keep track of how the auto industry is doing.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

18. Local television news should strive to alert viewers to social ills like the potential of child abuse in nursery schools.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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19. Television news helps me to make informed decisions when I vote.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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20. I benefit from television news because it gives me information to use in conversations with people.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

21. Stories that benefit me most are the ones that talk about things like road repair and new places to shop.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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22. Agricultural stories have a good deal of relevance to people in the state because Michigan has so many farms and farmers.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

23. I pay close attention to the sports scores to find out if my favorite teams have won.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

24. It seems to me that newscasters spend too much time on bad news like crime and murders.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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25. I really enjoy human interest stories about interesting ordinary people from around the area.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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26. 'People' oriented news features are entertaining.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
--------------------------	--------------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

27. I find stories about local good samaritans and positive aspects of community life to be very entertaining.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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28. I like sports stories that spotlight an individual athlete.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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29. A major benefit of the news is to keep up generally on sports.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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30. Sports is the most entertaining portion of the newscast.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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31. I think stories about local high school sports are entertaining and fun to watch.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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32. I enjoy seeing family oriented stories with happy endings.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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33. A relevant story for me might feature some of the good things that are happening around the Lansing area.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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34. I enjoy television news presented in a casual and relaxed manner.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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35. It seems that television news is more personal than newspapers because we can see the reporters and anchors.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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36. I wish television news programs would cut back on stories about crime and violence and focus more on the good news around the community.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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37. Local television news should be just that--local... I don't want news from other areas or states.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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38. Local newscasts should try to keep abreast of the most recent news stories.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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39. I always try to get to a television set to watch the local news if something of local importance has happened because television news usually gets to the story first.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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40. Live news pieces give the impression that the television station is really on top of the story.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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41. A big benefit of television news is that you can catch up quickly on the news without too much effort.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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42. A primary benefit of television news is that it shows you exactly what is happening--you can see the story with your own eyes.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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43. Television news in Lansing seems quite amateur to me.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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44. I would like to see more professionalism in local newscasts.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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45. Some newscasters spend too much time joking around--they should just stick to the news.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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46. I select local television news based largely on whether I like the newscasters.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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47. It's important for local television newscasters to have pleasant personalities because they make the news more appealing.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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48. A good newscaster brings a sense of credibility to the newscast.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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49. I think newscasters lose credibility when they mispronounce the names of towns or local people.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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50. It's important for local newscasters to be news professionals.

<u>Strongly</u> Agree	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Neither Agree</u> Nor Disagree	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> Disagree
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It has been found that people of different ages and in different jobs have different interests in television news.

To help us study this, we are asking you to give us information about yourself and your job.

51. On the average, how many times a week do you watch local television news?

52. On the average, how many times a week do you read local newspapers?

53. What is your occupation.

54. What is the highest grade you completed in school?

55. What is your race?

56. What is the name of the city or town in which you live?

57. What is your age?

Under 18 _____
 18 to 24 _____
 25 to 34 _____
 35 to 44 _____

45 to 54 _____
 55 to 64 _____
 65 or older _____

58. Please indicate your marital status.

Single _____
 Married _____
 Divorced _____

Separated _____
 Widowed _____

59. What category best describes your household income?

Under \$9,999 _____	\$35,000 to \$39,999 _____
\$10,000 to \$14,999 _____	\$40,000 to \$44,999 _____
\$15,000 to \$19,999 _____	\$45,000 to \$49,999 _____
\$20,000 to \$24,999 _____	\$50,000 to \$54,999 _____
\$25,000 to \$29,999 _____	\$55,000 to \$59,999 _____
\$30,000 to \$34,999 _____	More than \$60,000 _____

60. What is your gender?

Male _____

Female _____

Thank you very much for your participation.
 Be sure to pick up your free MSU gift before you leave.

APPENDIX D

ITEMS COMPRISING FACTORS IN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS

APPENDIX D

ITEMS COMPRISING FACTORS IN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS

Factor 1: Production/Timeliness

1. Live News
Live news pieces give the impression that the television station is really on top of the story.
2. Catch Up
A big benefit of television news is that you can catch up quickly on the news without too much effort.
3. See It
A primary benefit of television news is that it shows you exactly what is happening--you can see the story with your own eyes.
4. First
I always try to get to a television set to watch the local news if something of local importance has happened because television news usually gets to the story first.
5. Casual
I enjoy television news presented in a casual and relaxed manner.

Factor 2: Credibility/Professionalism

6. Newscast
I would like to see more professionalism in local newscasts.
7. Amateur
Television news is Lansing seems quite amateur to me.
8. Jokes
Some newscasters spend too much time joking around--they should just stick to the news.
9. Newscaster
It's important for local newscasters to be news professionals.
10. Pronunciation
I think newscasters lose credibility when they mispronounce the names of towns or local people.

Factor 3: Sports/Entertainment

11. Sports
A major benefit of the news is to keep up generally on sports.
12. Athlete
I like sports stories that spotlight an individual athlete.
13. Spts./Enter.
Sports is the most entertaining portion of the newscast.
14. Scores
I pay close attention to the sports scores to find out if my favorite teams have won.
15. High School
I think stories about local high school sports are entertaining and fun to watch.

Factor 4: Reinforcing News

16. Human Interest
I really enjoy human interest stories about interesting ordinary people from around the area.
17. People Story
'People' oriented news stories and features are interesting and entertaining.
18. Samaritans
I find stories about local good samaritans and positive aspects of community life to be very entertaining.
19. Family
I enjoy seeing family oriented stories with happy endings.

Factor 5: Weather Information

20. Plan For Wex
The weather forecast is very relevant for me because it helps me to plan ahead.
21. Forecast
A major benefit of television news is finding out what is in store in terms of the weather.

Factor 6: Environmental Surveillance

22. Job Market

Stories about employment and unemployment are of special interest to me.

23. Environment

I pay attention to news about pollution and the impact it is having on the environment.

Factor 7: Governmental Surveillance

24. Local Gov.

I look to television news to help me keep track of the city council, local government activity and elected officials.

25. Governor

An important reason for watching the local news is to keep up on the performance of Governor Blanchard and the legislature.

Factor 8: Other Surveillance

26. Child Abuse

Local television news should strive to alert viewers to social ills like the potential of child abuse in nursery schools.

27. Farming

Agricultural stories have a good deal of relevance to people in the state because Michigan has so many farms and farmers.

APPENDIX E

CROSSTABULATIONS AND CHI-SQUARE SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS

Appendix E

Cross Tabulations and Chi-Square Significance Levels

TABLE E.1: Crosstabs Of Clusters By TV News Viewing

		S2	S3	S4		Chi-square significance levels:
V						
I	0-2	11	16	6	33	View. by S2 thru S4 = .0274**
E						View. by S2 and S3 = .0692
W	3-5	59	45	8	112	View. by S2 and S4 = .0096*
I						View. by S3 and S4 = .3492
N	6-+	60	32	5	97	(12 cases missing)
G						* = significant at .01 level
		130	93	19	242	** = significant at .05 level

Table E.1 demonstrates differences in viewing frequency based on segment membership. It suggests that segment 2 is the heaviest users of television news. A statistical differences exists between segment 2 and segment 4. Segments 3 and 4 appear to be more moderate than segment 2.

TABLE E.2: Crosstabs: Clusters By Income

		S2	S3	S4		Chi-square significance levels:
Under 9,999		13	12	2	27	Income by S2 thru S4 = .0222**
						Income by S2 and S3 = .0379**
10-19,999		28	9	1	38	Income by S2 and S4 = .3298
I						Income by S3 and S4 = .0238**
N	20-29,999	22	23	3	48	(14 cases missing)
C						* = significant at .01 level
O	30-39,999	21	22	2	45	** = significant at .05 level
M						
E	40-49,999	13	14	2	29	
	50-59,999	16	7	3	26	
	60 or more	16	5	6	27	
		129	92	19	240	

Table E.2 demonstrates that segment 3 is somewhat less affluent than segments 2 and 4. However, an assumption concerning minimum number of members per cell has been violated in this analysis. Norusis (1986) reports that cells should include no fewer than five members whenever possible. Hence, the significant findings in this table concern differences between S2 and S3.

TABLE E.3 Crosstabs: Clusters By Occupations

		S2	S3	S4	Chi-square significance levels:	
O C C U P A T I O N S	Man	28	22	12	62	Occupat. by S1 thru S3 = .0746
	Tech	43	30	3	76	Occupat. by S2 and S3 = .6516
	Blue	20	11	1	32	Occupat. by S2 and S4 = .0179**
	Stud	18	12	2	32	Occupat. by S3 and S4 = .0732
	Ret	15	6	1	22	(8 cases missing)
	Home	6	8	0	14	* = significant at .01 level
		133	93	20	246	** = significant at .05 level

Table E.3 demonstrates that segment 2 is largely blue collar and technical. Segment 4 is virtually all managerial and segment 3 tends toward managerial.

TABLE E.4: Crosstabs: Clusters By Age

		S2	S3	S4	Chi-square significance levels:	
A G E	Under 18	4	2	0	6	Age by S1 thru S3 = .2106
	18 to 24	41	22	0	63	Age by S2 and S3 = .7553
	25 to 34	34	28	8	70	Age by S2 and S4 = .0510**
	35 to 44	25	18	8	51	Age by S3 and S4 = .1319
	45 to 54	9	6	1	16	(9 cases missing)
	55 to 64	9	11	1	21	* = significant at .01 level
	65 plus	11	6	1	18	** = significant at .05 level
		133	93	19	245	

Table E.4 suggests that segment 4 is somewhat younger than segment 2. A statistical difference is not evident between any other combination of segments. However, an assumption concerning minimum number of members per cell has been violated in this analysis. Norusis (1986) reports that cells should include no fewer than five members whenever possible.

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