

**Media use of Taiwan students at Iowa State University**

**by**

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## INTRODUCTION

### Foreign Students in America

Over the past 30 years, foreign students have become a common sight on American campuses and universities. According to Immigration and Naturalization Service, there were 121,362 international students in the fiscal year 1968 who were regularly enrolled in different higher educational institutions in America. During 1973-1974, over 150,000 students from around the world were enrolled in institutions of higher education in the United States and its outlying territories. From 1981 to 1982, the number of foreign students in America reached 326,299 (cited in Lee, 1984). These hundreds of thousands of foreign students are involved in a different life in this host country and are exposed to its societal values, customs, individual roles, etc. which are either similar to or different from those in their home countries. For those students whose past cultural experiences are very different from those of the United States, their adjustment to a new culture might be either pleasant or traumatic.

In the social sciences, a fair amount of attention to cross-cultural research has been given to the area of foreign student adjustment in the United States. For example, the 160 empirical and 44 non-empirical studies summarized by Spaulding and Flack (1976) are focused on this area. About one-fourth of these studies concentrate on foreign students' attitudes and the problems of social adjustment.

Selltiz et al. (1956) and Du Bois (1962) in their studies on foreign students attending American colleges and universities found differences in adjustment among European and non-European students. European students, perceiving fewer differences between their countries and the United States, were more apt to adjust to the American society than non-European students.

In the study of 60 male Iowa State University foreign students from India and West Europe, Noury (1970) found that European students are more adjusted to the United States than students from India. He concluded that, in relation to the adjustment to the host country, the attitudes of foreign students toward some selected aspects of America were not significant.

According to Seyfi (1979), most studies that have been done dealing with the subject of foreign students' adjustment showed that those students' association with Americans and adapting to American social norms are usually considered as the main criterion and variables for measuring foreign students' adjustment to the host society. However, Seyfi found that in many studies the influences of mass media on foreign students' socialization process, and the role the media play in the adjustment of individuals to a new environment, are totally ignored or neglected.

The studies in the area of foreign student adjustment find that sociologists and economists are interested in subcultures which exist and in describing the extent of contact between these subcultural units.

They investigated the processes through which innovations are transmitted to other cultures and subcultures and have added to the fund of knowledge about them. Anthropologists have an interest in cross-cultural interactions. They describe the emergence of cultures, comparing them and relating personality development to culture. Religious groups have found that the knowledge of the culture of the target group aids in the accomplishment of their tasks.

Concerning the cultural factors involved in the foreign student studies, we find that most previous studies have examined specific aspects of life styles and social relationships or problems of foreign students. These studies have thrown considerable light on the life-style and life space of diverse groups among foreign students in America. However, they tended to overstress the significance of the results by not taking into account other socio-psychological factors which are important to an individual and his/her nationality group.

In the case study of a Korean ethnic group in Los Angeles, Chang (1972) found that there are three major approaches for the study of foreign students--the cultural, the sociological, and the psychological. The cultural, social structural and personality factors all impinge on foreign students' communication patterns and affect their adjustment in the host country. Therefore, it is assumed that different cultures, value systems, beliefs, languages, religions, socio-economic statuses, motivations, and other demographic factors may be the common denominators for the foreign students study.

### Taiwan Students in America

Every year, there are tens of thousands of Chinese students from Taiwan who become involved in the American educational system and social life. Like the students from many other countries, those Chinese students have to adjust themselves to the host country through a socialization process. In the social learning process, no formal socialization education has been provided to them except some English classes.

Seyfi (1979) found that for most foreign students who come to the United States, there are three possible agents of learning about American culture and language: (1) Americans; (2) friends from the same country; and (3) the mass media. In other words, foreign students are exposed to interpersonal communication and mass communication which are two of the most important forms of human communication in the cultural learning process (Kang 1987). Seyfi (1979) stated that even though interpersonal communication is still preeminent in social learning, the indirect cues of mass media seem to be a predictor which shapes the perceptions of foreign students toward American norms either negatively or positively.

In the study of social adjustment of Chinese students at the University of Minnesota, Kang (1972) found that 80% of the Chinese students create their own small community which contributes to maintenance of traditional values and belief systems. They live together, support their own church, belong only to Chinese organizations,

and maintain close ties with their homeland. Therefore, Kang concluded that degrees of social isolation may be related to the finding that there is frequently little interaction between foreign and American students.

Kang's conclusion can relate to the research done by Seyfi (1979). Seyfi's study showed that for non-English speaking students, home country friends were the first important and practical source to teach them the American life-style. Television was the second source and American friends the third or the least useful channel among the three. For English speaking foreign students, American friends and television are equally indicated to be the first important source in this issue. For this group, home country friends were not as useful as the two other sources.

Previous studies confirmed that non-English speaking students used home country friends as important practical sources of the American life-style. Foreign students--especially those from developing countries--are likely to find new elements in American mass media such as entertainment, information, learning language, and learning about the new life. In general, foreign students are found to spend at least up to two hours on mass media per day. Among the four different media--Television, radio, printed media, and movies--television seems to be the medium foreign students devote most of their time to (Seyfi 1979).

Like other foreign students, Chinese students are also exposed to American mass media. However, in relation to the study done at the University of Minnesota that showed most Chinese students maintain

traditional values and belief systems and have close ties with their homeland, we may have to take a look at the students' social-cultural backgrounds which might affect their mass media behavior in the United States.

In Taiwan, most students spend quite a few years studying English in school or on their own. From junior high through high school, students take basic English courses. In colleges and universities, however, only those students with a major in English study advanced English. The rest of the students would then spend most of the time on their major. In general, Taiwan students are able to read English well. They subscribe to English newspapers or magazines such as Time, and Newsweek, which are also available in bookstores. Through television and radio stations, students learn English through classes designed to teach English. However, many Chinese students lack the opportunity to speak or write English. Therefore, it is likely that it takes a lot of effort to handle language problems in American colleges or universities. This might be one of the reasons that they create a small community and associate with Chinese friends only. To improve their used language, some may turn to mass media to practice understanding spoken English. However, under the pressure of academics, some Chinese students may spend only limited time on American mass media.

Although studying in the United States, Chinese students still have access to Chinese newspapers and magazines sent by mail or available in the library. One unique phenomenon is the Chinese press in the United



States. According to Chang's (1983) study, while other ethnic newspapers in America seem to be on the decline, the Chinese newspapers are flourishing. It was reported in 1982 that there are 24 newspapers serving the Chinese community. And because the majority of the Chinese population settled in four major cities--Houston, Los Angeles, New York, and San Francisco, the Chinese newspapers are clustered in these four areas.

Chang found that over a period of more than one hundred years, the establishment of Chinatowns and the steady influx of the Chinese immigrants ensure the survival of the Chinese press. According to the 1970 U.S. census, the Chinese had a population of 435,062 and were the second largest Asian-American ethnic group in the United States, ranking only below the Japanese. In the 1980 U.S. census, the Chinese population jumped to 806,020, an increase of 85% over the last decade. As a result, the Chinese outnumbered the Japanese and became the largest Asian-American ethnic group.

Two things in Chang's study were found relative to the emergence of the Chinese press. First, since the early days, many of the Chinese immigrants had limited ability to read and write English. Second, the metropolitan media have often ignored the ethnic minorities in the United States. The Chinese are no exception. For example, Mu (1982) found that the Chinese community in New York has been largely ignored by the New York Times over a period of 80 years.

While the total Chinese population in the United States is increasing, the number of the Chinese students from Taiwan is also increasing sharply. The U.S. census in 1977 showed that there were 13,650 Taiwan students enrolled in American colleges or universities. By 1985, the number of Taiwan students reached 23,777. The increasing number of Chinese students from Taiwan apparently had little to do with the flourishing Chinese press in the United States. However, in some areas like Houston, New York, Los Angeles, and San Francisco, a number of these Chinese students do use Chinese newspapers for information or entertainment. Moreover, Chinese publications are available in Chinatowns.

To summarize, Chinese students like to associate with Chinese organizations and have little interaction with Americans. They have study pressures and don't spend much time on American mass media. They have access to Chinese press in the United States and can get Chinese publications from Chinatowns. It is assumed that these factors do have impact on their use of American mass media. The purpose of this study is to determine (1) how much and at what level Taiwan students (in Iowa State University) use American mass media; (2) how much they take advantage of American media, and in what ways and for what purposes? (3) what kind of programs or medium attracts them the most and why? (4) the effect the American mass media has on them.

The above questions were investigated by distributing a self-administered questionnaire among 200 Chinese students (from Taiwan) who are currently enrolled in Iowa State University.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

## Brief Study of Foreign Students

Foreign students are considered as a growth "industry" in higher education in the United States. In 1930, 9,643 foreign students were studying in America. The number had grown to 33,647 in 1953 (Du Bois, 1956). During 1973-1974, over 150,000 students from around the world were enrolled in institutions of higher education in America and its outlying territories (cited in Lee, 1984). According to the Comparative Education Center, State University of New York at Buffalo, in 1985 more than 336,000 foreign students were studying in this country, constituting about 3% of the total enrollment in postsecondary education. Foreign students are even more important in graduate education, constituting about 15% of the total, and in some fields such as engineering and computer science, foreign students comprise about half of the total enrollment. It has been estimated that in the United States, more than \$2.5 billion is devoted to the education of students from other countries each year.

As William Semlak (1979) indicated, after returning to their home countries, foreign students who have attended American colleges and universities often assume important leadership positions in government, business and opinion-making organizations. Because of the importance of their role, it is natural to focus more attention on the foreign student.

In 1985, the Comparative Education Center reviewed research relating to international (foreign) students undertaken over the past two and a half decades. However, their consideration only touched the surface of a varied literature. They found that the literature concerning foreign students is by now extensive, but it is of relatively recent origin for the most part. According to their research,

"American researchers are responsible for the bulk of the literature to date--our guess is that perhaps 70% of the research uses North America data and is by scholars in North America. This fact will naturally affect the topics and orientations of the research, since the concerns and methodological orientations of North American researchers will be largely reflected in the literature. Further, issues of student adjustment, cross-cultural relations and similar topics seem to dominate the literature. There is relatively little directly concerning policy, economics, or politics of foreign study" (cited in Altbach, 1985).

The Comparative Education Center also found three distinct characteristics of the extensive research on foreign students. First, a great proportion of it is based on American data and much of the U.S. research is devoted to exploring either the cross-cultural consequences of studying abroad or the conditions and means necessary to help international students adapt and succeed in a foreign institutional and cultural environment. Second, the research is characterized by a great deal of disordered diversity in terms of topics covered, findings, and conclusions. Sometimes two or more studies on the same topic would emerge with radically different conclusions and recommendations (throwing the prospective policy maker into a quandary). Third, all the findings in the research are not a synopsis but a summary of recurrent themes

supported by usually more than one study, although based on a different population sample (cited in Altbach, 1985).

With a grant from the Exxon Education Foundation and additional financial support from the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) and the Institute of International Education, the Comparative Education Center launched a project on foreign student research in 1985. They first completed a bibliography which includes items relevant to a broad understanding of foreign students. This volume is international in scope, and is the first effort to provide an international perspective on foreign students. Its focus is on material published in the past few decades and it follows the pioneering effort of Seth Spaulding and Michael Flack in the World's Students in the United States: A Review and Evaluation of Research on Foreign Students, published in 1976. However, this book has a different focus in that the Comparative Education Center is concerned with presenting as comprehensive an overview as possible of the field, while Spaulding and Flack were largely interested in providing an analysis of the research.

Concerning research in this study - "The Media Use of Taiwan Students at Iowa State University" data particularly related to Taiwan students were scarce. However, there is a fair amount of research on foreign students in general which provides a broad understanding of students from both industrialized countries and the Third World.

As mentioned earlier, not only are foreign students expected to adjust themselves to the educational system in America, but they also

must go through a process of socialization--the process of encountering new values, relationships, customs, etc. In the social learning process, no formal socialization education has been provided to those students except some English classes. Seyfi's research in 1979 points out that for most foreign students, there are three possible agents of learning about American culture and languages: (1) Americans; (2) friends from the same countries; and (3) the mass media.

The area of socialization will be discussed in the following literature review which focuses on issues of student adjustment and cross-cultural contact, in order to grasp a general picture of foreign students during their academic years in the United States. The media use by foreign students is another major section in this review. Several important variables associated with media use behavior are discussed.

#### Cross-cultural contact and adjustment of foreign students

Anyone who has examined application forms knows that the statements made on the motives are as conventional and stereotyped as are the expressed goals of various fellowship programs. Foreign students may bring with them a wide range of publicly declared, privately admitted, and even unconscious motives. Therefore, the range of personal motives for studying abroad is not easily determined.

A number of studies have been conducted on the motives of foreign students studying abroad. Cora Du Bois (1956) found that some students are motivated by an eagerness to assume new skills. They are task-

centered individuals, representing one type of foreign guest. For many of these students, the acquisition of degrees may acquire what seems to their advisers and teachers a disproportionate importance. Du Bois also found that some task-centered students see the relevance of such skills to the welfare of their country; others may be little involved with idealistic notions of their nation's welfare. Still other students may be discouraged by their life chances in their homelands, and a fellowship opportunity may appear to them as the first step toward possible emigration. It may be true that many single women from widely diverse countries hope that marriage to an American citizen may result from a study sojourn here.

Additional research indicates that there are a myriad of push and pull factors involved in the motives (Glaser and Habers, 1978). Push factors are variables pertaining to home-country, such as availability of scholarships for study abroad, poor quality educational facilities, lack of research facilities, enhanced value (in the market place) of a foreign degree, discrimination against minorities, and politically uncongenial situations. Pull factors are variables pertaining to host-country, such as availability of scholarships to international students, good quality education, presence of relatives willing to provide financial assistance, congenial political situations, and opportunity for general international life experience. In many cases, there is more than one motivation involved.



According to the Comparative Education Center, probably the largest number of international students--particularly those from Third World nations--wish to improve their professional opportunities at home by studying abroad. In many instances, they obtain training in technological or other fields. A foreign degree holds prestige; both the skills obtained abroad and the benefits of having studied abroad are highly valued. Such foreign qualifications are quite useful on the job market in most Third World countries and usually yield higher salaries and better prospects for promotions.

The Comparative Education Center concludes that motivations are quite difficult to discern and push and pull factors vary considerably. The equation for students from industrialized nations is quite different than for those from the Third World. Economics, politics, and prestige as well as desire for knowledge enter into the motivating forces for international study.

#### What Are the Problems and Needs of Foreign Students?

Over the decades, many studies have attempted to identify problems and needs of foreign students on different campuses. Moor (1965) suggested that dissatisfaction of foreign students with their American experience was with specifics and not general. He outlined the following foreign student problems: 1) problems related to proficiency in English; 2) problems caused by differences in the educational systems; 3) problems of adjustment to the American culture; 4) problems related to the

complexity of the situation in terms of the number of adjustments required and the time allowed for making them; 5) problems of legal impediments to study abroad; 6) problems of academic performance; 7) problems of inadequate resources; and 8) problems of social adjustment. A number of studies supported Moor's view. The study conducted by Rising and Copp (1968) uncovered lack of proficiency in English as the major problem.

Johnson (1971), in a study of foreign students at the University of Tennessee, also claimed that English language proficiency was the most frequent problem of foreign students. Financial problems, separation from family, and homesickness came next. Moghrabi, 1972, studied the problems of foreign students at the University of Nebraska and found that English language problems were the most prominent. He also found that emotional anxiety was commonly due to lack of social life and linguistic problems. However, financial problems were not found to be of concern to the majority of students in his study (cited in Altbach, 1985).

Problems and need of foreign students seem to change over time. Klien et al., 1977, reported that early problems were those associated with loneliness, followed by academic problems, and later by emotional and interpersonal problems. They also found that self-confidence was a major factor in meeting social needs of foreign students. They suggested a shift be made from concern with the foreign aspect of foreign students to the human aspect (cited in Altbach, 1985).

The loneliness problem is coupled with a relative lack of interaction between U.S. students and foreign students. Penn, 1977, investigated the barriers of interaction between foreign and U.S. students (cited in Altbach, 1985). Foreign students considered difficulty in understanding the language and their unfamiliarity with American customs to be the major barriers to interaction with Americans. American students stated the following barriers in the order of seriousness: 1) unfamiliarity with foreign customs; 2) misinterpretation of actions; 3) dislike of particular national groups; 4) dislike of personal characteristics such as aggressive behavior and attitude toward members of the opposite sex; and 5) language problems.

Melven Carl Ray, in his study on foreign students' perceptions of barriers in 1983, surveyed 1,897 foreign students from 30 universities across the nation and found that foreign students' racial and cultural backgrounds seem to be the two most salient factors contributing to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their relationships involving U.S. nationals. Those students whose racial and cultural backgrounds differ significantly from those of caucasian U.S. nationals seemed to have perceived these differences as a barrier for their establishing good relationships with U.S. nationals. These findings suggest the existence of discrimination and prejudicial attitudes against foreign students based on their racial and cultural backgrounds.

Concerning the issue of "international student needs" (needs relating to such nonacademic matters as finance, housing, health,

information, leisure, etc.), the literature suggests diversified needs of varying importance existing among foreign students. They may be broadly categorized as; 1) academic needs; 2) linguistic needs; 3) other cultural-related needs; 4) interpersonal needs; 5) financial needs; 6) daily-living materialistic needs; and 7) post-return needs. (Lee, 1981)

Under the auspices of the National Association for Foreign Students Affairs, Lee et al. (1981) conducted an extensive research in 1981 on needs of international students from developing nations at U.S. colleges and universities. Among their major findings were the following: ranking at the top of the list was adequate finance; second, acquisition of credentials; third, acquisition of relevant specialized skills and knowledge; fourth, obtaining a job at home equal to one's training, and fifth, obtaining relevant practical training experience in the U.S. before returning home. Ranking at the bottom of the list of needs were first, need for information on getting one's customary food and food ingredients; second, need for information on English courses for international students; third, needs for sharing housing with U.S. nationals; fourth, need for observing religious practices. Still there were other needs that ranked even lower than these, such as the need for information on dating customs, or need for getting used to U.S. food, etc.

Throughout the literature, Lee et al. identified certain independent variables as being significantly related to problems and need of foreign students. These variables are age, sex, marital status, English language

proficiency, academic level, sponsorship, major fields, length of stay, region of the world and country of origin, size of school, orientation, living arrangements, employment at home, previous international experience, and national status accorded.

#### Adjustment (Behavior) of Foreign Students ✓

Sellitz et al. (1963) found several important factors related to adjustment behavior of foreign students. These factors were classified under two general headings: characteristics of the student's experience during his sojourn in America and characteristics of the student and his background.

In the research, they found that students from different parts of the world differed in some aspects of adjustment. Europeans reported less trouble than Asian students in becoming accustomed to the American diet and pace of living, were less bothered by a feeling that their actions were misunderstood, and had less hesitancy to talk with Americans. Consequently, more of the European students felt that they had accomplished all they had set out to do during the year, and they were more likely to say that they had very much enjoyed their stay in the United States, while the Asians reported less satisfaction with the cultural and recreational facilities available.

Proficiency in English, according to Selltiz et al., didn't affect the adjustment behavior of foreign students very much. They found that less fluent students reported no more difficulty or concern over academic

work than their more fluent colleagues. Other research, however, has different findings. The majority of the research findings agreed that proficiency in English was positively related to academic performance (Elting, 1970).

Lack of proficiency in English is often thought of as the source of foreign student social problems. Morris (1960) found that difficulty with English was negatively related to foreign student's satisfaction with their stay and contact with U.S. nationals. Nenyod (1975) concluded that some social, housing, and food problems were caused by a lack of proficiency in English. English language proficiency was also found to be related to social and emotional adjustment (Selltiz et al., 1963; and Hull, 1978).

Orientation programs were found to have little effect on the students' adjustment. Few differences were reported between students who had attended the orientation centers and those who had not. In their reports of academic difficulties, the two groups appeared the same except that those who had been in the orientation program were somewhat less likely to report trouble in settling down to academic routines at the beginning of the year.

The Comparative Education Center, through their overview of the literature, found that international study was potentially filled with stress for those who undertook it. Stress arose from the sojourn in an alien cultural setting and took such forms as loneliness, personal depression, various psychosomatic illnesses, etc. Research shows that

the major cause is what may be referred to as the cross-cultural isolation factor. Foreign students almost everywhere complain about this factor. For, unless a foreign student can establish frequent, (or as desired) easy and harmonious interrelationships with the natives of the host-country, it is almost absolutely predictable that his/her sojourn will be one of considerable dissatisfaction. Positive contact with natives of the host-country ranks at the very top of international student needs, only next to academic success.

In the similar study of this issue, Hull (1978) found that those international students who had frequent positive cross-cultural contact with Americans (via such practices as joint academic work, visits, outings, discussion, participation in artistic/social/communal activities, and so on) were the ones most likely to report "less loneliness and homesickness, more favorable attitudes about their experience in general, less desire to return home, less discrimination, and basically fewer negative reactions of experiences during their sojourn in the United States."

The Comparative Education Center research points out four very important variables that determine positive cross-cultural contact: language proficiency; previous travel experience; absence of discrimination; and cultural background. Adequate facility with the language of the host-country and institution is not only an important determinant of academic success but also success in breaking down cross-cultural isolation.

Concerning the four important variables, Klineberg and Hull (1979) found that those international students who had had travel experience away from their home countries for at least a month tended to be better adapted at establishing positive contact. Previous travel experience and language proficiency in itself is of little use if the response from the host natives is one of hostility. Therefore, insofar as discrimination against people of other races, religion, etc. exists in a given country, positive cross-cultural contact for foreign students in that country would be curtailed.

The fourth important factor in facilitating or inhibiting cross-cultural contact is the foreign student's cultural background. In their comparative study of Indian and Chinese students, White and White (1981) report that the factor of cultural background was so important that it even overrode the language proficiency factor when they tried to correlate it to social adjustment.

Many studies have been done on the issue of cross-cultural contact between Americans and foreign students from different countries. For example: "An Analysis of U.S.-Iranian Cooperation in Higher Education," by Carl K., ed. Eicher; "Psychiatric Implications of Cross-Cultural education: Chinese Students in the U.S.A." by Eng-Kung Yeh, et al.; "The Effects of a Year's Experience in American on the Self Image of Scandinavians: A Preliminary Analysis of Reactions to a New Environment," by Lotte, Bailyn, and H.C. Kelman; "Status Comparability and Attitudes Toward a Foreign Host Nation: A Cross-Cultural Study." by



Charles A. Salter; "Indian Students and the United States: Cross-Cultural Images," by Marvin Bressler and Richard D. Lambert, "Effects of Cross-Cultural Experience on National Images: A Study of Scandinavian Students in American," by Lotte Bailyn and Herbert C. Kelman, etc.

#### Attitudes and Attitudinal Change of Foreign Students

Along with the study of adjustment, research concerning attitudinal change of foreign students toward America has been another important topic. Studies have attempted to discover what seems to be the most probable sources of influences on attitudes toward America and how these attitudes changes over time.

The celebrated "U-curve" hypothesis first advanced by Serre Lysgaard, following his study of the 1953 Norwegian Fulbright grantees in 1955, states:

"Adjustment as a process over time seems to follow a U-shaped curve: adjustment is felt to be easy and successful to begin with; then follow as a "crisis" in which one feels less well adjusted, somewhat lonely and unhappy; finally one begins to feel better adjusted again, becoming more integrated into the foreign community."

Lysgaard (1955) explained the U-curve finding as follows. He said, "The visiting student typically started with a very positive attitude toward the United states; then, during the first year, he had problems of adjustment and tended to become disillusioned; but beyond a certain time he gained a deeper and more sophisticated insight and become increasingly favorable toward America."

Becker, 1968, warned against the generalization of the U-curve proposition to all foreign students. The U-curve pattern of adjustment and attitudinal change, he contended, may be a valid characterization of the Western Europeans or Scandinavian students in America but may not apply to the majority of students from underdeveloped countries. Thus Becker created the term "anticipatory adjustment" to support his view which was intended to denote a process of selective adoption of attitudes on the basis of their utility in easing the person's adjustment to anticipated drastic and immediate changes in his environment. He found that students from underdeveloped countries showed a reversed pattern of the U-curve proposition: the initial and final phases of the sojourn were characterized by a relatively hostile attitude toward the United States and an idealization of the home country. On the other hand, the middle phase was marked by quite a detachment from the home country and the compatriot group, and by more favorable and less stereotyped view of the America. The "cultural shock" and the process of "anticipatory adjustment" are claimed to be responsible for the relatively hostile attitude toward the United States occurring at the initial and final phases of the sojourn (cited in Comparative Education Center, 1985).

Despite the many studies that support the "U-curve" hypothesis, the Comparative Education Center claims that there does not seem to be much empirical support for the hypothesis. They say that one of the few truly international studies (Klineberg and Hull, 1979) designed to study the cross-cultural problems that international students face while abroad,

and the strategies used to handle these problems, concluded that those researchers' data presented almost no support for the hypothesis. They found that the frequency of occurrence of the key variables (personal depression; loneliness; homesickness, and so on) pertaining to the hypotheses had nothing to do with the duration of the foreign sojourn.

The positive or negative attitudes toward the host country, the research indicates, were principally a matter of satisfactory social and academic adjustment and to a much lesser extent, national origin. For example, Hull found that, in general, European and African students had negative attitudes toward the United States whereas Asian students had much more positive attitudes.

Research has tempted to study attitudes of international students toward those with whom they share a common racial heritage. European and African students were found to display negative attitudes toward those Americans who, on the surface, bear the closest resemblance to them.

Some researchers suggested the need for examination of foreign students' attitudinal changes in their own native psychological and social milieu. They recommended extended study of attitudinal changes of foreign students after they return home. Becker (1968) asserted that, from both a theoretical and policy-oriented standpoint, the interest in the adjustment and attitudinal changes to the United States and home country on the part of foreign students must extend beyond the cutoff point of departure from the United States.

## Chinese Students in U.S. Universities

### The social-historical background of Chinese students in the United States

The influx of Chinese students into America started at the beginning of this century when the American government transformed a sum of Chinese reparations into a fund for scholarships. Before the end of World War II, a small number of highly selected Chinese students came to the United States every year, most of them under the auspices of this fund. Those students often studied at the prestigious American universities and returned to China after they had finished their study. This kind of exchange program lasted for a half century until the 1950s, when suddenly a large number of Chinese students started to pour into the country. Several factors caused this dramatic increase, one of which was the political transformation in China after World War II.

Immediately before 1949, when the Communists expelled the Nationalist Chinese government from mainland China, a large number of middle class Chinese had moved to Taiwan. However, these mainland Chinese never expected to stay in Taiwan but hoped to return to mainland China, a hope that expired after the Korean War. Since the 1950s, the mainland Chinese in Taiwan have tended to migrate to other countries. The large influx of Chinese students in America reflected this movement. During the 1960s, more than 2,000 Chinese students came to the United States each year (Appleton, 1970)

Some studies showed that Chinese are conservative in their outlook (Hwang, 1967; Appleton, 1970). This is partly because of the traditionally conservative Chinese culture, and partly because of the contemporary educational practices and governmental policies administered in Taiwan.

Most Chinese students have an idealistic picture of the United States before they come to this country. To them, the U.S. represents freedom and democracy and the American people represent friendliness and liberalism (Chang, 1972).

According to Chang, the idealization of the United States is often intensified and perpetuated by Chinese returning from the U.S., who usually report the positive aspects but conceal the hardship and embarrassment of the sojourn. To those students, the sojourn itself holds social status and to make slight of it would depreciate it. Somehow, the selective reporting and exaggeration of the rosy aspects of the sojourn generates a misconception of the sojourn and intensifies the adjustment to difficulties among Chinese students in the United States.

Many other factors lead Chinese students to have unrealistic expectations of the sojourn. The expectation and over-identification of those returning Chinese students led them into an unrealistic anticipation of the sojourn experiences in America (Chang, 1973).

### Chinese Students Studying in the U.S.

Several studies have been conducted on the issue of Chinese students studying in the United States. M. Culha (1974) studied 90 foreign students at the University of Minnesota in terms of their needs and satisfactions. Significant variation was found between Canadian, European, and Chinese student groups concerning the opportunity to become familiar with American culture and friends. The findings show that those students who were least likely to have satisfaction with being involved in American culture and having American friends were the Chinese group. In other words, Chinese students were most dissatisfied with the American institutions, in terms of the cultural adjustment at the University of Minnesota.

Another study by Man Ping Lam (1979) focuses on the problems of Chinese students at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. According to the study, there were statistically significant differences between the percentage of problems mentioned by the students from the Republic of China and the students from Hong Kong. Also there were statistically significant differences in ego strength and adjustment between Chinese students with many problems and those with few problems.

Chang's study on attitudes of Chinese students in the United States was intended to investigate the life situation of Chinese students in the U.S. and their attitudes toward this country, as well as to test the hypotheses developed by earlier research. This study found that Chinese students' attitudes toward America is positively associated with contact

with Americans but negatively associated with authoritarianism. A U-curve hypothesis with regard to attitude change through time was partially supported. No relationship was found between a Chinese student's attitude and the perceived national status of his home country or his degree of frustration.

### The Use of Mass Media in America

Several variables such as age, sex, income, race, and educational level have important influence on media use behavior of audiences. The level of education has been a primary variable in studying media use behavior. Literature shows that more educated people spend more time on the printed media, but less on the broadcast media than the less educated people (Bogart, 1981).

Bogart (1981) summarizes the findings in terms of media use by U.S. general population as follows:

"In contemporary America, there is almost universal daily contact with the three major media. In the course of an average weekday, 83% of the adult public watch some television, and 68% listen to radio, while seven out of ten read a newspaper. But the audience profiles of the three media differ substantially. Radio, like newspaper, draws people of above average income and educational levels are least likely to watch television in the course of a given day. More young people than older ones are radio listeners and fewer are newspaper readers or television viewers" (p. 115):

In general, whites, males, persons with high educational levels and high social and economic status say they prefer newspapers, while blacks, females and persons of lower socioeconomic status say they are heavy television users. In the exposure to mass media among different races,

Greenberg and Dominick (1969), and Bower (1973) concluded that blacks in general spend more time with television than whites and they are not yet content with the amount of time they consume.

With regard to age, it is found that older adults seem to watch more television than younger adults although there is some evidence that the pattern is curvilinear with adults in their forties viewing least. Also, viewing seems to drop between early to late adolescence. Older adults also appear to read newspapers more and listen to the radio less (O'Keefe and Spetnagel, 1973).

#### Media Use by Foreign Students

As for mass media use by foreign students, the subject of this research, limited studies have been done although foreign students spend a substantial amount of time on U.S. mass media. There are two theses proposed in investigating certain reasons foreign students spend time on American mass media (Ryu, 1976; Seyfi, 1979).

In his study titled "Neo-socialization Function of Mass Media Working among Foreign Students," Jung Shing Ryu investigated a group of 160 foreign adults (husband and wives) at the University of Oregon from 28 different countries. Of his sample, 60 people were from English speaking countries including Canada, Australia, England, and Ireland, and 100 people were from non-English speaking countries. The average age of his sample for males was 31 and for females was 28.



The availability of the mass media among foreign students was found to be rather high and 92.5 percent of the sample owned at least one radio and television set. Husbands and males were a little higher than wives in terms of daily newspaper readership. Only 63.1 percent of the sample read foreign newspapers. Magazine readership was generally high. Among non-English speaking students only 13 percent did not read American magazines, while among native English speakers, only one percent of them did not read a magazine. Foreign magazines were read by 51 percent of non-English speakers and by 36.7 percent of native English speakers.

Ryu found several important variables affecting foreign students' media use behavior. He suggested three variables: English proficiency, length of residence, and degree of assimilative attitudes. Ryu found that low English proficiency is related to high television exposure and high consumption of TV programs that offer chances to learn English and are easily understood, while high English proficiency is associated with high exposure to the printed media. This research reveals that since television provides most information about America for new students from non-English speaking countries, TV has become the most important medium for foreign students. Moreover, as the length of residence increases, TV becomes a medium of news such as public affairs, news shows, and news documentaries. There is a close correlation between newspaper readership and length of residence, especially for non-English speakers.

In comparing native English speakers and non-English speaking foreign students, Ryu found that there were differences in reasons for

watching television between both groups. More non-English speakers than native English speakers "frequently" watched television because of the following reasons: "it is educational", "it shows what people living in America like", "it helps me understand the American language", "it explains how the political system works in America", "It gives the most complete news coverage", "it helps me forget the ordinary cares and problems of the day", "it provides advice for solving problems", and "it helps my children learn something".

More native English speaking foreigners than non-English speakers mentioned they "frequently" watch television for the following reasons: "it is relaxing", "I want to see a specific program that I enjoy very much", and "I want to see a special program that I heard a lot about." In general, more of the native English speakers frequently or occasionally watched television for relaxation or to see a specific program they enjoyed. More non-English speakers than native English speakers frequently or occasionally watched television in order to learn or to gain something that would "neo-socialize" them.

The close association of English proficiency scores with the television programs that the foreign students usually watched was another finding in Ryu's study. The results indicated that low English proficiency was related to a higher preference for such program categories as international and national news, local news, movies, family shows, situation comedy, quiz shows, light drama, and children's education. On the other hand, higher English proficiency was associated

with a higher preference for such program categories as international and national news, local news, movies, situation comedy action shows, sports events, and theoretical drama. Therefore, it was concluded that international news was popular among all foreign students.

When Ryu (1976) investigated mass media as a source of learning about the English language and America, he found that the usefulness of newspapers and television as information agents were almost equal to personal agents like Americans and native friends. With respect to communication behavior, Ryu concluded that there is a clear distinction between non-English speakers and native English speakers. Native English speakers' communication behaviors were seldom affected by the length of residence, English proficiency, as well as degree of assimilative attitudes, while non-English speakers were strongly influenced by those variables. Seyfi hypothesized that foreign students are as much involved in U.S. mass media as Americans. To test this hypothesis, Seyfi compared his findings with media readership, television viewing, and radio listenership. About 70 percent of foreign students in this sample spend less than half an hour reading the newspaper. Sixty-eight percent of them spend less than two hours a day watching TV. They are also found to spend less than two hours in listening to radio a day (69.5 percent).

Based on these statistics, Seyfi concluded that foreign students are not as much involved in U.S. mass media as Americans. He cited the lack of time because of the heavy academic burden as a factor that hinders the media use of foreign students.

Another study (Mowlana and McLaughlin, 1969), concerning major sources of information for foreign students, found the following rankings as perceived by foreign students as (1) television; (2) U.S. newspapers and magazines; (3) foreign publications; (4) personal sources.

Mowlana and McLaughlin used classification variables to study media exposure among foreign students: field of study (Liberal Arts, English, Business, and Agriculture.); geography (Asia, Mideast, and Europe & America), dwelling (Dorm, Apartment., Private Room); as well as tenure in the United States. Their major findings showed that oral media play an important role as a source of general information and news in the developing countries. Students from these countries would continue to rely on this type of media. The fact that students in liberal arts rely more on the printed media than those in engineering leans one towards the hypothesis of familiarity. Regarding newspaper exposure, it was found that all variables, except dwelling, had a significant relationship with the foreign students' exposure to newspapers. The correlation with tenure in the United States reinforces the theory that the longer the student is in the U.S., the more he exposes himself to the printed media. On the average, not only do students in some colleges read more magazines than those in others, but there is also a significant interaction between the type of magazine read, and the colleges in which students are enrolled.

Along with the U.S. mass media, foreign students are also found to rely heavily on the publications from their home country. Semlak (1979)

found home country publications played an important role among foreign students, and suggested there is an important relationship between media use by foreign students and perceptions of the United States.

Surprisingly, his study indicates that foreign originated media may be the most important influence on foreign-students' perceptions toward United States Political leaders and institutions.

The literature identification shows the most important variables that regulate media use behavior by both foreign students and American people in general. However, those variables fail to explain the motivational orientation of the audience toward the mass media. In other words, they do not explain why some people use the mass media, while others do not. The uses and gratifications theories suggest that personal needs are more important than traditional demographic factors in predicting audience's media use (Lee, 1984).

Katz et al. (1974) summarized the uses and gratifications perspective as follows: It is concerned with (1) the social and psychological origins of (2) needs, which generate (3) expectations of (4) the mass media or other sources, which lead to (5) differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in (6) need gratifications and (7) consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones.

Some researchers have studied the motivational orientation of an audience toward the mass media. In 1979, Weaver et al. found two most important personal needs in using the mass media. One is to relax and

release tension. Another need is to keep tabs on what's going on. They also discovered that there is a strong tie between the motivation to keep tabs on what's going on and the degree of exposure to a newspaper (cited in Altbach, 1985).

It is generally supported by existing literature that people use the mass media actively to satisfy their needs and fulfill their desires. However, no single study has attempted to explain foreign students' media use behavior on the basis of the uses and gratifications perspective. So far several theses have found that foreign students are using U.S. mass media to learn English, to get information, and to relax (Ryu, 1976; Seyfi, 1979). As we mentioned earlier, Ryu found that students from English speaking countries tend to use American mass media for entertainment purposes, yet non-English speaking students tend to use American mass media in learning English.

#### The Effects of American Mass Media on Foreign Students

Although the effect of the U.S. media on Taiwanese students is not included in this study, the literature review examines some of the effects of U.S. media on these students.

In their study of 298 foreign students in three universities in Illinois, Kapoor and Smith (1978) examined the role of informal uses in enabling foreign students to acquire a knowledge of American society and American values. They attempted to highlight the role of the communication process in the acculturation of foreign students.

Therefore, the study scope was limited in the sense that the researchers were only concerned with the perception of, and conformity to American values by foreign students.

In their survey, they included students from Asia, Africa, Latin America, and Europe. The findings showed that the foreign students who perceived knowledge about American values primarily from other foreign students and their fellow country-men had a less accurate perception of those values. Those students who said that their host families had provided them with information on Americans and American society had a more accurate perception of American values, while those who said they attained information about Americans and American society from international student advisors could perceive American values most accurately.

Kapoor and Smith also found that information about Americans and American society from television, books, and radio emerged as significant predictors of the accurate perceptions of American values. A negative correlation was found between the radio variable and receiving knowledge of Americans and American values from the radio, which made foreign students perceive American values less accurately. It was also found that books and television enabled foreign students to predict American values relatively more accurately. American friends were shown as a significant independent variable as a source of information for American values. Moreover, the less difficulty a foreign student had in the use

of English language in reading newspapers and magazines, the more accurately he could perceive American Values.

With regard to conformity, Kapoor and Smith found that foreign students who said that they received more information about Americans and American society from TV are--or at least appear to be--in the process of internalizing American values.

Kapoor and Smith concluded that television along with the number of channels of mass communication, was cited as one of the cues which enable foreign students to accurately perceive American values. They claim that even though the place of interpersonal communication is still pre-eminent in social learning, the indirect cues of mass media are a force to shape either positively or negatively the perceptions of foreign students toward Americans.

During a five-year period of study in 1959-1964, Markham (1967) examined 340 foreign students' pre-visit images and attitudes toward the U.S. He measured the nature and extent of change after a period of their staying in the United States and also the relationships between attitudes and exposure to mass media.

Foreign students who come to the U.S. were expected to have positive images toward this country, and Markham's analysis of their preconceptions supported this expectation. After comparing the pre-arrival images with later images, he found that the predominant directions of images turn to be negative. The results also showed that Asian students showed a tendency to see Americans in the most favorable



light. European students tended to judge Americans in more negative ways than did foreign students from other areas. Africans and Latin Americans showed they were slightly less favorable than Asians toward Americans. The results indicated that mass media was the main source of images, and continued to be major sources during the sojourn of foreign students, though use of mass media dropped slightly.

A relatively recent development in communication research is the interest in media socialization. Many communication researchers today are studying the effects of the media on political beliefs, the development of values, behaviors, and perceptions of social reality rather than studying attitude and behavior change (Tan, 1982).

In the "social learning theory," Bandura, 1977, contended that behavior is the result of cognitive and environmental factors. Therefore, when we assume that most of our responses are learned by observing others and from the instruction of others, and not first actually experiencing them, the social learning theory has much to contribute to the study of mass communication. This is because many of the behaviors we learn through modelling are first observed in the mass media (cited in Comparative Education Center, 1985).

The American mass media, according to the social learning theory, plays an important role among foreign students in learning and shaping their values and beliefs. Therefore, the mass media becomes an important socialization agent to foreign students, creating and shaping many of their attitudes, values, behavior, and perceptions of social reality

since they learn pro- and anti-social behaviors from the mass media just as children do.

#### The Media Use of Chinese Students in the United States

So far very limited effort has been devoted to studying the media use of Chinese students in America. In 1982, Alexis Tan conducted research which investigated the relationship between television use and a social reality among Chinese and American college students. In particular, Tan measured television viewing and interpersonal communication among samples of American and Chinese students, and analyzed the relationship between TV viewing and their stereotypes of Americans.

The main question of Tan's study was: Are social stereotypes of Americans by American and Chinese college students related to their viewing of television? In order to answer this question, a modified version of the Karlins, Cofman and Walters social stereotype questionnaire was administered to the entire Chinese College student population and to American students in a communication class at a large state university in the Southwest. Their use of TV as well as other mass media was also measured, along with frequency of interpersonal contact with Americans for the Chinese students (cited in Tan, 1982).

In the sample, the Chinese population consisted of 180 students attending the university in 1979. Previous studies of foreign students in the United States indicated that the Chinese students use the media,

particularly television, as a main source of information about American culture, and that for many national groups, including the Chinese, contact with Americans in social relations is limited. As a comparison group in this research, Americans in an undergraduate communication class were also asked to complete the questionnaire. To measure social stereotypes of Americans, respondents were asked to pick 10 out of 99 traits which would describe Americans today. To measure interpersonal communication with Americans in the Chinese sample, Chinese students were asked: "Do you share a room with Americans? Did your previous job in Taiwan or Hong Kong allow you to have frequent contact with Americans socially? How often do you socialize with Americans?"

Comparing mass media use by the two groups, Tan found that the Americans watched more television, (3.4 hours per day) than the Chinese (1.9 hours per day). When asked what they watched most on television, most Chinese said they watched news (80%), which included local and network news, while most Americans answered that they watched situational comedies (65%). The Chinese respondents said they watched TV primarily for informational purposes (49%), while Americans watched TV for entertainment (57%).

With respect to stereotypes of Americans. The Chinese saw Americans as (in order of frequency), individualistic, naive, practical, athletic, mercenary, sex-oriented, arrogant, passionate, argumentative, healthy, and materialistic. Both groups agreed that Americans were individualistic, athletic, materialistic, and sex-oriented.

To determine whether social stereotypes were related to TV use, Tan computed partial correlations between TV viewing hours, frequency of viewing TV entertainment and frequency of viewing TV news. The results indicated that ratings of several of the traits often used to characterize Americans were significantly related to TV use in both samples. Among the Chinese students, Rating of Americans as pleasure-loving, and materialistic were related to TV viewing hours. Ratings of the traits pleasure-loving and aggressive were related to TV news. There were no significant relations between ratings of any of the commonly used traits and watching TV entertainment, probably because entertainment viewing in the Chinese sample was generally low. In summary, the correlational analysis shows that TV use was related to several traits used by Americans and Chinese college students to describe Americans. TV use and social stereotypes of Americans are obviously related.

## METHODOLOGY

In the Spring semester of 1987, about 200 Taiwan students were enrolled at Iowa State University. A sample of all the 200 Taiwan students was drawn from the directory of the Taiwan student association (Kuan Hua club) and a self-administered questionnaire was mailed out to the 200 students along with a cover letter. Each respondent was asked to fill out the questionnaire which was collected personally one by one. The questionnaire was mailed during the summer of 1987; 20 students either went home for vacation or transferred to other schools. Therefore, the sample size was changed to 180 instead of 200. Seventy students failed to complete the survey. A total of 110 students, which is 61% of the sample completed and returned the survey. The final sample size of 110 was analyzed for this study.

The questionnaire consisted of four main parts (see Appendix I). The first part deal with questions on the frequency of media use by the respondents. The four different media in the survey included television, radio, newspaper, and magazine. For each medium, the degree of exposure was measured by asking respondents how frequently they used that medium.

The second part deals with media use preference. The respondents were asked about what medium they use as the main source to get certain information.

The third part focuses on the media content preference. The respondents were asked to select their favorite programs or content from a list of items in the questionnaire.

The final part of the survey deals with the respondents' motivation to use different media. The respondents were asked to select certain reasons that best explain why they use the media.

The demographic questions concerning respondents' sex, marital status, age, field of study, and length of residence were placed at the end of the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of a total of 11 main questions.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis and discussion of the findings from this investigation will be based on the data obtained through a survey in the summer of 1988. There are two major stages in finding to examine relationships between different background characteristics and the media use variables. There is no hypothesis in this study. The data were analyzed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer sub-program. One statistical methods - frequencies - was used for analysis of the data.

### Mass Media use among Taiwan Male and Female Students at Iowa State University

#### TV viewership

The data of TV viewership among Taiwan male and female students were obtained through asking three questions: "How often do you watch the following TV stations--WOI (channel 5), KCCI (channel 8), WHO (channel 13), KDSM (channel 17), IPT (Channel 11)?" (Q.1), "When you watch TV, what types of programs do you watch most often?" (Q. 6), and "Which of the following reasons best explain why you watch TV?" (Q. 9).

The results show that there is correlation between frequency of TV viewing and sex (see Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5).

Table 1. Frequency of Watching WOI (Channel 5) by Sex

WATCHING WOI	Sex	
	Male (N = 67)	Female (N = 41)
Not at all		7.3% (3)
Very Seldom	10.4% (7)	2.4% (1)
Seldom	19.4% (13)	14.6% (6)
Often	43.3% (29)	43.9 (18)
Very often	26.9% (18)	31.7 (13)
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$\chi^2 = 7.644$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.106



Table 2. Frequency of Watching KCCI (Channel 8) by Sex

WATCHING KCCI	Sex	
	Male (N = 63)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all		9.5% (4)
Very Seldom	15.9% (10)	16.7% (7)
Seldom	25.4% (16)	21.4% (9)
Often	49.2% (31)	40.5 (17)
Very often	9.5% (6)	11.9 (5)
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$\chi^2 = 6.733$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.151

Table 3. Frequency of Watching WHO (Channel 13) by Sex

WATCHING WHO	Sex	
	Male (N = 65)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all		11.9% (5)
Very Seldom	20.0% (13)	
Seldom	20.0% (13)	19.0% (8)
Often	50.8% (33)	54.8% (23)
Very often	9.2% (6)	14.3 (6)
$\chi^2 = 16.809$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.002

Table 4. Frequency of Watching KDSM (Channel 17) by Sex

WATCHING KDSM	Sex	
	Male (N = 62)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all	16.1% (10)	40.5% (17)
Very Seldom	25.8% (16)	16.7% (7)
Seldom	19.4% (12)	19.0% (8)
Often	33.9% (21)	16.7% (7)
Very often	4.8% (3)	7.1% (3)

$\chi^2 = 9.647$       d.f. = 4      p = 0.047

Table 5. Frequency of Watching IPT (Channel 11) by Sex

WATCHING IPT	Sex	
	Male (N = 62)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all	3.2% (2)	28.6% (12)
Very Seldom	29.0% (18)	14.3% (6)
Seldom	37.1% (23)	21.4% (9)
Often	19.4% (12)	23.8 (10)
Very often	11.3% (7)	11.9 (5)
$\chi^2 = 16.549$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.002

Among the five TV stations, WOI, KCCI, and WHO receive higher percentages of viewership, and KDSM and IPT the lower percentages. WOI has the highest percentages among all TV stations with 70.2 percent males and 75.6 percent females said that they watch WOI "very often" or "often". Sixty percent males and 69.1 females watch WHO "very often" or "often". Fifty-eight point seven percent males and 52.4 percent females watch KCCI "very often" or "often". More than half of both male and female students said that they watch KDSM and IPT "seldom", "very seldom", or "not at all". Overall, female students watch WOI, WHO, and IPT more often than male students.

Table 2 shows females watch KCCI less frequently than males. Twenty-six point 2 percent females and 15.9% males said they watch KCCI "Very seldom" or "not at all". Table 3 shows a significant relationship between watching WHO and both sexes. Twenty percent males and 11.9% females watch WHO "very seldom" or "not at all". As for KDSM, 57.2% females and 41.9% males watch this channel "very seldom" or "not at all". Both male and female students also do not watch IPT often. Three point two percent males and 28.6% female do not watch IPT at all. Also, 37.1% males and 21.4% females said they seldom watch IPT.

In his study on the U.S. mass media exposure among foreign students, Seyfi (1979) examined the time foreign students spend watching television per day. The results show that the majority (68 percent) of the sample are equally divided into two categories--"less than an hour" and "1 to 2 hours". He concluded that, after comparing the results to general American standards of television viewing, foreign students spend a very limited amount of time watching television. He also found that the low television viewing is not due to not owning or having access to a television set because 96 percent of the sample owned or had access to a television set.

In our study the TV availability was also very high--108 out of 110 respondents or 98.2 percent of the sample have access to a television set. The study does not include the amount of time watching TV. However, the data show that the majority of both male and female students watch three out of the five TV stations frequently. Table 6 shows TV

program preference by sex. The top three preferred TV programs among male students are: News (86.8%), movies (76.5%), and sports (66.2%). The top three among females are news (85.7%), movies (81%), and comedy shows (54.8%). This finding parallels that of Seyfi's (1979). Seyfi found that news and movies were the first and second most popular programs among foreign students.

Seyfi (1979) stated that, "Foreign students' interest toward news can be explained by stating that news programs usually do have something to do directly with the countries they come from. In the case of movies on television, Seyfi concluded "it's more convenient and less costly to watch movies on television instead of going to the movie theaters especially when films are not very old" (p. 145).

Seyfi's statement can find only partial support in this study. Even though news is the most popular TV program among Taiwan students, yet one can hardly find any news on all these five TV stations, that directly relates to Taiwan. Concerning the movies, the finding should not be surprising since television is available to the majority of students and also provide a very inexpensive form of entertainment.

Table 6. TV Content Preference by (Male and Female Students)

TV Content	Sex			
	Male (N=68)	Rank	Female (N=42)	Rank
News	86.8% (59)	1	85.7% (36)	1
Crime-drama shows	14.7% (10)	5	26.2% (11)	5
Movies	76.5% (52)	2	81.0% (34)	2
Comedy shows	38.2% (26)	4	54.8% (23)	3
Variety shows	10.3% (7)	7	35.7% (15)	4
Sports	66.2% (45)	3	19.0% (8)	6
Childrens shows	11.8% (8)	6	14.3% (6)	7
Religious program	4.4% (3)	8	2.4% (1)	10
Quiz shows	10.7% (10)	5	7.1% (3)	9
Talk shows	14.7% (10)	5	11.9% (5)	8
Others	0	9	7.1% (3)	9
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$\chi^2 = 3.434$	d.f. = 10		p = 0.969	

There is a significance difference between males and females on their interest in sports. Only 19% of females enjoy watching sports, while 66.2% of males choose sports as their favorite program. Children's shows, religious programs, quiz shows, and talks shows are fairly

unpopular among all students with religious programs receive the lowest percentages: males--4.4 percent, and females--2.4 percent. This could be due to the student' religious background--many Taiwan students have a Buddhist background.

Q.9 lists eight reasons for watching television (see Tables 7 and 8). The result shows a significant relationship between watching TV for ordain reasons and sex. ( $p = 0$ ) "Relaxation," and "enjoying the program" are the top two reasons among both sexes. Ninety point eight percent males said that they watch TV "often" because of "relaxation", 89.5 percent females said they watch TV "often" because of "enjoying the program". The rest of the reasons in order of the importance are: males-- "enjoying the program", "political information", "education", "social information", "helping my children learn something", "getting advice to solve problems", and forgetting problems"; females-- "relaxation", "education", "social information", "helping my children to learn something", "political information", "forgetting problems", and "getting advice to solve problems".

Interestingly, watching TV does not seem to help all students much in terms of "forgetting problems" or "getting advice to solve problems". None of the females choose "getting advice to solve problems" as the reason to watch TV; while only 5.3 percent male students said they watch TV "often" because of "forgetting problems". Fairly low percentages of females are interested in watching TV for "political information". Eighty percent females said they watch TV "seldom", "very seldom", or



"not at all" for "political information". Somehow, the majority (63.5 percent males) said they watch TV "often" because of this reason. We also have to notice that less than half of the sexes seek "social information" from watching TV. It might be assumed that socialization does not play an important role of the life among the majority of Taiwan students, since social information could become a channel of knowing U.S. society better. Yet, it also might be because most Chinese students receive social information from sources other than television.

Table 7. Reasons for watching TV by male students

	Not at all	Seldom or very seldom	Often
<b>REASONS</b>			
Relaxation (N = 65)		9.2% (24)	90.8% (59)
Enjoying the program (N = 56)	1.8% (1)	23.2% (13)	75.0% (42)
Political information (N = 52)	5.8% (3)	30.8% (16)	63.5% (33)
Education (N = 52)	3.8% (2)	46.2% (24)	50.0% (26)
Social information (N = 46)	8.7% (4)	52.2% (24)	39.1% (18)
Getting advice to solve problems (N = 42)	52.4% (22)	35.7% (15)	11.9% (15)
Helping my children learn something (N = 38)	60.4% (23)	18.4% (7)	21.1% (8)
Forgetting problems (N = 38)	50.0% (19)	44.7% (17)	5.3% (2)
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$\chi^2 = 204.551$	d.f. = 14	p = 0.000	
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Table 8. Reasons for watching TV by females students

	Not at all	Seldom or very seldom	Often
<b>REASONS</b>			
Enjoying the program (N = 38)	0%	8.5% (4)	89.5% (34)
Relaxation (N = 41)	0	14.6% (6)	85.4% (35)
Education (N = 32)	0	56.3% (18)	43.8% (14)
Social information (N = 32)	0	59.4% (19)	40.6% (13)
Helping my children learn something (N = 28)	53.6% (15)	21.4% (6)	25.0% (7)
Political information (N = 30)	13.3% (4)	66.7% (20)	20.0% (6)
Forgetting problems (N = 26)	26.9% (7)	57.7% (15)	15.4% (4)
Getting advice to solve problems (N = 26)	34.6% (9)	65.4% (17)	0
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$\chi^2=151.180$	d.f.=14	p=0	
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### Magazine and newspaper readership

The data for magazine and newspaper readership among Chinese male and female students was obtained through asking four questions: "How often do you read the following American news magazines--Time, Newsweek, U.S. News and World Report, and others?" (Q.2), "How often do you read the following American newspapers--the Ames Tribune, the Des Moines Register, the Iowa State University Daily, the the USA Today, the New York Times, the Wall Street Journal, and others?" (Q. 3), "When you read newspapers, what types of content do you read most often?", and "which of the following reasons best explain why you read printed media?", (Q. 11)

Table 9 to Table 12 and Tables A.1 show the frequency of magazine readership by sex. The results indicate that there is a non-significant relationship between frequency of magazine readership and sex. Time magazine readership does not appear to be high among the Chinese students with only about 20% of both sexes indicating they read Time often. Fifty percent of the men and 38% of the other women said they read Time seldom or not at all, with women students tending to read Time more than men.

Among the three news magazines, male students read Time more often than female students. Thirty percent males and 19.2% females said they read Time "often" or "very often". On the other hand, female students read the Newsweek and the U.S. News & World Report, and other magazines more often than male students. Newsweek receives the highest percentages among the three magazines with 31.4 percent males and 53.8 percent

Table 9. Frequency of reading Time Magazine by sex

READING TIME	Sex	
	Male (N = 50)	Female (N = 26)
Not at all	26.0% (13)	26.9% (7)
Very Seldom	24.0% (12)	11.5% (3)
Seldom	10.0% (10)	42.3% (11)
Often	20.0% (10)	19.2% (5)
Very often	10.0% (5)	
$\chi^2 = 7.037$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.134

Table 10 Frequency of Reading the Newsweek Magazine by Sex

READING NEWSWEEK	Sex	
	Male (N = 51)	Female (N = 26)
Not at all	21.6% (11)	7.7% (2)
Very Seldom	19.6% (10)	19.2% (5)
Seldom	27.5% (14)	19.2% (5)
Often	15.7% (8)	34.6% (9)
Very often	15.7% (8)	19.2% (5)
$\chi^2 = 5.360$ d.f. = 4                      p = 0.252		

females saying they read this magazine "often" or "very often". The percentages show females are heavy Newsweek readers. The magazine readership among Taiwan students could be considered as low because only Newsweek has more than 50 percent of female student readers. U.S. News & World Report has the lowest percentages among the three news magazines. Eleven point eight percent males and 15.4 percent females said they read this magazine "often" or "very often", while 58.8 percent males and 57.7 percent females said "not at all". Besides these three news magazines, the majority of both sexes do not read other U.S. magazines at all.

The magazine availability is not necessarily a fad in the low magazine readership, since the main library of Iowa State University provides many different types of magazines. According to Seyfi's (1979, p. 146) study.

"... better understanding of spoken and written English resulted in more radio listenership and more use of printed media. Foreign students with a strong English background read American printed media more than did those who learned English as a foreign language."

Thus, we could assume that English proficiency has something to do with the low magazine readership among Taiwan students. Other factors such as lack of time, lack of interest, availability of home country magazine, etc. also could affect the readership.

Newspaper readership is examined in Tables 11-14 and Tables A.3 & 4. The relationship between frequency of newspaper readership and sex varies from one newspaper to another. The results show that the readership of U.S. national newspapers is fairly low--less than 5 percent of the Chinese females indicated that they read the N.Y. Times and the Wall Street Journal "often" or "very often"; less than 3 percent males read these two newspapers "often" or "very often". The relationship between reading N.Y. Times and sex is close to significant. Fourteen point three percent females and 1.5% males said they read N.Y. Times "often" or "very often". Also, few Taiwan students read the Wall Street Journal 90.5% females and 91.2% males read this Journal "very seldom" or "not at all". The readership of U.S. local newspapers is much higher. However, less

than 50 percent of both sexes said they read the Ames Tribune and the Des Moines Register "often" or "very often". Tables 11 and 12 show the relationship between reading the Ames Tribune and sexes, and reading the D.M. Register and sex are close to significant - 26.2% females and 19.1% males read the Ames Tribune "often" or "very often"; 14.6% females and 34.3% males read the D.M. Register "often" or "very often". Not surprisingly, the Iowa State Daily received the highest readership of all the newspapers. Over 75.6 percent male students and 78.6 percent female students read the Daily "often" or "very often" and the data show a non-significant relationship between reading the Daily and sex ( $p > 0.05$ ). The heavy consumption of the Daily might be due to its availability and familiarity. The Daily is distributed to the whole Iowa State University campus everyday. Also, much of the Daily's content directly relates to all students. Even if a foreign student is not interested in news reports, he still needs to pick up certain important campus information in the Daily which won't be carried out by other local and national newspapers. Like the magazine readership, the low newspaper readership might be caused by insufficient language ability. Moreover, even though living in the United States, many Taiwan students still have access to Taiwan publications which could attract more Taiwan students than do the American printed media. There are many non-readers of U.S. national newspapers among Taiwan students. The majority of the sample group said they do not read the USA Today, the Wall Street Journal, and the N.Y. Times at all.



Table 11. Frequency of Reading the Ames Tribune by Sex

READING THE AMES TRIBUNE	Sex	
	Male (N = 68)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all	51.5% (35)	52.4% (22)
Very Seldom	11.8% (8)	
Seldom	17.6% (12)	21.4% (9)
Often	19.1% (13)	21.4% (9)
Very often		4.8% (2)
$\chi^2 = 8.447$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.077

Table 12. Frequency of Reading D. M. Register by Sex

READING THE DES MOINES REGISTER	Sex	
	Male (N = 67)	Female (N = 41)
Not at all	28.4% (19)	34.1% (14)
Very Seldom	16.4% (11)	12.2% (5)
Seldom	20.9% (14)	30.9% (16)
Often	23.9% (16)	14.6% (6)
Very often	10.4% (7)	
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$\chi^2 = 8.946$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.062

Table 13. Frequency of Reading The Iowa State University Daily by Sex

READING ISU DAILY	Sex	
	Male (N = 68)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all	8.8% (6)	9.5% (4)
Very Seldom	5.9% (4)	
Seldom	8.8% (6)	11.9% (5)
Often	32.4% (22)	38.1% (16)
Very often	44.1% (30)	40.5% (17)
$\chi^2 = 3.059$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.548

Table 14. Frequency of reading N.Y. Times by Sex

REACHING N.Y. TIMES	Sex	
	Male (N = 68)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all	76.5% (52)	73.8% (31)
Very Seldom	14.7% (10)	11.9% (5)
Seldom	7.4% (5)	11.9% (5)
Often	1.5% (1)	11.9% (5)
Very often		2.4% (1)
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$\chi^2 = 7.047$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.133

Table 15 shows a non-significant relationship between newspaper content preference and sex. Like TV news among all TV programs, newspaper news is also listed the favorite content in newspaper. Both sexes are high newspaper news consumers--males, 80.9 percent and females, 87.2 percent. The ranking of newspaper content by male students is: news, sports, politics, entertainment, weather, business, health, finance, arts, food, others and fashion. The ranking by females is: news, entertainment, weather, fashion, arts, politics, food, sports, health, business, others, and finance. From Table 15, we notice that the content preference indicates some difference between males and females in terms of their interests. More than half of males and less than 25

percent females are interested in sports. Males are also more interested than females in politics and finance. In general, it appears that females have wider ranges of interest than males in different types of newspaper content. For example, the data show that females are especially interested in entertainment (64.1%) and weather (51.3%). As for fashion, females rank it as the fourth favorite content (33.3%), but males rank it as the least favorite item (2.9%). Females are also found to enjoy arts, food, and health more than males.

Table 16 is designed to find out the reason that best explains newspaper reading by sex. For both sexes, "gaining information" is chosen as the best reason. The percentages given to "gaining information" by all students is fairly high compared to that of "entertainment" and "relaxation". Such a result shows that most Taiwan students (in Iowa State) use U.S. newspapers for the purpose of "surveillance" rather than "diversion".

Q.4 examines the frequency of radio use by sex (see Table 17). The data show that there is a non-significant relationship between frequency of radio use and sex. In this study, we regard those who listen to radio three times or more per day as "frequent radio users". The rest are "non-frequent radio users". We found that 36.8 percent male students and 50 percent female students are non-frequent radio users. Twenty-six point five percent males and 35.7 percent females said they listen to radio more than four times per day. Overall, females use radio more frequently than do males.

Table 15. Newspaper Content Preference by Sex

Newspaper content	SEX			
	Male (N=68)	Rank	Female (N=39)	Rank
News	80.9% (55)	1	87.2% (34)	1
Politics	47.1% (32)	3	28.2% (11)	5.5
Finance	8.8% (6)	8	2.6% (1)	12
Business	17.6% (12)	6	17.9% (7)	10
Sports	51.5% (35)	2	23.1% (9)	8
Entertainment	33.8% (23)	4	64.1% (25)	2
Weather	27.9% (19)	5	51.3% (20)	3
Arts	7.4% (5)	9	28.2% (11)	5.5
Food	5.9% (4)	10.5	25.6% (10)	7
Fashion	2.9% (2)	12	33.3% (13)	4
Health	11.8% (8)	7	20.5% (8)	9
Others	5.9% (4)	10.5	7.7% (3)	11
$\chi^2=10.837$	d. f.=11		p=0.457	

Table 16. Reasons for reading newspaper by sex

REASONS	SEX			
	Male (N=68)	Rank	Female (N=41)	Rank
Gaining information	82.4% (56)	1	75.6% (31)	1
Entertainment	13.2% (9)	2.5	14.6% (6)	3
Relaxation	13.2% (9)	2.5	26.8% (11)	2
Others	0	4	0	4

Table 17. Frequency of radio use by sex (per day)

	SEX	
	Male	Female
RADIO LISTENERSHIP	(N=68)	(N=42)
Not at all	8.8% (6)	14.3% (6)
Once in a day	30.9% (21)	26.2% (11)
Twice in a day	23.5% (16)	9.5% (4)
Three times in a day	8.8% (6)	11.9% (5)
Four times in a day	1.5% (1)	2.4% (1)
More than four times in a day	26.5% (18)	35.7% (15)
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$\chi^2 = 4.812$	d.f. = 5	p = 0.439

Table 18 examines radio station preference among the two groups. The seven radio stations listed in the survey are either in Ames or Des Moines. The top three choices by males are KCCQ(FM) and KEZT(FM) (1), WOI (2), and KDSM (3). For females: KEZT(Fm) (1), KCCQ(FM) (2), and WOI(3). Among all seven stations, none of them receives more than 40 percent by both groups in terms of "preference". KDWZ(FM) is the least favorite station for males (1.2%), and KASI for females(0).



Table 18. Preference of Radio Stations by Sex

RADIO PREFERENCE	SEX			
	Male (N=84)	Rank	Female (N=38)	Rank
KCCQ (FM)	27.4% (23)	1.5	23.7% (9)	2
KEZT (FM)	27.4% (23)	1.5	36.8% (14)	1
KASI	2.4% (2)	5.5	(0)	7
WOI	17.9% (15)	3	15.8% (6)	3
KDMI (FM)	2.4% (2)	5.5	7.9% (3)	5
KDWZ (FM)	1.2% (1)	7	7.9% (3)	5
KFMD (FM)	10.7% (9)	4	7.9% (3)	5

Radio content preference by sex is shown in Table a. Both groups claim music and weather as the first and second favorite radio content. News and sports are ranked as the third and fourth preference by both groups. Either males or females list religious programs the least preferred content.

As we compare the popularity of news among three different medium--television, newspaper, and radio, we found that both TV news and newspaper news are regarded as the most popular item on TV and newspaper, while radio news is the third popular item for both male and female listeners. Seyfi (1979, p. 96) stated that,

"The news coverage on the radio, especially concerning world news, is very narrow in scope compared to the news broadcast on television. One may argue that radio stations, especially AM ones carry plenty of news. But as mentioned earlier, watching news on television seems to be more pleasant to most people--particularly non-English speaking ones--than listening to news on the radio. Foreign students seem to be highly sensitive to the news pertaining to their home country. This perhaps causes them to turn to other forms of media such as television or printed media to gain the information they need."

Seyfi (p. 96) also said that, "Radio spends more time playing music than reporting news, be it local, state, or international."

The above statement may help explain why radio news is less popular among Taiwan students.

In Table 19b, we divide radio news into three categories: general news, local news, and foreign news. More males are interested in radio news than females. The ranking by males is: general news(1), foreign news(2), and local news(3). The ranking by females is: local news and foreign news (1), and general news (2). This ranking is identical to that of newspaper news preference by sex.

Table 20 indicates what motivates students to listen to radio. "Relaxation" is selected by the majority of both groups as the first reason. The second reason is "entertainment", and the third "gaining information". Thus, it appears that Taiwan students in this study use radio more for "diversion" purpose than for "surveillance" purpose.

Table 19a. Radio Content Preference by Sex

RADIO CONTENT	SEX			
	Male (N=68)	Rank	Female (N=40)	Rank
News	47.1% (32)	3	52.5% (21)	3
Weather	55.9% (38)	2	57.5% (23)	2
Sports	13.2% (9)	4	5.0% (2)	4.5
Music	82.4% (56)	1	87.5% (35)	1
Religious programs	4.4% (3)	5	5.0% (2)	4.5
Others	0		0	

Table 19b. Radio News Preference by Sex

RADIO NEWS	SEX			
	Male (N=32)	Rank	Female (N=10)	Rank
General News	46.9% (15)	1	20.0% (2)	3
Local News	18.8% (6)	3	40.0% (4)	1.5
Foreign News	34.4% (11)	2	40.0% (4)	1.5

Table 20. Reasons for Listening to Radio by Sex

REASONS	SEX			
	Male (N=68)	Rank	Female (N=41)	Rank
Gaining information	16.2% (11)	3	17.1% (7)	3
Entertainment	38.2% (26)	2	46.3% (19)	2
Relaxation	50.0% (34)	1	56.1 (23)	1
Others	2.9% (2)	4	0	4

The overall media use preference by male and female students is shown in Tables 21 and 22. Respondents were asked to check only one medium as the main source for certain information. Yet, we found that many respondents use more than one medium as the main source for some information. Therefore, the data were recorded according to respondents' answers.

Male students chose television as the most important source of 11 different types of information. Only for "food", "health", and "ads" (three out of all 14 items), was television selected as the second important source. Female students also are found of using television as the most important source to get most of the information. For "food" and "fashion", females use newspapers and magazines rather than TV as the main source. From the ranking, we can easily tell that television plays

a very important role among all students in gaining different types of information.

Following television, newspaper is found to be the second most important medium for all students to receive information. Radio is chosen by both sexes as the least important source to gain 64.3 percent of all information. In the case of television, the results are in great agreement with what Seyfi (1979, p. 140) discovered. In this study, he found that among four different media--television, radio, printed media, and movies--television seems to be the medium foreign students devote most of their time to.

Choosing television over other available media among people is not a new finding--if one looks at previous studies by other researchers. For example, Greenberg and Roloff, 1975, found in their series of studies that the majority of people choose television over the other sources of media for reasons such as accurate coverage of state and national and international news. They also discovered that although newspapers provided most of the information about local news, they were second to television in terms of believability. They designed one question in the survey--"Suppose you would continue to have only one of the following--radio, television, newspapers or magazines--which one of the four would you keep". They found that since 1959 the first choice has been television by the majority of people surveyed, followed by newspaper, radio, and magazine (cited in Comparative Education Center, 1985).

Table 21. Media Use Preference by Male Students

MEDIA SOURCES	General News	Rank	Local News	Rank	Foreign News	Rank	Politics	Rank	Finance	Rank
	(N=82)		(N=74)		(N=79)		(N=74)		(N=54)	
TV	65.9% (54)	1	70.3% (52)	1	60.8% (48)	1	52.7% (39)	1	33.3% (18)	1
Radio	9.8% (8)	3	13.5% (10)	3	5.1% (4)	4	6.8% (5)	4	5.6% (3)	4
Newspaper	19.5% (16)	2	16.2% (12)	2	22.8% (18)	2	21.6% (16)	2	24.1% (13)	2
Magazine	4.9% (4)	4	0	4	11.4% (9)	3	18.9% (14)	3	13.0% (7)	3

  

MEDIA SOURCES	Business	Rank	Sports	Rank	Entertainment	Rank	Weather	Rank	Arts	Rank
	(N=44)		(N=69)		(N=58)		(N=73)		(N=43)	
TV	38.6% (17)	1	81.2% (56)	1	70.7% (41)	1	69.9% (51)	1	41.9% (18)	1
Radio	2.3% (1)	3.5	0	4	12.1% (7)	2.5	23.3% (17)	2	4.7% (2)	4
Newspaper	34.1% (15)	2	17.4% (12)	2	12.1% (7)	2.5	6.8% (5)	3	27.9% (12)	2
Magazine	25.0% (11)	3.5	1.4% (1)	3	5.2% (3)	4	0	4	25.6% (11)	3

Table 21. (Continued)

MEDIA SOURCES	Food (N=38)	Rank	Fashion (N=33)	Rank	Health (N=43)	Rank	Ad (N=61)	Rank
TV	28.9% (11)	2	48.5% (16)	1	37.2% (16)	2	31.1% (19)	2
Radio	0	4	3.0% (1)	4	0	4	4.9% (3)	4
Newspaper	52.6% (20)	1	21.2% (7)	3	20.9% (9)	3	47.5% (29)	1
Magazine	18.4% (7)	3	27.3% (9)	2	41.9% (18)	1	16.4% (10)	3

Table 22. Media Use Preference by Female Students

MEDIA SOURCES	General News (N=40)	Rank (27)	Local News (N=41)	Rank (29)	Foreign News (N=45)	Rank (28)	Politics (N=35)	Rank (23)	Finance (N=25)	Rank (20)
TV	82.5%	1	75.6%	1	64.4%	1	65.7%	1	80.0%	1
Radio	7.5%	4	4.9%	2	6.7%	3	2.9%	4	0	4
Newspaper	10.5%	4	19.5%	8	15.6%	7	14.3%	5	12.0%	3
Magazine	10.0%	4	0	4	13.3%	6	26.1%	6	8.0%	2

  

MEDIA SOURCES	Business (N=30)	Rank (15)	Sports (N=30)	Rank (22)	Entertainment (N=39)	Rank (22)	Weather (N=52)	Rank (32)	Arts (N=32)	Rank (7)
TV	50.0%	1	73.3%	1	56.4%	1	61.5%	1	21.9%	3
Radio	6.7%	4	6.7%	2	15.4%	6	25.0%	13	6.3%	2
Newspaper	23.3%	7	20.0%	6	20.5%	8	11.5%	6	40.6%	1
Magazine	20.0%	6	0	4	7.7%	3	1.9%	4	31.3%	10



Table 22. (Continued)

MEDIA SOURCES	Food (N=31)	Rank	Fashion (N=27)	Rank	Health (N=31)	Rank	Ad (N=46)	Rank
TV	32.3% (10)	2	33.3% (9)	2	48.4% (15)	1	39.1% (18)	1
Radio	3.2% (4)	4	3.7% (1)	4	3.2% (1)	4	6.5% (3)	4
Newspaper	35.5% (11)	1	11.1% (3)	3	19.4% (6)	3	37.5% (17)	2
Magazine	29.1% (9)	3	51.9% (14)	1	29.0% (9)	2	17.4% (8)	3

Greenberg and Roloff concluded that:

"...People spend considerably more time with their television sets than their newspapers. The former activity encompasses far more interests than new interests.... Americans have developed a very strong habit of television watching. Further, that medium may be more available at any time than is the newspaper. This habit, this access and this familiarity with the medium all contribute to the reliance or credibility of television".

The Length of Residence and Mass Media use by Taiwan Students at  
Iowa State University

There are three focuses of discussion in this section. Tables 23 and 24 deal with the length of residence and printed media use. Tables 25-27 and Tables 1.5 deal with the length of residence and television viewing. Tables A.7, A.8, A.9, and A.10 deal with the length of residence and media use preference.

All respondents in this section are divided into four groups according to their length of stay in the United States--group A: 0-1 year, group B: 2-3 years, group C: 4-5 years, and group D: more than five years.

Table 23 intends to find out the percentages of each group devoting to magazine use "often" or "very often". From this table, it can be estimated how many people in each group read none, one, two, or three

magazines "often" or "very often". The results show that there is a significant relationship between the length of residence and magazine use ( $P < 0.05$ ). According to the data, 8.8 percent group A and 5.9 percent group B read three different magazines frequently ("often" or "very often"). None of groups C and D read three different magazines frequently. However, 40 percent group D and only 3.7% group C read two different magazines frequently. Altogether, 41.2 percent group A, 55.9 percent group B, 37 percent group C, and 66.7 percent group D said that they read at least one U.S. magazine frequently. Moreover, 58.8% group A, 44.1% group B, 63%, group C, and 33.3% group D do not read U.S. magazines at all (the percentages among four groups varies greatly). Group D is the most frequent magazine users, while group C the least frequent.

Table 24 shows the results of newspaper use by length of residence. The relationship between length of residence and newspaper use is close to significant ( $p = 0.098$ ). According to the data, 33.3 percent group D, 20.6 percent group A, 11.1 percent group C, and 5.9 percent group B read three different newspapers frequently ("often" or "very often"). Overall 79.4 percent group A, 79.4 percent group B, 81.5 percent group C, and

Table 23. The length of residence and printed media use - the magazines read by magazine readers

	<u>Length of residence</u>			
	(0-1 year)	(2-3 year)	(4-5 year)	(more than 5 years)
Number of magazines read	Group A (N=34)	Group B (N=34)	Group C (N=27)	Group D (N=15)
0	58.8% (20)	44.1% (15)	63.0% (17)	33.3% (5)
1	32.4% (11)	38.2% (13)	33.3% (19)	26.7% (4)
2	0	11.8% (4)	3.7% (1)	40.0% (6)
3	8.8% (3)	5.9% (2)	0	0
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 24.283$	d.f. = 9	p = 0.004		

86.7 percent group D read at least one U.S. newspaper frequently. Group D is the most frequent newspaper users among the four groups. The second one is group C. The least frequent newspaper users are both groups B and A.

Table 24. The length of residence and printed media use - the newspapers read by newspaper readers

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Number of newspapers read	Group A (N=34)	Group B (N=34)	Group C (N=27)	Group D (N=15)
0	20.6% (7)	20.6% (7)	18.5% (5)	13.3% (2)
1	47.1% (16)	38.2% (13)	33.3% (19)	20.0% (3)
2	11.8% (4)	35.3% (12)	37.0% (10)	33.3% (5)
3	20.6% (7)	5.9% (2)	11.1% (11)	33.3% (5)
4	0	0	0	0

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$\chi^2 = 14.746$     d.f. = 9    p = 0.098

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Tables 25 and 26 and Table A.5 are focused on length of residence and television viewing. Respondents were asked to check the number of channels they watch frequently ("often" or "very often").

The relationship between TV viewing and length of residence is very close to significant ( $p = 0.056$ , see Table 25). We found that group A is the group that watched all five channels most frequently (20.6%). Group C is the one that watched four channels least frequently (3.7%). Overall 85.3 percent group A, 91.5 percent group B, 74.1 percent group C, and 80

Table 25. The length of residence and television viewing - the number of channels watched by four groups

<u>Length of residence</u>				
	(0-1 year)	(2-3 years)	(4-5 years)	(more than 5 years)
Number of channels watched	Group A (N=34)	Group B (N=34)	Group C (N=27)	Group D (N=15)
0	14.7% (5)	8.5% (2)	25.9% (7)	20.0% (3)
1	14.7% (5)	0	3.7% (1)	13.3% (2)
2	26.5% (9)	35.3% (12)	29.6% (8)	6.7% (1)
3	11.8% (4)	26.5% (9)	22.2% (6)	13.3% (2)
4	11.8% (4)	26.5% (9)	14.8% (4)	33.3% (5)
5	20.6% (7)	8.5% (2)	3.7% (1)	13.3% (2)
<hr/>				
$\chi^2=24.590$	d.f.=15	p=0.056		

percent group D said that they watch television frequently ("often" or "very often").

As discussed earlier, the majority of students are not highly interested in using television to obtain social information. However, we assume that the length of stay might affect their desire to use

television to get social information. After analyzing the data, we discovered the length of residence is non-significantly related to students' watching TV for social information (see Table A.5).

Interestingly, we found that group D, which has the longest stay in U.S., has the highest percentages who said that they did not watch television for seeking social information at all (40%). Group D is also found to be the least frequent group that uses TV to get social information. Eight-six point seven percent of them checked "seldom", "very seldom", or "not at all". This finding is somewhat unexpected since we tend to think that the longer foreign students stay in the United States, the more they might be involved in this society or the socialization process; thus they may want to get more social information through different ways including U.S. mass media, especially television.

The studies conducted by other researchers are somewhat consistent with this study. For example, Seyfi (1979, p. 142) stated that:

"A foreign student who comes to the United States needs to learn the American way of life, and in general must adjust himself to American society norms...for most foreign students who come to this country, there are three possible sources through which they can learn American lifestyle: American, home country friends, and mass media. As far as general foreign students--regardless of their English language background--are concerned, Americans were found to be the primary source for teaching foreign students about the American way of life. With the same respect, home country friends and television were found to serve general foreign students as the second and third level of importance in teaching them how to live in the United States."

As for groups A, B, and C, the majority of them also claim that they "seldom", "very seldom", or "not at all" watch television for gaining

social information. It might be assumed that even if a foreign student stays in the United States for a number of years, he may still turn to other sources than U.S. mass media to learn about this society.

Table 26 indicates that most Taiwan students in this study are not interested in using TV for getting advice to solve problems (see Table 26). The P value indicates that the relationship between length of stay and watching TV for advice is very significant. For all the groups, the percentages for "often" and "seldom, very seldom, or not at all" is significantly different. One hundred percent group A, 94.2 percent group B, 96.3 percent group C, and 86.7 percent group D said they "seldom, very seldom, or not at all" watch television for getting advice to solve problems. The results show that group A uses TV least often (none), while group D most often (13.3%), to get advice for themselves. According to what we discussed earlier, the majority of students use TV for "relaxation" or "enjoyment" instead of "getting advice" or "forgetting problems". It could be assumed that there are other sources available for these Taiwan students to find advice. The television would mainly be used for relaxation and enjoyment regardless of the length of time its foreign audience stay in the United States.

In analyzing Table A.6, the assumption was that length of stay could also affect students' interest in local and foreign news. The results show that the length of stay is non-significantly associated with interest in local and foreign news (see Table A.6). According to the level of interest, however, group D shows the highest interest in foreign



Table 26. The length of residence and watching TV for advice to solve problems

	<u>Length of residence</u>			
	(0-1 year)	(2-3 years)	(4-5 years)	(more than 5 years)
	Group A (N=34)	Group B (N=34)	Group C (N=27)	Group D (N=15)
Not at all	44.1% (15)	76.5% (26)	59.3% (16)	73.3% (11)
Very seldom	26.5% (9)	8.8% (3)	7.4% (2)	6.7% (1)
Seldom	29.4% (10)	8.8% (3)	29.6% (8)	6.7% (1)
Often	0	5.8% (2)	3.7% (1)	13.3% (2)
<hr/>				
$\chi^2=19.726$	d. f. =9	p=0.02		

news and the lowest interest in local news. Group B shows the second highest interest in foreign news and the second lowest interest in local news. It is interesting to find out that group D --with the longest stay in U.S.-- has the least interest in local news.

The length of residence and media use preference is another major focus of our analysis. For all the groups, television is the most important source of the information. Group A is found to use television as the main source to get 100 percent information. Group B uses TV to get 57.1 percent information. Group C uses TV to get 85.7 percent information. Group D uses TV to get 64.3 percent information. The results also show that newspaper is the second important source for all the groups to get most of their information.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Foreign students have become a growth "industry" in higher education in America. In 1985, according to the research, more than 336,000 foreign students are studying in the United States, constituting about 3% of the total enrollment in postsecondary education. It has been estimated that in the United States more than \$2.5 billion is devoted to the education of students from other countries each year.

After coming to the United States, foreign students are expected to adjust themselves to the educational system here. They also have to go through a process of socialization--the process of encountering new values, relationships, customs, etc. In the social learning process, no formal socialization education has been provided to those students except some English classes. According to Seyfi's research in 1979, for most foreign students, there are three possible agents of learning about American culture and languages: (1) Americans (2) friends from the same countries (3) the mass media.

The literature review indicated that over the decades, a number of researchers have done studies on foreign students in certain areas such as problems and needs of foreign students, their adjustment behavior, etc. Very limited effort has been devoted to studying the mass media use by foreign students in the United States.

Previous studies concerning media use by foreign students generally indicated that U.S. mass media is very important to foreign students in

terms of socialization. Therefore, effort has been devoted to determine what variables affect media use by foreign students. Studies found that sex, length of residence, English proficiency, and home country are the variables related to media exposure among foreign students. Most researchers, when studying media use by foreign students, have been focussed on social category variables of sex, lengths of residence, and home country. They believe that these variables are the most powerful predictors of media use behavior by foreign students.

In this study, the sample group was 110 Taiwan students at Iowa State University. Two demographic predictors--sex and length of residence and motivational orientation were used to study the media use by Taiwan students. Analysis was basically based on the uses and gratifications perspective. The focus was on the motivation of Taiwan students to use U.S. mass media and their degree of exposure to American media.

The first stage of the analysis deals with the pattern of media use by male and female Taiwan students. The following is the major findings:

- (1) TV viewing--WOI, KCCI, and WHO are more popular than KDSM and IPT among male and female groups. WOI receives the highest percentages among five TV stations with 70.2 percent males and 75.6 percent females said they watch WOI "often" or "very often". Overall, female students watch WOI, WHO, and IPT more often than male students.

In addition, TV availability is very high among both sexes--98.2 of the sample has access to a television set. We conclude that high TV availability does not necessarily lead to high TV viewing (the data show the majority of students watch three out of five TV stations frequently) because the sample group in Seyfi's (1979) study also has very high TV availability, but their TV viewing is low.

Concerning TV program preference, news and movies are the first and second most popular media among all students. This is similar to Seyfi's finding. Males are found to be much more interested in TV sports than females. Religious programs receive the lowest percentages from both groups. This might be due to the students' religious background. Many Taiwan students have a Buddhist background.

Q.9 lists eight reasons for watching television. "Relaxation" and "enjoying the program" are the two top reasons. Interestingly, watching TV does not seem to help all students much in terms of "forgetting problems" or "getting advice to solve problems". Less than half of both sexes seek "social information" from watching TV. This might be because socialization is not very important to these students since most Taiwan students get social information from other sources than television.

(2) Magazine and newspaper readership--the results show a correlation between magazine and newspaper readership with both sexes. The magazine readership among Taiwan students could be considered as low because only Newsweek readership reached more than 50 percent of female students. Newsweek receives the highest readership, U.S. News & World Report the lowest among three news magazines.

The readership of three U.S. national newspapers--USA Today, N.Y. Times, and Wall Street Journal--is fairly low. While the readership of three local newspaper--Ames Tribune, Des Moines Register, and Iowa State Daily--is much higher. The Iowa State Daily has the highest readership percentages--76.5 percent males and 78.6 percent females read the Daily "often" or "very often". It seems likely that the popularity of the Daily is due to its availability and familiarity to Taiwan students.

Results indicate that the majority of Taiwan students at Iowa State are non-frequent printed media users. According to Seyfi (1979, p. 146):

"...better understanding of spoken and written English resulted in more radio listenership and more use of printed media. Foreign students with strong English background read American printed media more than did those who learned English as a foreign language."

Therefore, the low print media use may have something to do with the students English proficiency. Other factors such

as lack of time, lack of interests, availability of home country magazine, etc., may also affect the readership.

With regard to newspaper preference, all students are found as the high newspaper news consumers. Likewise, news is listed the first favorite content in the newspaper. In general, it appears that females have wider ranges of interest than males in different types of newspaper content.

The reason best explaining newspaper reading by sex is "gaining information" rather than "entertainment" and "relaxation". This indicates the majority of Taiwan students use U.S. printed media more for "surveillance" than for "diversion".

- (3) Radio listenership--In this category more "non-frequent radio users" were found than "frequent radio users". Female students were exposed to radio more often than male students. The popularity of all seven radio stations is low--none of them received more than 40 percent in terms of "radio station preference". Music and weather are the first and second favorite radio content. All students list religious programs the least preferred content. Radio news is not as popular a medium as TV and newspaper. Seyfi explained the reason:

The news coverage on the radio, especially concerning World news, is very narrow in scope compared to the news broadcast on television. One may argue that radio stations, especially Am ones carry plenty of news. But as mentioned earlier, watching news on television seems to be more pleasant

to most people--particularly non-English speaking ones--than listening to them on the radio. Foreign students seem to be highly sensitive to the news pertaining to their home country. This perhaps causes them to turn to other forms of media such as television or printed media to gain the information they need (1979, p. 96).

The overall media use preference by male and female students shows all students choose television as the most important media source for receiving the most information. Following television, newspaper is the second important and radio the least important media source. In the case of television, the results are in agreement with what Seyfi (1979, p. 140) discovered. In his study, he found that among four different media--television, radio, printed media, and movies--television seems to be the medium foreign students devote most of their time to. Greenberg and Roloff (1975) also found in their series of studies that the majority of people choose television over the other sources of media available for reasons such as accurate coverage of state and national and international news. They discovered that although newspapers provided most of the information about local news, they were second to television in terms of believability.

The second stage of the analysis deals with the pattern of media use by four different groups with different length of stay in the United States. The following is the major findings:

- (1) Length of residence and printed media use--all respondents in this category were divided into four groups according to their



length of residence in America--group A: 0-1 year, group B: 2-3 years, group C: 4-5 years, and group D: more than five years.

The chi-square shows a significant relationship between length of stay and magazine use. Group D is the most frequent magazine users, while group C the least frequent. For the newspaper use, the data shows a positive correlation between length of stay and newspaper use. Group D, those with the most U.S. residence, is the most frequent newspaper users among the four groups. The second is group C. Groups A and B are the least frequent newspaper users.

- (2) Length of residence and television use--in this section, respondents were asked to check the number of channels they watch frequently ("often" or "very often"). We found that group A is the group that watches all five channels most frequently. The majority of students are not highly interested in using television to obtain social information. The results show a negative correlation between length of stay and students' watching TV for social information.

It was unexpected to find group D as the group that used TV to get social information least frequently. Seyfi may explain the reason (1979, p. 142). He said that,

"A foreign student who comes to the United States needs to learn the American way of life, and in general must adjust himself to American societal norms...for most foreign students who come to this country there are three possible sources through which they can learn American

lifestyle: Americans, home country friends, and mass media. As far as general foreign students--regardless of their English language background--are concerned, Americans were found to be the primary source for teaching foreign students about the American way of life. With the same respect, home country friends and television were found to serve general foreign students as the second and third level of importance in teaching them how to live in the United States."

The majority of groups A, B, and C also seldom watch television for gaining social information. It might be assumed that even if a Taiwan student stays in the United States for a number of years, he or she may turn to other sources such as American students or friends rather than U.S. mass media to learn about this society.

- (3) Length of residence and using television for getting advice to solve problems--the data appear to us that most Taiwan students in this study are not highly interested in using TV to get advice. For all four groups, the percentages for "often" and "seldom, very seldom, or not at all" is significantly different. Group A uses television least often, while group D most often, to get advice to solve problems. According to earlier findings in the study, most Taiwan students use television for "relaxation" or "enjoyment" instead of "getting advice" or "forgetting problems". We assume that there are other sources available for these Taiwan students to find advice.. Television would mainly be used for relaxation and enjoyment no matter how long its foreign audience stay in the

United States. It is also possible that American television provides very little information of value on the day-to-day life of graduate students.

- (4) Length of residence and the interest in local and foreign news--it was found that length of stay is negatively associated with the interest in local news. Group D shows the highest interest in foreign news and the lowest interest in local news. It is interesting to find that group D, which has the longest stay in America, had the least interest in local news.
- (5) Length of residence and media use preference. For all four groups, television is regarded as the most important media source for most information. Group A uses television as the main source to get 100 percent information. The newspaper is found to be the second important source to get information.

Overall, the present study found (1) a majority of the relationships between U.S. media exposure and male and female Taiwan students are non-significant: (2) length of residence was either negatively or positively associated with media use by Taiwan students. Compared to radio, newspaper, and magazine, television is the most important source of information among Taiwan students at Iowa State University. Female students are found to use all the four media more frequently than male students. Frequency of media use concerning radio listening, newspaper and magazine reading is

low among both sexes. As for the motivational orientation, we discovered that students use television mainly for "relaxation" and "enjoyment", while using printed media mainly for "gaining information". The present study did not examine the availability of home printed media among Taiwan Students. Yet, a number of Taiwan students have access to home printed media which more or less affect their use of American media. Lee (1984, p. 80), who included home newspapers found that:

"Over 70% of foreign students report that TV is the most important information source, followed by home newspapers (13.6%), U.S. newspapers (12.5%) and radio (4.5%). Surprisingly, home newspapers ranked second most important source in providing information to foreign students. Also, almost half of foreign students surveyed considered home newspapers as the least important information source. Thus it seems that home newspapers play still a very important role to some of foreign students, although a significant number of foreign students are not using home newspapers at all."

In the case of low printed media use in the study (which is somewhat to our surprise). At least two factors seem to be involved in the infrequent use of the media. First, Taiwan students come from a non-English speaking country. Many of them do not have a very strong English background which might affect their reading desire and habits. In other words, they may turn to home country publications from time to time or simply pick up certain English publications according to their needs. Second, for those who desire to obtain more information about Taiwan or have an established habit using Chinese publications, American printed media might not meet their needs. For example, there is news that one

can find only through Chinese newspapers or certain detailed information one can obtain only through Chinese magazines. Without using these Chinese publications, a Taiwan student could easily feel isolated from his (or her) own country.

Like many other foreign students coming to the United States, Taiwan students not only have to adjust themselves to the U.S. educational system, they also have to go through a process of socialization. The experience of using American mass media would be very important to a Taiwan student even if he or she places school before socialization.

We do not know at what level do Taiwan students put American mass media in their life during their stay at Iowa State University. Nevertheless, this study indicates that U.S. media are of varying importance in providing information to Taiwan students. They also play a role in helping those students relax under the academic pressure.

Based on the findings of the present study, the uses and gratifications perspective seems to provide an effective framework in explaining the media use by Taiwan students. More systematic research approaching the media use by Taiwan students and other international students is needed in the future. Future studies with a larger sample and more detailed questionnaire would help understand and explain the pattern of media use by Taiwan students more clearly. In particular, there is a need to study the availability of Chinese publications among Taiwan students since many of them have access to those publications. English proficiency-- another major variable of social category--should

also be included in further study. We believe that American media use by foreign students from any country is complex. This study is but one attempt toward an initial search of a largely untouched phenomenon.

101a

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

101b

Dear student,

You have been selected at Iowa State University to be one of the students from Taiwan whose experiences about mass media in America are needed for an opinion research. I would like to emphasize the importance of this survey which is about "The media use of students from Taiwan at Iowa State University".

The questionnaire is designed to take only a few minutes. After filling it out, please return it in the enclosed self-addressed-stamped envelope. Thank you for your help. I wish you success in your studies.

Sincerely yours,

Joanne Lo

Graduate student,

Journalism and Mass Communication



Q.1- Do you have an access to a television?

a.  Yes

b.  No

Please mark "X" in the appropriate columns:

How often you watch

<u>Name of TV station</u>	<u>very often</u>	<u>often</u>	<u>seldom</u>	<u>very seldom</u>	<u>not at all</u>
<u>WOI(Channel 5)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>KCCI(Channel 8)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>WHO(Channel 13)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>KDSM(Channel 17)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>IPT(Channel 11)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Q.2- Do you read any American NEWS magazines?

a.  Yes

b.  No

If yes, please mark "X" in the appropriate columns:

<u>Name of Magazine</u>	<u>How often you read</u>				
	very often	often	seldom	very seldom	not at all
<u>Time</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Newsweek</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>U.S. News &amp; World</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Report</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Other (specify)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please place "X" on each magazine if you are a subscriber.

Q.3- Do you read any of the following American newspapers?

Please mark "X" in the appropriate columns:

<u>Name of newspaper</u>	<u>How often you read</u>				
	very often	often	seldom	very seldom	not at all
<u>Ames Tribune</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Des Moines Register</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>ISU Daily</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>USA Today</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>New York Times</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Wall Street Journal</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Other (specify)</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

PLEASE PLACE "X" IN FRONT OF THE ABOVE NEWSPAPERS IF YOU ARE A SUBSCRIBER.

Q.4- Approximately, how many times do you listen to the radio each day?

- a. \_\_\_\_\_ once in a day
- b. \_\_\_\_\_ twice in a day
- c. \_\_\_\_\_ three times in a day
- d. \_\_\_\_\_ four times in a day
- e. \_\_\_\_\_ more than four times in a day

Which of these radio stations do you listen to most often?

- a. \_\_\_\_\_ KCCQ(FM)      b. \_\_\_\_\_ KEZT(FM)      c. \_\_\_\_\_ KASI
- d. \_\_\_\_\_ WOI              e. \_\_\_\_\_ KDMI(FM)      f. \_\_\_\_\_ KDWZ(FM)
- g. \_\_\_\_\_ KEZT(FM)      h. \_\_\_\_\_ KFMD(FM)      (a, b, c, d are radio  
stations in Ames. e, f, g, h are in Des Moines.)

Q.5- What is your main source for information about what is going on in the World? CHECK ONLY ONE ON EACH LINE. DO NOT CHECK ANY IF YOU DO NOT USE THAT MEDIUM FOR CERTAIN INFORMATION

	TV	Radio	Newspaper	Magazine
<u>a. General news</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>b. Local news</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>c. Foreign news</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>d. Politics</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>e. Finance</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>f. Business</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>g. Sports</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>h. Entertainment</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>i. Weather</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>j. Arts</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>k. Food</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>l. Fashion</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>m. Health</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>n. Advertisement</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____

Q.6- When you watch TV, what types of programs do you watch most often?

(Check "X" as many as it applies; put "1" and "2" as the types of programs you watch most often)

a. \_\_\_\_\_ News                      b. \_\_\_\_\_ Crime-drama shows      c. \_\_\_\_\_

Movies

d. \_\_\_\_\_ Comedy shows      e. \_\_\_\_\_ Variety shows      f. \_\_\_\_\_

Sports

g. \_\_\_\_\_ Children's shows                      h. \_\_\_\_\_ Religious programs

i. \_\_\_\_\_ Quiz shows      j. \_\_\_\_\_ Talk shows                      k. \_\_\_\_\_

Others

Q.7- When you read A newspaper, what types of content you read most

often? (Check "X" as many as it applies; put "1" and "2" as the content you read most often)

a. \_\_\_\_\_ News ( \_\_\_\_\_ General news, \_\_\_\_\_ Local news, \_\_\_\_\_ Foreign

news)

b. \_\_\_\_\_ Politics                      c. \_\_\_\_\_ Finance                      d. \_\_\_\_\_ Business

e. \_\_\_\_\_ Sports                      f. \_\_\_\_\_ Entertainment      g. \_\_\_\_\_ Weather

h. \_\_\_\_\_ Arts                      i. \_\_\_\_\_ Food                      j. \_\_\_\_\_ Passion

k. \_\_\_\_\_ Health                      l. \_\_\_\_\_ Others

Q.8- When you listen to radio, what do you listen to most often? (Check "X" as many as it applies; put "1" and "2" as the program you listen to most often)

- a. \_\_\_\_ News(\_\_\_\_ General news, \_\_\_\_ Local news, \_\_\_\_ Foreign news)
- b. \_\_\_\_ Weather      c. \_\_\_\_ Sports      d. \_\_\_\_ Music
- e. \_\_\_\_ Religious programs      f. \_\_\_\_ Others

Q.9- Which of the following reasons best explain why you watch TV?

(Check all)	often	seldom	very seldom	not at all
a. <u>Relaxation</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. <u>Education</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. <u>Political information</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. <u>Social information</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. <u>Forgetting problems</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
f. <u>Enjoying the program</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
g. <u>Getting advice to</u> <u>    solve problems</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____
h. <u>Helping my children</u> <u>    learn something</u>	_____	_____	_____	_____

Q.10-Which ONE of the following reasons best explain why you listen to the radio?

- a.  Gaining information
- b.  Entertainment
- c.  Relaxation
- d.  Others (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

Q.11-Which ONE of the following reasons best explain why you read printed media?

- a.  Gaining information
- b.  Entertainment
- c.  Relaxation
- d.  Others (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

#### BACKGROUND DATA

1. Male  Female
2. Your marital status: Single  Married
3. Which age group are you in?  
Under 20  20-25  26-30  Above 30
4. Field of your major:  
Social science  Business  Agriculture   
Natural science & engineering  Education   
Medicine
5. How long have you been in the United States? \_\_\_\_\_

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION!!



## APPENDIX II: TABLES

Table A.1. Frequency of Reading U.S. News &  
World Report by Sex

READING U.S. NEWS & WORLD REPORT	Sex	
	Male (N = 51)	Female (N = 26)
Not at all	58.8% (30)	57.7% (15)
Very Seldom	7.8% (4)	3.8% (1)
Seldom	21.6% (11)	23.1% (6)
Often	9.8% (5)	15.4% (4)
Very often	20.0% (1)	
$\chi^2 = 1.414$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.847

Table A.2. Frequency of Reading Other U.S.  
Magazines by Sex

READING OTHER U.S. NEWS MAGAZINES	Sex	
	Male (N = 47)	Female (N = 25)
Not at all	72.3% (34)	72.0% (18)
Very Seldom	2.1% (1)	
Seldom	6.4% (3)	4.9% (1)
Often	14.9% (7)	20.0% (5)
Very often	4.3% (2)	4.0% (1)
$\chi^2 = 0.957$ d.f. = 4      p = 0.916		

Table A.3. Frequency of Reading USA Today by Sex

READING USA TODAY	Sex	
	Male (N = 68)	Female (N = 40)
Not at all	51.5% (35)	52.5 (21)
Very Seldom	13.2% (9)	12.5% (5)
Seldom	22.1% (15)	25.0% (10)
Often	7.4% (5)	10.0% (4)
Very often	5.9% (4)	

  

$\chi^2 = 2.674$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.614
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Table A.4. Frequency of Reading Wall Street  
Journal by Sex

READING WALL STREET	Sex	
	Male (N = 68)	Female (N = 42)
Not at all	75.0% (51)	81.0% (34)
Very Seldom	16.2% (11)	9.5% (4)
Seldom	7.4% (5)	4.8% (2)
Often		2.4% (1)
Very often	1.5% (1)	2.4% (1)
$\chi^2 = 2.973$	d.f. = 4	p = 0.562

Table A.5. The length of residence and watching TV for social information

	Length of residence			
	(0-1 year)	(2-3 years)	(4-5 years)	(more than 5 years)
	Group A (N=34)	Group B (N=34)	Group C (N=27)	Group D (N=15)
Not at all	29.4% (10)	35.3% (12)	29.6% (8)	40.0% (6)
Very seldom	11.8% (4)	17.6% (6)	18.5% (5)	6.7% (1)
Seldom	35.3% (12)	14.7% (5)	14.8% (4)	40.0% (6)
Often	23.5%	32.4% (11)	37.0% (10)	13.3% (2)
<hr/>				
$\chi^2=9.681$	d.f.=9	p=0.377		

Table A.6. Length of residence and interest in local and foreign news on newspaper. (Some respondents do not have specific interest)

	<u>Length of residence</u>			
	(0-1 year)	(2-3 years)	(4-5 years)	(more than 5 years)
	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
News	(N=19)	(N=14)	(N=14)	(N=9)
Local news	47.4% (9)	35.7% (5)	50.0% (7)	33.3% (2)
Foreign news	52.6% (10)	64.3% (9)	50.0% (5)	66.7% (6)
	$\chi^2=1.075$	d. f. =3	p=0.783	

Table A.7. Length of residence and media use preference by Group A

MEDIA SOURCES	General News	Rank	Local News	Rank	Foreign News	Rank	Politics	Rank	Finance	Rank
	(N=40)		(N=35)		(N=40)		(N=37)		(N=22)	
TV	70.0%	(28) 1	85.7%	(30) 1	62.5%	(25) 1	48.6%	(18) 1	63.6%	(14) 1
Radio	12.5%	(5) 2	5.7%	(2) 3	7.5%	(3) 4	8.1%	(3) 4	4.5%	(1) 3
Newspaper	10.0%	(4) 3	8.6%	(3) 2	15.0%	(6) 2.5	21.6%	(8) 2.5	27.3%	(6) 2
Magazine	7.5%	(3) 4	0	(0) 4	15.0%	(6) 2.5	21.6%	(8) 2.5	4.5%	(1) 3

MEDIA SOURCES	Business	Rank	Sports	Rank	Entertainment	Rank	Weather	Rank	Arts	Rank
	(N=26)		(N=32)		(N=31)		(N=38)		(N=30)	
TV	46.2%	(12) 1	71.9%	(23) 1	61.3%	(19) 1	71.1%	(27) 1	43.3%	(13) 1
Radio	0%	(0) 4	3.1%	(1) 3	9.7%	(3) 3	21.1%	(8) 2	6.7%	(2) 4
Newspaper	34.6%	(9) 2	25.0%	(8) 2	22.6%	(7) 2	7.9%	(3) 3	26.7%	(8) 2
Magazine	19.2%	(5) 3	0%	(0) 4	6.5%	(2) 4	0%	(0) 4	23.3%	(7) 3

Table A.7. (continued)

MEDIA	Food	Rank	Fashion	Rank	Health	Rank	Ad	Rank
SOURCES	(N=23)		(N=23)		(N=26)		(N=36)	
TV	52.3% (12)	1	47.8% (11)	1	53.8% (14)	1	38.9% (14)	1
Radio	0% (0)	4	4.3% (1)	4	0% (0)	4	5.6% (2)	4
Newspaper	39.1% (9)	2	17.4% (4)	3	23.1% (6)	2.5	33.3% (12)	2
Magazine	8.7% (2)	3	30.4% (7)	2	23.1% (6)	2.5	22.2% (8)	3



Table A.8. Length of residence and media use preference by Group B.

MEDIA SOURCES	General News (N=39)	Local News (N=29)	Foreign News (N=41)	Finance (N=17)
	Rank	Rank	Rank	Rank
	Rank	Rank	Rank	Rank
TV	61.5% (24) 1	69.0% (20) 1	58.5% (24) 1	53.1% (17) 1
Radio	7.7% (3) 4	10.3% (3) 3	4.9% (2) 4	3.1% (1) 4
Newspaper	20.5% (8) 2	20.7% (6) 2	24.4% (10) 2	21.9% (7) 2.5
Magazine	10.3% (4) 3	0 4	12.2% (5) 3	21.9% (7) 2.5

  

MEDIA SOURCES	Business (N=21)	Sports (N=27)	Entertainment (N=32)	Weather (N=37)	Arts (N=24)
	Rank	Rank	Rank	Rank	Rank
	Rank	Rank	Rank	Rank	Rank
TV	23.8% (5) 3	81.5% (22) 1	56.3% (18) 1	59.5% (22) 1	25.0% (6) 2
Radio	9.5% (2) 4	3.7% (1) 3	18.8% (6) 2	29.7% (11) 2	4.2% (1) 4
Newspaper	38.1% (8) 1	14.8% (4) 2	12.5% (4) 3.5	8.1% (3) 3	50.0% (12) 1
Magazine	28.6% (6) 2	0.0 (0) 4	12.5% (4) 3.5	2.7% (4) 4	20.8% (5) 3

Table A.8. (continued)

MEDIA	Food	Rank	Fashion	Rank	Health	Rank	Ad	Rank
SOURCES	(N=21)		(N=18)		(N=21)		(N=34)	
TV	14.3% (3)	3	33.3% (6)	2	28.6% (6)	2	35.3% (12)	2
Radio	4.8% (1)	4	5.6% (1)	4	4.8% (1)	4	8.8% (3)	3.5
Newspaper	57.1% (12)	1	11.1% (2)	3	23.8% (5)	3	47.1% (16)	1
Magazine	23.8% (5)	2	50.0% (9)	1	42.9% (9)	1	8.8% (3)	3.5

Table A.9. Length of residence and media use preference by Group C

MEDIA SOURCES	General News	Rank	Local News	Rank	Foreign News	Rank	Politics	Rank	Finance	Rank
	(N=30)		(N=30)		(N=29)		(N=28)		(N=21)	
TV	73.3% (22)	1	54.8% (17)	1	69.0% (20)	1	67.9% (19)	1	57.1% (12)	1
Radio	10.0% (3)	3	20.0% (6)	3	6.9% (2)	4	7.1% (2)	4	4.8% (1)	4
Newspaper	16.7% (5)	2	23.3% (7)	2	13.8% (4)	2	14.3% (4)	2	19.0% (4)	2.5
Magazine	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4	10.3% (3)	3	10.7% (3)	3	19.0% (4)	2.5

  

MEDIA SOURCES	Business	Rank	Sports	Rank	Entertainment	Rank	Weather	Rank	Arts	Rank
	(N=20)		(N=28)		(N=22)		(N=29)		(N=18)	
TV	50.0% (10)	1	78.6% (22)	1	81.8% (18)	1	72.4% (21)	1	44.4% (8)	1
Radio	5.0% (1)	4	0% (0)	4	9.1% (2)	2.5	24.1% (7)	2	5.6% (1)	4
Newspaper	25.0% (5)	2	17.9% (5)	2	9.1% (2)	2.5	3.4% (1)	3	27.8% (5)	2
Magazine	20.0% (4)	3	3.6% (1)	3	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4	22.2% (4)	3

Table A.9. (continued)

MEDIA	Food (N=15)	Rank	Fashion (N=13)	Rank	Health (N=17)	Rank	Ad (N=25)	Rank
SOURCES								
TV	33.3% (5)	2	46.2% (6)	1	47.1% (8)	1	28.0% (7)	2
Radio	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4	4.0% (1)	4
Newspaper	40.0% (6)	1	15.4% (2)	3	11.2% (2)	3	48.0% (12)	1
Magazine	26.7% (4)	3	38.5% (5)	2	41.2% (7)	2	20.0% (5)	3

Table A.10. Length of residence and media use preference - Group D

MEDIA SOURCES	General News	Rank	Local News	Rank	Foreign News	Rank	Politics	Rank	Finance	Rank
	(N=18)		(N=16)		(N=17)		(N=13)		(N=9)	
TV	72.2% (13)	1	75.0% (12)	1	52.9% (9)	1	46.2% (6)	1	44.4% (4)	1
Radio	0% (0)	4	6.3% (1)	3	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4
Newspaper	22.2% (4)	2	18.8% (3)	2	35.3% (6)	2	23.1% (3)	3	11.1% (1)	3
Magazine	5.6% (1)	3	0% (0)	4	11.8% (2)	3	30.8% (4)	2	22.2% (2)	2

  

MEDIA SOURCES	Business	Rank	Sports	Rank	Entertainment	Rank	Weather	Rank	Arts	Rank
	(N=7)		(N=12)		(N=14)		(N=14)		(N=8)	
TV	42.9% (3)	1.5	83.3% (10)	1	64.3% (9)	1	78.6% (11)	1	12.5% (1)	3
Radio	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	3.5	14.3% (2)	2.5	7.1% (1)	3	0% (0)	4
Newspaper	14.3% (1)	3	16.7% (2)	2	14.3% (2)	2.5	14.3% (2)	2	25.0% (2)	2
Magazine	42.9% (3)	1.5	0% (0)	3.5	7.1% (1)	4	0% (0)	4	62.5% (5)	1

Table A.10. (continued)

MEDIA SOURCES	Food (N=9)	Rank	Fashion (N=7)	Rank	Health (N=10)	Rank	Ad (N=11)	Rank
TV	11.1% (1)	3	28.6% (2)	2.5	30.0% (3)	2	27.3% (3)	2
Radio	0% (0)	4	0% (3)	4	0% (0)	4	0% (0)	4
Newspaper	44.4% (4)	1.5	28.6% (2)	2.5	20.0% (2)	3	54.5% (6)	1
Magazine	44.4% (4)	1.5	42.9% (3)	1	50.0% (5)	1	18.2% (2)	3

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