Intersections between Ethnocentrism and Media Attention among Japanese and American University Students

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日本人大学生とアメリカ人大学生の自民族優越主義と メディアへの関心の接点について

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Abstract

This paper examines the relationship between media attention and attitudes of ethnocentrism among Japanese and American university students. The study consisted of two aspects. The first was a survey to determine if there was any interaction between levels of media attention and attitudes of ethnocentrism ($N = 297$, Japanese $n = 189$, Americans $n = 108$). Building upon research conducted on ethnocentrism, this study adds the dimension of attention to news and discussion of news with parents and friends. Results indicate that as media attention increases, attitudes of ethnocentrism decrease for both groups, with a significant correlation found [$r(285) = -.185, p < .01$]. Significant correlation was found between levels of ethnocentrism and discussion of news with friends ($p < .05$), though not between ethnocentrism and discussion of news with parents. The second part of the project was a series of focus group discussions in both countries to provide a clearer picture of the news attention and news access habits of respondents. Results indicate a variety of media are used by the students with attention paid to topics related more to what is presented than specific interests. Much remains to be done to understand how attention to various news topics affects attitudes toward other nationalities.

key words: ethnocentrism, cross-cultural understanding, media effects

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　本稿は、日本人大学生とアメリカ人大学生のメディアへの関心と自民族優越主義の態度を考察する。日本とアメリカの研究系大学の学生（日本人 189 名、アメリカ人 108 名）を対象に、メディアへの関心度と自民族優越主義の態度に何らかの相互関係があるのかを探る調査を実施した。メディアへの関心が高くなると自民族優越主義の態度が低くなるとい

う結果を両方のグループが示した。[$r(285) = -.185, p < .01$]。友人とのディスカッションでは、自民族優越主義とメディアへの関心度の有意な相関が見られたものの ($p < .05$)、両親とのディスカッションでは有意さは見られなかった。本稿の後半では、両国の大学生のニュースへの関心度とニュースへのアクセスの習慣を明らかにするために実施したフォーカスグループの結果を論じている。TV や新聞が主要なソース源であるものの、自身の関心のある特定のニュースを探すというよりも、提示されたニュースに関連したトピックに興味を持ち、さまざまなメディアを学生は利用している。色々なニュースへの関心がどのように他国への態度に影響しているかを理解するには、多くの課題が残されている。

Introduction

Communication long ago moved beyond the realm of the personal. With the advent of writing systems, the solely oral mode of information transfer was augmented by ways to send it directly to a distant recipient, distant in both space and time, distant in culture and language. Chen and Starosta (2002) believe this demands the creation of a "global mindset by which we try to see things through the eyes of others" through development of "global cultural competency" (p. 1). With the globalization of the economy and mass media, "local and national identity have become increasingly fuzzier and more problematic" (p. 20), which has intensified self-conscious awareness of ethnicity (Robertson, 1992). This requires an understanding of the various cultural attitudes that affect communication. One of these attitudes is ethnocentrism.

Intercultural and cross-cultural communication studies, which define ethnocentrism as the belief that your culture is superior to other's, have looked at how ethnocentric attitudes influence inter-group understanding. Studies have worked on establishing scales for measuring aspects of ethnocentrism such as social-distance (Bogardus, 1928), refining this early scale (Lambert, 1952), examining differences between ethnic groups within one area (Gans, 1988, 1999) establishing a cross-cultural understanding of ethnocentrism (Campbell & LeVine, 1961; LeVine & Campbell, 1972), comparing cultures (Berry, 1969), understanding the links between ethnic and national attitudes (Sidanius, Feshbach, Levin & Pratto, 1997), examining stereotyping (Taylor & Porter, 1994), and establishing a general scale for measuring ethnocentrism (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). These, and numerous other studies, create a "general theory of ethnocentrism widely accepted throughout the social sciences" (Campbell & LeVine, 1961, p. 82), with many scholars arguing that it is "a universal phenomenon experienced, to some degree, in all cultures" (Neuliep, Chaudoir & McCroskey, 2001, p. 138).

Some of the aspects of ethnocentrism that have received attention by researchers include the relationship between ethnocentrism and second language (L2) proficiency (Svanes, 1988; Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000); ethnocentrism, measures of willingness to communicate in an L2, and participation in intercultural dialogue programs (Lin & Rancer, 2007), cultural traits (Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000), intercultural communication (Butcher & Haggard, 2008; Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994; Wiseman, Hammer, & Nishida, 1989), its role in ethnic conflict and war (Brewer 1979; Chirot & Seligman, 2001, van der Dennen, 1995), consumption and patterns of consumer behavior (Klein & Ettenson, 1999), and inter-group and in-group relationships (LeVine & Campbell, 1972; Weber, 1994). Neuliep, Chaudoir, and McCroskey (2001) indicate ethnocentrism and nationalism are manifested in similar ways and that "nationalism" in Japan is "remarkably similar to current conceptions of ethnocentrism" (p. 140). Their study of Japanese and American culture, which they considered as examples of homogenous and multiethnic cultures, found that Japanese university students scored higher on ethnocentrism measures than Americans, a finding that duplicates other studies that have also found high levels of ethnocentrism among Japanese respondents (Svanes, 1988; Wiseman, Hammer, & Nishida, 1989; Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000). In terms of communication, we need to be concerned as "ethnocentrism creates problems in part because people expect others to think and behave as they do" (Stephan & Stephan, 2001, p. 135). When they don't, communication difficulties arise.

The globalization of media and 24-hour news cycle provide an increasingly complex media environment. Like earlier forms of mass media, computer-mediated communication can either be viewed "as a phenomenon that will negatively impact cultural diversity ... or [one that will] ... increase and enrich cultural diversity" (Wildermuth, 2002, p. 238). One possibility is leveraging the use of the global media into a global civil society. While many see potential for this in economic interdependence, others argue "news media do not provide the information required for citizens to have a clear view of events and their causes" (Jacobson & Jang, 2002, p. 346). Moreover, the ways in which the media environment contribute to ethnocentrism have not been considered. In short, researchers remain uncertain about the connection between attention to mass media and ethnocentrism.

Media researchers have considered the importance of 'attention' to news media for informing public opinion, as opposed to simple exposure (Chaffee & Schleuder, 1986). Study of news media attention has been done in many countries, including Japan (Feldman & Kawakami, 1991; Feldman, 1993, 1995). Moreover, studies have shown that attention to news media correlates with a variety of different attitudes and personal value setting (Kang, Perry, & Kang, 1999). Throughout these studies, attention to media along with opportunities to interact with people from other cultures are viewed as a factor that might ameliorate, or at least lessen, feelings of ethnocentrism. This connection has not been sufficiently studied.

Consideration also needs to be directed at the effect of the September 11 terrorist attacks and subsequent events on ethnocentrism. While studies have not confirmed a rise in ethnocentrism in the U.S., analysis of the subsequent evocation of fear and the emphasis on patriotism suggests a possible rise in nationalism (Larabee, 2003) and along with it ethnocentrism. Argyrides and Downey (2004), in a series of seven surveys administered beginning on Sept. 10, 2001 through September 4, 2003, found significant increase in aggression, no change in prejudice indices, and partial support for their hypothesis of increased awareness of differences between people. They also postulated that the media, through its repetition of news, "may be a significant contributor to both 'clinical' and attitudinal effects"(p.183). Similarly, Karasawa (2003) found that Japanese respondents continued to show a high degree of stereotyping, considered to be an aspect of ethnocentrism, in their evaluation of the inner (*uchi*) and outer (*soto*) groups. Though "ethnocentrism and nationalism are not synonymous, they have similar roots and manifestations" (Neuliep, et al., 2001, p. 140). Research in Japan conducted before 2001 showed a move away from traditional forms of nationalism (Gao, 1998; Hashimoto, 2000; McVeigh, 1997). However, in the post-9/11 world, a rise in nationalist sentiment has been noted in both Japan and the U.S. and may indicate a concurrent rise in ethnocentrism. Eveland and Shaw (2003) found that discussions of news tended to reinforce perceptions of media bias as well as pre-existing opinions in same group discussion. While their study focused on identification of American political groups and perceptions of media bias, it suggests that in-group opinion is reinforced by discussion of news within politically like-minded groups. Given this, research needs to be addressed toward the interactions between attention to news and attitudes of ethnocentrism to determine if paying attention to what is happening in the world increases or decreases feelings of ethnocentrism.

Given the exploratory nature of this research, we ask two research questions:

RQ1　　Will Japanese still have a higher level of ethnocentrism than Americans in the post-9/11 environment?

RQ2　　Will attention to news media contribute to increased ethnocentrism?

and posit one hypothesis:

H1　　Japanese students will have a higher degree of ethnocentrism than Americans.

For purposes of this study, ethnocentrism is defined using Applebaus's (1996) definition as evaluations of other cultures which favor your culture and its dominant cultural practices over others and silences alternative viewpoints. Nationalism is defined as an active process of integration between people from all classes of society into positive identification with their nation (Pyle, 1971). In short, nationalism is the positive dimension of cultural identification, while ethnocentrism represents the negative dimension, accenting cultural dissimilarity.

The Study

Methods

Respondents.

The respondents for this study (N = 297) are second-year business majors at two universities, one in Japan (n = 189) and one in the United States (n = 108). In the U.S., a required business course generally taken by second-year (sophomore) college students served as the population site for the survey administration. In Japan, the survey was administered in six required English classes for second-year business majors. The survey was administered in November, 2004 at both locations.

The characteristics of the two universities are similar. Total enrollment at both universities is near 30,000 students. Both universities attract students from around the country, though most come from the local area; 67% in-state enrollment at the U.S. institution and 72% from in the same region for the Japanese population. Both have strong science and engineering programs. Both value their athletic programs. Differences in the population do exist, of course. The Japanese university is a commuter college, with most students living at home or with relatives in the area. The American university requires all freshmen to live in dorms and most other students live away from their parents' home. One significant difference in the two institutions is female enrollment. At the American university, 48% of the student body is female versus 24% at the Japanese university. This is lower than the 39% female enrollment at universities in Japan (Statistics Bureau, 2004), however, this includes those enrolled at the 91 universities exclusively for women, 13% of the universities in Japan.

Instrument.

The survey instrument has four sections[1]. Sections 1, 2, and 4 were developed for this study (see Appendix). Section 1 requests information about travel time, hours in class, hours of homework and exposure to other languages and travel abroad to provide a general picture of the participants' school life and potential influences on their attitudes toward other cultures.

Section 2 consists of five media indices. The first index, a composite measure of access to news, had six items about usage of various news media by number of days in the past week: newspapers, news magazines, television news, radio news, Internet news access by computer, and Internet web access by mobile phone. The next two indices had seven items each about frequency of news discussion with either friends or parents. The fourth index had 11 items about attention to various types of news, from national events to sports. The final index in this section was the self-reported measure of knowledge of local, national and international news. Mondak (1996) found the self-reported measure of knowledge to be an effective measure.

Section 3 includes the 18 items on the Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale (GenE) which

Neuliep, et al. (2001) retained in their analyses and suggest should be used in future studies with the instrument.[2]

Section 4 consists of items needed for statistical control (see Appendix), including age, year in college, language spoken at home, estimated family income, and gender. Language spoken at home was requested because the universities selected frequently accept students whose first language is either Spanish (in the U.S.) or Korean (in Japan) as it was felt that this might influence ethnocentrism.

The items on the survey, with the exception of Generalized Ethnocentrism (GenE) Scale translated by Neuliep et al. (2001) and provided for this study, were translated into Japanese by the authors. To ensure accuracy, a native speaker of Japanese checked the translation.

Results and Discussion

At the American university, 154 surveys were distributed and 108 returned for a 70% response rate. In Japan, 190 surveys were distributed and 189 returned, for a 99.5% response rate.

Before any comparison of the results of the ethnocentrism and media attention measures, the demographic characteristics of the two samples need to be considered (see Table 1). In the U.S., 41.1% of respondents were female ($N = 44$) and 58.9% male ($N = 63$). In Japan, 27.5% were female ($N = 50$) and 72.5% male ($N = 132$).

Table 1: Characteristics of the Study Populations

	Independent-samples t test	U.S.		Japan	
		M	SD	M	SD
Year in school	$t(287) = 1.058$	2.46	.587	2.38	.626
Age	$t(287) = .213$	3.07 (23-24)	1.264	2.95 (21-22)	.467
Hours in class	$t(288) = -2.77**$	3.25 (11-15)	.75	3.62 (11-15)	1.28
Hours HW	$t(288) = 11.409***$	2.33 (6-10)	1.09	1.18 (0-5)	.63
Travel abroad	$t(288) = 6.40***$	.81	.40	.45	.50
Time abroad	$t(288) = 7.94***$	2.58 (<1 mo.)	2.00	.95 (1 week)	1.49
L2 ability	$t(288) = 2.129*$	2.40	1.23	2.12	1.00

Significance at: $* = p < .05$; $** = p < .01$; $*** = p < .001$

Not unexpectedly, 93.5% of the American respondents reported speaking English at home and 98.4% of Japanese respondents spoke Japanese at home. In the U.S., other home languages included Korean (1 respondent), Spanish (1), and other languages (4). In Japan, other languages used at home were English (1), Spanish (1), and Korean (1).

Following the procedures outlined by Neuliep, et al. (2001), measures for ethnocentrism were subjected to a factor analysis to see if they should be retained. All items met the criteria set following the level used by Neuliep, et al. Overall reliability across both groups using Cronbach's alpha[3] was .79.

Factor analysis for the media measures showed one item, "listen to radio news" on the days of media use scale, did not meet the minimum unrotated loading of .40 on the first factor and this item was deleted from further analysis. Overall reliability of the media measures, as determined by Cronbach's alpha, was .46 for the "days of media use" scale, .92 for the "talk about news with friends" scale, .93 for "talk about news with parents" scale, and .87 for the "attention to news issues" scale. Reliability for a combined scale of all media measures, as determined by Cronbach's alpha, was .89. The low reliability of the days of media use led to a closer examination of this measure. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between the items on the days of media use scale. Correlation was found between "days of newspaper use" and "days of magazine use" [$r(288) = 3.00$, $p < .01$]. These two items were retained. All other items related to days of media use were discarded.

Finally, factor analyses on the knowledge measures were conducted. All three items were retained. The loadings were: knowledge of local news = .483; knowledge of national news = .874; knowledge of international news = .672. Overall reliability of the knowledge measures, as determined by Cronbach's alpha, was .75 for the knowledge measures.

Ethnocentrism and media attention.

To turn attention to the ethnocentrism and media measures, we considered both gender and nationality. Table 2 presents the mean ethnocentrism scores by gender for each culture. Significant difference was found in ethnocentrism between the two groups [$t(286) = -6.73$, $p < .001$], with Americans scoring significantly lower in ethnocentrism (U.S. $M = 36.65$, $SD = 12.51$; Japan $M = 44.87$, $SD = 8.19$). In addition, no significant differences were found in ethnocentrism scores between American respondents who had traveled abroad and those who had not [$t(105) = -.26$, $p = .78$], though the difference was significant for Japanese respondents [$t(179) = -2.42$, $p < .05$] for those who had traveled abroad ($M = 43.26$, $SD = 8.23$) and those who had not ($M = 46.18$, $SD = 7.97$). Moreover, significant difference was found in ethnocentrism between American and Japanese respondents who had traveled abroad [$t(166) = -4.22$, $p < .001$], reflecting the lower degree of ethnocentrism for the Americans overall (U.S. $M = 36.49$, $SD = 12.04$; Japan $M = 43.26$, $SD = 8.23$). These data confirm our hypothesis that Americans will continue to show lower level of ethnocentrism than Japanese using the GenE scale.

Table 2: Mean Ethnocentrism for Americans and Japanese by Gender

	Culture			
	Americans		Japanese	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Female	32.98	13.919	40.48	7.437
Male	39.22	10.810	46.55	7.862
	$t(105) = -2.61$**		$t(179) = -4.71$***	

Significance at: $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$

Next, correlations between the media measures and ethnocentrism were examined for all subjects by gender (see Table 3). Significant differences were found between American female and male respondents on the "days of newspaper and news magazine use" measure. Female respondents read a newspaper or news magazine significantly fewer days each week. Also, American respondents read a newspaper or news magazine significantly less than the Japanese respondents. For all other measures, no significant differences were found.

Table 3: Scores for Media Use Measures on Independent-Samples t tests by Gender

	Americans		Japanese		Both Groups	
	df	*t*	*df*	*t*	*df*	*t*
Days of Newspaper & News Magazine Use	105	−2.44*	180	1.94	287	−2.77**
Talk about News with Parents	105	−.336	179	−1.62	286	−1.12
Talk about News with Friends	105	−1.40	180	−.160	287	−.036
Attention to News Issues	105	−.529	177	−1.77	284	−1.464

Significance at: $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$

Significant differences were found between the two groups on two of the media attention measures, talk about news with parents and talk about news with friends, with Japanese respondents scoring significantly higher on both measures (see Table 4).

Table 4: Scores for Media Use Measures on Independent-Samples t tests between Groups

		M	SD	df	t
Days of Newspaper & News Magazine Use	Americans	4.41	2.91	288	1.223
	Japanese	3.93	3.39		
Talk about News with Parents	Americans	19.63	6.82	287	2.645**
	Japanese	14.23	7.05		
Talk about News with Friends	Americans	16.80	7.19	287	6.383***
	Japanese	14.46	7.32		
Attention to News Issues	Americans	31.38	8.10	284	1.484
	Japanese	29.89	8.33		

Significance at: $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$

Correlation was found between all four measures of media (days of newspaper and news magazine use, talk about news with parents, talk about news with friends, and attention to news issues) to varying degrees of significance (see Table 5), indicating a significant relationship between each set of variables.
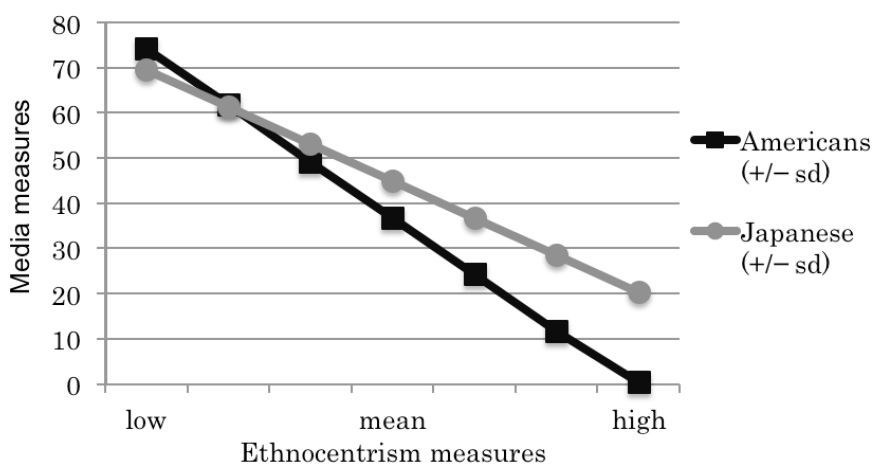
Table 5: Correlations between Media Measures

	Days of newspaper & news magazine use	Talk about news with parents	Talk about news with friends	Attention to news issues
Days of newspaper & news magazine use	1.00	――	――	――
Talk about news with parents	.144*	1.00	――	――
Talk about news with friends	.193**	.552**	1.00	――
Attention to news issues	.308**	.475**	.451**	1.00

Significance at: $* p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed), $** p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

As the central focus for this study is the relationship between media attention and ethnocentrism, the interaction between the media measures and the GenE scale were considered. Significant correlations were found between ethnocentrism and three media measures: talk with parents $[r(288) = -.133, p < .05]$, talk with friends $[r(287) = -.293, p < .01]$, and attention to news issues $[r(285) = -.185, p < .01]$, indicating those with lower ethnocentrism pay more attention to news. There was no correlation between days of newspaper and news magazine use and ethnocentrism.

To determine if there was any difference between the American and Japanese groups regarding the relationship between ethnocentrism and the media measures, a Pearson correlation coefficient was conducted for each group. For Americans, a relationship was found between ethnocentrism and only one of the media measures, talk with friends about news [$r(107) = -.215$, $p < .05$], indicating less ethnocentric American respondents talk with friends about the news more. For Japanese respondents, significant correlation was found between ethnocentrism and two of the media measures, talk with friends about news [$r(180) = -.162$, $p < .05$] and attention to news issues [$r(178) = -.196$, $p < .01$]. This indicates that less ethnocentric Japanese talk with friends more about news and pay more attention to news. These results indicate that ethnocentrism decreases as media attention increases (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Interaction between media measures and ethnocentrism, with increased media use (high levels of media use on the left scale) correlating with lower levels of ethnocentrism (low levels of ethnocentrism on the bottom scale).

Next, we turned attention to RQ1: Will Japanese still have a higher level of ethnocentrism than Americans in the post-9/11 environment? Comparing the results of this study with those reported by Neuliep, et al. (2001) in their study of American and Japanese college students responses on the Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale, there appears to be only a slight change in the mean ethnocentrism levels of American and Japanese college students (see Table 6), with American female respondents showing increased ethnocentrism.

Table 6: Change in Mean Ethnocentrism for Americans and Japanese

		Americans		Japanese	
		M	SD	M	SD
Neuliep, et al. (2001)	All	34.3	11.4	43.2	9.2
	Female	30.7	8.4	41.8	8.7
	Male	40.3	13.1	45.6	9.2
Current study	All	36.7	12.5	44.9	8.2
	Female	33.0	13.9	40.5	7.4
	Male	39.2	10.8	46.6	7.9

Note: All means and standard deviations are rounded to one decimal point for comparison.

Finally, to have a more complete picture of the interaction between ethnocentrism based on the media measures, we examined RQ2: Will attention to news media contribute to increased ethnocentrism? Multiple linear regression between ethnocentrism and the four media indices found significant regression equations only for the talk with friends about news index [$F(4,279) = 7.387$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .096$]. Though the ANOVA indicated a significant relationship, no significance was found between ethnocentrism and the three media measures in calculating the multiple linear regression, indicating the indices for talk with parents [$F(4,279) = .006$, $p = .517$, $R^2 = .096$], attention to news [$F(4,279) = -.125$, $p = .165$, $R^2 = .096$], and days of newspaper and news magazine use [$F(4,279) = .284$, $p = .158$, $R^2 = .096$] did not predict ethnocentrism.

In order to have a more complete picture of the interaction between ethnocentrism based on the media measures, we also conducted linear regression analysis between the ethnocentrism and media indices. Significant regression equations were found for only for the talk with friends about news index [$F(4,279) = 7.387$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .096$]. Though the ANOVA indicated a significant relationship, no significance was found between ethnocentrism and the other three media composites in calculating the multiple linear regression, indicating the talk with parents composite [$F(4,279) = .006$, $p = .517$, $R^2 = .096$], the attention to news composite [$F(4,279) = -.125$, $p = .165$, $R^2 = .096$], and the days of newspaper and news magazine use composite [$F(4,279) = .284$, $p = .158$, $R^2 = .096$] did not predict ethnocentrism. However, when looking at the individual media measures, a more complex pattern was found. Significant regression equations were found for five of the individual media measures. Talk with parents about the economy, attention to election for major office, attention to local or regional government, attention to events in other countries, and attention to cultural exchanges were all found to have a significant regression. Other media measures did not show significance, however, the pattern of adding to ethnocentrism or decreasing ethnocentrism for some news

topics is of interest.

    The pattern appears to be extremely complex regarding the ways in which media attention interacts with ethnocentrism. Talk with parents about economics, attention to local or regional news, and attention to events in other countries significantly contributed to increased ethnocentrism. Attention to domestic politics and attention to major elections significantly contribute to decreased ethnocentrism levels. While not at significant levels (see Table 7), to whom subjects talk about the news, friends or parents, and their self-reported attention to various news topics appear to make positive and negative contributions to ethnocentrism depending upon the topic. These variations are intriguing and indicate a complex relationship may exist between ethnocentrism and media.

Table 7: Multiple Linear Regression of Media Measures and Ethnocentrism

	df	F	R^2	B
Ethnocentrism composite measure	24, 259	3.400	.240	49.794
Talk with friends about …				
elections				.328
international affairs				−.218
domestic politics				−.005
national government				.279
economy				−.134
wars, natural disasters, conflicts				−.739
involvement in foreign affairs				−1.261
Talk with parents about …				
elections				−.706
international affairs				.063
domestic politics				−.661
national government				−1.599
economy				2.910**
wars, natural disasters, conflicts				−1.138
involvement in foreign affairs				1.511
Attention to …				
national government				.265
international organizations				−.202
domestic politics				−1.351
elections				−1.865*

sporting events	.452
local or regional government	1.866*
events in other countries	1.861*
economy	− .063
involvement in foreign affairs	− .548
wars, natural disasters, conflicts	− .345
cultural exchanges	− 1.464*

Significance at: $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$

The survey results confirm the difference in ethnocentrism between college students in Japan and America (H1). In addition, the data indicate Americans and Japanese with lower levels of media attention have higher levels of ethnocentrism, with American respondents with the lowest level of media attention having the highest level of ethnocentrism (RQ1). Results indicate that the events of September 11 have not had a significant impact upon ethnocentrism levels among university students in Japan and the U.S. (RQ2).

Interviews.

In order to obtain a clearer picture of media use, we interviewed a small number of university students in both countries ($N = 20$; U.S. $n = 9$; Japan $n = 11$). All interviews were conducted after the survey was completed and are part of an on-going project to understand media use patterns. Interviews were conducted in the native language of the respondents, either English or Japanese. Among other questions, groups in both countries were asked where they get news and how frequently they use the media they cited. For this report, we focus on these questions.

The nine American respondents reported that the internet was their primary news source. None subscribed to a newspaper, though the parents of one did and several read free newspapers several times a week, though none daily. They listened to radio news programs when they were driving, though only one indicated he sought out a news station. Magazines were used as a news source only when visiting someone who had a subscription and "leafing" through the pages. Most respondents indicated distrust of American news organizations and turned to alternative news sources, including *The Daily Show* from the Comedy Channel, for their news. Only one reported reading newspapers or news magazines in the past week not required for course work at the library. Comments include:

David[4] (business major) said, "I often don't bother to read the news, or things like that."

Jerrod (business major, Japanese-language minor) said: "Well, I don't really watch much news on TV. I watch *The Daily Show*. That's about all I watch. That's about the extent of my news, there. And, I listen to NPR [National Public Radio], on the radio,

> and I get e-mail from the *Japan Times*. And I also get e-mail from the [hometown newspaper] ... That's the extent of my news coverage."

Meg (literature major) said: "I don't pay that much attention to news, except what I get on the internet, but I can't say I really seek it out."

American respondents who used news media accessed sources available to them for little or no additional cost.

The 11 Japanese respondents reported minimal use of the internet for news. None indicated they purposely visited news-related sites, though one commented that occasionally she would click on a yahoo.co.jp news link if the topic seemed of interest. The internet was considered the least trustworthy news source by Japanese respondents interviewed. Most mentioned watching the morning television news, with several mentioning specific news programs, including NHK's *Ohayo Nihon* (Good morning Japan) and Fuji TV's *Mezamashi Terebi* (Wake up television), though news programs were what they watched when nothing else was on. About half of the respondents trusted newspapers because the articles were written and attributed to a reporter, though others trusted television because you could see the event yourself.

Ten of the Japanese respondents' reported that their families subscribed to one of the national daily newspapers, which have both morning and evening editions, and about half to a local daily newspaper. Only one family subscribed exclusively to a local newspaper. Those living with their parents had access to this newspaper, though one commented that reading the newspaper was something that "upperclassmen" students did as part of preparing for job hunting but was not important for younger (i.e. second-year) students. Most considered news as important for *shakaijin* (members of society, workers) in order to grasp various issues, but they did not see themselves in that category as they were students. Radio was not a medium used by the students, and magazines were perused at bookstores but seldom purchased.

That the families of all the Japanese respondents subscribe to at least one newspaper matches subscription data compiled by the *Asahi Shimbun* that places circulation at 1.09 newspapers per household (Kurosu, 2003). Similarly, that the American university respondents do not subscribe to a newspaper matches U.S. data. Only 53 percent of American households subscribe to a daily newspaper, and Americans tend to believe newspapers are less trustworthy than other news media (Project, 2004). These figures mirror the responses we heard regarding media use and media trust.

In short, the results of this study confirm earlier findings by Neulip, et al. (2001), that indicate Japanese university students show higher levels of ethnocentrism. The results also indicate that media use correlates with levels of ethnocentrism, with university students with the lowest levels of media use displaying the highest levels of ethnocentrism in both study groups.

Conclusions

Overall, we feel this exploratory study indicates that media have an important role to play in reducing ethnocentrism, though this requires that media must also be used. That Americans are turning to the media less, and trusting it less, may indicate difficulty in lowering ethnocentrism in the U.S. The link between trust of news media and the level of ethnocentrism also needs to be considered. Therefore, we believe more sensitive measures need to be developed to determine which aspects of attention to media, including specific news topics and news media, interact with ethnocentrism. In addition, further research should examine how talk with parents and talk with friends, especially talk about specific news topics, contribute to levels of ethnocentrism. Moreover, in order to generalize the results to the wider population, additional groups must be surveyed.

Like Neuliep, et al. (2001), we feel that it is important to obtain data from a wider range of cultures, as well as a broader range of respondents, in order to make any conclusions regarding how the ethnocentrism and media attention of Americans and Japanese fit into a wider spectrum of cultures. There is no reason to conclude from this study that American and Japanese college students are at the extremes for either ethnocentrism or media use. That there is a relationship between the two is an appropriate conclusion. Whether this is true for a wider population, including those who are not college students, is an area that needs further examination.

Further research is needed to examine other media indicators, as well as other cultural indicators, for clues regarding the interaction between media and ethnocentrism. Steps must also be taken to analyze the instruments themselves, both for the media measures and the GenE scale, in order to determine the relationship between the items in the various measures, assess the accuracy of these measures, and determine if the various items are actually adding to our understanding of the underlying construct. In due course this may lead to our determining the types of media attention necessary to reduce ethnocentrism.

Notes

1. Japanese versions of the survey instrument prepared for this study are available upon request. (See Appendix for the English survey instrument.) The English version of the ethnocentrism scale developed by Neuliep & McCroskey (1997) and used by Neuliep, et al. (2001) can be found in *Communication Research Reports*.

2. Thanks go to Prof. James Neuliep for making the Japanese version of the General Ethnocentrism Scale available for this project, Kawada Setsu for checking the Japanese language versions of the instruments and documents used for this study, and faculty at universities in the U.S. and Japan who agreed to open their classes to the researchers for this project.

3. Cronbach's alpha is commonly used to measure the internal consistency or reliability of a multivariate measurement composing of correlated items.

4. All names are pseudonyms.

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Appendix

Survey Instrument Sections Developed for this Project

Please answer the questions by circling the letter corresponding to your answer choice.

Section 1: Please provide information about your college life and foreign language study:

1. How long does it take you to travel to campus?
   A. 15 min. or less   B. 30 min. or less   C. 45 min. or less
   D. 60 min. or less   E. 90 min. or less   F. more than 90 min.
2. How many hours are you in class each week
   A. 1-5 hours   B. 6-10 hours   C. 11-15 hours   D. 16-20 hours   E. 0+ hours
3. How many hours do you spend on homework each week:
   A. 0-5 hours   B. 6-10 hours   C. 11-15 hours
   D. 16-20 hours   E. 21-25 hours   F. 26+ hours
4. Have you traveled to another country?   A. Yes   B. No
5. If YES to question 4: How long did you spend outside your culture?
   A. Less than 1 week   B. Between 1 and 2 weeks C. Less than 1 month
   D. Between 1 and 3 months E. Between 4 and 6 months F. Between 6 and 12 months
   G. More than 1 year
6. Have you had any extended conversations with someone   A. Yes   B. No
   who is from another country?
7. Have you studied a second language?*   A. Yes   B. No
       (*Question only asked of U.S. students)
8. If YES to question 7: What is your assessment of your ability in the language you
   studied? (Japanese wording: What is your assessment of your English ability?)
   A. Poor (I know basic phrases)
   B. Fair (I can respond to questions and read a little)
   C. Basic (I can understand and participate in conversations, I can easily read)
   D. Good (I can carry on conversations, and write with some difficulty)
   E. Excellent (I feel comfortable speaking and writing the language)
   F. Fluent (I use it as easily as I do my first language)

Section 2: Media Use
Please provide the following information about your general media use:
How many days in the last week did you …

9. … read a newspaper?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. … read a news magazine?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. … watch a news program on television?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. … listen to a news program on radio broadcasts?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. … access a news website using a computer?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. … access a news website using a cell phone?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate how often you talk to your **friends** about the following news topics:

	Very often = A				Very little = E
15. … elections for major offices (such as governor, senator, or president)	A	B	C	D	E
16. … international affairs or international organizations	A	B	C	D	E
17. … domestic politics (such as education, welfare, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
18. …the national government in Washington, DC (Tokyo)	A	B	C	D	E
19. … the economy or economic conditions	A	B	C	D	E
20. … wars, natural disasters, or conflicts	A	B	C	D	E
21. … U.S. (Japan) involvement in foreign affairs	A	B	C	D	E

Please indicate how often you talk to your **parents** about the following news topics:

	Very often = A				Very little = E
22. … elections for major offices (such as governor, senator, or president)	A	B	C	D	E
23. … international affairs or international organizations	A	B	C	D	E
24. … domestic politics (such as education, welfare, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
25. …the national government in Washington, DC (Tokyo)	A	B	C	D	E
26. … the economy or economic conditions	A	B	C	D	E
27. … wars, natural disasters, or conflicts	A	B	C	D	E
28. … U.S. (Japan) involvement in foreign affairs	A	B	C	D	E

In general, please indicate the amount of attention you pay to the following news issues:

	A Lot = A				None = E
29. News about the national government in Washington, DC (Tokyo)	A	B	C	D	E
30. News about international organizations (UN, WTO, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
31. News about domestic politics (such as education, welfare, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
32. News about elections for major offices like governor, senator or president (governor, Diet member)	A	B	C	D	E
33. News about sporting events (NFL, NCAA, Olympics, etc.) (Pro baseball, sumo, Olympics, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
34. News about local or regional government (city, state)	A	B	C	D	E
35. News about events in other countries (elections, government, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
36. News about the economy and economic conditions	A	B	C	D	E
37. News about US (Japan) involvement in foreign affairs (trade, defense, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
38. News about wars, natural disasters, or conflicts	A	B	C	D	E
39. News about the cultural contacts and exchanges between the U.S. (Japan) and other countries	A	B	C	D	E

On a scale of 1 to 10, How much would you say you know about the following:

	A Great Deal = A									Nothing = J
40. Local news?	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
41. National news?	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J

| 42. International news? | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J |

Section 3: Generalized Ethnocentrism items (see Neuliep, & McCroskey, 1997)

Section 4: For statistical purposes, we need to obtain the following information:

43. Age :   A. 17 or under   B. 18-19   C. 20-21   D. 22-2
             E. 24-26   F. 27-29   G. 30+

44. Year in college:
    A. Freshman   B. Sophomore   C. Junior   D. Senior   E. Other

45. Language spoken at home:
    A. English   B. Japanese   C. Korean   D. Spanish   E. Other

46. Estimated annual family income
    A. $25,000 or less   B. $25,001-50,000   C. $50,001-75,000
    D. $75,001-100,000   E. 100,001+   F. Don't know

47. Gender: A. Female   B. Male

Thank you for your assistance.