

**MEDIA BEHAVIOR AND POLITICAL ATTITUDE:
CONTENT PREFERENCE, EXPOSURE MOTIVATION, AND
POLITICAL TOLERANCE IN AN INTERNATIONAL CRISIS**

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摘 要

本文是傳播行為與政治態度關聯性的研究，旨在探討(1)媒介內容偏好、(2)媒介暴露動機分別和國際危機中「政治容忍」的關係。為了比較不同教育程度的樣本的媒介內容偏好、媒介暴露動機分別和「政治容忍」的關係，資料樣本是從美國明州一個大學低年級生和一個中學的高中生蒐集的。所得到的主要結果是：對大學女生和高中女生來說，偏好公共事務有關內容和「政治容忍」的「人道主義」應變項成正相關，這項發現部份印證以前的實證發現，即接觸硬性新聞和培養政治態度有關。對大學生和高中男生來說，偏好公共事務無關的內容和政治容忍應變項成負相關，這印證先前的研究結果，即接觸娛樂性內容，對培養政治態度，是具有反功能的。對大學生來說，在接觸動機(contact motive)中，接觸外國新聞的動機是唯一和「人道主義」成正相關的。不論是大學生或高中生，有些逃避動機(escape motive)和政治容忍成負相關。這些發現部分支持假設。

I. Definition

Tolerance presumes opposition and disagreement (Sullivan *et al.*, 1979: 784). The concept of tolerance has been defined in various ways (Ferrar, 1976: 63-79). Political tolerance has generally been discussed in the context of support for civil liberties extended equally to the minorities, the nonconformists, or the political deviants (Montero, 1975: 123-136; Stouffer, 1955; Sullivan *et al.*, 1981: 92-105).

Basically, in the present study, tolerance was theoretically defined as expression of flexible attitude toward a nation and its people that had brought about an international crisis. As a result, tolerance implied a willingness to put up with a nation, its government which not in harmony with the American counterpart, the

personnel affiliated with the trouble-making government, their measures and action, and its nationals presently living in the United States.

Based on the implications given above, the *target group* was operationally composed of: 1) Iran and its government which had produced disharmony; 2) leaders and people who helped their government to arouse disharmony; 3) the Iranians without involvement in the crisis creation living in the United States for advanced studies and sightseeing or on business.

For this study, political tolerance was operationalized as measuring four concepts (or variables): *internationalism*, *pardonableness*, *non-sanction*, *equality*.

Theoretically, *internationalism* was defined as agreement about maintenance of political (or diplomatic) relations between a trouble-making nation and other nations. Operationally, *internationalism* which could be directed toward Iran, the country itself, was intended to measure an attitude that other countries in the international community should not isolate Iran politically. A student was thought politically tolerant in case he supported the proposition that Iran should not be isolated.

Pardonableness was conceptualized as removal of blame from the supposed offense that the trouble-making government's personnel and militant students had aroused. *Pardonableness* which could be directed toward the personnel was operationalized as investigating an attitude that Iranian leaders and militant students were pardonable.

Non-sanction was conceptually conceived as unnecessary imposition of coercive measures. *Non-sanction* which could be directed toward doing business with Iranian government was to evaluate an attitude that other governments in the international community should not impose sanctions, economic or cultural, against Iranian government.

The theoretical definition of *equality* was lack of prejudiced treatment of those coming from a trouble-making country. *Equality* which could be directed toward the Iranians currently in the United States was operationalized as estimating an attitude that the Iranians living in America for studies or other purposes should have the liberties and rights completely similar to those granted to the people from other countries.

II. Motivations and Purposes

This study entailed considerable ethical significance in addition to scholarly value.

1. *Ethical Relevance*

Tolerance can maintain social tranquility. It can promote harmony among groups of different nature and affiliations. With tolerance, neighbors can live peacefully even if between them there exists severe disagreement about some topics. Without tolerance, people might fight with each other for some worthless trifle. Political tolerance can create a pleasant, serene political climate in which shock and conflict will fade away while gentleness and concord will prevail. Amid the complexities of a multi-group society political tolerance is indispensable to prevent friction and violence.

2. *Scholarly Significance*

The paucity of the literature on political tolerance would demand more studies of this aspect. Unfortunately, relevant ethically as the subject appears, the literature on political tolerance seems not to be extensive enough, and analysis of the causes for the formation of political tolerance is obviously rare. Stouffer's (1955) study, published during the McCarthy era of the 1950's, was undoubtedly an early effort of apparently enduring relevance. Prothro and Grigg (1960) tried to discover the possibility for a consensus on general procedural norms of democracy and minority rights. McClosky (1964) compared political influentials and rank and file citizens in levels of support for abstract principles and for the application of these principles to specific situations. Lawrence collected data in early 1970 to disentangle three concepts of tolerance (1976). Except for these surveys, there are few studies chiefly investigating the development of political tolerance.

The assumption for political tolerance studies is that contact with environmental, social, and cultural diversity is an important determinant of tolerance (Williams *et al.*, 1976: 404). Based on this assumption, the neglect of the investigation of the relationship between communication behavior and the development of political tolerance seems to be particularly unfortunate. Being exposed to media content replete with heterogeneous information about different societies and comments on historical and contemporary events and figures, the audience can be, in a way, encouraged to contact experience and pertinent viewpoints on a daily basis. This is similar to Lerner's concept of "empathy"

III. Hypotheses

This study assumes that contact with various environmental, social and cultural phenomena and elements is an important influence on the extent of tolerance, and that communication behavior can play a key role in facilitating such contact. Lippmann (1922) said that universally it is admitted that the press is the chief means of contact with the unseen environment. Lippmann's belief has been confirmed by quite a few communication scientists (Berelson, 1955: 42). Especially, the emergence of electronic media characteristics of audio-visual strength commonly denied to print media which were utilized as means of transmitting information much later than the publication of *Public Opinion*, has brought the audience into more direct contact with the outside world than before.

In our daily life, after we have come into contact with objects with various attributes or cultural orientations, we might remove some prejudice against them and allow them to exist. As long ago as 1955, Stouffer (1955: 220-225) proposed that phenomenal growth of communication can be contributive to tolerance. In order to test whether residence in large cities encourages greater tolerance, Fischer (1971: 847-855) implied that mass communication network was somewhat influential in shaping tolerance. Increased access to the means of communication has made each of us aware of our diversity and our interdependence. The mass media have made people knowledgeable about the plight of different races and the poor. As Cushman and Craig (1976: 37-39) believe in the growth of tolerance for diversity and in interdependence, communication may be of great importance.

As stated, mass media can provide contact. This study further assumes that different types of content might provide different contact. Basically, as viewed from the perspective of political socialization, different contents can provide different ways in which different political orientations would be nurtured. Hanna Adoni (1979: 84-102) discovered that the degree of importance attached to both civic and national values was positively connected with preference for informative programs and commentary features in mass media but negatively connected with preference for pop music, thrillers, and television series.

Other previous research suggests that high levels of public affairs exposure links positively with more favorable attitudes toward government (Rubin, 1978: 125-129). It is recurrently argued that exposure to sensational media content would increase the likelihood of some form of subsequent aggressiveness, and anti-social

behavior (Bandura, 1973; Berkwitz, 1962: 229-255; Goranson, 1971: 1-31; Klapper, 1960; Liebert *et al.*, 1973; Singer, 1971: 19-60). Previous political socialization evidence also shows that certain types of entertainment content, particularly those containing violence, may adversely influence the political attitudes and behavior of younger media users (Comstock, 1975: 25-34). Chaffee *et al.* (1970: 647-59) hypothesized that public affairs media consumption could account for some change in political cognitions and behavior. They also discovered that television entertainment viewing affected negatively political knowledge as well as campaigning activities.

There have, specifically, been some studies in which interest in current events (implying political content) was discovered to be positively related to political tolerance (Nunn *et al.*, 1978: 163-164; Selvin and Hagstrom, 1960: 62).

Since different media contents beget different effects in political socialization context, what is the borderline on which to demarcate types of media content?

Schramm (1949: 260-261) classified news into immediate reward and delayed reward. According to him, more frequent contact with delayed reward news can make a reader experience unpleasantness or annoyance more than contact with immediate reward news.

Schramm's *a priori* grouping of content categories into groups of, respectively, immediate reward and delayed reward material is supported by mass communication scholars (Furu, 1971; Pietila, 1969: 199-208; Schramm, Lyle, and Parker, 1961; McLeod and Becker, 1974: 137-164).

Based on these ideas, public-affairs-related content centers around editorials and information regarding public affairs such as political, economic, education, science and social problem reportings. Non-public-affairs-related content involves crime, accidents and disasters, recreation, human interest, and social events.

Hypothesis 1: The students with more preference for public-affairs-related content are more politically tolerant than the students with less preference; conversely, the students with more preference for non-public-affairs-related content are less politically tolerant than the students with less preference.

As political socialization theorist Stanley Renshon (1977: 30) emphasizes, every theory of learning is based on assumptions about motivation. The uses and gratifications approach further posits that one learns best when actively seeking some particular information. Thus, underlying the uses and gratifications approach is the motivational approach to learning.

With what motives a person gets exposed to mass media might affect his attention to media content, and how his attention is fixed on the media content would influence media effect. Gantz (1978: 664-672) argues that those seeking predominantly information-acquisition gratifications from national newscasts could recall a greater number of news items broadcast than those primarily with recreation-diversion motivation. Blumler (1979: 9-33) postulates that cognitive motivation will facilitate information gain and that media consumption for diversion and escape would acquaint media users with portrayals frequently found in entertainment materials. Cognitive orientation might help socialize media users with information about some features of society and the world around them, especially political topics or issues. Diversion orientation would just relieve media users of boredom and constraints of daily routines, likely to be literally diverting in some sense.

Holmlov (1982: 314-320) discovers that different motives for reading a particular content in certain newspapers have quite different associations with knowledge on municipal matters. McLeod and Becker (1974: 158) demonstrate that television viewers who want to orient themselves about upcoming election learn more and develop different attitudes than viewers watching for pleasure or for relaxation.

Based on these ideas, it seems that media effects depend strongly on the motives of the media users. This study assumes that different motives of media use might lead to different contact, and that different contact might in turn generate different degrees of political tolerance.

According to foregoing empirical evidence, there are a pile of reasons for using information content on the mass media (Bantz, 1982: 352-379; Berelson, 1955: 36-47; Cannell and Sharp, 1958: 26-35; Greenberg, 1974: 71-92; Kimball, 1959: 389-398; Mindak and Hursh, 1965: 130-141; Palmgreen *et al.*, 1980: 161-192; 1981: 451-478; Palmgreen and Rayburn, 1982: 561-580; Stern, 1971). Katz and Foulkes (1962: 377-388) note that increased media exposure may be sought as a means of escape from everyday role situations and media may be sought and used also to compensate for abortive or ineffectual social relations.

Katz, Gurevitch, Haas (1973: 164-181), in particular, stressed the usefulness of mass communication in connecting the individual with various human relations. Communication scholars maintained that media use for fantasizing, companion substitution, or other entertainment purpose might drain off discontent, lead media users into withdrawal from the real world, or satisfy the recreational and creative impulses of the individuals while news viewing might gratify the individual need for

civic participation (Schramm, 1961; Lundberg and Hulten, 1968; Enzenberger, 1972).

In the view of above-mentioned mass communication scholars, fantasizing and substitute companionship functions seem to be escapist, likely to prevent the media users from contact with a variety of realities, and accordingly, to prevent the media users from fuller development of tolerance, but such motive as news viewing would exacerbate the individual gratification for civic participation, and contact with outside world.

A categorization of media exposure motives into two groupings seems to be relevant: contact motive and escape motive. Contact motive includes "to get news about local area or state," "for news about the United States in general," "for news about other countries," "to be informed and then be able to talk with other people," "to keep up with a continuous event," "because it is a school assignment." Escape motive involves "in order to kill time," "just for pleasure," "to see the advertisement or commercials," "to share other people's experience the way they are shown in the media," and "to be with family members, friends, or relatives."

Hypothesis 2: The students with more contact motive for media exposure are more politically tolerant than the students with less contact motive; the students with more escape motive for media exposure are less politically tolerant than the students with less escape motive.

IV. Research Methodology

An instrument was constructed to measure relationships (1) between media content preference and political tolerance variables, and (2) between media exposure motives and political tolerance variables, among university and senior high students. Pursuant to the scope and the purposes of this study, the independent variables involved:

- (1) Preference for different types of media content;
- (2) Motives for use of the mass media.

The investigation of preference for different types of media content covered eleven items which belonged two "families"—public-affairs-related vs. entertainment-related content. Such classification was generally in accord with Schramm's distinction between hard and soft news (Schramm, 1949: 262-263).

To examine the reasons for exposure to mass media demanded a synthesis of motives drawn in large part from previous work by "uses and gratifications" scholars.

Roughly, those motives could be conceptualized as "contact" and "escape" motives.

Attitudes toward the America-Iran crisis were examined by asking the respondents to rate statements on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The eighteen items were intended to measure political tolerance variables: *internationalism*, *pardonableness*, *non-sanction*, and *equality*.

(1) Pre-test: The pretest was administered to 70 lower-division university students and 38 tenth- and eleventh-grade senior high school students in mid-February, 1981, in Minneapolis, Minnesota, with emphasis on the readability and comprehensiveness of the items as designed in the questionnaire.

(2) Survey: The survey itself was conducted with subjects of university and senior high levels in May, 1981, nearly six months after the American hostages were set free in Teheran, Iran. Six months after the liberation of the 52 hostages, American young people appeared to be more rational and less emotional than earlier. In that situation, an administration of research was reasonable. A total of 245 questionnaires was collected from the tenth and eleventh graders in Minnesota Fridley High School with only eight copies unusable because of unanswered questions. The percentage of usable questionnaires for males and females were respectively 52% and 48%. Two hundred and one usable questionnaires (males 37%, females 63%) were obtained from lower-division sociology class in the University of Minnesota.

(3) Reorganization of tolerance scales: Before hypothesis testing proceeded, reliability and validity examinations of political tolerance subscales were conducted. Based on the *eigenvalues*, factor loadings, and *Alpha* reliability coefficients, the original four factors of political tolerance were merely reduced to two dimensions. The newly created first factor including some original *equality* and *pardonableness* items, and one *non-sanction* item was labeled *humanitarianism* which, in line with the implications of *equality* and *pardonableness*, here was conceptualized as the expression of an attitude in support of treating the Iranians within the framework of humanity.

The second factor covering some original *non-sanction* and *internationalism* items was given the name *politico-economic non-sanction*. Based on what the two original variables implied, this new variable was theoretically defined as the expression of an attitude in support of settling the America-Iran crisis by appealing to good will, and avoidance of the imposition of political and economic sanction against Iran, the nation.

The relationship between *humanitarianism* and *politico-economic non-sanction* was .49 ($n = 437$, $p < .001$). The item pools for the two dimensions are as follows:

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(See Table 1 for factor loading and *Alpha*)

Humanitarianism

item statement

- (1) An Iranian student who helped take the hostages should not be allowed to marry an American girl even if they love each other.
- (2) The Iranians would have no right to complain if they were the victims of an incident similar to what happened to the American hostages in Iran.
- (3) Any Iranian professors in America at the time of the take-over of the United States Embassy should have been sent home immediately.
- (4) In spite of the Americans seized as hostages in Iran, the Iranians in the United States should be treated like persons from other countries.
- (5) School libraries in the United States should remove any books that say good things about Iran.
- (6) American universities should not accept any students from Iran.
- (7) Iranian workers in the United States do not have any right to protest if they are treated badly by their employers.

Politico-economic non-sanction

item statement

- (1) When the Americans were taken hostages, other countries which were friendly to Iran should have broken off their relations with that country.
- (2) Other countries should take some kind of economic action against Iran because of the international trouble Iran had created.
- (3) To protest the taking of hostages, other countries should stop importing oil from Iran even though this might make life difficult for ordinary Iranians.
- (4) Other countries should have refused to send grain to Iran until the hostage issue was settled.

Table 1. Correlation Matrix for Indices of Political Tolerance Measures (n 437)

Political Tolerance Measures	Factor loadings	Mean	Std. Dev.	Interrelations							Corrected Item-Total Correlation	<i>Alpha</i> if Item Deleted
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
<i>Humanitarianism</i>												
Item 1.	.46	2.75	1.02	1.00							.49	.81
Item 2.	.46	2.18	1.19	.33	1.00						.49	.81
Item 3.	.54	2.37	1.16	.30	.37	1.00					.57	.79
Item 4.	.44	2.33	1.03	.32	.31	.46	1.00				.51	.80
Item 5.	.68	3.21	.80	.37	.31	.32	.26	1.00			.54	.80
Item 6.	.66	2.46	1.08	.44	.40	.52	.43	.50	1.00		.69	.77
Item 7.	.72	2.91	.97	.38	.39	.43	.38	.58	.58	1.00	.65	.78
<i>Politico-Economic Non-Sanction</i>												
Item 1.	.51	1.79	1.06	1.00							.45	.73
Item 2.	.49	1.85	1.00	.29	1.00						.49	.70
Item 3.	.64	2.14	1.00	.37	.44	1.00					.58	.65
Item 4.	.72	1.66	1.04	.42	.45	.52	1.00				.61	.64

Notes: 1. *Alpha* for humanitarianism .82; *Alpha* for politico-economic non-sanction .74.

2. All correlation coefficients are significant at least at 0.01 level.

(4) Evaluation of indices of media content preference and media exposure motives.

Two media content preference indices were constructed on the basis of desirable internal consistency within each item cluster (*Alpha* for public-affairs-related and non-public-affairs-related content: .66, and .62). Eleven media use submotives included in the two submotive clusters as initially designed had favorable factor loadings (all above .34) except for "for school assignment" which accordingly switched from *contact* to *escape* pool because of more acceptable loadings when juxtaposed with *escape* submotives. Undesirability of *Alpha* coefficients for *escape* item pool made it impossible to construct an index with them. *Contact* submotives were left as they were for data analysis.

V. Findings and Discussion

The application of Pearson moment-product procedure to the examination of the relationships between preference for the two types of media content and political tolerance produced the outcome shown in Table 2. The positive relations between preference for public-affairs-related content and humanitarianism for the university group ($r = .18, p < .01, n = 201$), the university women ($r = .23, p < .01, n = 126$), and the senior high girls ($r = .18, p < .05, n = 111$) were significant. This finding supported, in part, the hypothesis. It agreed with the previous evidence that hard news consumption might be positively related to the development of political attitude and behavior (Levy, 1977: 112-17; Rubin, 1978: 125-129; Chaffee, *et al.*,

Table 2.
Correlations Between Preference for Public-Affairs-Related Content and the Two Political Tolerance Measures

sample group \ tolerance measures	humanitarianism	politico-economic non-sanction
university sample (n 201)	.18**	.01
U male (n 75)	.11	.17
U female (n 126)	.23**	-.09
senior high sample (n 231)	.11	.04
H male (n 118)	.09	.08
H female (n 111)	.18*	-.00
whole sample (n 432)	.25***	.06
combined all males (n 193)	.19**	.13
combined all females (n 237)	.31***	-.03

Notes: 1. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. 2. two-tailed significance

1970: 647-659). This finding partially confirmed the suggestion by Nunn *et al.* (1978: 163-164), and Selvin and Hagstrom (1960: 62) about interest in political news and political tolerance.

In the previous empirical documents there have been many suggestions, *pro* and *con*, regarding the effects of mass media on the development and change of political attitudes. However, that mass media can at least reinforce one's attitude is an undisputable idea as emphasized by mass communication scholars. Preference for different kinds of media content might bring about reaction to political issues in a different manner to the extent that media users differ in social and political predispositions. With this in mind, it is understandable that female students at the two education levels are different from the male students in their sensitiveness to political tolerance measures in spite of involvement in homogeneous media content.

In the past decade, the female students, especially the university women, have increased their social and political awareness as the status of women has changed. In traditional terms, women are always conceived of as homeworkers, skillful in housewifery and mothercraft rather than as active members of the labor force. They are usually shown as household functionaries, dependent on men, submissive, and unintelligent. In recent years, a series of social and political movements for women such as human rights movement, feminism campaign, and equal rights amendment have made women in general, female students such as university women and senior high girls in particular, aware of an elevation of social identity.

Since such movements commonly advocate equality for the dominated, and humanity for the discriminated, the female students have presumptively been impressed with these ideas which seem to be in accord with the two subscales implicit in the framework of political tolerance as conceptualized in this study. Women students' keener awareness of their newly developing social role may help them to be more strongly responsive in their attitude to political tolerance measures after habitual exposure to different media content.

Furthermore, the social role which the female students have played in the educational community might prepare them to express strong attitude toward political tolerance measures. In the university community, or on the senior high campus, probably because of sex difference, the social role for males and females differs greatly. The males tend to join more competitive, pleasure-seeking programs such as sports, chess-playing, and mechanical work while females prefer to participate in art programs and social service. The tendency of the female students for active

engagement in social services in behalf of the weak, the minority, and the underprivileged together with regular involvement in political media content may be, in a way, associated with their more evident responsiveness to political tolerance measures.

Preference for non-public-affairs-related content was negatively associated with tolerance measures (humanitarianism, $r = -.23$, $p < .01$; politico-economic non-sanction, $r = -.17$, $p < .05$) among the university women, with humanitarianism ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$) among the university group, and with politico-economic non-sanction ($r = -.21$, $p < .05$) among the senior high boys (Table 3). Partially supporting the hypothesis and verifying the dysfunctional effects of soft news consumption in political socialization as proposed by Comstock (1975: 25-34), this finding would provide some worthwhile perspective in tolerance literature.

In view of the substantial positive relationship between hard news exposure and humanitarianism among female students, it is not surprising that the negative relationship between soft news consumption and tolerance measures occurred with university group and women.

There was a negative relationship between non-political material exposure and politico-economic non-sanction among the senior high boys. It seems that teenage boys could be prone to be malleable in political terms when consistently exposed to violence, crime, and squalid human interest stories.

Pearson correlation method was employed to deal with the relations of the eleven submotives respectively under the contact and escapist headings to the two political tolerance measures. The contact submotive "for news about other coun-

Table 3.
Correlations Between Preference for Non-Public-Affairs-Related Content and the Two Political Tolerance Measures

sample group	tolerance measures	humanitarianism	politico-economic non-sanction
university sample (n 198)		-.20**	-.12
U male (n 73)		-.17	-.01
U female (n 125)		-.23**	-.17*
senior high sample (n 234)		-.07	-.01
H male (n 121)		-.17	-.21*
H female (n 111)		-.01	.15
whole sample (n 432)		-.20***	-.08
combined all males (n 194)		-.23***	-.16*
combined all females (n 236)		-.20**	-.04

Notes: 1. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. 2. two-tailed significance

tries" was the only one positively associated with humanitarianism among the university group ($r = .21$, $p < .01$, $n = 201$), men ($r = .24$, $p < .05$, $n = 75$), women ($r = .24$, $p < .01$, $n = 126$). The hypothesis regarding the positive relationship between contact submotive and political tolerance received partial support in the cases of university group, men and women. It seems that nearly all escape submotives connected negatively with political tolerance measures, to a non-significant degree, among the university group. Difference still existed between the university men and women in terms of the relation of their escapist submotives to political tolerance measures.

The university men's diversionary drive for killing time, and sharing other people's experience linked negatively with humanitarianism ($r = -.26$, $p < .05$, $n = 75$; $r = -.23$, $p < .05$, $n = 75$) while the university women's need for pleasure seeking linked negatively with politico-economic non-sanction ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$, $n = 126$), and their necessity for school assignment completion, with humanitarianism ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$, $n = 125$). Among the university men and women, some escape submotives as described above were negatively related to tolerance variables. This hypothesis is partially supported. The implication about this finding seems to be multi-fold.

First, probably because of internationality of the America-Iran hostage crisis, positive relationship was likely to exist in the pursuit of foreign news, instead of local area and national news, and tolerance variables. Anxiety for international information seeking might readily enable university students to be familiar with a variety of foreign situations, broaden their minds wide enough to accommodate dissidence or nonconformism at an international level, or even drive them to be more sympathetic with foreigners.

Secondly, the finding from this study seems to make certain the functionality of media use motivation in political socialization from another perspective. It further suggests that different orientations for media attendance would lead to different types of political attitude formation. The testimony from this approach apparently extends to confirm the instrumentality of different media use orientations in the formation of political attitudes as indicated by Enzenberger (1972), Johnstone (1974), and McLeod and Becker (1974).

Thirdly, in addition, this study contributes somewhat to political tolerance literature by demonstrating that interest in contacting foreign news is positively related to one's tolerance attitude in humanitarian terms.

More attention should be also paid to the finding that, in the case of the university men, those liable to share other people's experience were rather conservative.

This seems to point out that just to participate vicariously is actually important. This idea is to defy the contact theory in postulating the pertinence of contact with a multiplicity of circumstantial and socio-cultural elements in tolerance development.

The university men did not concur with the university women within the framework of escapist submotives and political tolerance subscales. The contextual variation between these two subgroups is assumedly derived from their difference in media exposure motivation because of sex difference. The university men, for example, might be eager to enjoy sports programs whereas the university women might look forward to features specifically designed for women.

The motivation for advertisement reference, vicarious experience share, companionship enjoyment, and killing time were negatively related to one or both of tolerance measures among the senior high group and boys (See Tables 5, 6, 7). The international information seeking of the senior high boys was positively associated with politico-economic non-sanction ($r = .22$, $p < .05$, $n = 121$). These findings partially supported the hypotheses.

Table 4.
Correlations Between Submotive of Media Use for Foreign News and the Two Political Tolerance Measures

tolerance measures sample group	humanitarianism	politico-economic non-sanction
university sample (n 201)	.21**	.05
U male (n 75)	.24*	.05
U female (n 126)	.24**	.08
senior high sample (n 236)	-.02	.01
H male (n 121)	.11	.22*
H female (n 113)	-.04	-.14

Notes: 1. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. 2. two-tailed significance.

Table 5.
Correlations Between Submotive of Media Use for Sharing Other People's Experience and the Two Political Tolerance Measures

tolerance measures sample group	humanitarianism	politico-economic non-sanction
university sample (n 200)	-.13	-.05
U male (n 75)	-.23*	-.01
U female (n 125)	-.06	-.05
senior high sample (n 234)	-.17**	-.20**
H male (n 120)	-.28**	-.30**
H female (n 112)	-.04	-.05

Notes: 1. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. 2. two-tailed significance.

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Table 6.
Correlations Between Submotive of Media Use for Staying with Family Members,
Friends or Relatives and the Two Political Tolerance Measures

tolerance measures sample group	humanitarianism	politico-economic non-sanction
university sample (n 200)	-.11	-.02
U male (n 75)	-.11	-.16
U female (n 125)	-.12	.07
senior high sample (n 234)	-.18**	-.14*
H male (n 119)	-.19*	-.11
H female (n 113)	-.15	-.13

Notes: 1. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. 2. two-tailed significance

Table 7.
Correlations Between Submotive of Media Use for Seeing Advertisement or Commercials and the
Two Political Tolerance Measures

tolerance measures sample group	humanitarianism	politico-economic non-sanction
university sample (n 200)	-.11	-.01
U male (n 75)	-.18	.01
U female (n 125)	-.08	.01
senior high sample (n 236)	-.17**	-.09
H male (n 121)	-.17	-.15
H female (n 113)	-.18	-.04

Notes: 1. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. 2. two-tailed significance

VI. Suggestions

This study was intended to understand the role which media content preference and media exposure motivation might play in the development of political tolerance. But the findings readily presented in this paper are suggestive rather than conclusive. Following are suggestions for future research in this aspect: diversification of target groups, and expansion of sampling.

As repeatedly mentioned, tolerance presumes opposition or disagreement. As a result, it seems that if a respondent is indifferent to what a supposedly unpopular nation has done, then his reaction toward tolerance measurement might be irrelevant.

The fact that Iran and its people were employed as target group does not necessarily mean what the American people were interested in was confined to Iran and its people. Diversification of target groups might sensitize respondents to those one

opposes or disapproves of. In the past year, American people have been badly impressed, to a different extent, with unfriendly action which Cuba, African nations, the Soviet Union and its satellites have taken against the United States. Respondents could select any popular group in accord with what they have thought about them and then rate how tolerant they are toward them.

The other suggestion for future research is that samples should be expanded for the improvement of generalizability of findings. In terms of heterogeneous academic background, inclusion of students from diverse departments, especially those from natural sciences and technology, should be considered. For the enlargement of senior-high-level sample, sampling should be done from more places including metropolitan, suburban, and rural areas.

Furthermore, in order to make the results more representative, tolerance studies should be directed toward general population which is composed of ingredients with more complicated cultural, academic, and occupational background.

Ultimately, of course, it would be worthwhile to conduct comparative studies of communities which differ in characteristics hypothesized as related to tolerance, e.g., dominant religion or dominant political-group.

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