“The Culture of Criticism:
How American and Japanese Youth View the Media”

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The Culture of Criticism: How American and Japanese Youth View the Media

An Honors Thesis (HONRS 499)

by

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Abstract

Media criticism has existed for as long as journalists have had the ability to publish information about the world around them. The recent rise of the Internet and public journalism, however, has allowed criticism to flourish even more and damage journalists’ credibility. In order to increase trust of the media in Generations Y, Z and beyond, journalists worldwide should pay attention to how American and Japanese youth view their news sources. I research what youth in American and Japan think about their country’s media’s credibility by analyzing some of history’s biggest media scandals and discrepancies in reporting between America and Japan, and look at 21 survey responses from American and Japanese citizens.

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“There can be no higher law in journalism than to tell the truth and to shame the devil.”
Walter Lippmann, Pulitzer Prize-winning columnist

 Millions of people turn to local and national media each day for a glimpse of what’s happening in the world around them. Some choose to read a newspaper in the morning while drinking their coffee, whereas others listen to National Public Radio on the commute to work, search the Internet for breaking news stories during lunch breaks or watch the nightly television newscast. Regardless of the format of media they consume, people around the world depend on journalists who work for television and radio stations, newspapers, magazines, and online websites to deliver the news as quickly and accurately as possible. Unfortunately for journalists, numerous scandals, censorships, and biases have been uncovered in news stories worldwide, and the credibility of the media has been questioned for decades. Criticism of the media isn’t a recent concept, but as new technologies improve the efficiency and speed of newsgathering, the demand for both immediate and interesting news produces more reporting mistakes, sensationalism, and biases – and people are noticing.

As journalism moves forward to embrace new technologies like social networking sites and Twitter, the next generation of journalists must figure out how to improve credibility (and ultimately readership) with Generations Y, Z, and beyond. In order to understand how young journalists like myself can achieve this, I researched how criticism of the media and its mistakes has shaped the opinions of youth¹ and what kind of media they would prefer. New forms of media affect more than just Americans, however, so creating the “ideal” credible news source for future generations should work for young adults in other societies as well.

For that purpose, I have included similar information about media criticism in Japan, a nation

¹ For the purpose of this thesis, the terms “youth” and “young adults” refer to people between 18 and 24 years of age.
with similar access to technology but dramatically different social and moral values than the United States. I chose to compare and contrast media in Japan and America because of two reasons: my previous knowledge base of the country and its culture, and the country’s community-based values. Firstly, majoring in Japanese provided me with a strong background in the country’s culture. I studied at Sapporo University in Sapporo, Japan for eight months in 2009, and my daily experiences as an exchange student often included exposure to Japanese newscasts and print media. Four years of Japanese language study at Ball State University also helped me translate Japanese texts into English and create questions for the Japanese youth I surveyed. Secondly, in contrast to America’s general emphasis on the individual, Japan is known to be a more collectivistic (group-based) society\(^2\) and follows different social mores in the journalism field. Creating a credible media resource that will fit into both societies is the goal of this project.

Research for this thesis fell into one of three groups: data about media criticism in America and Japan, information about particular events in American and Japanese media, or human subjects research with American and Japanese youth. Data gathered about media criticism includes a brief history of media (newspaper, magazine, and television) in each country, its censorship and other problems, and general complaints citizens have about their country’s access to accurate news. The next set of data, information about events in each country, provides a side-by-side comparison of American and Japanese news coverage of three events: President Barack Obama’s election in 2008, Japan’s 2009 election of the Democratic Party of Japan, and the economic recession that began in 2008. By contrasting each country’s coverage of an important American political election with one in Japan, I hope to illuminate differences in accuracy and information dissemination between similar events.

The inclusion of the economic recession, a topic that affects both countries, provides an additional opportunity to see differences in reporting. Finally, I gathered information about American and Japanese youth’s opinions of their country’s media through an anonymous nine-question survey. All nine questions, written in both English and Japanese, were open-ended, and interviewees could skip questions if they felt uncomfortable or did not want to answer them. Eleven Americans and ten Japanese 18-to-24 year olds were surveyed at random, and responses were submitted in both English and Japanese. The survey, implemented through online quiz service SurveyGizmo, and corresponding introduction letter were approved for ethical human subjects research by Ball State University’s Institutional Review Board on November 10, 2010.

**AMERICAN AND JAPANESE MEDIA: A BRIEF OVERVIEW**

**American Media: Its Successes, Shortcomings, and Scandals**

**American Newspapers**

The first continuously published newspaper in America was established in 1704, and was very similar in format and content to newspapers published in England and Europe almost a century earlier. Colonial newspapers included national and European news and excerpts from aspiring novelists, but material focused on residents’ reprinted letters and testimonies rather than third-party reports. Successful newspapers might have been read by up to 2,000 people, but most fell under the 1,000-person circulation mark. Printing presses that had previously been used to publish books could now print publications for any colonist who

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3 The survey pool is too small to be statistically significant, but the respondents’ answers are used qualitatively and should be taken as examples of media criticism.

4 See Appendix VI.

could pay for it, but freedom of speech was limited in the early 18th century. Criticism of the British government was under strict censorship, and in the years leading up to the Revolutionary War colonists fought for the right to print what they wanted without retribution from the British officials residing in the colonies.

After the colonists gained their independence from Britain, newspapers flourished. According to David Demers, author of *History and Future of Mass Media*, newspapers grew dramatically due to five factors: population growth, increased access to transportation and the establishment of a weekly mail service, successful commerce and better economic conditions, more leisure time (which led to more interest in the arts and literature), and an increased tolerance of the press (which was a by-product of a more democratic society). This new demand for newspapers and the information they provided cost too much for even the wealthiest publishers to bear, so they asked political parties and organizations for financial assistance. Since the late 1700s, most newspapers have had political affiliations or corporate ownerships in order to keep up with the business side of their endeavor. Whether or not publishers allow those organizations to influence their editorial content depends on the publications themselves, but the public has criticized newspapers for their claim to be unbiased in reporting despite receiving money from parties involved in the scandals they choose to (or choose not to) report on. Waves of public criticism continued, especially in the late 1800s when competing journalists at the *New York Morning Journal* and the *New York World* introduced *yellow journalism*, or sensationalized stories, about the Spanish-American War of 1898 in order to grab readers away from their opponents’ magazines.

The 20th century signified the dichotomy of newspaper criticism: some Americans were critical of the business side of newspapers, worrying about whether making a profit was

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6 Demers 43-44.
7 Demers 69.
worth more to publishers than telling an accurate story, whereas others firmly believed in journalism as a government watchdog. Credibility dropped after newspapers included pro-war propaganda during World War I and sensationalized the negative effects of communism so much that they helped to create the “red scare” phenomenon in the 1920s and 1930s. On the other hand, newspapers gained credibility in the 1970s after journalists Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein exposed then-president Richard Nixon’s involvement in the Watergate scandal in the *Washington Post*. American media’s most recent parallel to the Watergate scandal is its disproval of former president George W. Bush’s claim that Iraq has weapons of mass destruction. Investigative journalism uncovered discrepancies in the Bush administration’s government reports and influenced a portion of the public to not support the war in Iraq.

**American Magazines**

Magazines like Benjamin Franklin’s *The General Magazine* first sprung up around the colonies in 1741, and the industry expanded to more than 100 titles by the end of the century for similar reasons that newspapers grew during the same time period. Most magazines before the mid to late-1800s failed to achieve regular circulation numbers and disappeared, but the launch of *Scientific American* in 1845 marked the beginning of a successful magazine industry. *Scientific American* and many of the magazines launched after it continued to be profitable because the American lifestyle was changing. Technologies invented during the Industrial Revolution decreased the need for manual labor, so long workdays were shortened and laborers found themselves with more leisure time. Americans also were pursuing hobbies and special interests, and magazines about particular subjects were well received by

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8 Demers 102.
9 Demers 96.
10 Demers 106.
11 Demers 33.
enthusiasts of that subject. The increase in magazine production, fueled by easier transportation and higher standards of living, forced magazine publishers to find a more profitable way to continue their publications. Similarly to newspaper publishers, magazine publishers looked outward for extra profits, and advertising became a mainstream source of revenue to counter production costs and lower issue prices.

Because magazines were less pressured to "get news and get it fast" like daily newspapers, magazines received less criticism for errors or misreporting. What magazines were scrutinized for was the rise of new journalism in the 1960s. According to Ball State University journalism professor David Sumner, the new journalism movement could be described as "the use of fiction techniques in nonfiction reporting." In order to tell a story, reporters would do series of interviews and then construct dialogue and events from what interviewees told them. Although journalists say their stories are based on fact and have managed to continue the new journalism movement through today, the public has often criticized the technique and accused them of fabricating stories and dialogue.

The United States and Broadcast Journalism

American exposure to television began in 1939 with the launch of the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS), but wartime demands for materials slowed production until the television boom of 1948. By that year, more than 400,000 American households included a television set, and the number of stations increased from 16 to 124. Programs were often limited to mostly "fluffy" entertainment and news shows, but broadcast journalism legitimized itself with Edward R. Murrow's investigation of Senator Joseph R. McCarthy in 1954. Murrow criticized McCarthy's claim that more than 200 Communists worked for the
United States government on his news program, *See It Now*. His investigation led to the senator’s removal from office and the beginning of investigative broadcast journalism.

The American broadcasting network system is dominated by commercial stations. Four of the most popular networks (American Broadcasting Company, the previously mentioned CBS, National Broadcasting Company, and FOX) are profit-based\(^{16}\). Of the most watched networks, the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) is the only non-profit network and finances itself through donations and a partial sponsorship from the Corporation for Public Broadcasting\(^{17}\). It should be noted that PBS does not produce much of its content; most material is provided to the network from outside parties and organizations. Each of the five top networks can reach up to more than 100 million viewers, so each station has the potential to gather a large following.

With an increase in viewers over time came more specialized, more sensationalized and more superficial television programming. Programs like *The Today Show* now include regular segments on fashion, new networks are devoted to reality and entertainment shows, and local and national news broadcasts are presenting celebrity gossip ahead of breaking news. Bonnie Anderson, reporter for CNN and NBC, wrote in her book *News Flash: Journalism, Infotainment, and the Bottom-Line Business of Broadcast News* about a *World News Tonight* segment from September 2003 in which:

“...the deaths of entertainers such as Bob Hope, Johnny Cash and John Ritter were reported not only first in the evening broadcasts but also in stories lasting several minutes, while the deaths of American soldiers in Iraq and deadly monsoons in North Korea were given a fraction of the attention.”\(^{18}\)

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\(^{16}\) Information taken from ABC.com, CBS.com, nbcuni.com, FOX.com, and PBS.org

\(^{17}\) PBS receives about 16 percent of its revenue from the CPB’s federal and state tax-funded accounts, so it can be said that PBS is also supported through some tax revenue.

Criticisms of Modern Media

American media has been under scrutiny for decades, and unfortunately for journalists this trend continues. The major criticisms journalists encounter include the following:

**Partisanship and Bias:** Corporate ownership and political affiliation can affect how a publication or news station covers, consciously or subconsciously, a person, group or event. Many media companies separate their staff into advertising and editorial sections in order to prevent any conflict of interest, but sometimes the bias is personal and can be hidden within a journalist’s tone or word choice. In other cases, the bias might be generational or based on social change. Some scholars suggest that coverage of the social and political movements of the 1960s (racial freedom, women’s rights, the Kennedy election) marked the general switch from conservative to liberal-leaning media\(^{19}\). Whether this is true or not, partisanship of publications and broadcasts has not played as much of a role in influencing public opinion as people believe. For example, the belief that newspapers’ endorsements of a presidential candidate influence their readers has not been proven, as press support of presidential candidates from 1789 to 2004 has not shown any pattern of influencing the voting public.\(^{20}\) Despite a lack of evidence to prove it, the belief still exists.

**Sensationalism:** The increase of sensational media prevents Americans from fully trusting journalism, especially entertainment journalism that covers celebrity gossip, fashion, and “soft” news. The industry is hurt by what journalist Christopher Pieper calls *tabloidization*, or the decrease of strictly ethical journalism, that has occurred in all media outlets\(^{21}\).

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\(^{20}\) Sheppard 295.

"The mainstream media...gradually poached techniques from the tabloid side, as needed, to supply what they discerned to be public tastes."

He says the only media exempt from this trend are non-commercial news sources like National Public Radio, PBS, and Jim Lehrer’s The News Hour.

Making Up Stories: According to a 2003 poll from the Pew Research Center for the People and the Press, 58 percent of Americans polled said they believe that journalists “either frequently (22 percent) or occasionally (36 percent) make up news stories.”

Lack of Ethics: The publication of sensational or exaggerated stories does not fool Generation Y’ers. Neer Korn, journalist for the Sydney Morning Herald, says young adults in particular can see through most ethical deceptions because they’ve grown up surrounded by media in all of its forms and have a higher media literacy than older adults.

“Their constant exposure has enabled them to easily deconstruct the media, understand the devices the media use and the ratings forces that drive them. This is part of the wider trend as the young seek recourse from what they see as self-serving key institutions: government, big business and big media.”

What the Youth Say

If American youth are media literate, what do they think about modern journalism? Of the 11 completed survey responses I received from American youth, nearly half said they do not believe most media sources are accurate. Five respondents said the media is usually too biased for them to rely on, and many blamed inaccuracies on the journalists, not the publication or television station’s affiliation with any group. Reasons included:

“[Do I trust the media?] Yes and no. I believe that something happened if it shows up in the news but exactly how it happened could be wrong since they sometimes try to spike the story to make it seem more interesting.” (Respondent #4)

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22 Lumby, 4.
23 All quoted responses are written as entered into the survey box. Spelling and grammatical errors have been left as is, and insertions have been added only when needed for clarity.
"I trust the media as much as I trust a stranger chatting me up on the bus; in other words, I don't put much value on it." (Respondent #13)

"Let's just say I know which media station to go to if I want a biased opinion and which one to go to for the opposite story. I guess for the most part, I do not trust it for the fact that it can be manipulated so easily. I do, however, always rely on one particular source that I feel I can trust always." (Respondent #12)

Respondent #12 was the only American youth to say that he or she could rely on one media source. Several other interviewees said they compared stories on multiple websites, television channels and in different publications to ensure they understood the full story. Regardless of whether they trusted what journalists wrote or said or not, the American youth who were surveyed tended to cross-check sources to protect themselves from believing inaccurate information.

"[Do I trust the media?] Not really. I always try to double check information I get from media. Because media can exaggerate their report or even fabricate stories. I believe [the] media industry is really competitive, and everybody is eager to report 'eye-catching' news to gain their prestige, and some people don't care if the news is true or not." (Respondent #10)

The interviewees who said they trust the media often mentioned that they have faith in journalists and believe they are humans who are just doing their jobs. Despite their trust in journalists, they do admit that remaining unbiased isn’t always possible.

"I mostly trust journalists. I believe that most journalists are telling the truth, but I also think that on some stories, such as political stories, they (whether consciously or unconsciously) influence viewers with their own opinions." (Respondent #5)

"I like journalists. They dig up the stories for us and present it in a way that is easy to digest. I trust a journalist's report is their interpretation of an event or story. I think it is a very difficult job for a journalist or anybody to report stories in a neutral way so yet again, I believe that people shouldn't just look for all of their news from just one journalist." (Respondent #6)

Surveyed youth were asked to imagine a perfect media source, and although some respondents abstained from answering the question, most of the answers included one of three main qualities: objective, positive, and healthy. The first idea of objectivity popped up in four
of the 11 responses, and ideas for a "perfect" media source focused on a more accurate portrayal of events in news coverage through unaltered media and citizen journalism.

"My perfect media source would be unbiased and easily available. Because I am easily influenced by other people's opinions, I would prefer news to be delivered in a very neutral manner so I could make my own decisions. I would also want accountability so that I could trust the media and know that the news I'm hearing is correct." (Respondent #5)

"I'd make a type of media that would, if possible, be permanently 'live;' no altering of footage or taking back of words would be possible. Reporters would be constantly in contact and in the field." (Respondent #15)

"Twitter and crowd-sourcing seem to be very effective in spreading accurate news. These individuals are not paid and "report" on issues through their eyes. When that information is collected, a very accurate view of a situation can be created from the wide variety of sources that saw or have an opinion on some topic or event." (Respondent #14)

The second ideal, one of positivity, also came up several times in the finished surveys. Youth are tired of reading and hearing about negative news (the war in Iraq, economic recession, crime and violence, etc.) and would rather have a news source that balances positive and negative news.

"I would make something that had more positive news! One reason I hardly ever watch the news is that most of the time it is all negative. I would have more human interest stories about people who are doing good in the world." (Respondent #24)

"I would have journalists not only cover the travesties going on in the world around us, but also the stories that are not about terrible events. We would cover things such as people doing nice things for others, a charity event perhaps, or soldiers coming home from war. In today's media, I see too much bad and not enough good." (Respondent #12)

The third common point is a "healthy" news source, which is a media outlet that can serve not only as an accurate information base but also as a role model of ethics for younger generations.

"I would create a magazine like People except only talk about good things that way young girls and even adults have something/someone to look up to" (Respondent #4)
"I would want to have media that promotes healthy ideals in society and not just what's cool or trendy." (Respondent #1)

Despite Generation Y’s exposure to lightning-fast technology, none of the American youth interviewed mentioned fast or speedy reporting as part of a journalist’s duty to its audience. In contrast, the words “accuracy” and “truth” appeared in almost every answer.

**Japanese Media: From Newspapers to New Technology**

Since the late 1800s, Japanese media has struggled to overcome government control, drops in readership, private sponsorship and affiliation bias, self-censorship, political and economic pressures, and technological changes.

**Japanese Newspapers**

Two different types of primitive newspapers emerged in the Edo Period\(^\text{24}\): *yomiuri* (読み売) and *kawara-ban* (瓦版). *Yomiuri*, which literally means “to read and sell,” were publications made for sellers to read to buyers. Little effort was made to make the papers interesting to the buyer because they were, in essence, buying someone else’s words. Content in papers such as Tokyo’s *Jiji Shimpō*\(^\text{25}\) was also heavily edited and hard to understand “for the press censorship is so severe that native journalists have cultivated the art of saying one thing and conveying to their countrymen a meaning totally different from the one seemingly expressed.”\(^\text{26}\) In contrast, *kawara-ban*, or tile-block print broadsheets, were created for Japanese consumers to take with them, much like newspapers are today. Because these broadsheets were made for the reader to understand and disseminate information from,

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\(^{24}\) The period from 1603 to 1868 when Japan was under the rule of the Tokugawa family.  
\(^{26}\) *Booklover’s Magazine.*
most involved drawings of current events rather than words. The depictions often only explained the situation through the eyes (and opinions) of the artist, which led to some dishonesty in what information the reader received. Despite differences in physical shape, method, or calendar of production, these experimental newspapers often focused on similar subjects of major importance, like natural disasters or war. By the beginning of the Meiji Period, the structure of earlier newspapers had evolved into what it seen with modern newspapers. The first version of what Japanese call a newspaper today, the Yokohama Mainichi Shinbun (横浜毎日新聞), appeared in 1870 and became the prototype for spin-off newspapers around the central island of Honshu.

Today, Japan’s newspaper industry is divided into national newspapers, regional or prefectural newspapers, and sports dailies. National newspapers include such publications as The Daily Yomiuri/Yomiuri Shinbun (読売新聞) and The Daily News/Mainichi Shinbun (毎日新聞). Most of these newspapers’ contents have nationwide importance and rarely focus on smaller, local news. Instead, regional and prefectural newspapers, like The Hokkaido Daily/Hokkaido Mainichi (北海道毎日), fill that role, providing more in-depth articles on events occurring within the specific area. Out of Japan’s 47 prefectures, all except Shiga have a prefectural newspaper, if not more than one. Sports dailies are also very popular, especially among male readers. Sports dailies, independent sports publications, differ from American newspapers in that sports sections in America are not completely separated from the hard news and feature sections.

Modern Japanese newspapers have continued to be successful, especially when compared with publications in other countries. According to a survey by the World Association of Newspapers in 2005, the top five newspapers by circulation rate were all

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28 According to the World Association of Newspapers.
Japanese newspapers (Yomiuri Shinbun, Asahi News/Asahi Shinbun, Mainichi Shinbun, Japan’s Economic News/Nihon Keizai Shinbun, and Chunichi News/Chunichi Shinbun). Sankei Shinbun and Tokyo Sports also ranked seventh and tenth, respectively. Out of the top ten, only Germany’s Bild and China’s Canako Xiaoxi and People’s Daily were non-Japanese newspapers. This trend continued throughout the rest of the survey rankings, as almost one-fourth of the top 100 newspapers by circulation were Japanese-language publications. In comparison, the highest ranked American newspaper, USA Today, only ranked at thirteenth. (Yomiuri Shinbun’s readership was larger than the top ten most circulated American newspapers in 2004.) The five highest circulated newspapers each have an English-language counterpart for Westerners living, working, or traveling in Japan (The Daily Yomiuri or The Mainichi Daily News, for example). The Japan Times is the only English-language newspaper in Japan created independently of a Japanese publisher.

Journalists and experts believe that the wide gap in daily readership between the 14 million people who read the Yomiuri Shinbun and the two million who read USA Today can be attributed to more than just population. Other reasons for high readership include Japan’s higher number of educated adults, higher literacy rates, a relatively high per-capita income, and overall better public interest in foreign affairs.

Post-World War II newspapers in Japan have covered news topics from a variety of foreign nations, particularly America, China, England and Russia. In the past decade or so, with debate over nuclear weapons surfacing in Korea, North Korea has begun to receive just as much – if not more – coverage as the other four.

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29 According to the Audit Bureau of Circulations.
30 It is unclear whether the circulation statistics include readership for English-language newspapers published by the Japanese parent newspaper.
Japanese Newsmagazines

Japanese newsstands in train stations and convenience stores carry shuukanshi, weekly newsmagazines that resemble American tabloids but play a more important role in politics and society than the average National Enquirer or Star magazine. Adam Gamble, author of A Public Betrayed: An Inside Look at Japanese Media Atrocities and Their Warnings to the West, says Japanese weeklies have no counterpart in America31. In journalist Tatsuya Iwase’s book The Reason Why Newspapers are Uninteresting, he writes that “newspapers don’t write lies, but they avoid dealing with uncomfortable truths,” and those truths they avoid exposing in their newspapers end up on the front cover of the shuukanshi. Nudity and inappropriate language fill much of the magazines’ contents32, but investigative stories are often factual enough that some Japanese government officials read them everyday for a well-rounded knowledge of national scandals33.

Japanese Television News Stations and Commercials

In Japan, television news is controlled by six main news stations, one publicly and five privately funded. The Japan Broadcasting Corporation (NHK), founded in 1953, is the only publicly funded television news broadcasting station in the country. Households with a television pay a standard fee, which then supports the station’s operating costs. NHK broadcasts are divided into two groups: general news and educational television programs. The Nippon News Network (NNN), Japan News Network (JNN), Fuji News Network (FNN), All-Nippon News Network (ANN) and TV Tokyo Network (TXN) are all commercial news stations, funded by private donations and sponsors.

32 See Appendix IV.
33 Gamble 35.
Unlike American news stations, Japanese news stations do not have strict limitations on what they can and cannot show viewers, other than basic obscenity laws. (For example, American stations are forbidden to broadcast commercials for smoking and tobacco-related products.) However, instead of allowing the government to control what is shown, stations tend to create rules within themselves. If the station deems something inappropriate, it has the final say in whether it goes on air or not. Historically, Japanese news stations are more conservative and have had relatively few scandals as compared to Western television stations.

One reason for this can be seen in Japanese commercials: advertising, as well as television programs, use subtle influence rather than direct. For example, Japanese commercials for products like beer or appliances will not include the prices in the advertisement, whereas in America the price is almost always shown. Instead, the Japanese commercial producers would probably use a family setting or “everyday life” type of background to convey an emotion that would appeal to viewers. American commercials might use similar emotion-evoking techniques, but usually producers want viewers to think logically about the product. After watching the commercial, viewers will think, “Oh, that’s a great deal! I can afford that!” or “My favorite celebrity just said it’s the best one and I should go buy it to become like him, so I think I will.”

Commercials also tend to expose foreigners to the culture and customs of another country. In the case of Japanese commercials, the subjects are often businessmen or housewives caring for children. More so than in many Western countries, Japan has strict gender roles that, despite recent equalizing between women and men, is still prevalent. Also, sometimes the subject is persuaded to do something, drink or eat something, or wear something to become a member of a desired group. In contrast, American commercials more often offer the subject a product that makes them special, different, able to stand out from the
crowd. Knowing this difference would help a foreigner understand that American culture emphasizes independence and Japanese culture emphasizes group harmony.

Criticisms of Modern Media

Twenty-first century media in Japan face two major problems: censorship and credibility. Firstly, control of censorship in Japanese media has toggled from the government to the public and, finally, to media management. In the early 1910s and 1920s under the Taisho Democracy, Japanese publications were controlled by the government and used as nationalistic propaganda in order to gain support for war and expansion. This reversed completely in the late 1940s, when the Allied forces used Japanese media to promote democratic ideals. Eventually, in 1951, the Japanese media regained control over itself for the first time since the early 1900s34.

Because Japanese media does not have as many governmental regulations as other countries, heads of publishing companies have final say in self-censorship. In many cases, the newspaper company has affiliations with different groups and companies, and this may prevent it from remaining unbiased if a scandal were to develop. For example, several national newspapers have ties to groups like baseball teams (i.e. the Yomiuri Giants and Yomiuri Shinbun) and have sister network television stations who they collaborate with on a regular basis (i.e. Asahi Shinbun and All-Nippon News Network). In addition, because many of the television networks are privately sponsored, they wouldn’t want to compromise their financial situation with donors. If something unfavorable happened to a business or group the newspaper or television network had a professional relationship with, it would have to decide whether to report it accurately to the public, which is its job, or keep silent and have enough

money to continue reporting on other subjects. In an interview with Adam Gamble for his book *A Public Betrayed: An Inside Look at Japanese Media Atrocities and Their Warnings to the West*, Yoshibumi Wakamiya, deputy managing editor at *Asahi Shinbun*, said even the simple act of interviewing must not disrupt the harmony between the interviewee and the journalist.

“In Japanese society, it is difficult to hold healthy debates. The person you are debating will feel their personality is under attack, and will hold a grudge. That is Japanese society, and we have to get our information from politicians. If you ask sharp questions, you may end up being isolated, even from other journalists.”

The issue of affiliation is not limited to newspapers and privately sponsored television networks, however. NHK, despite not having financial ties to sponsors, must present an annual budget to the Diet (Japan’s governing body) and have it passed in order to operate. Therefore, pressure to keep relationships strong with the current political party can potentially cause bias in government-related stories. Similar situations arise when newspapers choose whether to cover a scandal about someone who has been a reliable source in the past. Some Japanese journalists see it as a betrayal to report something negative about someone who has helped them numerous times.

According to a 1996 survey from the Freedom House, a nonprofit organization that researches freedom of the press in world media, Japan ranked behind 33 other nations in press freedoms. Although the number is relatively high in the list of almost 200 surveyed countries, Freedom House representatives said they were surprised that such a developed nation wasn’t higher. (In comparison, Norway held the top spot and the United States ranked seventeenth.) They listed economic and political pressures as the reason for ranking Japan lower, stating

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35 Gamble 43.
that Japanese journalists have too many ties to outside biases and feel keeping harmonious
relations with all parties involved is the best solution.

Secondly, Japanese media face issues with credibility. The previously mentioned
problems with censorship contribute to this issue, but other factors exist as well. Credibility,
arguably the most important aspect of journalism, affects the overall consumer’s satisfaction
with the publication. Until recently, Japanese journalists did not receive a byline with their
articles, so if an error was printed, the entire company would be blamed. Now that journalists’
names are being printed more often, journalists have an incentive to write accurately because
blame now rests more with the individual writer than the paper itself.

However, the controversial Japanese press clubs, or kisha kurabu (記者クラブ),
continue to hurt the media’s credibility. When a celebrity or authority figure contacts a press
club for a conference, the press club determines which reporters will be allowed to attend.
Media companies have to pay a fee for membership to the press club, and until 1993 foreign
press was not allowed press club membership. Reporters for all magazines and weekly
newsmagazines, political and religious publications, as well as freelance journalists, are
banned from attending press club-sponsored conferences. Representatives from non-member
publications have to receive permission to attend, but they might not have the right to ask
questions.

In addition, the Tsubaki Affair in September 1993 sparked debate about whether
media biases can alter public opinion. After the 1993 election, the Liberal Democratic Party
lost for the first time since 1955. Party members blamed Sadayoshi Tsubaki, TV Asahi’s news
director, for the unexpected loss, claiming that Tsubaki’s personal, negative comments about
the party at a conference influenced his reporters’ own opinions. The members then claimed
that news coverage of the election had been biased against the party and had influenced the

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36 Gamble 35.
public to vote against it. Tsubaki publicly apologized for the incident, but scientific studies and surveys after the election were not able to determine whether the media had had any effect on voters’ opinions.

What the Youth Say

Ten Japanese youth responded to my online survey, and like their American counterparts, more than half said they believe what journalists say in print, on television or on the radio. Two respondents wrote that they believe the media but don’t know why they do, which could mean that blindly trusting the media without critically analyzing it might also be an issue for Japanese youth. Another respondent did not specify a reason. The other three respondents expressed clear reasons why they trust the media, but some stated that they do not necessarily believe all types of media or all journalists. The three reasons include:

“I trust the media because television stations investigate deeply into a lot of things before broadcasting, but as for entertainment news, I can’t trust it because there is a lot of fabrication.” (Respondent #20)

“Mostly I trust them because they get the vast amount of knowledge from various field. I believe that they judge [sic] things from lots of angles.” (Respondent #9)

“I trust them at a basic level. Because I know the news through the media, I often just trust it against my better judgment. But it’s also true that the media does things like release inaccurate news reports and agitate readers. So I think believing all of them isn’t a good thing.” (Respondent #22)

Overall, the Japanese interviewees who said they trust the media agree that journalists are trained in their profession and know how to retrieve accurate information; however, they don’t trust the media companies that financially support the news sources. Media ownership

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37 One of the six interviewees said he or she only believed journalists half of the time.
38 Survey answers in Japanese have been translated as literally as possible. Survey answers written in English have been included as they were written on the online survey, but small insertions have been added only in cases when clarification was needed.
of various non-journalistic businesses, like baseball teams or popular breweries, is prevalent throughout Japan, and from the respondents’ answers it appears that Japanese youth are well aware that media companies do not want to risk bad business in one of their other business ventures by printing or broadcasting negative information about it.

Four interviewees said they didn’t believe the media. Their responses mirrored some of the earlier group’s responses, such as “No, I believe all media is controlled by a certain party or group,” and “I don’t trust all of them. Things written by someone’s hand definitely contain that person’s preferences.” Others said they could not trust the media “as long as there is no reliability” because “there are too many biased news reports.”

The media’s unreliability came up in several answers from both groups, so if media inaccuracy is well known throughout younger generations, what makes them choose to either continue to believe the media or lose faith in it completely? From the responses, it seems like Japanese youth fall into one of those two categories.

Perhaps it’s the acceptance of the media as an information powerhouse that can’t be matched by any other source. One of the respondents in the group that believes in the media expressed a need for accurate reporting because he or she would not be able to receive information any other way.

“Because from our side the only thing we can do is trust them, I want them to provide us with correct information from a middle [unbiased] position.” (Respondent #22)

Personal experiences, both positive and negative, also appear to influence young adults’ opinions of journalism. Respondent #9, who generally believes the media, watched a television broadcast about an elementary school student who committed suicide because she was constantly bullied by her classmates. The station’s method of covering the story is what impressed the interviewee.
“The day after her suicide, one TV director asked students, their parents, people involved in bullying before and so on, to fax how they felt about the grieving news. Letters through fax seemed to make a deep discussion about the bullying. The news gave me a chance [sic] to think over lots of things like bullying, what I actually did and what I should deal with when I become a teacher.”

On the other hand, Respondent #23’s experiences with non-Japanese media as an exchange student in America hurt the interviewee’s trust in Japanese media.

“When I was in Japan, all TV programs rarely talk about the problem and news in Africa. Once I came [to] the US, I found [out] how serious the African problem is.”

From what can be gathered from the ten finished surveys, Japanese youth value accuracy and personal benefit from their news sources more than speed. Only one respondent mentioned speedy reporting as an aspect of journalism that should be included in a “perfect media source.” Instead, the surveyed Japanese youth imagined a news source that is compassionate, accurate and open to criticism from its audience.

“I think audience’s opinion is the most important thing, so if I could create a perfect media source, I would like to make full of heart media.” (Respondent #17)

“If possible, citizen censorship system should be adopted just like jury system that was started few years ago in Japan.” (Respondent #9)

“A site like wikileaks.” (Respondent #19)

“A media that shares the news without exaggerating.” (Respondent #11)

One Japanese interviewee said a “perfect” media source is impossible, and three respondents abstained from answering the question.

Media Comparisons, Part I: President Barack Obama and the 2008 Election

Coverage of the 2008 presidential election permeated world news throughout the campaign season. In the United States, top-circulated newspapers like the New York Times and The Washington Post covered the election process and results with multiple-page features, daily coverage and online components. As many Americans would expect from a
liberal-leaning newspaper, the *New York Times* lauded the election of Democrat Barack Obama to office the day following his victory. Reporter Adam McGourney wrote that Obama’s term as president signaled “a repudiation of a historically unpopular Republican president and his economic and foreign policies” and a battle where “Mr. McCain’s campaign was eclipsed by an opponent who was nothing short of a phenomenon.”\(^{39}\) Liberal publications weren’t the only supporters of Obama for president; traditionally conservative newspapers like *The Washington Post* and the *Austin American-Statesmen* endorsed the Democratic candidate\(^ {40}\).

The election of Obama to presidential office did not transcend party affiliation in Japanese media like in American media. The conservative *Yomiuri Shinbun* included a four-part series about Obama’s political platform and how the Japanese will have to work harder to strengthen Japan-U.S. bonds. The fourth installment, a study of the Obama administration’s expected security policies, assumed Obama would continue to use nuclear weapons to control other countries. The series is not an opinion piece, but its articles have no interviews with either Japanese or American politicians to back up what author Ramesh Thakur writes. With no credibility other than a few quotes from Obama’s speeches, he concludes that “there are few signs that Obama will embark on a review of U.S. nuclear policy upon assuming the presidency.” Thakur was also responsible for writing a two-part series on the election results, and he states that Obama’s victory is based on the Republican Party’s mistakes as much as his own skills. On the other hand, the more liberal *Asahi Shinbun* expressed America’s joy over the election through its articles, using words like “heal,” “immeasurable” and “fresh start” to describe Obama’s victory. One article states directly that “Obama's victory will not just


\(^{40}\) “Time is right for his unifying vision: Yes, Obama can” (Austin, TX: *Austin American-Statesman*, 2008) and “Barack Obama for President” (Washington DC: *The Washington Post*, 2008).
transform America as a nation. It will also usher in a new era in its relationship with the rest of the world.” Although the Japanese newspapers follow their typical political bias in reporting the election results, Japanese readers of both publications probably formed a more accurate opinion of President Obama’s election than Americans who read or watched all pro-Obama media.

Media Comparisons, Part II: Japan and the 2009 Democratic Party Election

August 2009 marked the beginning of a new era of Japanese politics with the election of the liberal Democratic Party of Japan over the long-running conservative Liberal Democratic Party. Media coverage in Japan spanned daily television newscasts, newspapers and magazine articles, but what was surprising was the extent of election result coverage in the country’s two largest newspapers. Yomiuri Shinbun, the most read newspaper in Japan, is known for its slightly conservative spin on news, whereas its main competition, Asahi Shinbun, has a liberal following. On the day after the election, Yomiuri Shinbun published a special section about the election that included eight lengthy articles and an editorial about the DPJ’s win. Despite the newspaper’s conservative stance, the articles focused on the election data and included multiple quotes from representatives and leaders of the winning party. On the other hand, Asahi Shinbun published only four articles about the election and one editorial, even though its affiliated party had won the election by a large majority. According to previous polls by both newspapers, the DPJ had held a strong lead with the public for weeks, so the news of the party’s win wasn’t a surprise. Asahi Shinbun would have had enough time to prepare a special section similar to the one published by Yomiuri Shinbun.

In contrast with the election of President Barack Obama, media coverage of Japan’s 2009 general election wasn’t nearly as widespread and prevalent outside of the island nation, but news of Japan’s political upset did make front cover news of the American edition of The
The Economist. The cover of the September 3, 2009 edition of the magazine displayed an illustration of Mount Fuji, one of Japan’s most famous national landmarks, and a comic-book style “BOOM!” written in Japanese. This journalistic move surprised even the Japanese, and newscasters on the nightly Japanese television program NewsZero mentioned the magazine’s front cover on a broadcast that week. In addition to the post-election results feature article, The Economist had also written three other articles about Japanese politicians’ pre-election preparations earlier that month. As expected from a liberal-leaning magazine, The Economist took a positive stance and favored the DPJ’s win, claiming “the vote... marked the overdue destruction of Japan’s post-war political system” and calling the LDP a “weak” political party where “corruption flourished.” Other remarks call the victorious DPJ cabinet “more powerful, and more accountable” and “broadly welcome.” This declaration of the DPJ’s superiority over its opponent isn’t consistent, however; in an August 20th article, the magazine’s Tokyo news bureau criticized the DPJ’s party leader and prime minister candidate, Yukio Hatoyama, for his vague promises and imitation of Barack Obama’s campaign slogan.

“Mr. Hatoyama has tried to cast himself in the Barack Obama mould, using the English word “change” to sum up the DPJ’s meaning to voters. After half a century of almost wall-to-wall rule by his rival’s party, that should be an intoxicating message...But Mr. Hatoyama’s face hardly moves as he delivers the good tidings in a soporific murmur. Mr. Aso, meanwhile, has questioned the DPJ’s ability to pay for expensive campaign promises, such as a ¥26,000 ($280) a month child allowance to push up the birth rate, income support to farmers and heavily subsidised schooling. The opposition party’s sums are indeed fuzzy.”

The reason for this discrepancy in party support before and after the election isn’t clear, but the eventual support of the more liberal party is consistent with the magazine’s overall views.

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41 See Appendix V.
42 “Japan’s Election: The Vote that Changed Japan” (New York: The Economist, 2009).
Just as *The Economist* backed the DPJ, *Washington Post* opinion-editorial columnist Jim Hoagland condemned the Japanese voting public for choosing a political party based upon its similarities to the Obama campaign.

"The distorted echo of President Obama's campaign slogan is hardly accidental. Japan's Aug. 30 national election may turn out to be the first of many examples of the Obama factor reshaping politics in other countries. The victorious Democratic Party of Japan skillfully linked its opponents to George W. Bush and free-for-all, destructive capitalism while identifying themselves with the new U.S. president's push for economic recovery and social transformation through government spending."

Although *The Washington Post*’s conservative background and *The Economist*’s more liberal one influence both their opinion and reporting pieces, both articles include the main facts about the election and focus on what’s most important for the American reader (like how the new leaders are expected to interact with the Obama administration). Outside of the general political party bias, which most readers are aware of, the articles do provide readers with the basic information they should know.

**Media Comparisons, Part III: The Economic Recession**

Coverage of the economic recession is a broad topic, so I focused on how and what print publications wrote about where to place blame for the economic downturn. For American newspapers and magazines, the blame first was placed on people involved in the housing crisis, then on executives at major insurance and car companies. After companies like American International Group had been bailed out, however, the recession still affected hundreds of thousands of Americans, so media looked for a reason why government’s policies had not yet fixed the problem. Even in so-called “unbiased” reporting, *The Washington Post* implied that blame for the recession should land on President Obama. In a September 21,
2010 article\(^{43}\) about President Obama’s question-and-answer session at Washington D.C.’s Newseum, the *Post* included direct quotes from various audience members. All of the questions included some disillusionment with the Obama administration (like a woman who had voted for Obama hoping for change and whose standard of living was still lower than she would like), and while it can’t be verified, it is not likely that all of the questions asked during the hour-long question-and-answer session included indirect criticism of Obama’s actions. In a similar article from *The New York Times*\(^{44}\), the journalist focused on the recession as a purely economic consequence and did not mention President Obama or his administration as a cause.

Japanese publications followed a similar pattern, voicing their opinions about the recession and its causes via their editorials. What differed was where each newspaper staff thought Japan needed to focus. In the *Yomiuri Shinbun*’s September 21, 2008 editorial “Public financing giants needs to trim down,” the staff urged Japanese officials to prevent further economic downturns by dividing the Japan Finance Corporation into smaller organizations. While the editorial implies that the move to decrease the size of existing financial conglomerates is a way to avoid America’s mistakes, the editorial itself does not mention the United States or its economic policies. *Asahi Shinbun* took the opposing side in its September 18, 2008 editorial, directly blaming the United States for the economic recession and asking the Obama administration to correct itself before the recession’s effects hit Asia.

‘The roots of the current credit crunch can be traced to the collapse of the U.S. housing bubble, the subsequent dive in home prices and the massive defaults on mortgages that followed. This financial fiasco is already stagnating business activity in the United States…For the world at large, the greatest source of dread is that the credit crisis could escalate into a severe loss of confidence in the dollar. The current housing bubble has spread to Europe and elsewhere, again painfully underscoring the


depth of damage…The abnormal swelling of the ‘money economy’ exposes the negative side of the global economic structure that arose in the post-Cold War era.”

The difference between how *Yomiuri Shinbun* and *Asahi Shinbun* reflect the cause of the recession, indirectly or directly, is also seen in each publication’s writing. Other articles from *Asahi Shinbun* negatively mention the United States in other articles as the reason why Japan’s economy is facing a recession similar to the “bubble economy burst” the country experienced in the late 1990s. Although no specific statistics on reader opinion could be found as of December 2010, there is a possibility that readers of either newspaper will have different opinions about America and its role in the recession due to varying coverage in both news and opinion pieces.

**Conclusion**

Media bias is apparent in many forms, whether directly through political partisanship or indirectly through journalists’ word choice, and youth in America and Japan have the media literacy to understand the difference between an accurate news report and a sensationalized one. If journalists want to improve long-term credibility with their audience, they should fix their relationship with young media consumers first. American and Japanese youth will be the key to creating a lasting readership base over the next several decades. Improvements should be focused on factual accuracy, unbiased word choice, independent and audience-based reporting, better separation of “hard” news and entertainment gossip, and the inclusion of more positive or healthy stories in the lead broadcast or on the front page.

Firstly, journalists should return to reporting with a heavier emphasis on accuracy rather than speed. Only one surveyed youth said he or she preferred quickly reported stories; the other twenty never mentioned speed as a quality they desired from their media. If the push for faster and faster media coverage continues, the rush to report first will cause journalists to
unintentionally overlook other important facts that might completely change the story.
Reporters who upload factual stories less quickly will not be hurt in the long run if youth trust their media source more than sources that not only report first, but also report wrong information. Higher credibility in this case will mean higher readership. Even if young adults read information from another source, their tendency to double-check sources means they will most likely read articles or watch broadcasts from another source they trust.

Secondly, journalists should pay more attention to how they write their stories or edit their broadcasts. Superfluous adjectives or nouns that make a story’s subject appear more dramatic than the actual person is in real life, like “heroic,” “phenomenal,” or “magnificent,” might make the story more appealing at first glance to readers, but disappointment that the subject has been put on a pedestal for nothing (or, in other cases, journalistically punished for a minor crime) will turn readers away. If reporters aren’t sure whether their stories are as unbiased as possible, they should check them with editors and producers, especially superiors who don’t have the same political or social views that they do. Most youth seem to not be fooled by exaggerated claims. Journalists should report accurately; if they do so, youth will read the stories they’re interested in without the added help of overly dramatic words.

The third improvement journalists and media conglomerates can make is to focus on individuals in the readership base. As one surveyed American wrote, social media networks like Facebook and Twitter give youth more public say in what’s happening around them, and when their quotes are used to back up a story, they’ll be more supportive of that media source. Journalists should pay close attention to what youth are saying online and use that wealth of information as preliminary research in stories. Audience-based reporting, however, isn’t enough. Especially in the case of the young Japanese citizens who were surveyed, media association with other businesses automatically hurts credibility. Companies who have investments in outside businesses or own sports teams or food production companies should
pull out and focus their assets on their television, radio, magazine and newspaper subsidiaries instead. This move will force media companies to find other sources of revenue, but it will also improve circulation revenue and strengthen the brand.

Journalists can better credibility by clarifying the difference between "hard," or non-feature news, and entertainment news. Some of the surveyed youth complained about how celebrity gossip like Lindsay Lohan’s jail sentence receives priority over other, much more significant news. This does not mean removing entertainment news completely, which could drastically decrease the number of media consumers for a particular program or publication. One solution is to remove celebrity news from hard news broadcasts or front-page features and to designate an inside page or later broadcast segment to entertainment news. Followers of that publication or program will know when and where to expect entertainment news and can budget their time accordingly. Another solution would be to remove most celebrity news from hard news broadcasts and leave it up to entertainment channels to broadcast it.

Lastly, youth will have more interest in media outlets if they publish more "soft news" and human interest stories. Most publications and broadcasts include soft news already, but in many situations, "positive" human interest stories are included deep within a newspaper or at the end of a news broadcast. For example, NBC’s “Nightly News with Brian Jennings” followed up extensive stories about the war in Iraq and the Gulf Coast oil spill with a few-minute segment about local volunteers in its pre-signoff “Making a Difference” portion. Viewers who want positive news have to first listen to almost 50 minutes of war, crime, and political coverage and a few commercial breaks. Placing more positive or healthy human interest stories throughout a broadcast or publication, including on the front page or in the leading segment, will reduce young adults’ apathy to news sources.
Appendix I: Introduction Letter (English)

To the participants of this study:

My name is Sarah Moreland, a student at Ball State University in Indiana. For my senior thesis and project I am researching the opinions of American and Japanese young adults (ages 18 to 24) regarding the media (newspapers, magazines, television, and radio).

The purpose of this study is to understand what characteristics American and Japanese youth think the media should have. Results from this study will be used to guide young journalists in creating the most successful media source for young adults.

NOTE: If you are not between 18 or 24 years old, or if you do not live in Japan or the United States, please do not take this survey.

You will be asked a series of questions about your opinions of the media, and the survey will take about 15 minutes to complete. This survey is completely voluntary. Even after you begin, you may quit at any time, and your answers will not be recorded. The only anticipated risk from participating in this study is that you may not feel comfortable answering some of the questions. If you feel a question is too personal, you may leave it blank and skip to the next question.

All answers will be anonymous and no names will be used in the final paper or presentation. The data will be stored online without any identifying information and will only be available to the researcher (me).

For one’s rights as a research subject, you may contact the following: Research Compliance, Sponsored Programs Office, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306, (765) 285-5070, irb@bsu.edu.

If you have finished reading this introduction to the survey and still would like to participate, please click on the “I Agree” button below.

Thank you for your time.

Sarah Moreland
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana
Appendix II: Introduction Letter (Japanese)

この調査にご協力下さる皆様へ

私は、米国のインディアナ州にあるポール州立大学の生徒セーラ・モアランドです。私は、四年生の論文及びプロジェクトの為に米国人と日本人の若者（年齢：18歳から24歳まで）のメディア（新聞・雑誌・テレビ・ラジオなど）に関する意見について研究しています。

＊注意：年齢が18歳以下及び24歳以上の方、又は日本もしくは米国にお住みではない方は調査にご協力して頂けませんので、宜しくお願い致します。

この調査は完全ボランティア制です。調査を始められた後も、方が一ようめ頂きたくなった場合はいつおやめ頂いても結構です。その場合、回答は記録されません。質問が個人的すぎる内容だと思われた時は、回答なさらずに次の質問にお進み下さい。

質問の回答は全て匿名です。この調査にかかる所要時間約15分程です。

上段に記載した内容をお読みになり、調査にご協力頂ける方は下の『同意します』というボタンを押して下さい。

以上、宜しくお願い致します。

セーラ・モアランド
ポール州立大学
インディアナ州、マンシー
Appendix III: Survey questions (English and Japanese)

Survey questions
調査の質問

1) How often do you read newspapers and/or magazines? Watch television news? Search for news on online websites? Which media format do you prefer?
どのぐらい新聞や雑誌を読みますか。どのぐらいテレビでニュース番組を見ますか。インターネットのサイトでニュースを検索しますか。どちらのメディアがいいと思いますか。

2) Do you trust the media? Why or why not?
メディアを信じますか。何故ですか。

3) What is your opinion of journalists? Do you trust them? Why or why not?
あなたのジャーナリストに関する意見は何ですか。彼らを信じますか。何故ですか。

4) For you, what is the most important responsibility of the media?
あなたにとってメディアの一番大切な義務は何だと思うますか。

5) What is the media’s biggest problem?
メディアの一番の問題は何だと思いますか。

6) Do you feel journalists are often censored in your country? Why or why not?
あなたの国でジャーナリストはよく検閲されている気がしますか。何故ですか。

7) Do you have any positive or negative experiences with the media? If so, please share your story.
メディアに対して個人的に良い又は悪い経験はなにかございますか。経験がございましたら教えて下さい。

8) If you could create a perfect media source, what kind of media would you make? Please be as detailed as possible.
もし完璧なメディア源を作れるとしたら、どんなメディアを作りたいと思いますか。詳しくお答え下さい。

9) What do you predict will happen to media in the future?
将来的に今のメディアはどうなると予測しますか。
Appendix V: Front cover of *The Economist* (September 3, 2009)
Institutional Review Board

DATE: November 10, 2010
TO: Sarah Moreland
FROM: Ball State University IRB
RE: IRB protocol # 191829-1
TITLE: "The Culture of Criticism: How American and Japanese youth view the media"
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project
ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE: November 10, 2010

The Institutional Review Board reviewed your protocol on November 10, 2010 and has determined the procedures you have proposed are appropriate for exemption under the federal regulations. As such, there will be no further review of your protocol, and you are cleared to proceed with the procedures outlined in your protocol. As an exempt study, there is no requirement for continuing review. Your protocol will remain on file with the IRB as a matter of record.

Editorial notes:

1. Exempt (online survey)

While your project does not require continuing review, it is the responsibility of the P.I. (and, if applicable, faculty supervisor) to inform the IRB if the procedures presented in this protocol are to be modified or if problems related to human research participants arise in connection with this project. Any procedural modifications must be evaluated by the IRB before being implemented, as some modifications may change the review status of this project. Please contact Jennifer Weaver Cotton at (765) 212-9011 or jmweavercott@bsu.edu if you are unsure whether your proposed modification requires review or have any questions. Proposed modifications should be addressed in writing and submitted electronically to the IRB (http://www.bsu.edu/irb) for review. Please reference the above IRB protocol number in any communication to the IRB regarding this project.

Reminder: Even though your study is exempt from the relevant federal regulations of the Common Rule (45 CFR 46, subpart A), you and your research team are not exempt from ethical research practices and should therefore employ all protections for your participants and their data which are appropriate to your project.
Works Cited

Books and Magazines


Newspaper and Magazine Articles


Websites


