

Disclaimer - These articles do not constitute legal advice. They are for informational and educational purposes only.

Please seek legal advice from a Lawyer holding a current practice certificate.

Comprehending Television news:

A literature review of media influence and the implications for television news.

INTRODUCTION

As a way of introducing this literature review, I will begin with a story. When I look at a dog I see a four legged thing with hair and teeth that, if it so decided, could invite my doom at any stage it so chose. When others look at a dog they see a cute cuddly animal that needs to be hugged until it melts into a puddle of metaphorical flowers and butterflies. So how are my perceptions so different from someone else's perception of the same thing? Arguably, it is because I was bailed up by a vicious Doberman that was focused on protecting its territory while for others alternative perceptions are produced through ownership of a pet dog or positive interactions with such animals.

The point that I am introducing with this anecdote is how perception develops a person's reality. This reality is cultivated from reasoning that is developed through interactions, received during communication from social engagements, such as from parents and peers, and from experiences within the observer's environment (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998; Holtgraves & Kashima, 2008; Tetlock, 1989; Willingham, 2007, pp. 144-200; Lane, Kang, & Banaji, 2007). These interactions and experiences, nurture a set of patterns within the brain, which the individual develops into inferences and reasoning that form cognitive relationships of understanding towards messages as they are received (Holtgraves & Kashima, 2008, p. 74). Accordingly, unless I make a conscious effort to change my fear of dogs, any discussion I have about them will likely have negative connotations. Holtgraves, and Kashima's (2008) review of Lakoff's (1987) research suggests that, depending on my standing, that is how I am perceived or respected within my peer group, my repeated concerns will begin to influence the groups own perceptions relating to dog safety (Holtgraves & Kashima, 2008, pp. 74-84). If this is correct, then is it possible for television news media to exercise a similar influence through repetition of the same message? And if it can, then to what extent?

In 2003, in an attempt to appease the outcry over media images of children mauled in dog attacks, the New Zealand Government amended the Dog Control Act 1996 with tougher dog control. This was done despite the actual cases of dog attacks being in decline (Marsh, Langley, & Gauld, 2007). Today that influence continues through news reports repeatedly highlighting incidences of dog attacks through reports revisiting victims during recovery and recreation from victim recall of attacks. These reports have repeatedly been shown every four to six months from 2007 (3 News, 2007; 3 News, 2008; 3 News, 2009; 3 News, 2009; 3 News, 2010; 3 News, 2010) and continue today with the most recent at the time of this paper being 29 May 2011 (3 News, 2011). This type of reporting only serves to add fuel to the

arguments on tougher dog control laws (Sharpe, Burgess, & Fisher, 2010). If, as these authors argue, media can assert influence through messages in this manner on dog control, then how can we be sure that our reasoning and perceptions are not being prejudiced in other areas?

A number of researchers suggest that the messages communicated within computer games, movies, sitcoms and general television all influence our patterns of thinking exerting subconscious control over our rational mind (Scull, Kupersmidt, Parker, Almore, & Benson, 2010; Buckingham, 2006; Hill, 2006; Jewkes, 2004; Carter & Weaver, 2003).

Several studies (Scull, Kupersmidt, Parker, Almore, & Benson, 2010; Buckingham, 2006; Hill, 2006; Jewkes, 2004) explore how individuals, and in many cases children, have been influenced or affected by the viewing of violent media. Their findings, discussed later in this paper, argue that media influence is prolific in becoming the dominant discourse in the minds of the observing individual. Further, the research confirms that adverse affects exist in both moral and logical judgement (Scull, Kupersmidt, Parker, Almore, & Benson, 2010, p. 994; Buckingham, 2006, pp. 282-283; Hill, 2006, pp. 85-87; Jewkes, 2004, pp. 19, 142, & 165; Carter & Weaver, 2003, pp. 28-29). Buckingham (2006), however, argues that the media debate is not as clear-cut as these authors argue. He suggests that the influence is only relevant to those individuals that are not yet mature enough to separate reality from fiction (Buckingham, 2006). Buckingham (2006), whose research is focused on children, suggests that individuals have the ability to learn coping mechanisms to decipher reality and choose appropriate responses to avoid adverse influence (Buckingham, 2006, pp. 286-287). However, even he agreed that media messages play a role in influencing our thoughts (Buckingham, 2006, pp. 286-287).

So how do we as individuals, both children and adults, develop coping mechanisms to deal with messages received where the message has perceived credibility? I ask this question as coping mechanisms' influence the way we reason and perceive problems. For example, we develop a coping mechanism to avoid areas or people that involve activities such as crime (Buckingham, 2006). Then a credible source comes along and provides repeated messages about crime committed by a minority group. The result is the development of the perception that a particular group is bad or untrustworthy (Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999; Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998) leading to discrimination that I suggest is not limited to race relations but sex, age and reformed criminals.

This paper focuses on the current research into television news media and investigates what, if any, research has been conducted specifically towards Television news influence. Further, while I may play with the questions posed above, it is not this papers intention to

answer them. Instead, it is my intention to review the media research undertaken and see if further research is required.

I will begin with an overview of the meaning of media discourse then look at the definition of media effects theory. I have chosen media effects theory as it provides a basis for how the current research has been approached (Potter, 2011). This will allow me to review how current theories of reasoning have developed in the field of media influence and what media research has concluded. This research focuses on how news media discourse interacts with individual cognitions and the possible effect this may have on business leaders and policy makers. I will conclude with some analysis and options for future research on how mass media effect can be reduced.

MEDIA DISCOURSE - A definition of sorts

I will first look at the meaning of media discourse and how scholars use the term when researching media influence. As I will show, the term itself has proved to be somewhat elusive with researchers adopting a generally accepted term without complete understanding as to its meaning.

Debra Spitulnik (2000) suggests that the best way to view media discourse is to understand what it is not and sets her definition as media discourse being not “direct, face to face communication” (cited in Talbot, 2007, p. 5). Talbot (2007) rejects this very broad definition as entirely inadequate and sets about devoting an entire book to finding a suitable definition. Talbot (2007) suggests that media discourse is the provision of information packaged into a readily digestible form that mimics naturally occurring behaviour (pp. 4-5). This seems no less broad than Spitulnik’s (2000) definition despite it coming from the opposite direction.

This, I suggest, is due to Talbot (2007) rejecting the idea that any complete definition can exist (Talbot, 2007, p. 5). Most researchers have agreed with this stance due to the sheer size of human communication and the complications involved in defining this every changing medium (Talbot, 2007). Garrett and Bell (1998) help us to gain insight into why Talbot had such trouble. These authors explain that, in their time, there is a lack of agreement as to definitions of linguistic meaning throughout different disciplines (Garrett & Bell, 1998, p. 2). These disciplines argue that media cannot be seen in the traditional linguistic distinctions of discourse and text. This is because the traditional definitions define media with spoken language being situated around a co-present listener who is able to affect the speaker’s flow

(p. 4), and text being interpreted by the reader who decides the texts meaning well after the writing has occurred (p. 3).

In the 21st century, television media further blur these lines of traditional definition due to the increased separation of the receiver to the speakers flow and the intertextual relationship in imagery and text use (p. 3). Garrett and Bell (1998) conclude that media discourse now encompass the full range of sound, images, text and speech that is used to make up any given message transmitted to the receiver and that no complete definition can be given for this new phenomenon (pp. 2-4).

Mills (2004) continues this line of reasoning and argues that the term discourse has become of such common currency in the disciplines of critical theory, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, social psychology and many other fields, that it is frequently left undefined. He suggests that its definition has become simply common knowledge and assumed by these fields.

This fails to provide an acceptable answer leaving new researchers bewildered by the prospect of what media discourse actually is. To try and gain further clarity I will turn to the discussion of Foucault in the hope that it provides a rudimentary insight that will allow me to build on Garrett and Bell's (1998) definition for this paper. Foucault (1969) argues, "Discourse is constituted by a group of sequences of signs, in so far as they are statements." (p. 121). In Foucault's world, statements create a network of rules that precondition the making of sentences or speech acts into meaning (Foucault, 1969). It is from this set of rules that the receiver attempts to interpret the sender's message, and if the rules have not been clearly defined for the receiver, then the message will become lacking in any meaning despite the correct use of grammar (p. 94). Foucault (1969), further suggests, that every complex collection of statements produced is discourse. When added to Garrett and Bell's (1998) definition discussed above, it allows us to define media discourse as; 'media discourse is the complex collection of statements produced by the sender, in this case television media, using all aspects of text, sound, imagery and speech'. I will use this definition for the purposes of discussing the media effects research carried out to date.

MEDIA EFFECT - A question of definition

I defined, in the previous section, media discourse as - 'media discourse is the complex collection of statements produced by the sender, in this case television media, using all aspects of text, sound, imagery and speech'. Using this definition, I will provide an overview of media effects theory and how the theory informs, and is informed, by media

discourse. This will allow me to traverse current media effects research and, when combined with cognitive theory (discussed below), inform the hypothesised influence created by television news media. I will begin with a look at the struggles scholars have faced with defining effect research and conclude with the definition I will be using in this paper.

Potter (2011) advocates that despite some 4000 ‘media effects’ articles being in circulation very little work has been done to clarify what a ‘media effect’ actually is (p. 896). This, Potter suggests, is due to many scholars struggling with the word ‘effect’ despite their generous use of the term (p. 869). Like media discourse, media effect has lacked a sense of clarity with scholars arguing that the term is a misnomer used as a label for the sake of convenience and economy (Traudt, 2005, p. 11; Morley, 1992, p. 86). Nabi and Oliver (2009) suggest that this is primarily due to junior researchers being placed into replication patterns of duplication from past research rather than the exploration of more theoretically rich problems (p. 2). Potter (2011), however, argues that the lack of research into the question is more to do with its complexity (p. 897). As these existing definitions are unclear, I will address the three most widely used definitions’ to aid my discussion.

Grossberg, Wartella, and Whitney (1998) propose that three types of media effects; cognitive, affective and conative¹ (pp. 295-315). Lazarsfeld (1948), however, argued that media effects are defined as knowledge, attitudes, opinions and behaviour (p. 249). Further still, Bryant and Zillmann (2009) say that media effects encompass: behavioural, attitudinal, cognitive, emotional, and physiological aspects (pp. 13-14). It is suggested that the range of differences is created by the field of view. For example, Potter (2011) proposes that communication researchers’ adopt their focus based on their background and field of inquiry. For example, psychologists focus on the effects on individuals while sociologists focus on aggregates and economists focus on resources (p. 897). Further, Potter (2011) suggests that laboratory experiments focus on short-term effects of exposure while ethnographers focus on long-term effects that take more time to accumulate and manifest in subtle ways (p. 897). It is this background that creates a high level of complexity which Potter argues, is the reason that no complete definition has been developed (p. 898).

To address this, a wide reading must be undertaken to infer meaning from review articles and critiques in order to gain a determinative definition as suggested by Potter (2011, p. 899). Thanks to Potter (2011), a large part of this work has been done and three main

¹ The word conative was constructed by linguists’ and defined as an ‘action derived from instinct; a purposeful mode of striving; or volition. The word has also been described as a conscious effort to carry out self-determined acts’ and has been spelt as connative in other articles.

concepts of definition have been suggested: primitive Method, formal definition and ostensive method (pp. 899-902). Each definition has a specific focus, which I explain below.

The *primitive method* assumes that others share substantially the same meaning as the sender so there is no need to formulate any additional or formal definition (Potter, 2011, p. 900). As Potter points out this creates problems as others may not share the same meaning as that assumed (p. 900). Further, the assumption of understanding may bias the definition in favour of the research undertaken. Potter suggests that researchers assume mass media exert pervasive causal influence, which has significant and substantial effects on the individual (p. 900). Potter argues that this assumption has not only been accepted by researchers but that it also creates a self-fulfilling prophecy that does not benefit the scientific community (p. 900). Through evolution of debate against the assumers and the sub-tractors of the assumption, Potter's conclusion appears to be that 'media researchers share the assumption that defines media effects as outcomes among individuals from pervasive exposure to media messages based on a shared understanding of the message' (Potter, 2011, p. 901). To me this quote provides little clarity into why researchers have just assumed acceptance of the principle. It is a circular and complicated quote that, as Potter (2011) points out, produces more questions than answers resulting in the method being largely untenable (Potter, 2011, p. 901).

This leads me to the *formal definition*, which Potter (2011) argues is the only form of appropriate definition. A formal definition of mass media effect encompasses the definition of mass media, communication, encoding, channel and decoding processes (Jeffers, 1997, pp. 4-5). A number of difficulties arise when trying to formulate this type of definition as Jeffers (1997) found. He argues that the complexity of larger societal systems provide influence on the decoding of the message by the individual (pp. 4-5). Jeffers states that this results in any formal definition needing to incorporate the societal factors that are complex and difficult to define in their own right (pp. 4-5). He argues that researchers following a definition that does not include these social aspects may miss the actual influence and assign media culpability unjustly (Potter, 2011; Jeffers, 1997; Buckingham, 2006).

To add to the above confusion, Bryant and Zillmann (2009) suggest that when scholars discuss media effects from communicated messages they are considering the social or psychological changes that occur in consumers of the media message systems, or social milieu (p. 13). This requires a formal definition to include cultural values, behavioural, attitudinal, cognitive, emotional and physiological factors as they all influence media effects and inform how the communicated message has been understood (p. 13). The result has been that researchers have avoided this complex argument in favour of the assumed premise and no

clear definition has been formed (p. 13). Potter (2011), however, suggests that this complexity need not be avoided (p. 13). He argues that the clearest example of formal definition has been offered by McQuail (2005), who defined media effect as:

[T]he consequences or outcomes of the working of, or exposure to, mass media whether or not intended. They can be sought at different levels of social analysis. There are many types of effect, but it is usual to distinguish at least between effects that are behavioural, attitudinal (or affective) and cognitive. Effects are distinct from 'effectiveness', which relates to the efficiency of achieving a given communicative objective. (McQuail, 2005, p. 554)

It is from here that Potter (2011) launches his argument to move beyond the current definitions and propose his formal declaration of what media effect is (p. 902). However, scholars are yet to agree on Potter's (2011) proposal. Therefore, as we are investigating how the traditional research has been carried out I will confine the argument to the most often used definition - the ostensive method.

The *ostensive method* uses examples to define objects and is the typical definition used in media effects research when investigating how messages are understood by the receiver (Potter, 2011, p. 899). An example of ostensive method is how we grow to understand things as children. When a parent wishes a child to learn the language associated to an item, the parent will point to it and call the item the associated name. Potter (2011) uses the example of a "dog" citing that the parent will point at the four-legged animal and say "dog" in repetition until the child creates the appropriate recognition (p. 899). Potter (2011) warns, however, that the ostensive method only works up to a point as presentation of more examples creates confusion through a loss of value to the inferred patterns and requires the creation of extended patterns to increase the understanding of a theoretical construct (p. 899).

Potter (2011) suggests that the trial and error of these inferred patterns will be more valuable to develop classification rules that will result in new examples to be included or discarded allowing the individual to generate greater conceptualisation of the phenomenon under investigation (p. 900). While this argument may have validity in some instances, cognitive reasoning is based on the focus towards a phenomenon without interference (Willingham, 2007, p. 139). In the sense of television media, the bombardment of information through imagery, text, speech and sound all focused on a particular frame, creates a sense of connection towards our reasoning of the phenomena. This results in media messages being

understood in the frame of the sender through the messages intertextual construction and repetition, as I discuss below.

I suggest that this can profoundly impact relationships, company design, internal structure and individual performance. When an individual is faced with competing constructs from messages received from the sender's environment, hostility and resentment can occur resulting in low performance and lost relations (Dwyer, 2006, pp. 125-143). Further, individuals who, as a result of wanting to fit in, conform to the sender's message, may find themselves ostracised from their home culture resulting in a doomed if I do and doomed if I don't mentality. The result is poor performance and guarded interactions with peers (Dwyer, 2006, pp. 125-143). Understanding how media messages influence our culture plays an important role in how we communicate with each other, individual performance, and how corporate society will progress.

This is why I argue that researchers have primarily used the ostensive method in their research of media effects. It is because of the way it informs researchers how individuals receive and understand the sender's message (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998). With messages being sent from cultural perspectives all over the world, the receiver may very well become subjected to cultural biases that influence their self-esteem and result in reduced interactions with outside cultures.

COGNITION - "Ways we reason/understand the world around us"

Considering the above, I will discuss how communication of the message through media influences individual prejudices. Further, I will discuss how these messages help individuals to make decisions based on nothing more than the intertextual placement of the text and imagery.

Andre Kukla (2000) argued that we believe a position to be true simply because that position is based on our prior belief (p. 16). He also suggests that we are taught a set of fundamental values, for example a dog being good, through repetition of occurrence. In my example, our parents send a repeated message of how nice the dog is. This results in the receiver subscribing to the reality which grows out of repetition from that first message, that the dog is good (p. 16). Arguably, repetition from television news can hold the same effect as I discussed in the introduction. The repetition of dog attack messages swayed public opinion to fight for tougher dog control even though attacks had reduced (Marsh, Langley, & Gauld, 2007). The result is that messages can sway our opinion in both positive and negative ways depending on its framing and social standing, more on this below. Where the communicated

message is new, for example in young children, the message takes longer to gain a stronghold as the range of background experiences, described as the 'available' schema (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998, p. 53), is too limited to obtain complete, fast recognition of the message being communicated (Willingham, 2007). It is only through repetition over time that a child becomes fully acquainted with the system of language and idea on display.

Daniel Willingham (2007) expands on this argument with an explanation of our primary memory. Willingham (2007) suggests that as we build a mental image of the item, a "dog" for this example, which is initially constructed as an item with four legs and a tail that we simply label "dog". If asked to identify an individual item it becomes difficult as no individual labels or constructs have been made resulting in the individual just repeating dog. This can be seen in young children where you point at the dog's tail and the child yells "DOG" but does not identify the individual part you are trying to identify. It is only as the message is repeated over time that learnt separations of individual parts occur. These parts, for example limbs, ears, nose, etc., are then mentally constructed in the mind as labels on items that form arrows to locations on the image constructed for the first label of "dog". These are then stored in associated secondary memory blocks that allow individual identification as well as the connection to the whole, in this case the dog (pp. 144-149).

Secondary memory can only be created through repetition of exposure to the same imagery and construct so that the neurons strengthen and develop into strong structural pathways for recall (Willingham, 2007, pp. 149-152). This builds on Barnes and Bloor's (1982) argument to suggest that constructed knowledge is developed from our connection to our previous schema (p. 33). As in the dog example, we first build the picture of a dog in primary memory then construct its parts into the secondary resources and link the parts to the original picture. In this way, humans construct mental filing drawers that hold a file on dog with associated draws for each part allowing us to recall the information through associated meanings or schema. However, issues arise when the sender's message is not received according to normal understood rules. The result is that the labels are understood entirely differently to someone else's construct of the same thing and incorrect labels and locations may form (Willingham, 2007, pp. 144-149).

Barnes and Bloor (1982) posit that the viewing of any new item will be inextricably linked into the nexus of understanding of the item under observation (p. 33). Further, it is not until this new understanding is challenged that individuals consider that their understanding may be incorrect (p. 33). When this reasoning is applied to my constructed view of dogs then it is perceivable that I consider all dogs to have the same mean disposition as the dog I first

encountered as a child, despite any evidence to the contrary. This suggests that only through continued exposure to nice dogs, or discourse from people who consider dogs nice, can my perceptions alter (Kukla, 2000, pp. 18-24). This is because humans organise their perceptions into cognitive knowledge structures, which form the basis of decision making (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998, p. 53). Domke, et al. (1998) continue this argument with the proposition that where the object is familiar this 'accessible' schema facilitates and shapes the processing of information to provide the raw materials for individuals to evaluate and understand their 'social milieu'. This, they suggest, is done through over-sampling of the schema, which has a higher availability to familiar objects than obscure ones (p. 53).

Where an object is obscure, or as discussed in the child and element example not yet formed, individuals become more reliant on contextual cues, such as those found in media framing (p. 53). These contextual cues are subtly woven in television news messages through the placement of text and images that can say very different things. For example, the Rena disaster in New Zealand in 2011 was depicted by images of the captain being placed before the Courts with statements and imagery stating 'CHARGED' and speculation that he was drunk (Norquay, 2011; Stuff.co.nz, 2011). This resulted in some individuals convicting the man before the matter had even reached trial (Dunedin Press, 2011). The subtle placement of images of two police officers standing next to the captain, a normal Court process, the orange jacket looking very close to the American prisoner jump suit, and the strong media statements, all depicted a man of guilt.

Wyer and Srull (1989) suggest that cognitive structures or schema, that have been frequently activated through repetition of contextual cues, stay at the top of the mental bin for a short period of time (Wyer & Srull, 1989). Lyengar and Kinder (1987) argue that if these 'available' schemas are judged to be applicable, they may alter the basis for evaluating seemingly unrelated objects (p. 64). Lyemger and Kinder (1987) note that this does not necessarily aid in correct understanding as these schema do not take the entire realm of the individual's knowledge into account but only that knowledge that happens to come to mind (p. 64). This suggests that during media broadcasts people will evaluate their position on what they consider to strike at their values at the time of hearing the message (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998, p. 53). The evaluation of these messages, it is argued, is most likely to come from the group of 'accessible' schema that is still active in the recent memory. This recent schema may have been produced from previous news broadcasts or the most recent television program watched and unless the matter triggers some deep-seated value, then the message

will be interpreted according to the messages repeated depiction (Wyer & Srull, 1989, pp. 53-54).

van Dijk, cited by Stewart (2008), advances the argument by advocating that idiosyncratic and socially shared representations of knowledge, attitudes and beliefs are shaped by both the production and consumption of discourse (Stewart, 2008, p. 66). This suggests that discourse in media is subject to interpretation influenced by our preconceptions, prejudice and knowledge base (p. 68). These prejudices, etc. are subject to our most recent interactions which are either enhanced or created through media play (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998). This suggests that if an individual watches a news broadcast of a violent crime against a child, after watching CSI where a guilty man was not caught, then there is a possibility that the individual would argue for tougher criminal penalties. Further, this same individual may exude distaste for the accused before the trial had even begun as was seen in the Rena disaster broadcasts, discussed above.

This all suggests that individuals become influenced by messages that connect to contextual cues. The result, individuals make favourable or unfavourable responses based on nothing more than a peripheral understanding of the position from the immediate schema that has no direct reliance on the facts (Stewart, 2008, pp. 68-69). This serves to demonstrate how reasoning is dependent on schema held at the time we engage with decision-making. Many scholars discuss how these schemas' can be primed over time leading to conclusions that are suggested by the original sender's goals. This, they argue, is visible in advertising and political broadcasts. The following section will explore how media framing sets our cognitions in motion.

MEDIA INFLUENCE ON COGNITION

This section explores how media framing sets our cognitions in motion. I will begin with a look at media research in general and funnel down to the specific research on television news broadcasts.

Domke, McCoy and Torres (1999) argue that media prime information to attach simplistic meanings and activate inter-connectedness between cognitive meanings (p. 54). This builds upon Wright's (1974) argument that as a receiver attempts to relate the incoming message to existing belief systems, media properties may influence message acceptance (Wright, 1974, p. 195). Domke, McCoy and Torres (1999) collected data to test this hypothesis and see how news coverage may influence cognitive associations in individuals. They hypothesised that news media may trigger priming effects that, through spreading

activation, activate cognitive elements for decisions (p. 576). Their results suggested that news coverage had an influencing effect on the considerations of individuals and that news coverage played a direct role in influencing individual judgment in the tested scenarios (p. 590). This lends support to the argument that news media is in a position to prime individual's thoughts and activate associated cognitive elements (Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999, p. 591; Iyengar & Kinder, *News that Matters: Television and American Opinion*, 1987).

However, Lowrey (2009) argues that the greater socioeconomic status or social capital the weaker the influence media has on an individual's decision-making (Lowrey, 2009). This, he suggests, results from the individual searching a greater realm of resources developed from higher education. He hypothesised that different socio economic groups and statuses would be less susceptible to media influence to which his research data lends support. However, he also discovered that where the perception of threat was so great, such as during the September 11 terrorist broadcasts, even these socio economic groups became susceptible to media dependency and influence (pp. 344-353). This suggests that the media have the ability to influence all sectors of the public where the media can produce formidable looking imagery to capture audience attention. Further, it suggests that the media can reach selected audiences if the information is targeted to people with certain values regardless of the shock factor.

Price, Tewksbury and Powers (1997) support this view by arguing that framing effects help to render particular thoughts as applicable to the message being transmitted. "Framing Effects" are the salient attributes of a message such as thematic structure, organisation and content, (p. 486). Once these thoughts begin, the individual then summons other ideas and evaluations to bring together a train of thought building the schema (Price, Tewksbury, & Powers, 1997, p. 486). These schema, may be influenced from previous concepts repeated in media broadcasts (Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999; Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998). These may then build to develop the construct used for decision making. This combined schema from influence is then likely to produce a specific way of reasoning brought about by media framed messages, which is not the pure idea of the individual (Price, Tewksbury, & Powers, 1997, p. 498).

So for a moment let us return to the "Dog" example I began in the introduction. Through my experience with dogs, I have developed schema to argue that dogs are dangerous. With the media framing of dog related attacks over time my fear of dogs has become heightened and I argue that dogs are dangerous and tougher dog control is needed despite the decrease in actual dog attacks. According to the reasoning above, this train of thought will continue unless new information is brought into my schema allowing me to re-evaluate the

actual danger dogs pose. This can be said to be the same for any situation including our perceived realities of reformed criminals, homosexuals and race relations (Stewart, 2008; Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999; Thompson, 1988, pp. 48-53; Lane, Kang, & Banaji, 2007).

This demonstrates the power in media discourse. With correctly framed messages, repeated over a several weeks, and through the use of phrases, selected imagery and text placement, individuals can be guided to any understanding the sender wishes to cultivate (Martin & Rose, 2003). Further, when combined correctly this framing can create strong calls to an individual's value system and learned schema, which results in a decisive reaction to the content (Stewart, 2008, p. 69) based purely on emotions or logic (Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998; Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999). Either way the viewer's position can be guided to any outcome, through the sender's knowledge of the demographic (Rader & Haynes, 2011, pp. 292-300).

Therefore, if the dominant social beliefs of the day are repeatedly transmitted to audiences over time then the likely result is audiences will believe the transmitted beliefs as their own (Boghossian, 2001, pp. 8-10; Kukla, 2000). Further, from this view the media discourse has the power to drive the transmitted beliefs in a positive or negative direction depending on the agenda of the sender (Matsaganis & Payne, 2005). Support is lent to this line of reasoning by Baker (1987) and Lippmann (1922), who pointed out that peoples understanding of the world is a construct of the information that flows to them (Barker, 1987, p. 30) from observed facts that are dependent on where they are placed and the habits of their eyes (Lippmann, 1922, p. 54). Today information is readily flowed through television news, which has become the dominant sender of information to the public. This reinforces the idea that if we do not see a story in the media then it has effectively not happened (Cohen, 1963, p. 13).

With television news being the dominant form of news in the 21st century, one crucial question must be asked "What happens when these priming and framing effects are used in television news?" Evidence from media research shows that these influences are real and can produce deviance in society. Little, however, has been done to explore the more subtle effects on societies' general wellbeing. In this next section, I will show how little work has been done specifically on television news. I will therefore, explore the research that has been done in other media areas, such as computer games, movies, etc., so that it may inform the potential harm available within television news.

THE LITERATURE

Few researchers have looked into the influence television news media plays on individual's and even less have looked into the affect repeated exposure to the same media initiated ideals has on an individual's reasoning. Therefore, in this section I first look at the wider media research conducted before concluding with the few articles available that deal specifically with television news. In this way, I will outline how media effect, as a concern in other forms of media, is also of concern in television news.

Karl Marx (1818-83) proposed that the media, like all other capitalist institutions, are owned and controlled by the ruling elite who control the flow of messages to forward the interests of that class (cited in Jewkes, 2004, p. 16). This, Gramsci (1891-1937, cited in Jewkes, 2004, p. 16), developed further into what he coined 'media hegemony'. Gramsci's argument consisted of outlining how he saw the media process. This media process, Gramsci suggests, is where the ruling class gain approval through consent in social institutions such as law, education and family entertainment. This, Gramsci argues, is achieved through the reproduction of the elite ideals within the media representations made of these institutions. These media representations may consist of support, challenges to the dominant definitions, extension of an ideal, legitimization of a point of view, celebration or criticism of the prevailing discourses at any given time (Gramsci 1891-1937, cited in Jewkes, 2004, p. 16). Jewkes (2004) contends that this hegemony places the media in a crucial role in the winning of consent for the dominant social values and interests, or the rejection of them (p. 16).

Jewkes (2004) uses the research from the Glasgow University Media Group (GUMG) to illustrate this point. The GUMG, combined into a two-series volume by Philo (1995), undertook a series of studies based on empirical and semiotic analysis which looked into the biases of television news coverage relating to industrial conflicts, political disputes and acts of war. The GUMG's central finding in these studies is that television news represses the diversity of opinions in any given situation focusing instead on reproducing the dominant ideology and silencing contradictory opinion (Jewkes, 2004, p. 17). Jewkes (2004) uses the research of Hall and others about the riots of 1970 United States, to demonstrate. Here the authors argue, how the media increased moral panic about violent crime following increased mobilisation of police against black offenders (p. 18). This, Jewkes argues, set the scene for a revolving door of increased fear, fuelled by sensationalised media broadcasts, and black offenders being subjected to heavy-handed police treatment and court appearances, which were then, sensationalised back into media reports (p. 19).

These actions by the media are, however, not new. During the period of 1977-1999 a number of researchers', such as (Chibnall, 1977; Hall, Critcher, Jefferson, Clarke, & Roberts, 1978; Box, 1983; Schlesinger & Tumber, 1994; Kidd-Hewitt & Osborne, 1995; Osborne, 1995; Slapper & Tombs, 1999), pointed to media hegemony and its effects. Such scholars argue that media presentations of crime stories (both factual and fictional) selectively distort and manipulate public perceptions (Jewkes, 2004, p. 141). This they argue creates an oversimplification of facts creating a false picture in the minds of the public leading to stereotypes, bias, and prejudice (Jewkes, 2004, p. 141). Keating (2002) argues, using evidence from research conducted in a 1995 Ipsos MORI poll of the United Kingdom, that television news media obtain saturation of 66 percent of the public who have claimed a 33 percent increase in their fear of crime due to television news coverage.

Similar results have been presented from researches looking into other media types. Buckingham (2006) reviewed the effect of horror movies on children. He discovered that media profoundly influences a child's cognitive reasoning resulting in the development of appropriate responses to media stimuli (p. 282). These responses, Buckingham argues, varies depending on the knowledge present in the child's mind. He confirms cognitive research speculations that influence plays out in the mind of the individual through connecting the individual back to previous experiences resulting in the individual making a cognitive decision based on the similarity of the message being repeated. The result is the child taking an appropriate response based on this schema, in some cases diving behind the chair for safety, and arguably grows into stronger patterns of fear or anxiety as an adult (p. 282). Buckingham (2006) is also quick to point out that different children will create different responses. In the case of horror films, Buckingham suggests that children can create coping mechanisms' through the understanding that the characters are fictional (pp. 282-283). However, he also recognises that where the information is presented with credibility, such as in television news, cognitive choice becomes impaired by the media reality of the situation and results in increased fear and anxiety (pp. 282-283). Buckingham uses the 1992 program *Ghostwatch* as an example. Here the television program, transmitted during Halloween by the BBC, was presented as a real account with news reporters and witnesses acting out encounters with creatures from the spirit world. The report was presented in such a realistic form that children all over the UK considered the message plausible resulting in increased anxiety and belief towards the supernatural (p. 283).

In 2003, Carter and Weaver argued that media effects have far-reaching negative influences on social attitudes (pp. 28-29). Citing the case of Mr King in the United States, Carter and Weaver, provide credible evidence of the news media's influence towards these racial tensions. They suggest that the media reporting of Mr King's incident with police undermined his claims of police brutality due to the deliberate editing of videotape evidence (p. 31). This line of argument is continued with a discussion of media portrayals' of sexual assaults. They argue that the medias framing of these offences leaves distrust in the mind of the public as to whether the victim is making it up or worse, asking themselves the question 'was she asking for it' (pp. 28-29). Their research highlights the influence that the media exert over the viewer and confirm that construction and repetition influences the understanding of the viewer's world. To Carter and Weaver the influence of media on the individual's knowledge and understanding was a 'no brainer'. Their research provided a considerable body of information confirming how violence in computer games, movies and entertainment had a profound effect on deviant behaviour of youth. To them the entire scholarly work undertaken on the media violence debate needed a radical rethink to the acceptance of media influence (p. 161). In their conclusion they support the ideal of free speech, as long as it is free speech for everyone and not just upper class white folk. Further, they argue that media influence needs to be seen for what it is - 'a cultural identity of US values and folk lore that is distributed on the rest of the world' (p. 166). To them this global capitalism produces toxic side effects in deviant behaviour that develops from the media violence subjected on an unsuspecting viewer (Carter & Weaver, 2003, p. 161).

In 1995 the National Cable and Television Association undertook a National Television Violence Survey (NTVS) to determine the physical risk associated with watching media violence (Hill, 2006, p. 85). The NTVS explained, from the results, the risks associated with watching media violence where learning how to behave violently, becoming desensitised to violence and becoming more fearful of being attacked (Hill, 2006, p. 85). The NTVS presents evidence of more than 18,000 violent interactions on television (Hill, 2006, p. 86), a number that has arguably increased today. Scull, Kupersmidt, Parker, Almore, and Benson, (2010) suggest, in their research, that 12 to 17 year olds spend an average of 8.5 hours per day watching television (p. 983). While watching these teens are subjected to a range of behaviour such as violence, drugs and alcohol consumption, and tobacco use (p. 983). This Scull et al., (2010) suggest, often results in the teens' taking up the same behaviour due to identification with the theme. Where that theme presents a positive outcome, Scull et al., suggest that the teen will be more likely to take up the habit or behaviour (pp. 983-984). They continue with

the argument that this is due to the realism of the presented medium and the attractiveness of the message, models and peers presenting the idea (pp. 983-984). They argue that this is the same effect regardless of the medium used and cite computer games, television and music in their examples (p. 983). When this is combined with an understanding of how we reason and the instruction of our parents, peers and social constructs - the need to fit in for example - it is arguable that we become more susceptible to influence. Further, the more credibility the sender is perceived to have the more the social group, or individual, accepts the message changing their belief, behaviour or attitude to suit (p. 983). I would argue that television news exerts such an influence as it frames the information to inflame social opinion - through, it is argued, a biased report (see the discussion above) - reinforced by the concerns from parents and peers on the same issue. However, little research has been done directly on television news and these potential influences.

Price, Tewksbury and Powers (1997), one of the few, undertook such an investigation into television news. They ran two studies side by side to see how audiences would be affected by journalistic framing in news from television and newspapers. Two hundred and seventy-eight students took part in the study where Price, et al. subjected the participants to four randomly assigned versions all containing the same information, but varying in their opening and closing paragraphs according to the frame employed. These frames were based upon human interest, conflict, or personal consequences. A control study was included in the random four that provided only the common body. Their findings indicate that the way news is framed can affect perceptions of issues and people in the news (Price, Tewksbury, & Powers, 1997, p. 500). Further, the findings indicate that by prompting the activation of certain constructs at the expense of others, frames can directly influence what enters the minds of audience members. However, their studies did not deal with the discourse provided in television broadcast over a long period. Instead, the study focused on initial influence at the point of the study. Despite this, however, the study shows that individuals changed their opinions based on the way the message was framed that resulted in prejudices being heightened or lessened.

Another study conducted by Allan Thompson (1988) investigated the affects of news media and international relations. Thompson (1988) begins his study with the background of media importance and how Plato's cave was an inspiration to his research (p. 40). Thompson (1988) argues that humans are all prisoners to perception developed from a restricted set of ideals based on what we think the world is like. This he argues is developed from media information and personal experience, not the factual matrix that actually exists (pp. 40-41).

For Thompson the media produce a reality that is developed from screens and filters. he argues that the factual matrix humans accept is only developed from the information that we are delivered. This he suggests is not necessarily the 'truth' but the 'truth' of the deliverer (Thompson, 1988).

The last article I was able to find is from Iyengar, Peters and Kinder (1982), who tested how individuals would react where the news broadcast was changed to one of their choosing. To test if media agenda setting can affect public judgement news reports were recorded and adjusted to insert and remove non-test conditions. The set the parameters' based on the accepted demand of agenda setting requirements. This demand states that viewers adjust their beliefs about the importance of the problem in response to repeated coverage of the issue (p. 851). Their findings confirmed that the more a report is repeated the more individuals are influenced by the framed message and its perceived seriousness (p. 855). Further, the research suggests that the more naive a person is to a given situation the more susceptible they become (p. 855).

While these articles where few they provide valuable insights into the effect of television news and how it can influence decision-making processes. Further, they confirm that an individual's perspective of the severity of a problem can be swayed through the framing of the message as developed by the sender. This framing is argued to have a direct connection to fear, which promotes reactive policymaking and panic selling on share markets (Jewkes, 2004; Sunstein, 1990). Smitherman and van Dijk (1998) argue that prejudices are reinforced by media debates that focus on morality of the situation, such as criminal activity, further developing a discourse that leads to discrimination (pp. 77-80). They suggest that when these discussions haemorrhage into public policy, for example statements made by the governing or religious bodies in the news with no opposing view, society develops a position of belief forming bias that is adopted as the "truth" (Bennis, Goleman, O'Toole, & Biederman, 2008). This is because the public, in general, consider the news to be an unbiased provider of information which is disputed by authors such as Xiang and Savary (2007) and Thompson (1988). These authors argue that the news is not unbiased (Xiang & Sarvary, 2007, p. 611; Thompson, 1988, p. 41) leaving the question if societies prejudices are being influenced by media framing?

Sunstein (1990) discusses how terrorism and disasters, in recent times, have been reported to such an extent in media channels it has resulted in the economy taking a number of hits through lack of consumer confidence. He continues with a look at how the increase in crime shows, and broadcasts of criminal offences, has heightened prejudice against reformed

convicted. This, he argues, has resulted in tougher regulation imposed at the expense of freedom (p. 32). From Sunstein's point of view, television news produces a range of anxieties and prejudices' that results in a number of stereotypes being reinforced. This he argues causes a chasm between the equality of the elite and the equality of everyone else (p. 32). With the world moving towards equality and the global market place media influence has a profound impact on leadership at cooperate and governance levels. With information, being framed in patterns of intolerance, the continued rise in prejudice will see countries and corporations left out in the cold.

Above I have reviewed a range of research that investigates the cognitive interaction of media and individual reasoning. As we have seen this research has been primarily focused on media effect's theory and the influence that media can exert. Arguments from Sunstein (1990), Thompson (1988) and Iyengar et al. (1982), show how television news is no exception to the provision of this influence. However, the research to date has distinct gaps in the effect that television news has on business prejudices for hiring reformed felons. Further, the long term effects of repetition from reinforced stereotypes and prejudices have not been investigated. This leaves me wondering what prejudices have been developed within my psyche from media framing and what are my own. If, as these authors suggest, media hegemony is so strong then individuals are only as individual as the media influence them to be. If this question is true, then have I really had a thought that has not been developed or created by media framing?

This resulting question requires an investigation into our own prejudices to see if they are built upon the prejudices of the images we view and teachings we receive from these media messages. If framing and repeated exposure can introduce belief schema then surely long-term exposure of arguments surrounding race, crime, or any other indifference framed in political or prejudicial ways must have an effect on our value system? It is possible that many individuals have prejudices against reformed criminals without awareness simply because negative reports towards crime are repeated on the nightly news. It is also possible that individuals begin to distrust particular societal groups - this is any group different to the reported status quo - based solely on repeated exposure to framed reports.

This then begs the question that if television news can produce such negative effects then it must also be able to provide a positive influence. To date I have been unable to find any research that looks into this question. The body of research has revealed a range of positive media news research but it has only been focused on branding and company social

responsibility. This leaves a distinctive gap in television news research. As it is a predominant part of our lives, I argue that both negative and positive research needs to be conducted.

What is clear from the research is that the implications for policy makers and business leaders alike is the need to determine their position within human rights infrastructure and how they develop their message for delivery. The ability to damage relationships and individual performance has become a high risk due to this framing of messages. I, therefore, propose in the next section some positive suggestions for managing this minefield of media influence.

EFFECTS ON BUSINESS LEADERSHIP; Discussion and Implications

So far, I have looked at the impact of media effects on individual cognition. I have traversed the edifice of cognitive reasoning and media influence on individual construction of their world. I have looked at a body of research that investigates the negative impacts media framing has and its potential to create prejudice. Now I will turn to how business leaders and policy makers can become skilled at understanding and avoiding these influences.

Individuals subjected to framing and influences from media sources provide a number of implications for managers. These range from employment relations to consumer (defined as, retail customers, shareholders and cultural partnerships) relations. In every aspect of our society, we communicate messages to develop relationships and performance. Our placement of imagery and the language we use is based on sets of rules that we assume creates understanding towards our message. These rules help us in our everyday creation of internal memos, press releases, crisis management and corporate culture aiding in the reinforcement of the companies/societal value system. However, as I have discussed above, the sender can only assume that the message is being understood in the way that the sender is trying to portray. As I have discussed, messages may be predetermined by schema already developed from messages within television news media that is different to the values being sent. Further, as our messages transverse the global landscape these values may not accord with the receiver due to social, cultural and education boundaries. The value of prejudice that society holds in one country maybe shunned by another that has criminal implications for business managers.

To illustrate this I will begin with outlining an example where television media may influence these prejudices and discuss the implications as our business leaders expand to other counties. In my line of work as a legal consultant, I have encountered a number of people who have been refused employment due to a previous criminal record. They were informed that the company policy was to refuse to hire or contract with individuals who have a prior

criminal conviction, regardless of its significance. The Human Rights concerns internationally on this policy attitude have resulted in some countries implementing laws to prosecute any business holding such a policy (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2005; Lam & Harcourt, 2003). These policies have been developed in line with the Human Rights Commission and the international protocols such as the International Convention of Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). Yet some business leaders and policy makers remain firm to these prejudices despite research showing that reformed criminals are least likely to reoffend (Blumstein & Nakamura, 2009, pp. 328-331).

Research suggests strong correlations to news media influence on preconceptions that form prejudice (Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999; Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998) and it becomes difficult to confirm if our prejudices are our own, or those developed from television news influence. I argue that these prejudices are reinforced through media placement of text, body language and speech, which is prevalent throughout television news imagery, and results in reinforcement of negativity towards reformed criminals (Holtgraves & Kashima, 2008, pp. 74-75). Arguably, the placement of images and text used in television news broadcasts is designed to provoke an emotional response (Holtgraves & Kashima, 2008, pp. 74-78) designed to attract audiences through their realistic nature. This, it is suggested, is done to saturation so it becomes an integral part of the cultural constructions of society (Holtgraves & Kashima, 2008, pp. 74-78). I propose that prejudices towards reformed criminals, race or sex are built on this foundation of normalcy, produced within television news imagery and text, and that these prejudices based on framing may very well not be our own. This may doom leaders to judge individuals purely on their proverbial cover and not on their merits. I suggest that this results in the undermining of the very foundation of equality that we continually argue to protect within our Human Rights framework. The likely result is heightened discrimination and a society of relentless retribution.

With convictions reaching 1.7 million, excluding traffic offences, in New Zealand during 1999-2008 (MOJ, 2009) it is a rarity to find a manager who does not have an employee with a conviction. The concerns raised over this lead the New Zealand Government to implement the Criminal records (Clean Slate) Act 2004 to prevent minor convictions carrying a lifetime of discrimination. Other countries, such as Australia, have gone even further implementing legislation to prevent discrimination towards any type of previous conviction from employment (Australian Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 2005). The legal responsibility created on today's leaders is to remove any prejudicial mindset or face criminal conviction themselves (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2005). Managers

must, therefore, look behind the prejudices and understand that these maybe constructed rather than real. With television news portraying offences at every turn and repeating messages of repeat offending it is easy to be caught up in the mindset of prejudice being delivered. Television news reporters have become experts in designing reports to draw emotional response and develop a picture of incessant behaviour. This is taught in education environments as good journalism (Rich, 2005).

However, these prejudices from framing will only serve to see business leaders brought before disciplinary tribunals in many jurisdictions. Therefore, business leaders need to keep an open mind towards potential employees, judging them based on more objective terms, such as temporal distance from the offence, type of offence and the current role being undertaken (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2005). To do otherwise damages the reformation principles inherent within the legal systems (Re Owen, 2005; Blumstein & Nakamura, 2009, p. 328) and places the manager and business at risk.

The second issue, that of ‘consumer interaction’ as defined above, results from television news reporting emotive messages towards the economy and terrorism. This has the potential to undermine business and Government messages of improvement designed to gain favour or sell product (Woodward, 2005). These can be undermined at the drop of a hat through framed reports of problems based purely on the reality developed for the television news broadcast. The result is business decisions being placed into jeopardy as dutiful consumers become reluctant to purchase and investors rush to exit financial markets when the television news broadcast a perceived threat (Ganaplsky & Schmulker, 1998, pp. 14-15). One such example follows from the investors’ knowledge of the 1987 share market crash. Investors, having built a schema connected to the crash faced in 1987, carefully watch the market for signs of another reoccurrence (Frankel, 2008, p. 596). While naive investors building the same schema, but connecting it in a very different light, watched the news for shock revelations and then panic sell at the first sign a crash maybe on its way (Frankel, 2008, pp. 596-600). This panic selling eventually creates the very prospect the naive seller was worried about, in a self-fulfilling prophecy (Frankel, 2008, p. 596).

This also occurs during repetition of television news broadcasts when they transmit doom and gloom regarding the retail sector. In 2002 Murray, M. outlined that despite the terrorist concerns the United States gross domestic product was producing growth and that economists’ actually doubted if the United States where in a recession (Murray, 2002). As he illustrates the continued doom and gloom reporting from the television news surrounding terrorism continued, which ultimately saw consumers, defined above, stop spending. The

result was a form of self-protection from consumers' that threw the economy into the very recession that the economy was seeking to avoid (The Washington post, 2003, p. E2; Znaimer, 2001). Leaders of today, therefore, need to rethink how media influence is affecting their bottom line. Further, development of marketing strategies to cope with the ever-increasing negativity is but one way to avoid the pitfalls of media influence. I will now outline a couple of strategies that may help.

One way to help is to take a step back and look at the business values and ideals. What do you, my reader, believe as an individual? What does the company stand for? Are you personally about people or profit? What about the business? To understand these questions try developing some future scenarios to see how thing will turn out if the business continues with the values it has. For me, my business is focused on people. My motto is "*I could have been rich but I decided to put people first*". Figuring out what the underlying value is for both the business and you personally, help leaders to see if the values are clashing. If they are what affect is that having on the internal and external communications with employees and customers. If you find that your value is having a negative impact you will start to see that this affects how customers trust the business or government policy to be delivered.

This insight into the current business model will aid to highlight potential pitfalls and directions not previously seen (Curry, 2007). The process of scenario building allows leaders to clear away old ideals and open their minds to possibilities, which can lead to innovation, positive direction, and greater trust (Curry, 2007, p. 340). The use of scenario building helps today's leaders to see value shifts in meso and micro trends, which allows businesses to adapt to the shifting market (Curry, 2007, pp. 356-357). Leaders may then develop clear and decisive communication to reinforce the business values and gain consumer confidence. In turn, this will impact the negativity from television news and strengthen consumer relations. The leader can then produce a range of marketing initiatives that focus on their customers changed or renewed values increasing the likely hood of customer return and profit (Curry, 2007, pp. 357-358).

It is also important that leaders consider carefully how to approach their specific message with consideration of its delivery. The way receivers understand the message is subject to a number of contrasting positions based on social environment education, culture and media broadcasts within the receiver's local area. Television news exploits this through a focused interaction of imagery and text that pulls at the local emotions of the community (Rich, 2005; Domke, Shah, & Wackman, 1998; Xiang & Sarvary, 2007). Therefore, the message must be developed with these factors clearly identified before the message is created.

Failure to observe the press releases and television events of the moment can have dire results for how the message is understood.

CONCLUSION

The lack of definition into media discourse and media effect, while posing some difficult complexity, has not detracted from the valuable research into media influence. As I have discussed, the ability of media to persuade our understanding, from the placement of imagery and text, leaves individuals charmed by the media framed “truth”. Research shows that this “truth” is subject to bias through what is not shown, rather than what is (Xiang & Sarvary, 2007). Moreover, with enough repetition and time individuals frequently adopt the messages being sent into their belief system and rely on it to make decisions, unless some deeper value is being challenged (Thompson, 1988; Iyengar, Peters, & Kinder, 1982; Barnes & Bloor, 1982).

Further, the message repetition builds on the first value from the first message, resulting in the message becoming the dominant schema that individuals use, rather than relying on factual evidence to make decisions (Kukla, 2000). Research has found that the message does not even have to have an exact connection to the original message. With enough repetition, even remote questions may result in individuals reacting with the same decision or prejudice as determined by the original schema, as long as a connection to a held value can be drawn (Willingham, 2007).

When looked at in relation to prejudice, it is possible to draw a connection to media framing as a cause of prejudicial thinking (Chibnall, 1977; Carter & Weaver, 2003; Buckingham, 2006). This is even more dominant where the source of the prejudice has credibility (Jewkes, 2004; Buckingham, 2006). Research has studied this phenomenon and discovered that media does have a profound influence on how individuals reason (Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999; Carter & Weaver, 2003; Buckingham, 2006). Further, the glance at television news establishes strong influential effects on individual schemas from news broadcasts (Domke, McCoy, & Torres, 1999; Lowrey, 2009). Further research is needed into the effect of television news on our beliefs’. Are our beliefs’ truly our own, or are they some constructed television news version?

Today Television news permeates every part of our living space and repeatedly reminds of the problems we face in ignorance of any opposing view (Xiang & Sarvary, 2007; Znaimer, 2001). Leaving individuals to construct their world as delivered (Boghossian, 2001; Barker, 1987; Buckingham, 2006; Carter & Weaver, 2003; Kukla, 2000). If the delivery is

negative then we are likely to become a pessimistic society and self fulfil prophecies of destruction and economic disaster built from fear of its occurrence. Further, I question if media constructed positive information, would it change individual behaviour? Research into corporate responsibility suggests that it may. Further research is needed specifically into this area.

In addition, television news may be providing constructed views that develop discriminatory schema. This is because of the negatively framed position of race, crime and disasters in television news reports. The anxiety and fear towards crime and terrorism has become heightened by many television news reports suggesting detrimental effects on the ability for criminals to rehabilitate. This prejudicial effect results in a kind of self-fulfilling prophecy, as we get tougher towards repeat offending resulting in persecution rather than rehabilitation. Further research is needed into whether there is an effect from long-term development of these framed biases. Further, is television news really to blame for these prejudicial biases or is it just good journalism that incites an individuals existing precondition?

While valuable data into these framing affects and triggering of priming decision has been provided by researchers, little has been carried out directly into television news. This leaves these questions unanswered. Framed views of reformed criminals need to be checked against the reality it creates in our social structure and if policy is being developed in the right way for society's future. Further, there is a real need to determine how leaders perceive reformed criminals and if this is created by television news framing or prejudice from other factors. This is because today's leaders make the decisions on education and employment of these individuals. Denial of the ex offender to these opportunities only seeks to enhance our criminal landscape. If research does show that television news has effect on how individuals develop prejudice, then are we being fair by implementing tougher penalties rather than rehabilitation policies? Ultimately, society cannot expect crime to reduce if it refuses employment based on ones past errors that can be corrected by education.

Further, research is also needed in the areas of television news that generates fear. We must ask if this fear is real, or generated to encourage viewers to watch through extreme imagery? It is also a question of how much repetition is actually needed before the television news framing changes our beliefs'? Long term research is needed in this area as it is only through answering these questions that we can fully understand the impact framing has on our social ideology.

The review I have undertaken in this paper has resulted in more questions being posed than answers in the realm of television news. The literature and research done so far leaves a number of gaps, which need answers. However, the research does show that our understanding of the way individuals see the social environment is subject to influence from the media, which, I argue, must include the television news. I have seen that this influence encourages the individual to think according to predefined rules developed from the ruling elite. Further, I have seen how these rules develop prejudice in the mind of the observer through the intertextual use of material. I now have a deep understanding of how our everyday concepts are all developed from those who control the flow of information. The subtle placement of images to portray messages that may be independent of the story being told leaves the receiver with an understanding that is not independent of the sender. This is because these rules are subject to the sender's design, which influences, reinforces, or creates the individuals' everyday thoughts and prejudices.

With our world moving to protection of human right values, business may find themselves prosecuted for prejudices developed from media construction not realising they are doing wrong. Business may find that their ideals surrounding employment are not their own, but those of the media framed influence on policy. Further, these fears and anxieties developed may see society spiralling up and down on economic and political wakes. This area alone requires further research as political policies may hinge on the best actor rather than policy merits. The fears, being created from a framed doom and gloom perspective, may also impinge our economy, as investors and retail consumers withdrawing from markets creating downturns and instability.

This ability of television news to enter the home and tell us what to think has very real consequences for future generations and requires detailed research for the health of society as a whole. Therefore, I advocate that, those in higher economic positions, and education, must take up the mantle to help individuals understand these effects to avoid the coming problems I identify in this paper.

Works Cited

- 3 News. (2010, 12 23). *Dog attack leaves woman in hospital*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Dog-attack-leaves-woman-in-hospital/tabid/423/articleID/192224/Default.aspx>
- 3 News. (2009, August 29). *Dog attack victim returns home after 'spectacular recovery'*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Dog-attack-victim-returns-home-after-spectacular-recovery/tabid/423/articleID/118807/Default.aspx>
- 3 News. (2009, August 4). *Husband of dog attack victim recalls the accident*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Husband-of-dog-attack-victim-recalls-the-accident-/tabid/423/articleID/115225/Default.aspx>
- 3 News. (2007, August 6). *Man saves child from vicious dog attack*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Man-saves-child-from-vicious-dog-attack/tabid/303/articleID/32031/Default.aspx>
- 3 News. (2008, 2 7). *Toddler loses ear in dog attack*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Toddler-loses-ear-in-dog-attack/tabid/423/articleID/45433/Default.aspx>
- 3 News. (2010, 1 25). *Vicious dog attack on five-year-old girl*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Vicious-dog-attack-on-five-year-old-girl/tabid/423/articleID/138712/Default.aspx>
- 3 News. (2011, May 29). *Young girl attacked by dog*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from 3 News: <http://www.3news.co.nz/Young-girl-attacked-by-dog/tabid/423/articleID/213084/Default.aspx>
- Australian Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission. (2005). *On the record*. Retrieved 05 15, 2011, from Australian Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission: http://www.humanrights.gov.au/human_rights/criminalrecord/Criminal_record.pdf
- Australian Human Rights Commission. (2005, November). *On the Record: Guidelines for the prevention of discrimination in employment on the basis of criminal record*. Retrieved April 7, 2011, from Human Rights: On the Record: http://www.hreoc.gov.au/human_rights/criminalrecord/on_the_record/download/otr_guidelines-01.pdf
- Barker, M. (1987). Mass Media Studies and the Question of Ideology. *Radical Philosophy* 46:1 , 27-33.
- Barnes, B., & Bloor, D. (1982). On the extensions of concepts and the growth of knowledge. *Sociological Review* 30 , 23-44.
- Bennis, W., Goleman, D., O'Toole, J., & Biederman, P. W. (2008). *Transparency: How Leaders Create a Culture of Candor*. CA: Jose-Bass.
- Blumstein, A., & Nakamura, K. (2009). Redemption in the Presence of Widespread Criminal Background Checks. *American Society of Criminology* , 327-358.
- Boghossian, P. (2001). What is Social Construction? *Times Literary Supplement* , 6-8.

Box, S. (1983). *Power, Crime and Mystification*. London: Tavistock.

Bryant, J., & Zillmann, D. (2009). A retrospective and prospective look at media effects. In R. L. Nabi, & M. B. Oliver (eds), *The Sage handbook of media processes and effects* (pp. 9-17). Los Angeles: Sage.

Buckingham, D. (2006). Children Viewing Violence. In C. K. Weaver, & C. Carter (eds.), *Issues in Cultural and Media Studies, Critical readings: Violence and the Media* (pp. 279-288). NY: Open University Press.

Carter, C., & Weaver, C. K. (2003). *Violence and the Media*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Chibnall, S. (1977). *Law and Order News*. London: Tavistock.

Cohen, B. C. (1963). *The Press and Foreign Policy*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Curry, A. (2007). Acting on the future. In B. Sharpe, & K. van der Heijden (eds.), *Scenarios for success: Turning insight into action* (pp. 339-371). Chichester: John Wiley.

Domke, D., McCoy, K., & Torres, M. (1999). News Media, Racial Perceptions, and Political Cognition. *Communication Research* , 570-607.

Domke, D., Shah, D. V., & Wackman, D. B. (1998). Media Priming Effects: Accessibility, Association, and Activation. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research Vol. 10 No. 1* , 51-74.

Dunedin Press. (2011, October 12). *Opinion : Rena ship wreck captain guilty of act of terrorism*. Retrieved November 26, 2011, from Dunedin Guardian:
<http://dunedinguardian.wordpress.com/2011/10/12/1290/>

Dwyer, J. (2006). *The Business Communication Handbook (7th ed.)*. NSW: Pearson Education Australia.

Foucault, M. (1969). *Foucault: Archaeology of Knowledge*. London: Routledge 2002.

Frankel, D. (2008). Adaptive Expectations and Stock Market Crashes. *International Economic Review* 49:2 , 595-619.

Ganaplsky, E., & Schmulker, S. (1998, 1). *The Impact of Policy Announcements and News on Capital Markets: Crisis Management in Argentina During the Tequila Effect*. Retrieved 10 13, 2011, from Ministry of Economy (Ministerio de Economla y Finanzas Publicas):
<http://cdi.mecon.gov.ar/biblio/docelec/SM/SM1199.pdf>

Garrett, P., & Bell, A. (1998). Media and Discourse: A Critical Overview. In A. Bell, & P. Garrett (eds.), *Approaches to Media Discourse* (pp. 1-20). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Grossberg, L., Wartella, E., & Whitney, D. C. (1998). *Mediamaking: Mass media in a popular culture*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Hall, S., Critcher, C., Jefferson, T., Clarke, J., & Roberts, B. (1978). *Policing the Crisis: Mugging, the State and Law and Order*. London: Macmillan.

Lloyd Gallagher

Hill, A. (2006). The Social Amplification of Risk and the Media Violence Debate. In C. K. Weaver, & C. Carter, *Critical readings: Violence and the Media* (pp. 83-94). New York: Open University Press.

Holtgraves, T., & Kashima, Y. (2008). Language, Meaning, and Social Cognition. *Personality and Social Psychology Review* , 73-94.

Iyengar, S., & Kinder, D. (1987). *News that Matters: Television and American Opinion*. Chicago: Chicago press.

Iyengar, S., Peters, M., & Kinder, D. (1982). Experimental Demonstrations of the "Not-So-Minimal" Consequences of Television News Programs. *The American Political Science Review* 76:4 , 848-858.

Jeffers, L. W. (1997). *Mass media effects (2nd ed.)*. Prospect Heights: Waveland.

Jewkes, Y. (2004). *Media & Crime*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Keating, M. (2002). Media most foul: fear of crime and media. In A. Boranm (ed), *Crime: Fear or Fascination*. Chester: Chester Academic Press.

Kidd-Hewitt, D., & Osborne, R. (1995). *Crime and the Media: The Post-Modern Spectacle*. London: Pluto.

Kukla, A. (2000). *Social Constructivism and the Philosophy of Science*. NY: Routledge.

Lam, H., & Harcourt, M. (2003). The Use of Criminal Record in Employment Decisions: The Rights of Ex-offenders, Employers and the Public. *Journal of Business Ethics* , 237-252.

Lane, K., Kang, J., & Banaji, M. (2007). Implicit Social Cognition and Law. *Annu. Rev. Law. Soc. Sci.* , 427-451.

Lazarsfeld, P. F. (1948). Communication research and the social psychologist. In W. Dennis (ed), *Current trends in social psychology* (pp. 218-273). Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Lippmann, W. (1922). *Public Opinion*. NY: Harcourt.

Lowrey, W. (2009). Media Dependency During a Large-Scale Social Disruption: The Case of September 11. *Mass Communication and Society* , 37-41.

Marsh, L., Langley, J., & Gauld, R. (2007). Dog Bite Injuries. *Journal of the New Zealand Medical Association* , 120(1259), 1-9.

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with Discourse: Meaning beyond the clause (2nd ed.)*. NY: Continuum.

Matsaganis, M. D., & Payne, G. (2005). Agenda Setting in a Culture of Fear: The lasting Effects of September 11 on American Politics and Journalism. *The American Behavioral Scientist* , 379-392.

McQuail, D. (2005). *McQuail's Mass Communication Theory (5th ed.)*. London: Sage Publishing Ltd.

Mills, S. (2004). *Discourse*. London: Routledge.

- MOJ. (2009). *Statistical Bulletin: Conviction and Sentencing Statistics in New Zealand 1999-2008*. Wellington: Ministry of Justice.
- Morley, D. (1992). *Television, audiences, and cultural studies*. London: Routledge.
- Murray, M. (2002). Terrorist coverage affects retail market. *Real Estate Finance Today* 19:5 , 9.
- Nabi, R. L., & Oliver, M. B. (2009). Introduction. In R. L. Nabi, & M. B. Oliver (eds), *The Sage handbook of media processes and effects* (pp. 1-5). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Norquay, K. (2011, October 12). *Rena's captain had good record, company says*. Retrieved November 26, 2011, from Stuff.co.nz: <http://www.stuff.co.nz/environment/rena-crisis/5772158/Renas-captain-had-good-record-company-says>
- Osborne, R. (1995). Crime and the media: from media studies to post-modernism. In D. Kidd-Hewitt, & R. Osborne (eds), *Crime and the Media: The Postmodern Spectacle*. London: Pluto.
- Philo, G. (1995). *The Glasgow University Media Group Reader, Vols I and II*. London: Routledge.
- Potter, W. J. (2011). Conceptualizing Mass Media Effect. *Journal of Communication* 61 , 896-915.
- Price, V., Tewksbury, D., & Powers, E. (1997). Switching trains of thought: the impact of news frames on reader's cognitive responses. (Special Issue: Cultural Variability in Communication). *Communication Research* 24:5 , 481-507.
- Rader, N., & Haynes, S. (2011). Gendered Fear of Crime Socialization : An Extension of Akers's Social Learning Theory. *Feminist Criminology* 6:4 , 291-307.
- Re Owen, 2 NZLR 536 (High Court 2005).
- Rich, C. (2005). *Writing and Reporting News: A Coaching Method (4th ed.)*. CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Schlesinger, P., & Tumber, H. (1994). *Reporting Crime: the Media Politics of Criminal Justice*. Oxford: Clarendon.
- Scull, T., Kupersmidt, J., Parker, A., Almore, K., & Benson, J. (2010). Adolescents' Media-related Cognitions and Substance Use in the Context of Parental and Peer Influences. *J Youth Adolescence* 39 , 981-998.
- Sharpe, M., Burgess, D., & Fisher, A. (2010, 1 27). *Calls for tougher dog control laws re-ignite*. Retrieved September 3, 2011, from Stuff.co.nz: <http://www.stuff.co.nz/national/crime/3264254/Calls-for-tougher-dog-control-laws-re-ignited>
- Slapper, G., & Tombs, S. (1999). *Corporate Crime*. London: Longman.
- Smitherman, G., & van Dijk, T. A. (1998). *Discourse and Discrimination*. Michigan: Wayne State University.
- Stewart, C. (2008). Social cognition and discourse processing goals in the analysis of `ex-gay' rhetoric. *Discourse Society* 19 , 63-83.

Stuff.co.nz. (2011, 10 12). *Rena disaster: Second officer charged, cracks in ship*. Retrieved 10 14, 2011, from Stuff.co.nz: <http://www.stuff.co.nz/environment/5770592/Rena-disaster-Second-officer-charged-cracks-in-ship>

Sunstein, C. R. (1990). *After the Rights Revolution: Reconceiving the Regulatory State*. Cambridge: First Harvard University Press.

Talbot, M. (2007). *Media Discourse: Representation and Interaction*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University press.

Tetlock, P. E. (1989). Structure and function in political belief system. In A. R. Pratkanis, S. J. Breckler, & A. (. Greenwald, *Attitude Structure and Function* (pp. 129-151). NJ: Erlbaum.

The Washington post. (2003, March 29). Consumers Curb Spending. *The Washington post* , E2.

Thompson, A. (1988). The News Media and International Relations: Experience and the Media Reality. *Canadian Journal of Communication* 13(1) , 39-54.

Traudt, P. J. (2005). *Media, audiences, effects: an introduction to the study of media content and audience analysis*. Boston: Pearson.

Willingham, D. T. (2007). *Cognition: The Thinking Animal (3rd ed.)*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Woodward, D. (2005). When incorrectness is a political ploy. *Director* 58:9 , 38.

Wright, P. (1974). Analyzing Media Effects on Advertising Responses. *The Public Opinion Quarterly* 38:2 , 192-205.

Wyer, R., & Srull, T. (1989). *Memory and Cognition in its Social Context*. Hillsdale: Erlbaum.

Xiang, Y., & Sarvary, M. (2007). News Consumption and Media Bias. *Marketing Science*, 26(5) , 611-628.

Znaimer, L. (2001). The business of bad news. *Maclean's* 114:45 , 14.

Lloyd Gallagher

About the Author

Lloyd Gallagher the founder of Gallagher & Co has had 18+ years experience in LAW and developing business solutions from IT and Marketing through to events and Project management.

In his early years Lloyd trained as a telecommunications technician in while working for Telecom then branched out into his own IT company now known throughout New Zealand and Australia as LG Holdings. Lloyd was instrumental in developing the first ISP and ADSL solutions for New Zealand, and has been featured in the Best of the Best 2 years running and countless computerworld magazines.

Lloyd has qualifications in Business Management and is a practicing Tax Agent for Inland Revenue in New Zealand.

Lloyd completed his four year degree in management in 2.5 years and his Bachelor of Laws in 3 years. Lloyd now embarks on a Masters in Law (LLM) and a Masters in Management Communications (MMS). Lloyd will then move to complete the degree with a Doctorate.

Adding to his credentials Lloyd has guest lectured at M.I.T (Manukau Institute of Technology) a prestigious Institute in Auckland. Through his involvement the Lecturers offered him a place on the advisory committee helping students to prepare for the real world.