To family and my love, Hyunwoo
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A QUANTITATIVE FRAMING ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL NEWS COVERAGE AND THE REPUTATION OF SOUTH KOREA AS MEASURED BY CHICAGO COUNCIL PROJECT

By

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In order for a government to manage its country’s reputation in the global era, it is necessary to recognize which reputational dimension is the most salient when international media report about the country and what frames they are using about the issue.

In the context of the national reputation of South Korea, as framed by international media outlets and the U.S. public, this research aimed to (a) explore how international media frames South Korea in terms of visibility, valence, and multidimensions of reputation for the research context; and (b) examine the agenda setting effects of international media coverage on the public’s awareness and attribute salience of the country.

Taking South Korea as an object, the opinion survey and international coverage are analyzed to see whether media coverage of South Korea sets the agenda for public perceptions in terms of national reputation. The public agenda came from the data collected during a survey in 2008 by the Chicago Council for Foreign Relations. Four major daily national newspapers were chosen for the sample (i.e., The New York Times,
The Wall Street Journal, The Washington Post and Los Angeles Times) and one newswire service, Associated Press, which is the oldest and largest news agency in the United States. A total of 241 of individual news was collected from LexisNexis. All individual stories including South Korea were coded with variables including visibility, valence, four dimensions and additional frames.

The result showed some characteristics of international news coverage of South Korea corresponding to previous research findings. The most prominent finding about international coverage of South Korea was the fact that it is reported with an emphasis on financial aspects and a predominantly negative tone. In regarding agenda setting, Even if visibility and valence in the media is correlated with overall reputation of South Korea among publics. This study showed that the public might not necessarily be influenced strongly by how media has shown each dimension of South Korea.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

With the growing importance of managing the reputation of a country in the global era, numerous academic studies about this topic have been conducted from many points of view, including international business, mass communication, public diplomacy, and public relations (Kim & Yang, 2008). Nye (2004) argued that soft power, referring to public diplomatic ability, can be enhanced by effective reputation management. With this in mind, there are new attempts to manage country reputation globally. For example, in 2002, the South Korean government released "Vision for Brand Power Korea 2010," aiming to have 70% of the country's total exports composed of Korean brand-name products and the National Brand Competitive Index in an effort to improve the country's reputation (Anholt, 2005). In the United States,

the World Bank is reported to have opened consultation with high level professionals to understand if a developing country’s reputation might be used as an indicator to differentiate loans; Condoleezza Rice and Karen Hughes have convened 100 plus corporate PR leaders to discuss ways to improve U.S. reputation worldwide. (Falcony, 2007)

The value of a country’s reputation has been viewed from various perspectives. From public diplomacy, Nye (2009) stated that in international politics, the values of a country’s policies, its culture, and its ability to manage relations with other countries produces soft power (p. 19). From the county of origin perspective, a favorable reputation of a country can affect the willingness of international consumers to purchase products from, invest in, or visit the destination (Knight & Calantone, 2000).

Some studies have been done about the measurement of a country’s reputation. Anholt (2002) introduced a Nation Brand Index (NBI) with six factors: exports, governance, investment, culture, people, and tourism. Passow (2005) divided the
reputation into six dimensions: emotional, physical, financial, leadership, cultural, and social appeals. In terms of measuring images of nations through news coverage, the amount of coverage about that country (visibility) seems to be related to the importance of a country in the public’s mind, and the likeability of the content (valence) could affect people’s evaluation, according to Manhaim and Albritton (1984). Kurbanov and Robinson (1997) identified country reputation on a continuum of friendliness versus hostility and weakness versus strength.

For aspects of international media coverage of foreign issues, Weaver, Porter, and Evans (1984) found that commercial U.S. television networks tended to cover foreign affairs comprising political and military conflicts, crimes, and disasters. Recently, Lee, Toth, and Shin (2008) found that some factors of national reputation formation toward South Korea are more important than others among U.S. opinion leaders. Among interview respondents, the Korean War (cultural/historical dimension) and economic success (financial dimension) are the most frequently mentioned images associated with South Korea. The relationship between the United States and South Korea has been positive in many ways, such as military or business. Nevertheless, a 2002 Worldview Project survey by the Chicago Council on Foreign Relations suggested that South Korea is not viewed as significant or favorable in the minds of the American public. For the routes of forming national reputation, this study revealed that personal experience and mass media were the most identifiable communication channels. But publics typically do not experience foreign issues in their everyday lives. Moreover, understanding foreign issues or their implications may be beyond the publics’ ability to understand the issue.
Therefore, the effect of mass media on national reputation appears to be significant. In order for a government to manage its country’s reputation in the global era, it is necessary to recognize which reputational dimension is the most salient when international media report about the country and what frames they are using about the issue.

Regarding international media framing of foreign issues, according to McCombs (2004), the salience of attributes and frames influence how the object is covered in the news and is perceived in public opinion. As a main route of the formation of national reputation, how international media frames the issue can influence the opinions of publics (Kiousis, 2009). Past research about a trend of international media showed that news about developing countries tends to focus on crises and conflicts, according to Wilhoit and Weaver (1983). Regarding news selection, many factors affect the selection process of international coverage, including national traits, interaction and relatedness, and logistic factors (Wu, 2000). Peterson (1981) also claimed that newspapers frequently cover international news involving their own nations.

Yet, previous research about international coverage toward foreign nations has focused primarily on what influences news, how the media frame issues or examining agenda setting effect on overall reputation, but few attempts have studied international news coverage from the perspective of the various dimensions of a country’s reputation. Based on recent findings of past public opinion research, favorability and interest in South Korea is average (Gallup, 2008), and the country typically is associated with specific images such as the Korean War (cultural), economic success (financial), and North Korea (Lee, Toth, and Shin, 2008).
As such, the purpose of this research is to explore the nature of international news coverage of South Korea and the agenda setting effect on public attitude and salience.

First, this study tries to identify how international media frame South Korea in terms of reputational dimensions. Second, several studies stress that valence (particularly negativity) is ubiquitous in international communication messages (e.g., Pasadeos, 1982; Peterson, 1981). Thus, the affective attributes of the dimensions, including positive, neutral, and negative descriptions of those dimensions, are tested. In addition, two substantive attributes, conflict and the U.S. involvement frames, will be analyzed, as they consistently have emerged in studies of foreign nations. (e.g., Peterson, 1981; Wanta & Hu, 1993). Last, the possibility of agenda setting effect between international media coverage and public opinion toward reputation of South Korea is closely examined.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

International News Coverage of Foreign Issues

Research on international news coverage over the last decades attempted to reveal various aspects of how the news media view the world (Chang, Shoemaker, & Bredlinger, 1987). Determinants of international news, characteristics of international news regarding foreign issues, and the relationship between international news coverage and the public are discussed here.

Determinants of International News

Specifically, examining the determinants affecting international news selection is a main concern in understanding international news coverage (Wu, 1998). Wu (2000) divided three groups of systematic determinants affecting the amount and the nature of the news coverage: national traits, interactions and relatedness, and logistical factors. National traits refer to the economic, political, social, and geographic characters of the nation. Traits of a country might affect the level of its newsworthiness in the media of other countries (Wu, 2000). Wu (2006) stated that the countries with larger territories and greater populations seem to carry more weight on the world stage, which may contribute to more voluminous coverage (p. 6). Weaver, Porter, and Evans (1984) reported that the three national networks focused 32.4% of their coverage on the Middle East, 21.1% on Western Europe, 10.8% on Eastern Europe, 9.5% on Asia, 6.7% on Africa, and only 6.2% on Latin America when foreign affairs were covered. A content analysis by Larson (1984) found out that coverage of Western Europe accounted for 23.8% of international news references from 1972 to 1981. The Middle East came in
second at 22.7%, while Asia came in third with 21.8%. Latin America and Africa trailed far behind with 8.6% and 5.6%, respectively.

Dupree (1971) found that 11 national trait variables are associated with news coverage in a U.S. magazine, *World Press Review*: literacy rate, Gross National Product, distance, newspaper availability, population density per square kilometer, continent, import-export volume, foreign stock residing in the United States, GNP per capita, and language translatability. Empirical studies of news flow conducted with a media sample, however, found puzzling results depending on nations. For example, Rosengren (1977) found that geographic size and population of a nation are positively related to the nation’s news quantity only in the media of some European countries but not in others.

Regarding interaction and relatedness, many researchers had found that a cultural and geographical similarity affects international news coverage selection. By analyzing 19 newspapers of the Pacific region, Nnaemeka and Richard (1980) found that colonial ties influence news attention within the same colonial group. Chang and Lee (1992) conducted a national survey of newspaper editors to examine how news editors select foreign news. They revealed that editors consider the factors of U.S. involvement, threats to the United States and world peace, timelines, and anticipated reader interest.

Logistical factors refer to the extent to which a country has a sufficient communication infrastructure or human resources to collect and process international news. Larson (1979) conducted content analysis research on international affairs coverage by CBS. The tendency to cover developing nations less than developed nations was found to be related to the presence of international newswire services and
national news agencies such as CBS. Meanwhile, Wu criticized that previous studies including three factors above are not entirely consistent. For example, he stated that trade was a valid predictor in Ahern’s (1984) study but failed to predict international coverage in the studies of Robinson and Sparkes (1976). The reason why those studies yielded different results is probably because they used different sampling methods, time frames, definitions, and so on. This also shows the complicatedness of international news flow because other systemic factors also intertwined with news flow (Wu, 2000).

According to Kang (2008), reporters inevitably produce news using a selection process that is influenced by a nation’s political and media system whether it is consciously and unconsciously. Scholars in normative theory such as Hallin and Mancini (2004) state that different political, economic, and cultural contexts influence the nature and the degree of state intervention in a nation’s news media. Military force is one example. When it comes to international conflict or crisis, media tend to depend on the military for the means of transportation, communication, and access to the information about the conflict (Malinkina & McLeod, 2000). Other systemic factors such as political, economic, and ideological contexts also affect the news coverage of international conflict.

Characteristics of International News Coverage regarding Foreign Issues

Some characteristics of foreign issues have repeatedly appeared in the media. In comparison to the amount the news coverage of foreign nations, the way in which international news media frame foreign nations has received more attention (Natarajan & Xiaoming, 2003). According to Gaunt (1991), international news coverage in three regional papers and four news agencies in France, Britain, and the United States was similar in terms of topic categories. In addition to that, twenty five percent of international news coverage within all media was conflict and disaster oriented. Weaver,
Porter, and Evans (1984) discovered that when foreign affairs were covered by commercial U.S. television networks, these affairs comprised mostly political and military conflicts, crimes, and disasters. Moreover, most of the coverage delivers the tone of “urgency, even crime with news items often related back to U.S. troubles of concern” (p. 157).

Larson and Storey (1983) discovered that U.S. television networks tend to portray Asia on internecine welfare, misunderstandings, or civil unrest. Other scholars including Smith (1980) demonstrated that Western media tends to portray issues in Asian or other developing countries in a negative light and with an emphasis on crisis and conflict. Apart from insufficient or inaccurate news stories, Szedene (1986) pointed out lack of resources or interest in having correspondents in ASEAN regions as problems. Other scholars attribute differences between Western and Asian media to differences in perspectives of news. Bandyopadhyay (1988) argued that Western media focuses on advertising while Asian media play a complementary role in stimulating social change toward “developmental journalism” rather than political journalism. The developmental journalist is supposed to help the public realize their own problems and encourage them to think critically about how to improve society (Chalkely 1968). In practice, facts and issues related to the development of society are emphasized (Moral, 1973).

Viewing unbalanced or unfairness of international news media as a significant global issue, the United Nations created The New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO or NWIO) after the discussion of imbalance in global communication (Natarajan & Xiaoming, 2003). The issues include an unbalanced flow of mass media from the developed world (especially the United States) to developing
countries and an unfair division of radio coverage. Addressing the unbalanced international news coverage of foreign issues, Lee and Change (1992) pointed out that editors are more concerned with the impact of news on American security or national interests than with the character of the issue itself. Wu (2000) examined the influence of systematic determinants on international news coverage in 38 countries. Wu claimed that the more powerful and elite the countries are in terms of economy and politics, the more volume they receive in international media coverage.

In addition, the study noticed some changes of international news coverage along with changes related to time, especially after the Cold War era. For example, Wu (2000) contended that economic interest, rather than ideology, has taken on a more central role in determining news coverage of other nations. For nations with international trading relations, economic issues could be a topic specific to government, corporations, or even the public. This could then affect not only coverage of economic issues, but also other topics of foreign nations. For instance, in 1998 when stock prices were suddenly down and Asia dealt with economic meltdown, there was extensive coverage about this issue. The coverage went beyond economic activity itself, touching on every topic about the national crisis such as leadership of the president. Economic determinism, Wu (2000) argued, also affects news production in terms of news coverage that may be produced in a more cost-effective manner. International news agencies provide news copy or footage which is much cheaper than sending correspondents to another country with expensive budgets, Wu suggested that the media of countries like Greece or the United States was found to be influenced by the international news agency in this manner.
Recently, there have been new attempts to find out how the international news output of the online media differs from traditional news coverage. Wu (2006) found out that there is high resemblance between online and traditional media. Determinants such as magnitude of economic interactivity between the United States and other countries or the presence of major news agencies were presented in online media the same as in traditional media. Moreover, the influence of international news agencies on online media was even higher than traditional media; that is, websites have a tendency to provide the same international news rather than more diverse news to the public. Wu also discovered that the most covered issues came from economic elites and those in military power. Economic determinism was confirmed in online media again as Wu (2000) argued previously.

The potential influence of international coverage on public policy may be significant as well. International news is significant when it comes to foreign issues because reporting on foreign issues such as policy is more likely to be constrained by a government. How international media portrays foreign issues is closely related to the relationship with government. Usually, government and elite officials affect how the media cover foreign countries, as they serve as main sources for the media on those issues (Chang, 1993; Entman, 2004). It is rare for the media to report foreign issues on their own without government officials involvement as main sources. For example, if former President W. Bush described North Korea as belonging to an “axis-of-evil,” it might not be easy for the media to provide objective additional information to explain the notion without help from the government. According to Bennett (1990), in many cases, the nature of international news coverage stands consistently in the same line with
foreign policy. White (1973) stated that political acts or programs regarding foreign policy can be successful in the United States only when mass media serve to prepare the public for those programs. The significant role of international news media naturally leads to a discussion of the relations between public opinion and international media coverage which will be discussed in the agenda setting section.

Media coverage is more likely to favor the foreign policy interests of the media organization's home government. Herman and Chomsky's study (1988), for instance, revealed that the U.S. media criticized the Soviet's invasion of Afghanistan, interventions in Czechoslovakia and Hungary, but they justified the U.S. invasion of Vietnam and Grenada by emphasizing humanitarian motivations (1988). Zaremba's examination (1988) of new coverage of the 1973 Arab-Israeli War by the Dailif Graphic of Ghana, the Times of Great Britain, the Asahi Evening News of Japan, the Straits Times of Singapore, the Moscow News of the Soviet Union, and The New York Times of the United States revealed considerable differences in perceptions and interpretations of the conflict based on the political and ideological alliances of the newspaper's home country (1988). Therefore, the portrayal of foreign issues in the media may be influenced by political relations and foreign policy. For example, Mann (1999) found out that American media frames toward China changed dramatically based on the political climate and America's governmental policy toward the country during different periods. Dorman and Farhang (1987) observed that Iran was portrayed differently in various time by major U.S. new media from 1951 to 1978. They further alleged that similar images and stereotypes are shared by news media and the U.S. government as relations changed and time passed.
International News and the Public

Some scholars have pointed out audiences’ lack of interest in international issues as a problem. Flournoy and Stewart (1997) contend that many Americans are interested in international news only when the news involves Americans. The lack of sustained public concern about Darfur in the United States is one example. Eke (2008) pointed out that this lack of interest contributes to the limited televised images or coverage in the news in general. Instead, other issues such as the current financial crisis, the war in Iraq, and natural disasters such as the tsunami in Indonesia have dominated the news in the United States. But the lack of adequate coverage of the genocide in Sudan has led to reduction of the visibility of this issue for so many that it has become a non-issue. Stroble (1997) has suggest a ‘CNN effect,’ implying the strong power of the mass media to move some issues out of the public’s mind, which may also influence public opinion and foreign policy. Vivian (2005) noted that “for years nobody outside Ethiopia cared much about a devastating famine. Not even after four articles in The New York Times was there much response. The Washington Post ran three articles, and the Associated Press (AP) distributed 228 stories – still hardly any response. The next year however, disturbing videos aired by the BBC captured public attention and triggered a massive relief effort” (p. 438).

Clearly, the influence of foreign coverage reaches the public’s discussion of democratic issues. According to Herman and McChesney (1999), the media are the major communication channels through which the public participates in the political process. The quality of the media’s role in the public sphere is a significant determinant of the quality of democracy. In addition, Kawamoto (2003), argued that the media plays a role ‘primarily as a public service through the work of their journalists and editors who
gather, analyze, and communicate news of current interest to respective audiences; and because the news media can generate not only public awareness about problems and injustices in society but also mobilize large-scale human response of one kind or another, the news media are thought to wield an influence comparable to society’s most powerful social institutions’ (p. 95). Thus, how the international media portray foreign issues or nations not only affect the public’s awareness, but may also impact behavioral actions.

**International Agenda Setting and Framing Effects**

Because this study makes the assumption that the international media significantly influence how individuals perceive foreign countries, it is important to understand how they are portrayed by the news media. Agenda setting theory offers a relevant theoretical background for explicating relationships among the news content, public agenda, and national reputation of South Korea.

**Agenda Setting Theory**

Agenda setting, as it was originally proposed, concerns how an individual learns about the importance of issues (Wanta, Golan, & Lee, 2004). McCombs and Bell (1996) mentioned that “through their day-by-day selection and display of news, editors and news directors focus attention and influence on the public’s perception of the important issue of the day” (p. 93). Due to certain amount of space in the newspaper and certain amount of time for newsmakers, it is difficult to avoid an agenda-setting effect. Graber (2002) also stated that “media tell people in a uniform fashion which individual issues and activities are most significant and deserve to be ranked highly on the public’s concerns” (pp. 206-207). Empirical studies conducted by scholars such as Rogers and Dearing (1988) provided evidence that the media agenda is strong and
highly related to the public agenda. In their report of nine years of research, Media Tenor (2003) concluded that the public see the world as it is shown in the media which suggests a transferring of issue salience (p.43). Iyengar and Kinder (1987) discovered that the stories that appear on the evening news significantly influence Americans’ views of society and of their nation. These researchers found that people who were shown network broadcasts edited to draw attention to a particular problems assigned greater importance to those problems “greater importance than they themselves did before the experiment began, and greater importance than did people assigned to control conditions that emphasized different problems. Subjects regarded the target problem as more important for the country, suggested that they cared more about it, they believed that the government should do more about it, they reported stronger feelings about it, and they were much more likely to identify it as one of the country’s most important problems” (p. 112).

Past research contributed to the body of knowledge by revealing the agenda-setting effect of international news coverage on public opinion. For example, Wanta and Hu (1993) confirmed a strong impact of international news coverage on U.S. public opinion with an emphasis on conflict-oriented stories. Interesting finding was that coverage of international conflicts involving the United States had the strongest agenda-setting impact while coverage of international conflicts not involving the United States had no impact on public perceptions. McNelly and Izacaray (1992) suggested that more exposure to international news is positively related to the perception of foreign nations.

Wanta, Golan, and Lee (2004) suggested that the amount of coverage the foreign issue receives influences what the public thinks, and what is considered to be the first
level of agenda setting. Even beyond that, they argued that “attributes of agenda” in news coverage are related to “attributes of agenda” in the public’s mind—a phenomenon called second-level agenda setting. In other words, news media not only affect what we think but also how we think about a particular issue (Wanta, Golan, & Lee, 2004). Each object on an agenda could have various attributes, such as characteristics and properties, and these attributes inspire the picture of each object (McCombs & Estrada, 1997). Two commonly used types of attributes that have been identified in the literature are substantive and affective attributes (McCombs, Lopez-Escobar, & Llamas, 2000). Affective elements refer to the valence dimension of attribute salience. Substantive elements refer to those characteristics of communication messages that help us to cognitively structure and discern among various topics (Kiousis, Popescu, & Mitrook, 2007).

As an example of a number of second-level agenda setting studies, those conducted by McCombs, Escobar-Lopez, and Rey (1997) about the 1996 Spanish general election demonstrated second-level agenda setting. They divided attributes into two dimensions, substantive attributes such as information about the candidate and affective attributes such as positive or negative comments. King (1997) studied the 1994 mayoral election in Taipei and identified six personal attributes of the political candidate: integrity, virtues, personality, appearance, intelligence, education. He found out that voters evaluate personal attributes the most as the news media emphasized those personality features which demonstrated second-level agenda setting effect. Kiousis, Bantimaroudis, and Ben (1999) did an experimental study by manipulating the candidate’s personality and qualification attributes in media portrayals. They found that
the public’s opinion is influenced by manipulated media portrayals both substantively and affectively.

In international relations studies, Schoenbach and Semetko (1992) found significant correlations between attention to news coverage of foreign affairs and positive perceptions of foreign nations covered. Wanta, Golan, and Lee (2004) found that negative news coverage of certain nations had more influence on public perceptions toward those nations than did positive coverage. Kiousis and Wu (2005) also found a correlation between negative media coverage and negative public views of foreign nations. The same pattern was confirmed in the study in different geographical settings outside of the United States. Bai, McCombs, and Maxwell (2007) conducted a longitudinal study employing three South Korean national public polls to examine agenda-setting effects. The results showed that newspapers have a strong influence on the public’s negative perceptions and feelings towards foreign nations, but not on positive perceptions and feelings toward those nations. They further argued that people are more likely to process the negative news than positive news when they perceive both valence toward an issue or event through news media. Regarding perception of foreign countries, for instance, the friendliness which is positive valence or hostility, negative valence, can correspond to ‘friends’ or ‘enemies’ (Kurbanov & Robinson, 1997). Golan and Wanta (2001) also stated that agenda-setting effects on public perceptions in terms of the friend frame did not always occur, and the relationships were weak compared with those in the enemy frame. They mentioned that “the newspapers may have had more success in influencing voter perceptions at the cognitive level than at the affective level” (p. 255). McCombs and Bell (1996) argued that “selection of objects for
attention and selection of attributes” both play important and powerful agenda setting roles because both are frames of thinking about those objects. In analyzing news stories, positive and negative valence, key words, and pictures which transmit value judgment of the object are all identified.

**Framing Theory**

This second-level agenda setting also is connected with the framing concept, which could be considered as “salient attribute(s) of (the) agenda,” according to Chyi and McCombs (2004). To frame is “to select some aspects of reality and make them more salient in a communication text, in such a way to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and /or treatment recommendation” (Entman, 1993, p. 52). Media often use frames to present issues to the public in ways that are easily comprehended. Scheufele and Tewksbury (2007) argued that framing refers to “modes of presentations that journalists and communicators use in presenting relatively complex issues in a way that makes them accessible to lay audiences” (p. 12). In this way, issues are defined and gain a meaning with salient aspects of social reality. To some scholars, framing is more related to structures of narratives or interpretations. Reese (2007), for instance, defined frames as “organizing principles that are socially shared and persistent over time, that work symbolically to meaningfully structure the social world” (p. 150). Nelson, Clawon, and Oxley (1997) claimed that framing works by affecting people as to which associations should receive greater weight in relation to others (1997).

Scholars such as McCombs and Reynolds (2002) tried to connect the second-level agenda setting theory with the theory of framing because both theories point out
the perspectives used by journalists and their readers in shaping news coverage. Thus, media frames can contribute to the shaping of opposition or support for an event or issue. That is, frames may guide people in their understanding of the world and formation of judgements. For empirical evidence, Rhee (1997) analyzed news frames of political campaign coverage and the effect on the public's interpretation of political campaigns. The results demonstrated the effect of either issue-framed or strategy-framed news coverage on influencing the public's interpretation of the campaign. For international agenda setting practice, common frames as substantive attributes are conflict and U.S. involvement frames (Kiousis & Wu, 2008). Wanta and Wu (1993) found out different agenda-setting effects using U.S. involvement frames. They revealed that four out of fifteen categories of news coverage demonstrated the strongest agenda-setting: international conflicts involving the United States; terrorism involving the United States; crime/drugs; and military/nuclear arms.

This also can be applied to the public's understanding toward foreign nations and the role of international media in that process. Galtung and Ruge (1965) refer to the media as “first rate competitors for the number one position as international image former” (p. 65). Besova and Cooley (2009) revealed that highly negative U.S. media coverage of Iran and North Korea corresponded with the U.S. public's negative attitudes. Another study discovered the same result; these two countries were portrayed very negatively in U.S. broadcast media, and were consequently regarded as two of the three coldest nations (Wanta, Golan, & Lee, 2004). They further revealed that the U.S. and U.K. media promote certain stereotypes about North Korea such as involvement of nuclear proliferation and posing a threat to the world. They argued that this is largely
reflected in the predominant public opposition to Iran’s acquisition of nuclear weapons (Global Unease With Major World Powers, 2007).

**Public Capacity and Agenda Setting**

When it comes to foreign issues, understanding the nature of international news coverage is of great importance because of its impact on public opinion. Due to the public’s lack of interest in and ability to engage in foreign issues, extensive mass media coverage provides international issues with salience cues implying the relative importance of the issues (Wanta, Golan, & Lee, 2004).

With regard to public capacity, McCombs and Zhu (1995) found that information accessibility and education are not necessarily related to the growth of public agenda in a positive way. That is, more information and higher education does not guarantee an expanded public agenda. In addition, they discovered that the public agenda only circulates for about 18.5 months (McCombs & Zhu). Very few individuals actually experience foreign issues. The only accessible source of information about world events is international media. Kunczik (1997) stated that because mass media disseminate information about other countries more than other channels, it influences the way people view other countries’ people and government.

Because of the strong influence of the media due to the publics’ limited capability about foreign issue, how the media agenda sets or who sets it is another important issue in agenda setting literature. Many scholars such as Spitzer (1993) examined the relationship between the news media and policy makers of foreign policy. He stated that “the coverage of international news may have a different policy consequence, in that media-supplied information may be useful, even vital in supplanting government obtained information, and therefore in shaping decision making” (p. 4). For example,
extensive media coverage may have pushed the Carter administration toward a
decision to approve the Panama Treaty which, he was reluctant to embrace (Dimaond, 1982). These studies point out that government can play a main role in making news of foreign issues. Pan (2008) explained that the coverage of Chinese leaders reported by the U.S. newspapers is correlated to U.S.-China relations. He concluded that the better U.S. China relations, the more positive reports of new leader's images emphasizing the interaction between the media and government.

However, overall more international agenda setting studies are needed. Livingston (1992) mentioned that “international agenda setting remains one of the least studied and least understood processes of international politics” (p. 313). Some reasons for this might include difficulty in ascertaining the international media agenda due to the large number of countries, interests, and media outlets. There are relatively few studies in the international agenda setting literature that aim to determine the relationship between the media and public perception or of the role of attribute salience (Kiousis & Wu, 2008).

**National Reputation**

Public relations scholars had been viewed the concept of reputation from an organizational perspective. For instance, Fombrun (1996) suggested that reputation is the total attractiveness of an organization as perceived by stakeholders and publics. “A reputation develops from a company's uniqueness and from identity-shaping practices that lead constituents to perceive the company as credible, reliable, trustworthy, and responsible” (Fombrun, 1996, p. 28). Grunig and Hung (2005) agreed that reputation is the collection of multiple cognitive representations or images about an organization in stakeholders’ minds. Unlike image which is about what the corporations want to be
viewed, reputation is created based on prior resource, histories and everything a company does (Fombrun & Van Riel, 1997). Based on this, it is rational to argue that a reputation has various attributes and managing reputation should be a multifaceted process with consistency. Gotsi and Wilson (2001) defined that reputation is overall evaluation of stakeholders over time which can be established through direct experience with any form of communication. The fact that the media is one of main communication channels to form a reputation of a company has been revealed many times by previous studies (e.g., Fombrun & Shanley, 1990).

Grunig and Hung (2005) suggested three attributes of organizational reputation: first, reputation is the collection of many images of an organization; second, reputation is publicly shared cognitive representations about an organization requiring repetitions; and last, reputation is a byproduct of relational actions between an organization and stakeholders. Since reputation depends upon quality relationship outcomes, when it is not working well, reputations can easily be destroyed (Bromley, 1993). Empirical studies supported a positive correlation between relational outcome and organizational reputation (Bronn, 2007; Yang, 2007). In terms of key factors forming reputation, there are three categories, emotional factors, organizational identity factors, and communications factors. Fombrun (1996) developed a Reputation Quotient measured by quality of product, work environment, organizational philosophy, emotional appeal, corporate social responsibility, and financial achievement. Caruana (1997) figured 16 factors including quality of product, advertising, work environment, size of organization, employees, and management policies. Davis (2003) used emotional factors such as favorability, capability and masculinity to measure reputation. Melewar and Jenkins
(2002) adapted communication factors as a dimension of corporate identity. Manuel and Puente (2003) used communication factors such as informational transparency with stakeholders, financial transparency with investors, and informational transparency with employees to measure reputation. Kiousis, Popescu, and Mitrook (2007) examined the impact of different attributes of reputation by using Reputation Quotient index including products and service, financial performance, workplace environment, social responsibility, vision and leadership, and emotional appeal.

Reputation of a Country

Recently, reputation research began to enlarge its scope from the organizational level to the national level. From a public diplomacy perspective, Nye (2009) stated that national reputation is important in international interactions. His term “soft power” refers to “the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments. It arises from the attractiveness of a country’s culture, political ideals, and policies” (p. 10).

From a business perspective, the country of origin effects approach provided a link to an inherently related concept, nation branding. Under the circumstances that many changes have been occurring in the international economic environment including the globalization of markets, the relationship between consumer preference for a country’s products, and perceptions of country’s reputation became main issues in business (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Country of origin effect explains that consumers’ perceptions about imported products are affected by the country of origin (Papadopoulos, 1993). Kaynak and Kara (1994) examined the impact the profile of a country has. They discovered that American consumers have different attitudes toward domestic airlines
and foreign airlines. Brunning (1997) also studied the case of Canadian airlines and found that consumers feel differently depending on which country the airlines belongs to. Similarly to the case of tangible products, de Ruyter, Birgelen, and Wetrels (1998) found that the less important or useful a service the greater the impact of country-of-origin effect in consumer perceptions. In a global era, multinational corporations and many countries are business competitors for the better market share in many industries such as tourism. Country can be treated as corporate brand which has “competency as it’s nature”(Lodge,2002) . With favorable country reputation, a country can influence international consumers’ willingness to purchase products or brands made in the country from the country-of-origin perspective (Knight & Calantone, 2000; Gurhn-Canil & Maheswaran, 2000).

Meanwhile, according to Passow, Fehlmann, and Grahlow (2005), “reputation management is by no means restricted to companies and other organizational entities. In fact, nations today are increasingly concerned with their reputation relative to other nations and turn to actively measuring and managing that reputation” (p. 309). For example, after the 9/11 terrorist attack, reputational studies focusing on nation branding (Anholt, 2002, 2007) or effective strategy of public diplomacy (Kruckeberg & Vujnovic, 2005) were conducted.

In international relations research, much attention has been given to the reputation of a nation in the international diplomacy context. It is observed that a nation’s reputation helps determine the country’s status in the international community (Nye & Owen, 1996). The value of national reputation is confirmed again in Cohen’s study. By examining the relationship between the United States and China, he contended that due
to its nature, national image and perception relate to US-China relations by “setting the broad context for policy making” in Washington and Beijing (Cohen, 1973, pp. 55-56).

Boulding (1969) pointed out that various factors play an important role in the formulation of national reputation in the international systems. For example, if the accumulated image of one nation is culturally oriented, the media’s stereotypes or corporate and government influence among other factors tend to contribute to reinforce a similar image in media coverage. A country’s image can be interpreted as a representation of a country’s positive or negative standing in the media, in terms of historical, political, economic, military, diplomatic and religious contexts (Seo, Johnson, & Stein, 2009). Boulding (1969) recognized two factors of national image: hostility-friendliness and strength-weakness. These factors are associated with alliance or enemy status (Kurbanov & Robinson, 1997). Manheim and Albritton (1984) suggested two dimensions of national image: visibility and valence. Visibility refers to “the amount of media coverage the nation receives,” which could be interpreted as the importance of the nation based on the public’s perception (p. 645). Valence is “the degree to which the content that is available reflects either favorably or unfavorably on the country,” which could be interpreted as the public’s affection toward the nation (p. 645).

In essence, national reputation, rooted in international/world public opinion, signifies the presence or absence of international legitimacy accrued to a certain nation (Tucker & Hendrickson, 2004). Anholt (2003) developed another measurement index for national reputation called NBI (The National Brands Index). According to him, there are six factors of a country’s competitive identity: exports, governance, investment, culture, people, and tourism.
Passow, Fehlmann, and Grahlow (2005) suggested the similarity between a country and an organization in reputational research of Liechtenstein. For example, an organization needs to follow a financial logic, appeal to audiences with a visionary strategy, or depend on resources and supportive behavior. Adapting the Harris-Fombrun Reputation Quotient referring as research questions, they developed a country reputation index applying six dimensions as follows:

1. Emotional appeal means how much the country is liked, admired, and respected.
2. Physical appeal includes the perceptions of the country’s infrastructure, such as roads, housing, services, health care, and communications.
3. Financial appeal entails the perceptions of the country’s competitiveness, profitability, growth prospects, and risk of investment.
4. Leadership appeal concerns how well the country demonstrates a strong leadership and communicates an appealing vision of the country.
5. Cultural appeal refers to how well the country retains the values of distinct, appealing culture and a rich historical past.
6. Social appeal consists of perceptions of the country’s political status such as internal relationships, democracy, and stable political environment.

Based on previous theorizing, it is reasonable to approach the reputation as overall collection of images with multiple dimensions. However, there are little research using multidimensional approach. Thus, this study attempts to examine national reputation dimensionally. For this study, five dimensions, physical, financial, cultural and social dimensions combining leadership appeals and social appeals as one dimension, are used.

**South Korea and the United States**

Since this study attempts to explore the reputation of South Korea among the U.S. public, it is important to know how the media has been portrayed South Korea and how
the public has been perceived South Korea. In addition, the relationship between two countries is explained because the media portrayal of foreign issues or country is influenced by the economical and political relationships between two countries.

The United States and South Korea have been important allies to one another for over 50 years, characterized by close military and economic partnerships. South Korea is the United States’ seventh largest trading partner. Two-way goods trade has boomed, totaling over US 72.5 billion U.S. dollars in 2004, according to a 2004 study by the Institute for International Economics. The presence of U.S. troops in South Korea has been over 60 years since the Korean War in 1950. However, the relationship between the two countries between 2006 and 2007 is complex. Cooperation has diminished and flowed during 2006 and 2007, depending on popular sentiment in South Korea, the occupancy of the presidential Blue House in Seoul, and the extent to which the two countries’ stances on North Korea have converged or differed. In 2005, the W. Bush administration had decided to confront Pyongyang’s alleged cheating missile launch of North Korea along with the failure of six party talks to convince North Korea to stop nuclear proliferation. Six party participants include South Korea, Russia, Japan, China, North Korea and the United States.

The most controversial issue between the two countries during 2006 and 2007 was the Free Trade Agreement negotiation beginning in 2006. Among the terms of negotiation, beef imports and screening quota reductions brought vigorous opposition from the Korean public followed by massive demonstrations with hundreds of thousands of demonstrators against the government’s actions. Protests in South Korea over U.S.

In the media, on the other hand, the visibility of South Korea has been low. For example, Manheim and Albritton (1984) revealed that South Korea received an average of 18.3 news stories monthly from *The New York Times*, a low number when compared to that of other countries. Among them, 9.8 news stories were negative and 2.8 news stories were positive. During the two year period from 1977-1978, the issues related to South Korea in the media included reduction of its forces stationed in the country, conflicts between the government and the Roman Catholic church, alleged spying of South Korean leaders in the United States, and Korean bribery of U.S. congressmen (Manheim & Albritton, 1984). In the Cold War era, issues related to North Korea such as the conversion of a newly discovered North Korean infiltration tunnel into a publicized tourist attraction or resumption of on-off negotiations with North Korea was important topics. In the study by Wanta, Golan, and Lee (2004), the visibility of South Korea in the three U.S. TV networks was found to be an average number among 26 countries (South Korea = 63, Japan = 208, China = 282).

To the U.S. publics, South Korea is ‘lukewarm’ and ‘not much visible’ country. People in the United States ranked South Korea as average among 24 countries for both favorability and significance to the United States, according to the 2002 Worldview Project survey (*N* = 3,262) conducted by the Chicago Council on Foreign Relations. The U.S. population placed South Korea at 46° on the feeling thermometer scale (from 0 to 100). Moreover, 69% of respondents mentioned that South Korea is significant to U.S. interests among 24 countries. Lee, Toth, and Shin (2008) found that cultural and
economic dimensions were emphasized when U.S. opinion leaders focused on South Korea. The Korean War or the economic development and democracy were salient categories when U.S. opinion leaders described the national reputation of South Korea. In addition, North Korea came to mind as a third prominent category with negative images such as nuclear threats.

**Hypotheses and Research Questions**

Based on previous research on international media coverage, international agenda setting and national reputation research, this study attempts to answer the following questions and hypotheses as below.

- **RQ 1.** How do the international media frame South Korea in terms of the visibility and the valence?
- **RQ 2.** How do the international media frame South Korea in terms of reputational dimensions?
- **RQ 3.** How different is each dimension in terms of affective attributes?
- **H 1.** A higher number of coverage involving South Korea in international media will be related to a higher score of importance of South Korea among the public as expressed in the public opinion survey.
- **H 2.** A greater amount of negative tone in international media coverage involving South Korea will be related to a lower score of favorability among the public as expressed in the public opinion survey.
- **H 3.** For reputational dimensions of South Korea, international media salience, the negative valence of coverage in each dimension specifically, will be negatively related to the dimensional attitude of the public toward South Korea as expressed in the public opinion survey.
CHAPTER 3
METHOD

To answer the stated research questions and hypotheses, a content analysis is conducted. This study aims to understand how international media frame South Korea and the agenda setting effect of international media through an analysis of news content and secondary public opinion survey data.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to compare responses to a public opinion survey with media coverage in the period leading up to the survey period. Taking South Korea as an object, the opinion survey and international coverage are analyzed to see whether media coverage of South Korea sets the agenda for public perceptions in terms of national reputation. Two set of additional data was collected to answer hypothesis 1 notably. First, for visibility of South Korea among publics over time, data from 1998 and 2006 public opinion surveys conducted by the Chicago Council for Foreign Nations were used. Second, for valence of South Korea over time, data from 1994 and 2006 public opinion surveys conducted by the Chicago Council for Foreign Nations were used.

Public Agenda

The public agenda came from the data collected during a survey in 2008 by the Chicago Council for Foreign Relations. The Council is a nonprofit, nonpartisan organization that has conducted similar surveys every four years since 1974. The 2008 survey was carried out in China, Japan, South Korea, Vietnam, Indonesia, and the United States in January and February 2008. The results of 40-60 questions were combined to produce indexes for each of the five pillars of soft power: economics, culture, human capital, diplomacy, and politics. These five indexes were then also averaged to produce an overall “Soft Power Index.” For the United States, the survey
was conducted between January 17 and February 6, 2008, with a total sample of 1,029 U.S. adults who had been randomly selected from a respondent panel and answered questions on screens in their own homes. This panel is itself randomly selected from the national population of households with telephones. The survey was fielded to a total of 1,470 panel members, which yielded 1,029 completed surveys, for a cooperation rate of 70%. The margin of sampling error is approximately plus or minus 3% points.

The surveys also examined the extent that the U.S. public supports an active role for the United States in Asia and addresses which Asian nations the public believes are most important to the United States and which Asian nations are viewed as threats to the United States.

Moreover, additional data was collected to answer hypothesis 1. For valence and visibility specifically over time, data from 1994 and 2006 public opinion surveys conducted by the Chicago Council for Foreign Nations were used. The survey asked respondents to indicate the favorability and importance of South Korea using a 1-to-100 scale every two years.

**International Media Coverage**

According to Sterling (2003), a news agency is an "organization that gathers and distributes news and features to clients of print and electronic media organization for further dissemination to consumers" (p. 235). In this study, one news agency and four daily national newspapers were chosen for analysis.

Inter-media agenda setting research support the assumption that elite media and international news agencies determine the nature of international news coverage in national and local media outlets. Inter-media agenda setting refers to the influence of media agendas on one another (Lopez-Escobar, 1998). Protess and McCombs (1991)
found elite newspapers to have an inter-media agenda setting effect on the news agendas of local newspapers and television news programs. Reese and Danielian (1989) identified an inter-media agenda-setting process among newspapers and television networks. Their study found that television takes its cues on the salience of issues from coverage in the newspapers. In a study of Ohio metropolitan dailies, Hart (1990) found that three fourths of international news included armed conflict, crime, and disaster. He also determined that two wire services, the Associated Press and United Press International, supplied 65% of the international news in those newspapers.

Based on previous inter-media agenda setting research, it is assumed that major news media influence other national news media or affiliated local newspapers. Therefore, four major daily national newspapers were chosen for the sample (i.e., *The New York Times*, *The Wall Street Journal*, *The Washington Post* and *Los Angeles Times*) and one newswire service, Associated Press, which is the oldest and largest news agency in the United States. The Associated Press operates 243 news bureaus, and it serves at least 120 countries, with an international staff located all over the world. The *New York Times* has been used many times as an international media outlet to determine characteristics of international media (Smith, 1969; Singler, 1972; Albritton and Manheim, 1987; Zhang and Cameron, 2003). These four daily newspapers were chosen because they have an international newsgathering ability and contain extensive international/foreign affairs coverage (Graber, 1989).

Media content was collected from LexisNexis using keywords “South Korea” and the name of each the five selected international media outlets. A total of 241 of individual news stories were gathered. Regarding the time-lag employed on agenda
setting research, Watt, Mazza, and Synder (1992) found that issue salience in people’s minds disappears in as little as 300 days. Although the range of time-lag on agenda setting research varies from weeks (Wanta & Roy, 1995) to months (Stone & McCombs, 1981), this research extend the period to a year prior to the survey because it gives sufficient opportunities to South Korea to be covered in the media. The last edition of a story of coverage between January 2007 and January 2008 was searched. For instance, search with the additional term “AP” resulted in 152 documents, yet after choosing the final edition of stories with similar headlines the number decreased 90 stories. *The New York Times (N = 61), The Wall Street Journal (N = 27), The Washington Post (N = 28), Los Angeles Times (N = 35)* were used as additional search terms. For hypothesis 1, same method was applied to find coverage prior to public opinion survey period of 1998, 2002, 2004 and 2006. That is period between June 1997 and June 1998, June 2001 and June 2002, June 2003 and June 2004, and May 2005 and May 2006. For H2, international media coverage of South Korea between April 1991 and April 1992, June 1997 and June 1998, June 2001 and June 2002, June 2003 and June 2004, and May 2005 and May 2006 was collected additionally.

The unit of analysis is the individual news story. All individual stories including South Korea were coded. Each story was coded as the following variables:

- **Visibility**: that is, the frequency that South Korea is mentioned in news stories determines the score of visibility. Additionally, whether “South Korea” was mentioned in the headline or leading paragraph (or not) was also measured. This is to compare public opinion about the importance of South Korea to the United States.

- **Valence (Emotional Appeal)** – the tone – mostly positive, mostly negative, both positive and negative, and neutral – of each article. The criteria for the three affective attributes constructed by Wanta, Golan, and Lee (2004) were applied to this study. If a news article reported that a nation is involved with activities that
threaten the interest of Korea or values that Korea wants to protect, the story was coded as negative. If a foreign country was involved with activities that are consistent with Korea’s interests or values that Korea wants to promote, it was coded as positive. Neutral stories or stories that demonstrated a balance of both positive and negative information were coded as neutral.

- **Four dimensions of national reputation according to Passow (2005)- categories except emotional appeal are cultural, financial, physical, social dimensions.** Questions were provided to decide which dimension each story belongs to. For instance, if the issue of the content is related to free trade agreement, it belongs to financial dimension.

- **Other Frames-** first, the U.S. involvement and conflict oriented frames as substantive attributes were coded by asking whether the content contains the intervention of the U.S. whether or not conflict is mentioned (Kiousis & Wu, 2008).

Inter-coder reliability analysis was used to test the internal consistency of the instrument. Ten percent of the stories (N = 25) were randomly selected and content analyzed by two coders separately. The consistency and inconsistency of the coding decisions were assessed. Using Holsti’s formula (1969), the inter-coder reliability coefficient was .89, which confirms a high level of agreement among the coders regarding coding decision and therefore the high internal validity of the instrument.

Data collected through the content analysis were analyzed using SPSS 12.0 for Windows. Frequencies and descriptive statistics were obtained, followed by a series of cross-tabulations with Chi-Square tests and Pearson correlation tests to explore the relationship between nominal variables. A \( p \leq .05 \) significance level was used for all statistical tests.

Because of its exploratory nature, it is proper to use the correlational approach to link among the various agendas. Yet, for further understanding of the scope of casual relationships, more evidence would be needed across several studies. The significant correlations in this study can contribute to set the foundation for future research to
examine potential causal relationships, but the opposite case would falsify this study (Kiousis, Popescu & Mitrok, 2007).
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Characteristics of International Media

The content analysis yielded the following results. A total of 241 individual news stories were analyzed with a median length of 397 words (minimum 50, maximum 3,220, Standard Deviation = 362). The median was calculated instead of the mean because an AP story with 3,220 words was an outlier.

In answer to research question one, which concerns the overall visibility and valence of South Korea in the international media, a total of 241 news stories included South Korea as the subject of the stories. Frequencies and descriptive statistics were used. The tone of the body of the article was divided into four categories: negative, mixed, neutral, and positive. Thirty-eight percent were found to be negative, 23% positive, 27% neutral, and 12% mixed. Of the four categories, the negative tone was the most prominent.

Regarding the headlines, 34% of news stories had negative headline tone while 20% were positive. In addition, 22% of all headlines included explicit mention of the United States and South Korea. When it comes to dateline, about 80% of the stories were from Seoul, the capital city of South Korea, which marginalizes other cities as news sources. About U.S. involvement and conflict frames, 34% of the stories were about U.S. involvement, and 34% were about conflict frames (see Table 4-1).

The relationship between body tone and U.S. involvement frame was further explored with Cross-tab analysis with Chi-square test. Results were statistically significant with 43.9% of all news stories involving the United States with the negative
tone while 14.6% of news with positive tone ($X^2 (3, n = 241) = 12.139, p = .007$) (see Table 4-2).

Research question two is related to dimensional descriptions of South Korea in international media. Frequencies and descriptive statistics helped to analyze. News stories about the physical dimension comprised 23% ($N = 55$), the financial dimension 60% ($N = 145$), the cultural dimension 21% ($N = 50$) and the social dimension 49% ($N = 117$). The financial dimension was found to be the most prominent dimension when international media reported about South Korea.

Concerning research question three, the dominant tone of the news stories differed depending on dimension. A cross-tabulation with a Chi-Square test was used to explore the body tone and four dimensions which was significant ($X^2 (9, n = 367) = 18.634, p = .028$). News stories regarding the financial dimension were reported with the most amount of positive tone coverage four dimensions. (the financial dimension 29.7%, physical 25.5%, the cultural dimension 28%, the social dimension 9.4%). The social dimension has the most amount of negative coverage. (see Table 4-3).

Additionally, the relationship between each dimension and U.S. involvement frame was further explored. Sixty seven percent of news stories regarding the financial dimension were involved with the United States ($X^2 (1, n = 241) = 24.064, p = .000$) where as 7% of news about physical dimensions were related to the United States ($X^2 (1, n = 241) = 14.400, p = .000$) (see Table 4-4 and 4-5).

It is worth noting that about 40% of all financial news reported about FTA(Free Trade Agreement) ($X^2 (1, n = 241) = 41.104, p = .000$) negotiations between the United States and South Korea, which continued for almost 7 months in 2007 (see Table 4-6).
Finally, for social dimension, 36 of 117 stories (30%) discussed North Korea along with South Korea. \(X^2 (1, n =241) = 44.854, p = .000\) (see Table 4-7)

**Hypotheses Testing**

Concerning the first hypothesis, Pearson correlations were used in order to assess the relationship between amount of coverage and the importance score of South Korea in public opinion survey. The correlations was found to be statistically significant \(r = 0.885, p = 0.046, \) a strong positive relationship. In other words, the more media coverage South Korea received, the more likely the public considered South Korea as a vital country to the United States. Thus, the result supports first hypothesis (see Table 4-8).

The second hypothesis states that a more negative tone in international media coverage will be related to a lower score of favorability among the public as expressed in public opinion surveys. Hypothesis was strongly supported \( r = -0.816, p = 0.048, \) a strong negative relationship). In other words, more negative coverage South Korea receives, the more likely the public were rated South Korea low on the favorability scale (see Table 4-9).

The last hypothesis concerned the relationship between the dimensional score and each tone. Specifically, the expectation was that a greater amount of negative coverage would lead to a lower score in each dimension of South Korea among the public’s perception. Pearson correlations were used to access the relationship. This relationship was not supported because it was not statistically significant.
Table 4-1 Descriptive Analysis

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<td>FTA</td>
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<td>Social</td>
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<td>North Korea</td>
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Headline

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<th>Percent</th>
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Body Tone

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<td>Conflict Oriented</td>
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<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL | 241 | 100 |

Table 4-2 Cross-Tab Analysis of Body Tone and U.S. Involvement Frame

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Body Tone</th>
<th>U.S. Involvement Frame</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative amount</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within U.S. involvement</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed amount</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within U.S. involvement</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral amount</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within U.S. involvement</td>
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<td>22.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive amount</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within U.S. involvement</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p = .007, p<.05
Table 4-3. Cross-Tab Analysis of Body Tone and Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Body Tone</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical amount</td>
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<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within dimension</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial amount</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within dimension</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural amount</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within dimension</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social amount</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within dimension</td>
<td>42.7%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p = .028, p< .05

Table 4-4. Cross-Tab Analysis of Financial Dimension and U.S. Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Dimension</th>
<th>U.S. Involvement Frame</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount % within U.S. involvement</td>
<td>84.4%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount % within U.S. involvement</td>
<td>53.8%</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p = .000, p< .05
Table 4-5. Cross-Tab Analysis of Physical Dimension and U.S. Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Dimension</th>
<th>U.S. Involvement Frame</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>amount 111</td>
<td>75</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within U.S. involvement 59.7%</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>amount 48</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within U.S. involvement 87.3%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = .000, p< .05

Table 4-6. Cross-Tab Analysis of Financial Dimension and FTA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FTA Mention</th>
<th>Financial Dimension</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>amount 94</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Financial dimension 97.9%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>amount 90</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial Dimension 62.1%</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = .000, p< .05
Table 4-7. Cross-Tab Analysis of Social Dimension and North Korea Mention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>North Korea Mention</th>
<th>Social Dimension</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>amount</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Social dimension</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>amount</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Dimension</td>
<td>69.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>36</td>
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</table>

p = .000, p< .05

Table 4-8. Correlation between Amount of Coverage and Importance Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of Coverage</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Total Case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>.885*</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Case</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-9 Correlation between Negative Coverage and Favorability Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Favorability Score</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Total Case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.816*</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Case</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

In the context of the national reputation of South Korea, as framed by international media outlets and the U.S. public, this research aimed to (a) explore how international media frames South Korea in terms of visibility, valence, and multidimensions of reputation for the research context; (b) examine the agenda setting effects of international media coverage on the public’s awareness and attribute salience of the country.

The result showed some characteristics of international news coverage of South Korea corresponding to previous research findings. Over time, the visibility of South Korea has increased especially from 2002 as the result shows. Wu (2000) argued that a country’s fundamental attributes such as its economic relationship with a host country play an important role in determining the visibility of a county in the media. The economic relationship between South Korea and the United States has been strengthened over time. For example, Two-way goods trade has been increased from 58 billion U.S. dollars in 2002 to about 82 billion U.S. dollars in 2007, according to U.S. Census Bureau (2010). Beginning FTA agreement negotiation also can be another contribution for increasing visibility. Rosengren (1977) found that trade is positively linked to volume of news coverage in the news media of Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. This was later confirmed by Ahern (1984) using U.S. newspaper sample. The predictor of economic interactivity between nations was also supported by other studies published during the last three decades that used data from the media of various countries. Even if the visibility is not high among other countries, it
is worth noting that there is an increasing trend in visibility which might be related to economic relationship between two countries.

Body tone was found to have a negative focus. Ninety-one stories (37.8%) were negative in tone while 65 stories were neutral (27.0%) and 56 stories were positive (23.2%). On the other hand, headline tone was more neutral than body tone. About 105 stories of headline tone (43.6%) were neutral while 83 stories (34.4%) were negative. It is interesting, though, that the headline which gets first attention from public was much more positive than body tone. This could be related to limited space in headline. Pearson correlation test shows that headline tone and body tone was positively related.

Regarding dateline, more than 90% of the news were from South Korea ruling out international media’s home country or cities, the United States, interestingly. It was not surprising that the dateline of about 80% of all stories were from Seoul, the capital city of South Korea, margining other cities. Most industries and administrations are centralized in Seoul with a population of 10 million, which is one fifth the total population of South Korea. Yet, apart from the dominance of one single dateline location, not all reporters stay in Seoul permanently or even for an extended period of time. As economic determinism is recognized as an important feature of international media, it is not cost-effective to dispatch correspondents permanently. Coleman (1997) stated that it is very rare for a majority of foreign news media organizations including the U.S. media to dispatch correspondents permanently to Seoul (1997). Most of the reporters reside in Beijing or Tokyo and travel to South Korea for breaking news infrequently (Coleman, 1997). Larson (1979) also argued that the tendency to cover some countries less than others was found to be related to the presence of international newswire
services and national news agencies. Reporters’ lack of formal education about South Korea also contributes to low visibility and biased viewpoints of news stories.

The most prominent finding about international coverage of South Korea was the fact that it is reported with an emphasis on financial aspects and a predominantly negative tone. The financial dimension was found to be the most prominent dimension when international media reported about South Korea; second was social dimension, third the physical dimension, and last was cultural dimension. In 2007, as South Korea’s a second largest trading partner, the United States was in negotiations over a Free Trade Agreement for almost seven months in 2007. The finding that one third of financial news took FTA (Free Trade Agreement) as a topic shows how media was concerned about the FTA issue during that time. Among the terms of negotiation, beef imports and screening quota reductions brought vigorous opposition from the Korean public followed by massive demonstrations. Hundreds of thousands of people gathered in front of the City Hall and marched toward the Blue House. This got the media’s attention in a negative way. Because this directly related to the United States, the media probably was not unable to give other issues such as tourism with the same amount of attention. It is interesting to see that financial dimension have the highest percentage of negative coverage and the highest percentage of positive coverage comparing other three dimensions. In other words, the media is more likely to report economic news either in positive or negative, not in neutral way than other dimensions.

The fact that the dimension with most negative tone was the social dimension is worth noting. The social dimension has the most negative tone coverage (42%) and the least positive coverage (9.4%). That is, international news media portrays the social
dimension of South Korea in most negative way. This attributes to the fact that 37 out of 117 news stories are regarding North Korea. North Korea as an international threat, the international media deal with many news stories of North Korea in a negative way. South Korea, as a military ally of the United States or neighbor country who used to be one with North Korea, a lot of news contents includes both Korea together. This could contribute to very negative valence of the social dimension.

Another interesting finding regarding overall valence is that the amount of neutral coverage in each dimension was similar to the amount of positive coverage which is impressive. The tendency of many neutral coverage may imply the public’s lukewarm reactions toward South Korea. As previous studies showed, South Korea is evaluated as an average friendly country among many foreign nations to the U.S. public. If the international news media’s neutral valence of news coverage transferred to the public’s perception, ‘lukewarm’ favorability of the public may be affected by the media’s neutral valence.

In regard to agenda setting, this study provided the evidence that a positive relationship exists between media salience and public salience of South Korea. The results of this study show a relatively clear relationship between media coverage of South Korea and how individuals perceive those nations, a finding consistent with the previous literature on attribute agenda setting (e.g., Golan & Wanta, 2003; Wanta, Golan, & Lee, 2004). The visibility in the media over time was found to be correlated with importance level of public toward South Korea. In addition, it demonstrated that negative tone correlates with lower favorability among the public toward the country. McNelly and Izcaray (1986) argued that countries with negative images receive
relatively heavy attention from the media. This negative type of coverage is likely to be accompanied by substantial public awareness about the country in question and its projected image (Benton & Frazier, 1976). In this study the level of impact of negative news about South Korea might be stronger than positive news. They contended that “effective public relations on behalf of such countries should probably take the form of reducing the visibility of negative coverage, perhaps by controlling access to events and information or, alternatively, by altering or reducing the amount of government-generated information” (1986). To manage low visibility or negative valence, public relations professionals can play a significant role. Kiousis and Wu (2008) found that the increased media salience of negative news portrayals was correlated with greater public salience and negative attitudes toward foreign nations. Manheim and Albritton (1984) attempted to investigate the influence of purposive efforts by those outside the political system (e.g., public relations firms) to manipulate media coverage related to their interests. They concluded that a foreign country’s image might shift on both visibility and valence as a result of contracting with an American public relations firm. According to Steaver (1998), some foreign leaders and groups seek to utilize public relations strategists to develop a positive media image, and have been successful at influencing public opinion through media coverage, resulting in significant foreign policy outcomes. Manheim and Albritton (1984) found that Argentina, Indonesia, South Korea, the Philippines and Turkey obtained a more positive coverage from New York Times after they hired American public relations consultants (p. 641-657). The South Koreans government should consider this in planning an effective reputation management strategy.
Even if visibility and valence in the media is correlated with overall reputation of South Korea among publics, the third hypothesis related to dimensional approach was not supported. In other words, the manner in which international media portray each dimension is not necessarily transferred to the public’s perception for some reason. This result implies that even if the public’s perception toward South Korea as a whole is influenced by media portrayal, dimensional perception does not necessarily follow the same pattern. There are several possible explanations to address why a weak agenda setting effect occurred in the reputational dimension.

First, cognitive categorization of the public may have occurred. Categorization is a “joint process of abstraction and generalization” (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006, p. 16) Since people are hardly able to process all the information they face regarding another country, they are not aware of the dimensions and factors of national reputation (Lee, Toth, & Shin, 2008). They tend to combine information with existing categories and may generalize the information they receive. For example, North Korea is often categorized as a ‘threat to the world’. When people are exposed to new information about North Korea, people are more likely to relate the information to the existing category of North Korea. In this study, 57 out of 147 news stories in the financial dimension were related to FTA negotiation. Normally FTA agreement negotiations between the United States and South Korea are supposed to be in the financial dimension. However, during negotiation period in 2007, aggressive protests against beef imports from the United States due to a possibility of mad cow disease broke out among the Korean public. As hundreds of thousands of demonstrators took to the streets to protest the government’s actions, hundreds of online bloggers stepped forward to assume the role of “citizen
reporters” conducting interviews, taking photographs and providing live broadcasts of the protests on their blogs and Internet forums, all made possible the country’s high-speed wireless Internet (Choe, 2008). This massive demonstration attracted the media’s attention and was reported on multiple times. The New York Times said “South Korean farmers and leftist civic groups have staged daily protests against the trade pact. They fear that cheaper U.S. goods would cost tens of thousands of jobs and billions in revenue for local farmers” (p. 4, March, 31, 2007). A massive demonstration normally belongs to the social dimension. In this case, because this social conflict happened due to economic trading, the public may not be aware of multiple dimensions at the same time when they read news stories. If people accept the financial aspect of the story rather than social aspect because South Korea is categorized as a “successful economic county” in their mind, overall perception toward reputational dimensions could be different from how the media portrays each dimension.

Indeed, categorization in national reputation contributes to forming a priority among multiple dimensions. Hamilton and Sherman (1994) argued that categorization increases cognitive efficiency by simplifying things into a category. The financial dimension is confirmed as a primary dimension not only in this study but also in other studies (Lee, Toth, and Shin, 2008). If the public is more likely to simplify through categorization when they face news of South Korea, there is high likelihood that the financial dimension overwhelms other aspects such as the physical dimension.

Second, negative reputation of North Korea may serve as a disadvantage to South Korea’s reputation. North Korea is not merely related to South Korea, it is also an international security concern to powerful countries such as the United States. The U.S.
government and the media has been treated North Korea as a major threat to the security of U.S. citizen. For example, after President George W. Bush’s State of Union address in 2002, indicating that North Korea was part of the “axis of evil”, the U.S. government and the news media framed North Korea as a U.S. security threat. Lim and Seo (2009) found that after President Bush’s axis-of-evil speech, there were an increased number of statements from the U.S. government and the news from The New York Times framed North Korea as a military threat, a country with poor human rights, or a difficult dialogue partner. Besova and Cooley (2009) found that more than 70% of all coverage received about North Korea in U.K. media was in connection with nuclear issues.

Lee, Toth, and Shin (2008) found out that it is difficult for some people to differentiate between South Korea and North Korea; this was also confirmed in the survey results of the Anholt NBI (Nation Branding Index, 2005). One of opinion leaders who participated in this study mentioned, “whenever I think of South Korea, I think of North Korea” (pp. 279). Another participant described that Americans “lump North Korea and South Korea together more than we should” (pp. 279). Therefore, finding out what relationship North Korea has with the United States and how North Korea has been portrayed in the U.S. media is an important part of this issue.

North Korea has been portrayed in the framework of communism or terrorism. According to Newmann (2004), the most common view about terrorist groups in America during the 70s and 80s was that operating terrorists in Western Europe and the Middle East were all connected through a vast terrorist network (p. 15). The U.S. media followed this ideology. Even though the relationship between the U.S. and North Korea
changed positively from 1993 for awhile as the Clinton administration adapted an ‘Engagement and Enlargement’ policy over North Korea (Harrison, 2002, p. 86), after 2001, North Korea became a serious security threat to the world with the Bush administration’s hard line policy accusing North Korea’s missile plan. This also had a negative impact on South Korea’s diplomatic negotiation with North Korea during that period. Within this interpretive framework, the news coverage of North Korea’s missile and nuclear ambition has sensational value because it resonated in American political culture (Hall, 1982; Herman & Chomsky, 1988; Bennett, 1990). Keeping this mind, more attention should be paid to North Korea when the reputation of South Korea is measured. One country’s reputation being tied to that of another country is a very rare and interesting scenario which needs further study and attention.

Finally, the public’s level of interest and ability to understand elements of each dimension may differ. One of main reasons why people are hardly engaged in foreign issues is that individuals may find these topics uninteresting or difficult to understand. For the general public who has no direct link to foreign business or politics, it may be more difficult to understand news about an FTA negotiation and it’s political implication than it would be to understand news about the introduction of Taekwondo (a martial art of South Korea). Even though the results of this study found that the media devoted much more space to the financial dimension, people may remember more about the 2002 World Cup, representative of the cultural dimension, because it is easier to understand and is a more interesting subject matter. This suggests that the negative valence of political coverage which reports on six party talks and their implications may not have the same impact on the American public as cultural coverage regarding
successful Korean pop culture. In other words, because the public's interest or capacity to understand issues may differ depending on each dimension, the potential influence of valence could also vary. If this is the case, the South Korean government should attempt to find the dimension which is most interesting or appealing to the U.S. public in order to most effectively enhance the reputation of South Korea.

As an effective reputation management strategy, some studies highlight the role of international public relations. For example, Zhang and Cameron (2002) found that foreign countries' reputation in the U.S. mass media may be cultivated through international public relations. Specializing in coping with public relations matters for foreign governments, international public relations professionals can provide information to the news media and lobby members of Congress (Cutlip, 1989). Kiousis and Wu (2008) found that public relations counsel of 25 countries including South Korea was associated with a decrease in the amount of negative news coverage. Further, they revealed the connection between public relations counsel and increased positive valence in media content at the level of individual news stories. This may be even more effective when the argument of Manheim and Albritton (1984) is considered. In their study, they divided countries into four quadrants depending on level of visibility and level of valence. They argued if the reputation of a county has a negative image and the visibility is low, the public is unlikely to know or to think much about them. They concluded that “the lower a country's initial visibility, the more the target of any efforts at constructive image change should move from the visibility to the valence dimension” (p. 645). In contemporary age where news media conglomerates compete aggressively, increasing visibility might not be a realistic or effective strategy because it comes with
discussion of determinants of international news coverage such as economic interests and other complex systematic factors. This may be the case with South Korea given its average valence and low visibility. This situation requires more strategic approaches from the government rather than focusing only on increasing visibility in reputation management.

**Implications**

This study provides some theoretical and practical implications. First, international agenda setting is useful in explaining how individuals or the public receive and process information about foreign issues and shape their opinions. As previous research has revealed, this study attempts to support the claim that the salience of the agenda in international media coverage influences the salience of the agenda among the public. In addition, it shows the way in which international media portrays attributes of the agenda impacts in the way in which the public views the agenda as well. The international media’s portrayal of the substantive and affective attributes of South Korea’s reputation influences the public’s thoughts about South Korea. Understanding this phenomenon leads us to ask public relations professionals, “How can public relations efforts serve to increase salience of the agenda for the better?” Past research has found that public relations counsel is valuable in helping countries to reinforce their reputation (Kiousis & Wu, 2008). This study enlarges the scope of agenda setting scholarship from corporate reputation or social issues to a focus on national reputation and international studies.

Second, this study makes useful contributions in reputation studies and practice. It is a more comprehensive approach to measuring various dimensions of South Korean reputation, which may be more valuable than single-item approaches, such as the use of favorability in “Perceptions of Foreign Nations” in the Gallup Poll (2008). This
approach allows each country’s government to acknowledge their own strengths and weaknesses which would lead to more successful management strategies for improving reputation in a global era. Regarding “soft power”, or a country’s ability to influence others, Nye and Jisi (2009) claimed that “government sometimes finds it difficult to control or employ soft power, but that does not diminish its importance” (p. 19). For example, if North Korea is associated with South Korea in the minds of the public (cultural appeal), then this may negatively impact the reputation of South Korea (Anholt, 2005). Thus, the South Korean government must aggressively attempt to overcome this negative attribute. A focus on economic success (financial appeal) could be one solution to this. For example, although college students may be aware of famous brands such as Samsung or LG, they may not connect these successful brands with South Korea. Considering that public opinion toward foreign nations is a comprehensive and collective process that is influenced by several factors, a multidimensional approach to the analysis of national reputations is essential.

In conclusion, the media, the public and foreign policy are becoming more closely related in today’s global era. With on-going globalization, governments have become increasingly concerned with maintaining a positive national image (Hill, 1999). This study showed that the public might not necessarily be influenced strongly by how media has shown each dimension of South Korea. In other words, even if the media report a financial event very negatively, the public might reject the idea based on categorization, issues may only be accepted with minimal impact or level of ability and interest. This means the government may need to establish multifaceted ways to manage reputation besides media coverage. For example, Falconi (2007) discussed the advantages of
social media (e.g., Web blog or other social network-oriented media) over mainstream media in the enhancement of Britain’s reputation. As an effective intercommunication channel, social media can be utilized in managing South Korea’s reputation with international publics.

**Limitations and Future Research**

Even though this study contributes significantly to the areas of international agenda setting, national reputation and international public relations, the study has several limitations. One of the major drawbacks of the study is its time frame. Fombrun and Van Riel suggest that reputation is built over time (2003). They contended that reputation is formed with cumulative images rather than fragmentary perceptions from a separate event or experience (2003). For dimensional approach, this study collected data of one year prior to the survey period with only one public survey data due to lack of resource about dimensional reputation surveys. Future research should have a wider time frame with more survey data. A comparison between different time frames would also be useful.

Second, the analysis did not include any potential influence on the media agenda by outside sources, such as national leader or specific event. For example, FTA in this study, was undoubtedly a important factor affecting the final coverage of foreign nations in U.S. news media content. It is not easy to control for the severity, timing and location of a breaking world event. Another example is the U.S. president who is primary news source with power to impact coverage by statements of policy. This could raise or lower nations on the media. For future research, this would appear to be a fruitful area.
Finally, future research may include various kinds of the media. Incorporating other forms of media in their content analysis such as television or radio transcripts may be useful in broadening the scope of public opinion.
### APPENDIX
CODING SHEET – REPUTATION OF SOUTH KOREA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Variable Label</th>
<th>Value Labels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>ID</td>
<td>Identification Number</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATELINE1</td>
<td>Story Date</td>
<td>mm/dd/yy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATELINE2</td>
<td>Story Location</td>
<td>Seoul, Tokyo, Incheon, Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LENGTH</td>
<td>Story Length</td>
<td>0000-9998, 9999 = missing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HLTONE</td>
<td>Headline Tone</td>
<td>0=Negative, 1=Mixed, 2-Neutral, 3=Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKHL</td>
<td>South Korea Headline Mention</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USHL</td>
<td>United States Headline Mention</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKLPM</td>
<td>South Korea Lead Paragraph Mention</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPDIM1</td>
<td>Reputational Dimension - Physical</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPDIM2</td>
<td>Reputational Dimension - Financial</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPDIM3</td>
<td>Reputational Dimension - Cultural</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPDIM4</td>
<td>Reputational Dimension - Social</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOTONE</td>
<td>Text Tone</td>
<td>0=Negative, 1=Mixed, 2-Neutral, 3=Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USINV</td>
<td>U.S. Involvement</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONF</td>
<td>Conflict Oriented</td>
<td>0=No, 1=Yes</td>
</tr>
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U.S. Census Bureau, Foreign Trade Division, Data Dissemination Branch


BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Jaekyung Kim received her Bachelor of Arts degree in English literature from Ajou University, Suwon, Korea, in 1998 and 2002, respectively. She completed her Master of Arts in mass communication with a specialty in public relations from University of Florida in 2010. During her graduate studies, she focused on international public relations, corporate social responsibility. After graduation, she plans to continue her public relations career in the United States by becoming involved in practical areas of public relations.