APPLYING THE EXTENDED PARALLEL PROCESS MODEL TO EXAMINE POSTERS IN 2008 CHINESE ANNUAL ANTI-DRUG CAMPAIGN

By

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This thesis idea came to me when I was at the dinner table with Jane and Richard Eskew, my American parents. We were talking about the drug problems in the U.S and my encounter with a drug dealer in Puerto Rico when Jane asked me, “Is drug a serious social problem in China too? What did the Chinese government do to prevent it?” I have started my research since then, and I’m answering those questions with this thesis today, more than a year after they were raised by the Eskew’s. I would like to thank my American parents for giving me the inspiration and also their care for me in every possible way. They made my life in the U.S. truly at home.

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ABSTRACT

Rui Shi

APPLYING THE EXTENDED PARALLEL PROCESS MODEL TO EXAMINE POSTERS IN 2008 CHINESE ANNUAL ANTI-DRUG CAMPAIGN

Thesis under the direction of Michael David Hazen, Ph.D., Professor of Communication.

The present study sought to examine the content structure of the current anti-drug campaign messages in China through the lens of the Extended Parallel Process Model. Four major factors of the EPPM (severity, susceptibility, response efficacy, and self-efficacy) served as the main coding categories of the content analysis to assess the posters’ potential persuasiveness. The findings revealed that the severity of drug abuse and drug trafficking was communicated significantly more frequently than the other three factors, and response efficacy were significantly less prominent than the other three factors.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

AND

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Introduction

According to the United Nations’ 2007 World Drug Report, the total number of drug addicts or problem drug users reached 25 million worldwide. This estimate has not changed much in recent years at the global level, as increases in some countries were offset by declines in others. Unfortunately, China is among those countries whose number of problem drug users increases year by year. The data released by the Chinese Ministry of Public Security shows that 148,000 problem drug users were registered with the public security institutions in 1991. The number jumped to 1,000,000 in 2002, and then grew to 1,140,400 in 2004, among which 81.1% were heroin users (Chen, 2006). According to Chen (2006), the numbers above were just the tip of the iceberg. Every registered drug user has at least seven more hidden behind him, which means the population of drug users in China was around 10 million.

As Zhou (2001) noted, drug abuse is not only a social problem to modern China but also a sensitive issue closely tied to China’s history, international relationships and national identity. Chinese governmental effort to fight against drugs has lasted for 170 years, starting from June 3, 1839 when Governor Lin Zexu burned the British opium stocks in Humen beach, Guangdong province and hence catalyzed the first Opium War (1839-42). Since then, three governments (the Qing dynasty, the Nationalist, and the current Communist) have created national anti-drug campaigns with the current People’s Republic of China government launching the most extensive and successful ones in 1952 (Baumler, 2007; Yang, 2003; Zhou, 1999; Zhou, 2001). Since then China had successfully abstained from drugs for about 20 years, and during the time that rate of drug use was virtually zero. In the late 1970s the illicit international narcotics tide started...
to flow in from the southwestern border where the "Golden Triangle," one of the world’s largest sources of drugs is located. The number of drug addicts in China keeps rising, drug-related crime cases constantly increase, and drug abuse as a social problem is becoming more and more serious. As the Chinese Information Office of the State Council (2000) stated, “the situation is grim for the anti-drug struggle.”

The current Chinese government believes it is a fundamental and strategic task to raise the consciousness of the whole nation concerning the fight against drugs, (Zhou, 1999) and thus carries out extensive and systematic drug prevention education among all the people. Every year at least one large-scale drug prevention campaign is conducted by central, as well as local, governments on one of the following two dates: June 3, the commemoration date of Lin Zexu's burning of opium stocks in 1839, or June 26, the International Day Against Illicit Drug Trafficking and Abuse. The systematic campaign has been in process for ten years since 1998; however, the increasing number of drug addicts each year indicates that current drug prevention campaigns in China are not as effective as needed.

In order to find out possible reasons for the ineffectiveness of those campaigns and give suggestion for improvement, it is necessary to gain a comprehensive understanding of the content of the campaign messages first. The current study is an exploratory and descriptive examination of the Chinese anti-drug campaign message contents. Due to the lack of a comprehensive content analysis of Chinese drug prevention campaign messages in the research literature, the current study can serve as the foundation and the first step in a systematic investigation of Chinese anti-drug campaign messages.
Review of Literature

The Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) serves as the main theoretical framework where the key themes analyzed were derived. EPPM is applied because the fear appeal is one of the most used persuasive strategies in Chinese anti-drug campaigns (Baumler, 2007; Zhou, 2001). In the following section a brief discussion of the previous studies on Chinese anti-drug campaigns is presented followed by a review of the EPPM.

Anti-Drug Campaigns in China

*Chinese Massive campaigns.* Generally speaking, mass campaigns were extensively used by the Chinese Communist Party as a political tool from the first day it took power, and the purpose of these movements was not only to persuade people to perform certain behavior, but to make changes in their values and personality (Yu, 1971), because it was believed that “the prerequisite for the building of a new socialist nation is the creation of new socialist men” (p.860).

As Yu (1971) noted, “the nation since 1949 has always been engaged in one major mass movement or another, simultaneously with large-scale campaigns or drives for different sections of the population at particular times” (p.839). He then listed some of the most known nation-wide campaigns from 1949 to 1959, and the number of the campaigns in these ten years reached 81. Yu categorized the campaigns into three themes, one of which was “struggle against certain classes or groups of people” (p.843). Although anti-drug campaigns were not mentioned specifically by Yu, drug addicts and drug dealers fit in to “certain groups of people” quite well.
**Posters as Mass Media.** Stephenson and Quick (2005) suggested that print advertisements can express campaign themes more clearly than visual and audio advertisements because print advertisements can “provide a ‘still’ picture that often is associated with text.” (p. 702). Similar to their preference to print advertisements, the Chinese government uses posters more than other campaign methods.

The Chinese Communist Party government’s appreciation of posters dates back to its first day in power. Big-character posters were extensively used in all the major movements in Chinese contemporary history, and the popularity of posters reached a peak in the ten-year Cultural Revolution (Leijonhufvud, 1990). Big-character posters, at the time, were referred by the Party organ as “the most effective means of freely mobilizing the masses” (People’s Daily, 1966). Later scholars consider these posters a “vital device whereby the authorities can keep in touch with the people” and more importantly “a unique medium of communication…especially relevant to China’s …basic condition as a big, populous country with limited resources” (Leijonhufvud, 1990, p. 14).

**Fear Appeals in Chinese Anti-Drug Campaigns.** China has a long tradition of using fear appeals in anti-drug campaigns. Drugs have been consistently defined as a powerful national enemy, social evil, and the cause of the fall of the great empire in the past two centuries (Baumler, 2007; Zhou, 2001). In addition, the Chinese anti-drug campaigns in the past few years have been repeatedly described by the media as “eye catching” or “creating strong visual impact” (e.g. Xinhua News Agency, 2007; Xinming Evening Post, 2006). Several kinds of fear have been elicited in the anti-drug campaigns in China both historically and contemporarily.
In the macroscopic view, Speaker (2001) identifies conspiracy as one of the common themes in the 1920s anti-drug materials in America. She explained “there are not the sometimes justifiable concerns about anarchists, big business, or corrupt government, but fears of huge, perhaps global conspiracies which imminently threaten civilization itself” (p. 595). It is not surprising this conspiracy theory gained even more popularity in China at the time, since China had suffered two Opium Wars inflicted by westerners, and the last feudal government had just fallen apart. The history of the Opium Wars is still shaping China’s contemporary discourse on drugs (Zhou, 1999), but there has been a slight shift in the interpretation of history. Conspiracy of the imperialists to swallow up the eastern wealth and corrupt the eastern civilization has been replaced by the notion of patriotism. In other words, modern campaigns link drug abuse to shame and judge it as unpatriotic because “China was humiliated and weakened by the imperialists and opium, and that all Chinese today should make the country stronger and not abuse drugs lest history repeat itself” (p. 122).

Drug as a threat to social order and the public security is another theme constantly appearing in anti-drug campaigns. Zhou (1999) argued that the Chinese government was forced to depoliticize the drug phenomenon after the Tian’anmen Incident of 1989 and defined it as more a social problem rather than an ideological one. Thus the current campaigns often relate drug abuse to prostitution, robbery, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), HIV, or an increasing crime rate.

The threat of drugs on the personal level is also salient in campaigns. According to Zhou (2001), narratives about the miserable lives of drug addicts were acknowledged by some authorities as a more effective way to reach the masses in campaigns in the
1950s. Drug addicts were described as victims who were doomed to drag down their whole families, to suffer huge pain and even hurt themselves when they couldn’t find drugs, and most important of all, to die lonely, ugly and dreadfully at the corner of a street (Baumler, 2007; Zhou, 1999; Zhou, 2001). Pictures show bony bodies or bloody skin, and “before and after” sections show the changes of physical appearance in the drug addicts. In 2007, new technology was also introduced to the drug prevention activities. People can now stand in front of a camera, and a machine will tell you what you would look like if you start using drugs (Xinhua News Agency, 2007).

In addition, after reading through China’s 170-year long anti-drug war, it is not difficult to see that the fear of legal punishment is the most consistent fear themes used by Chinese campaigners. The government used mass rallies, public trials, or even public executions to “exert psychological effects on society in general, and on drug offenders in particular” (Zhou, 2001, p.242). For the 1952 anti-drug campaign, the execution rate of the arrested drug offenders was set in advance at about 0.5%, but then adjusted to 2% by the central government for the purpose of educating the masses. Zhou (1999) described the phenomenon as “the extensive use of state violence” and “the most striking aspect of the current anti-drug campaign” (p. 131).

**Studies on Chinese Anti-Drug Campaigns.** There is a very limited number of studies in the literature on anti-drug campaigns in China, and they are usually conducted by historians (e.g. Baumler, 2007; Bellow, 2005) with a focus on China’s anti-opium effort before and after the Opium war, or by anthropologists (e.g. Zhou, 1999; Zhou, 2001) who investigated the relationship between Communist China’s anti-drug movement and state
building after 1949. The researchers mentioned above had done case studies, rhetorical analysis, interviews, and textual analysis. They macroscopically assessed the intention of the government and the effects of the campaigns in terms of political, social, ideological, and even economical change. Unfortunately, empirical study was never done on the topic and little attention has ever been paid to the actual messages communicated.

In addition, anti-drug discourse in China has been changing in accord with the dramatic social changes since 1978 when China implemented the “Reform and Opening up policy.” Most of the studies on Chinese anti-drug campaigns, however, examined historical materials, and the contemporary Anti-drug campaigns after 1978 is seldom studied. The “Reform and Opening up policy” is considered important because that was the time China started to change from a planned economy to the market-directed economy, which not only brought in western money but also western culture and thoughts. Massive campaigns in China were easier to achieve the desired effects before 1978 when the public were more passive and obedient, but after the nation opened up to the outside world free thoughts came in, and the simple repression started to fail. 1989 is another year that is worth looking at because of the Tian’anmen Square Incident, which according to Zhou (1999) had a profound impact on the anti-drug discourse of the time. Zhou (1999) described the campaigns after 1989 as “a ‘People’s War’ without people,” because “though the government has tried to conduct a ‘People’s War’ on drugs, the old strategy seems not to be working well under the new social circumstances” (p.131). The Chinese government was faced with a crisis of legitimacy after the Tian’anmen Square incident (Zhou, 2000), and it started to have to tendency to move from coercion to persuasion in massive campaigns in general, and anti-drug campaigns in specific, due to
the change of its political, social, and economic circumstances since then. In the last paragraph of his 1990s chapter, Zhou briefly mentioned the large-scale anti-drug poster exhibition launched in the summer of 1998. He described it as a successful campaign which attracted a large number of viewers and pleased the central government a lot. Of course he didn’t know the poster exhibition would last for ten years till today.

Because there was a move from coercion to persuasion in the anti-drug discourse in China in the past decade, it would deepen the understanding of the current Chinese anti-drug campaigns by examining the anti-drug posters through the lens of a persuasion theory. As elaborated earlier, fear appeal is one of the most used persuasive strategies in Chinese anti-drug campaigns, so the Extended Paralled Process Model is selected over other theories to be the main theoretical framework where the key themes analyzed were derived.

The Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM): the Theoretical Framework

In order to address the harmful consequences of drug abuse, emotional appeals are usually used in campaigns as persuasive strategies, and fear is one of the best studied among all the emotions (O’Keefe, 2002). Fear appeals are persuasive messages that are designed to scare people by describing the horrible consequences of certain behaviors (Witte, 1992). They have been widely used in drug prevention campaigns from the beginning. After studying the 1920-1940 anti-narcotic campaigns in the United States, Speaker (2001) pointed out that an intensely fearful rhetoric about drugs was constructed by government officials, authors, and media in general, and she further argued that such a “genealogy” of anti-drug rhetoric extends into the war on drugs today. This point was
supported by a content analysis of the advertisements designed for parents in the National Anti-Drug Youth Media Campaign starting from 1998 (Stephenson & Quick, 2005), in which researchers found risk messages the most prevalent (26.5%) among seven theme categories. According to Stephenson and Witte (2001), the merit of fear appeals lies in its vividness and ability to gain attention from the viewer.

Theoretical models for fear appeals were first proposed in the United States in 1950s (Hovland, Janis & Kelly, 1953), and since then several significant modifications have been made based on empirical studies. Witte’s (1992) Extended Parallel Process Model is the most recent effort to improve the theory. The EPPM serves as a theoretical guide for the current content analysis in identifying key variables to analyze, and it provides a greater understanding of how the Chinese government communicates about illicit drugs to the public.

EPPM generally suggests two distinct processes may occur when health risk messages arouse fear in people, one is the “danger control process,” and the other is the “fear control process” (Leventhal, 1970, 1971; Witte, 1992; Witte, Meyer & Martell, 2001). People engaged in the danger control process would be motivated by the fear to change their behavior and thus control the danger. People engaged in the fear control process would adopt maladaptive behavior to control their feelings. This is when the fear appeal backfires because people become defensive and reject the message to avoid the fearful feeling. Four factors were identified in EPPM to specify when one process would dominate the other: 1) severity of threat, 2) susceptibility to threat, 3) self-efficacy, and 4) response-efficacy (Witte, 1992). For the purpose of the present study, each factor is discussed with the example of anti-drug messages.
Fear can be elicited when people perceive threats from the messages, and the level of fear depends on an audience’s evaluation of the severity of the threat and their own susceptibility to the threat (Easterling & Leventhal, 1989; Witte, 1992; Witte, Meyer & Martell, 2001). Severity refers to the magnitude of the danger or risk, and susceptibility refers to the likelihood of an individual to experience such danger or risk. A severity message shows the harm of drug abuse, and an extreme example would be “you will die a dreadful death soon if you start heroin now.” A susceptibility message tries to convince the audience it is at risk, the example being “every year 100,000 people die from drugs and 10,000,000 lose the ability to work.”

Efficacy in fear appeal theories was first identified by Rogers (1975) in his Protection Motivation Theory (PMT), where “efficacy of recommended response” (p.99) is one of the three components. Self-efficacy was added to PMT in 1983 when Roger revised the theory significantly (Rogers, 1983; also see critique in Witte, 1992; Witte, 1998). Both factors were kept in the EPPM. Response efficacy refers to the effectiveness of the recommended action in deterring the threat, for example, “Mr. Wong got a new job and started a new life after he checked out from the rehab.” Self-efficacy messages aim to improve one’s perceived ability to act as recommended, for instance giving step-by-step instructions on how to refuse drugs offered by other people under certain situations; building confidence in people by making them believe they are capable of staying away from / quitting drugs, and so on.

It is generally believed that the stronger the threat is perceived, the greater fear aroused, and the more likely the viewer will respond to the message (Boster & Mongeau, 1984; Mongeau, 1998; Witte & Allen, 2000). When the level of perceived severity and /
or susceptibility is low, people consider drug problem as trivial and/or irrelevant; thus they would not further process the message but simply ignore it. When threat is strong and fear level is high, viewers’ perceived efficacy plays a pivotal role in deciding the effect of the message. As mentioned before, two distinct processes can happen. With a high perceived efficacy people are more likely to accept the message and try to control the danger by adopting the recommended behavior, i.e. staying away from drugs or quitting drugs if they’ve already started using; With a low perceived efficacy they are more likely to become defensive and reject the message (e.g. Let’s just get high and not worry about it right now). That is to say, an intense threat will be more likely to gain compliance when it is accompanied by self-efficacy instructional materials and information on response efficacy.

The EPPM has been studied profusely by researchers mainly in the fields of communication and psychology on a wide range of topics. Topics of the EPPM studies in the last ten years include HIV/AIDS prevention and testing (e.g. Cameron, Witte, Lapinski, & Nzyuko, 1998; Casey, Timmermann, Allen, Krahn, & Turkiewicz, , 2009; Quick, Moriarty & Battle-Fisher, 2008), cardiovascular diseases (e.g. McKay, Berkowitz, Blumberg, & Goldberg, 2004), breast cancer (e.g. Hubbell, 2006), antismoking (e.g. Wong & Cappella, 2009; Wright, French, Weinman, & Marteau, 2006), Alcohol usage (Moscato et al., 2001), anxiety/uncertainty Management (Hullett, Craig, &Witte, 2001), firearm injury and death (Roberto, Meyer, Johnson, & Atkin, 2000), hearing loss/protection (Murray-Johnson et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2008), protection against rape (Morrison, 2005), electromagnetic fields (McMahan, Witte, & Meyer, 1998).
A variety of research methods have been adopted to study the EPPM and its four factors. In a meta-analysis conducted by Witte and Allan (2000), 98 studies were identified as using experimental design alone, and among which 51 studied fear, 33 studied severity, 29 studied susceptibility, 24 studied response efficacy, and 17 studied self-efficacy. EPPM has also been used as a theoretical guide in several content analyses. Kline and Mattson (2000) categorized messages from 28 breast self-examination pamphlets into the four EPPM factors and came to the conclusion that the efficacy messages were “substantively weak” (p.1), and the portion of threat and efficacy arguments were not balanced. Brown and Lewis (2003) also grounded their study in the EPPM when they content analyzed cervical cancer messages in women’s magazines. Their findings suggested that women’s magazines put more emphasis on threats than efficacy, and that susceptibility was addressed especially well in magazines whose target readers are younger women.

Summary and Research Questions

The present study seeks to extend the research on Chinese anti-drug campaigns by examining the messages communicated to the public in the 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaigns. To be specific, a content analysis was conducted on the posters exhibited in the campaign. The study is different from the previous ones on the same topic because 1) it looks at the Chinese anti-drug campaign on the microscopic level; 2) it adopts an empirical research method; and 3) it studies the actual messages communicated. What’s more, the current study will bring the knowledge and understanding about Chinese anti-drug campaigns up to date.
EPPM serves as the theoretical framework. It suggests a successful fear appeal message should advocate high level of threat with severity and susceptibility, and at the same time point a way out for solution with response efficacy and self-efficacy (Stephenson & Witte, 2001). From the lens of EPPM, the following questions were asked:

RQ1: How often do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign cover messages addressing the severity of drug abuse and drug trafficking?

RQ2: How often do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign provide evidence to demonstrate the susceptibility of drug users and/or drug dealers to experience these bad consequences?

RQ3: To what extent do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign include messages that aim to enhance viewers’ perceived response-efficacy?

RQ4: To what extent do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign include messages that aim to increase viewers’ perceived self-efficacy?
CHAPTER TWO

METHOD
The present study is a content analysis of the Chinese anti-drug campaign posters. The most prevalent threats themes, evidence types, and efficacy promotion tactics are identified by examining those campaign messages through the lens of the EPPM.

Sample

164 anti-drug posters were collected from two settings. The first included posters from the annual national anti-drug campaign on June 26, 2008 where posters were hung in lines and exhibited on city squares, in community centers and near shopping centers to attract passengers. The sample posters were from two cities: 107 pieces from Yichang city of Hubei province and 27 pieces from Dazhou city of Sichuan province. The second setting included posters from the Chinese National Anti-drug Education Exemplary Base in Beijing. The exemplary base is open to the public as an exhibition hall, presenting anti-drug posters and other entity exhibit year round. A group tour in the education Exemplary base is a part of the annual national anti-drug campaign in Beijing. 30 posters were collected from Beijing.

A camera (Cannon Digital IXUS 75) was brought to the Chinese National Anti-drug education exemplary base in Beijing by the author to take pictures of the posters exhibited. The Beijing data were collected in the early June of 2008, and the staff of the site said those posters had not been, and would not be, moved or changed before the June 26 campaign. The same camera was used by the author to take pictures of anti-drug posters in the annual exhibition on June 26, 2008 in Yichang. A collaborator took pictures of the posters in Dazhou on the same day. Two pictures were taken for every
poster, and the more readable one or the one with a better image quality was chosen for analysis.

**Coder Training**

Two native Chinese served as coders, so there was no need to translate the posters. Three stages of training were administered to the coders by the author in a week, and the training lasted around 10 hours in all. Simple agreement level and Kappa were both calculated on every category for inter-coder reliability. The acceptance level was set at .80 for simple agreement, and .70 for Kappa.

In the first stage, the author explained the definition of each category and subcategory, and gave several examples as elaboration. The coders were then given 5 trial posters to code together with the author. Finally the coders coded another 5 pieces independently. An informal inter-coder reliability test was run at the end of the first stage, but either simple agreement or Kappa achieved the acceptance level mentioned above. After a brief discussion with the coders the coding sheet was revised with some subcategories added, some reorganized and some further clarified (See Appendix A and B for the revised coding sheet in both English and Chinese).

The author then started the second stage of training. The revisions of the coding sheet were explained and some categories defined with more details and examples. The coders were then given 5 trial posters to code together with the author on the revised coding sheet, followed by their independent coding of another 5 trial posters. An informal inter-coder reliability test was run at the end of the second stage, and both simple agreement and Kappa achieved the acceptance level.
The last training session was a pilot test when inter-coder reliability was tested with 30 randomly selected posters (Lacy & Riffe, 1996; Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002). All the categories and subcategories received a simple agreement higher than .80 and a kappa higher than .70. (for example among the four major categories the kappa of “Severity” reached .87, “Susceptibility” reached .74, “Response efficacy” achieved .80, and “Self-efficacy” achieved .87. Since the reliability levels in the pilot test was adequate, the training was officially completed and the rest of the full sample was coded by two coders independently.

After all the posters were coded the official inter-coder reliability was accessed with 50 posters that were randomly selected from the full sample (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002; Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 2005), and it was calculated before the author broke ties in cases where a disagreement exists between the two coders. Inter-coder reliability confidents for all the categories were reported in Table 1 at the end of this chapter.

**Categories**

Posters were coded for the existence or absence of message concerning 1) severity, 2) susceptibility, 3) response efficacy, and 4) self-efficacy.

**Severity**

Posters with either verbal arguments or visual depiction (or both) about the danger of drug abuse / drug trafficking were coded as containing severity message.

Verbal threat was further operationalized as the mentioning of the following consequences: (a) Harm physical health, (b) Ruin future (career/school achievement), (c)
Economic difficulties, (d) Legal punishment, (e) Social consequences, (f) Moral judgment (shame), and (g) Impede nation development. Six out of seven of the subcategories above were derived from Witte’s (2001) notion that threats can be of all kinds: physical, social, economical, ethical, and so on, and they were consistent with the fear themes China used to adopt in the past campaigns as reviewed in chapter one. Item (b) was added to the coding sheet during its revision after a brief review of all the posters by the author. Posters falling in “(a) Harm physical health” were then coded for the specific health costs mentioned (e.g. death, addiction, HIV/AIDS, brain damage, and so forth. See Appendix A for details). Posters falling in “(e) Social consequences” were then coded into the following three social costs: (e.1) Lose family / friend, (e.2) Hurt family / friend (e.3) Hurt other innocent people.

Similar to its verbal counterpart, visual threat was further operationalized as the posters containing the image that (a) Indicates death, (b) Shows damaged human bodies or indicated bad health, (c) Indicates legal punishment, (d) Indicates economic difficulties, and (e) Indicates hurt or lose family / friend. See Appendix A for examples of the subcategories.

Susceptibility

To examine the frequency of posters to demonstrate one’s likelihood of experiencing the risks mentioned above, coders looked for the following evidence in posters (a) Factual example, (b) Hypothetical example, and (c) Statistics (Quick, in press).

Response Efficacy
Coders were instructed to look for information about the effectiveness of the recommended behaviors for individuals or the achievement of the related organization in their effort to control drug abuse and drug trafficking.

Self-Efficacy

Posters were finally coded to determine if they aimed to promote viewers’ perceived self-efficacy, i.e. their perceived ability to stay away from drugs or to stop drug abuse / drug trafficking. The subcategories for self-efficacy were designed based on the most common obstacles to performing health behaviors, namely lack of skills, lack of access to information / treatment/ equipment, lack of knowledge, and lack of self-confidence (Witte, 2000). Witte (2000) argued that barriers “represent the flip side of self-efficacy” (p. 21), thus to achieve a high level of self-efficacy, messages should aim at reducing the barriers by (a) Giving specific, step by step instructions (e.g. Say no to the hooligan when you are offered drugs without irritating him, and tell your parents / teacher afterwards); (b) Recommending ways to access help / treatment / more knowledge (e.g. Call 800xxxxxx ); (c) Providing knowledge about illicit drugs (e.g. what does heroin look like) (d) Promoting self-confidence (e.g. it is possible to quit heroin, you can do it).

All the major categories, as well as subcategories, were not mutually exclusive because it is completely possible for each poster to contain multiple categories, for example a poster can stress severity and promote self-efficacy at the same time, and it can mention both death as a threat to physical health and losing family as a social threat.

Figure I shows the overall design of this content analysis, and gives a direct view of the relationship among four major categories and their subcategories.
Figure I. Overall Design of the Content Analysis

- Self-Efficacy
  - Giving specific, step by step instructions
  - Recommending ways to access help / treatment / knowledge
  - Providing knowledge about illicit drugs
  - Promoting self-confidence

- Susceptibility
  - Factual example
  - Hypothetical example
  - Statistics

- Severity
  - Verbal threats
    - Indicate death
    - Show damaged human body / bad health
  - Visual threats
    - Indicate legal punishment
    - Indicate economic difficulties
    - Indicate hurt or lose family / friend

- Response Efficacy
  - Giving specific, step by step instructions
  - Recommending ways to access help / treatment / knowledge
  - Providing knowledge about illicit drugs
  - Promoting self-confidence

- Death
- Addiction
- Brain damage
- ...(20 items omitted)...
- Insomnia

- Harm physical health
- Ruin future
- Economic difficulties
- Legal punishment
- Social Consequences
- Moral judgment
- Impede nation development
- Lose family / friend
- Hurt family / friend
- Hurt other innocent people

... (20 items omitted) ...

- Verbal threats
- Visual threats

- Indicate death
- Show damaged human body / bad health
- Indicate legal punishment
- Indicate economic difficulties
- Indicate hurt or lose family / friend
Data Analysis Strategy

Chi square tests for goodness-of-fit were conducted on four major categories to determine whether the existence and absence of each factor differ in frequency. Cochran’s Q test was then run to determine if certain factors emerged more than others. Cochran’s Q test was suitable for the present study because each of the categories represented dichotomous nominal data that were non-independent (since the categories were not mutually exclusive). Since Cochran’s Q test is an omnibus test, McNemar tests were then performed to find out where statistical significant differences occurred. Bonferroni corrections were employed to minimize the likelihood of committing a Type I error (Quick, in press). The same line of tests starting from Cochran’s Q were then conducted on subcategories to determine the most utilized severity themes, susceptibility evidence types and self-efficacy promotion strategies.

Validity and Reliability

15 posters randomly selected from the sample using the table of random numbers (Frey, Botan, & Kreps, 2000) were given to the coders repeatedly in the training session for several trials. They were excluded from the final analysis because of concerns prior decisions made by the coder in the trial would contaminate her latter decisions made in the recoding process (Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 2005). Therefore the results of the current study come from 149 posters.

The coding sheet of the present study was originally developed in English on the basis of the coding sheet used in Quick’s (in press) study where he content analyzed TV advertisements for steroids under the guidance of the Health Belief Model. The coding
sheet was translated into Chinese by the author, and then back translated into English by another Chinese graduate student in the U.S. Two English versions were compared and most of the differences were resolved after brief discussion between two translators. The term “susceptibility” caused the only disagreement, and thus a professor in the Department of East Asian Languages & Cultures of Wake Forest University was consulted.

To test the inter-coder reliability Brennan and Prediger’s (1981) kappa was selected over Cohen’s (1960) kappa since Cohen’s kappa was more suitable for fixed marginal studies. The present study is free marginal because “there is no restrictions placed on the distribution of judgments over categories” for each coder (Cohen, 1960. p.38), which means the coders are “completely free to assign objects to categories in any way they choose (Brennan and Prediger, 1981. p. 692).” In addition, Quick (in press) argued that Cohen’s kappa penalizes coders for higher level of simple agreement and Brennan and Prediger’s kappa corrects the problem by “disregarding simple agreement altogether and instead, assumes chance agreement is determined solely by the number of categories in the coding scheme (p.12).”

Table 1 reports both the simple agreement (SA) and the Brennan and Prediger’s kappa (KB&P) for all the categories and subcategories.
Table 1.
Inter-Coder Reliability Coefficients for Categories and Subcategories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Name</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>K_{B&amp;P}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Severity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal threats</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Harm physical health</em></td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Ruin future</em></td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Economic difficulties</em></td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Legal punishment</em></td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Social Consequences</em></td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Moral judgment (shame)</em></td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Impede nation development</em></td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual threats</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Indicate death</em></td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Show damaged human body/ bad health</em></td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Indicate legal punishment</em></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Indicate economic difficulties</em></td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>Indicate hurt or lose family / friend</em></td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Susceptibility</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factual example</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical example</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Response efficacy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Name</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>K_{B&amp;P}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific, step by step instructions</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways to access help / treatment / more knowledge</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing knowledge about drugs</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting self-confidence</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 149
CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS
The present study aims to examine the content structure of anti-drug posters in China through the lens of the Extended Parallel Process Model. Therefore the major coding categories reflected in the research questions are four major components of the EPPM (as exemplified in Figure I).

Results of Four Research Questions

**RQ1: How often do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign cover messages addressing the severity of drug abuse and drug trafficking?**

The first research question asked the frequency of messages addressing the severe consequences of drug abuse and drug trafficking. Result from a one-sample Chi square test with comparison level of 50% showed that a majority (n = 130) of the 149 posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign contained severity messages, $\chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 82.69, p < .001$.

Among the 130 posters in the category of severity, 113 talked about the possible threats with words (“Verbal threats”) and 96 showed the threats with images (“Visual threats”). The following are results of further analysis on verbal threats themes, their sub-themes, and then the analysis on visual threats themes.

“Legal punishment” and “Harm physical health” were the most mentioned themes in verbal threats, followed by issues of “Impede nation development,” “Social consequences,” “Economic difficulties,” “Ruin future,” and “Moral judgment (shame).” A Cochran’s Q test showed there was statistical difference among the frequencies of these verbal threats themes, $Q (6, N = 149) = 165.4, p < .001$.

McNemar tests were then run to find out significant differences across all pair wise comparisons. Frequency and
McNemar tests results for verbal threats themes are presented in Table 2. Verbal threat themes in the table are ranked according to frequency.

Table 2.

Frequencies for Verbal Threats Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal punishment</td>
<td>71 \textsubscript{a}</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harm physical health</td>
<td>65 \textsubscript{a}</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impede nation development</td>
<td>33 \textsubscript{b}</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Consequences</td>
<td>28 \textsubscript{b,c}</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic difficulties</td>
<td>21 \textsubscript{b,c}</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruin future (career, school etc.)</td>
<td>12 \textsubscript{c,d}</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral judgment (shame)</td>
<td>6 \textsubscript{d}</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* N = 149. Frequencies that do not share the same subscripts differ at $p < .002$.

Sub-themes were developed for two out of the seven verbal threats themes above for further coding: “Harm physical health” and “Social Consequences”. Only these two themes were broken down because they are broader than the other five, which are single categories with fewer dimensions.

24 specific health costs were developed under “Harm physical health as its sub-themes, and the results suggested that, among the 65 posters addressing the impact of drugs on physical health “Addiction” and “Death” are the most mentioned health consequence, followed by “Nervous system damage,” “HIV/AIDS,” “Heart / cardiovascular damage,” and so on. Table 3 shows the frequency for each of the Sub-
themes of “Harm Physical Health”. Specific health costs in the table are ranked according to frequency.

Table 3.

Frequency for Sub-Themes of “Harm Physical Health”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addiction</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nervous system damage</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart / cardiovascular damage</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brain damage</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact on pregnancy</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased immune function</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance change</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lung damage</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidney damage</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other infectious diseases</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liver damage</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digestive system damage</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impotence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawal symptoms</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nausea and vomiting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three specific social costs were developed as sub-themes of “Social Consequences” to extend the understanding of discourses involving social threats. Table 4 indicates that “Hurting family/friend” received the most attention, followed by the threat of “Losing family/friend,” The threat of “Hurting other people” was covered least, $Q(2, N = 149) = 28.36, p < .001$.

Table 3. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insomnia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endocrine disorders</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blood vessel burst</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Septicemia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dizziness headache</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunctivitis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement disorder</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 149.

Table 4

Frequency for Sub-Themes of “Social Consequences”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hurt family / friend</td>
<td>26&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose family / friend</td>
<td>14&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurt other innocent people</td>
<td>3&lt;sub&gt;c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N=149. Frequencies that do not share the same subscripts differ at $p < .017$. 

Severity messages were sent by words as well as by images. 139 posters have images on them, among which 86 contain only pictures, 46 posters use only cartoons, and 7 posters have both. Similar to verbal threats, “Legal punishment” is the most popular theme for visual threats, followed by “Damaged human body/ bad health”, “Death”, “Economic difficulties”, and “Hurting or losing family / friend”, $Q (4, N = 149) = 45.47, p < .001$. Frequency and McNemar tests results for visual threats themes are presented in Table 5.

Table 5  

Frequency for Visual Threats Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicate legal punishment</td>
<td>55&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show damaged human body/ bad health</td>
<td>32&lt;sub&gt;ab&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate death</td>
<td>30&lt;sub&gt;bc&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate economic difficulties</td>
<td>18&lt;sub&gt;bc&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate hurt or lose family / friend</td>
<td>17&lt;sub&gt;c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N=149. Frequencies that do not share the same subscripts differ at $p < .005$.

**RQ2: How often do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign provide evidence to demonstrate the susceptibility of drug users and / or drug dealers to experience these bad consequences?**

The second research question examined messages on the susceptibility to threats. No significant difference was found between the number of posters communicating
susceptibility (n = 77) and the number that did not communicate susceptibility (n = 72), \( \chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 0.17, p = .68 \).

However, the employment of three types of susceptibility evidences differ significantly, Q (2, N = 149) = 42.66, \( p < .001 \). McNemar tests suggested that factual examples are adopted more than statistics and hypothetical examples to persuade the public that there is a high likelihood that drug users and drug dealers will experience negative consequences. “Factual examples” refers to narratives based on real stories; “Hypothetical example” refers to narratives based on certain given setting; “Statistics” refers to numbers, or “quantitative summary of a large number of instances” (O’Keefe, 2002, p.229). Table 6 presents the frequency and McNemar tests results for susceptibility evidence types.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidence Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factual example</td>
<td>60\textsubscript{a}</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>25\textsubscript{b}</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical example</td>
<td>16\textsubscript{b}</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N=149. Frequencies that do not share the same subscripts differ at \( p < .017 \).

RQ3: To what extent do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign include messages that aim to enhance viewers’ perceived response efficacy?

The third research question analyzed the messages on response efficacy. To answer this question, coders were trained to look in the posters for any information
concerning effectiveness of the recommended behaviors for individuals in deterring the threats or the achievement of the related organization in their effort to control drug abuse and drug trafficking effects. A one-sample Chi square test was conducted and the result indicated the majority (n = 139) of the 149 posters did not aim to enhance viewers’ perceived response efficacy with only a few exceptions that did include messages on effectiveness (n = 10), $\chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 111.69, p < .001$.

**RQ4: To what extent do posters in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign include messages that aim to increase viewers’ perceived self-efficacy?**

RQ4 asked the frequency of messages on self-efficacy in 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign posters. Results showed the majority (n = 97) of the 149 posters did not make any effort to promote viewers’ perceived self-efficacy, $\chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 101.54, p < .001$.

Self-efficacy messages mainly used one or several of the four strategies below to promote the perceived self-efficacy. A significant difference was found among the four strategies for self-efficacy promotion, $Q (3, N = 149) = 39.86, p < .001$, with most of the self-efficacy messages giving specific step by step instructions, followed by messages that provide knowledge about drugs, point to ways to access help/treatment/more knowledge, and promote viewers’ self-confidence. See Table 7 for frequency and McNemar tests results of self-efficacy promotion strategies.
Finally a Cochran’s Q test was conducted to compare the number of messages in the four major categories, i.e. “Severity”, “Susceptibility”, “Response-efficacy”, and “Self-efficacy”, $Q (3, N = 149) = 175.1, p < .001$. McNemar tests showed severity of threats were communicated significantly more frequently than the others, and response efficacy messages were significantly less prominent than the others. A clearer picture can be seen if “Severity” and “Susceptibility” were further grouped as “Threat”, and “Response efficacy” and “Self-efficacy” was further grouped as “Efficacy”. McNemar test showed there were significantly more threat messages ($n = 132$) than efficacy messages ($n = 61$), $\chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 49.50, p < .001$. Table 8 contains frequency and McNemar tests results for the four major factors.

### Table 7

**Frequency for Self-Efficacy Promotion Strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific, step by step instructions</td>
<td>34&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing knowledge about drugs</td>
<td>16&lt;sub&gt;ab&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways to access help / treatment / more knowledge</td>
<td>13&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting self-confidence</td>
<td>1&lt;sub&gt;c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N=149. Frequencies that do not share the same subscripts differ at $p < .008$.***
Table 8

Frequency for Four Major Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Severity</td>
<td>130&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>87.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susceptibility</td>
<td>77&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>52&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response efficacy</td>
<td>10&lt;sub&gt;c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N=149. Frequencies that do not share the same subscripts differ at *p* < .008.

**Additional Results**

After answering all the research questions, it is of interest to further investigate the relationship between the subcategories of the four major factors. The Cramer’s V tests were conducted to test the correlations between threat subcategories and efficacy subcategories. Table 9 showed the correlation coefficients of all pairs of subcategories between threats and efficacy.

Table 9

Correlation Coefficients of All Pairs of Subcategories Between Threats and Efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Threat subcategories</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>Response efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SSS</td>
<td>PK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severity – Verbal threat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LP</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPH</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.18*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Threat subcategories</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>Response efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SSS</td>
<td>PK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Severity – Verbal threat</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RF</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MJ</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Severity – Visual threat</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LP</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHB</td>
<td>-.28**</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-.23**</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HLF</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Susceptibility</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FE</td>
<td>-.28**</td>
<td>-.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>-.20*</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. SSS = Specific, step by step instructions; PK = Providing knowledge about drugs; AH = Ways to access help / treatment / more knowledge; SC = Promoting self-confidence; LP = Legal punishment; HPH = Harm physical health; IND = Impede nation development; SC = Social Consequences; ED = Economic difficulties; RF = Ruin future; MJ = Moral judgment; DHB = Show damaged human body/ bad health; D = Indicate death; HLF = Indicate hurt or lose family / friend; FE = Factual example; S = Statistics; HE = Hypothetical example. *p < .05. **p < .01.*
All the posters were finally coded or the type of drugs they aimed to talk about. The coders were told to choose only one out of the eight options, and the result showed the current anti-drug discourses in China were overwhelmingly constructed for “Drugs in general” (n = 128), $\chi^2(5, N = 149) = 518.4, p < .001$, followed by “Multiple drugs” (n = 13), “Opium poppy” (n = 4), “Ecstasy” (n = 2), “Marijuana” (n = 1) and “Heroin” (n = 1).
CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION
The present content analysis sought to examine the anti-drug posters in China through the lens of the Extended Parallel Process Model and to describe the content structure of the current anti-drug campaign messages in China. Four major factors of the EPPM (“Severity,” “Susceptibility,” “Response efficacy,” and “Self-efficacy”) served as the main coding categories to assess the posters’ potential persuasiveness. The findings revealed that the number of threat messages (n = 132) was significantly larger than the number of efficacy messages (n = 61), which, according to the theory of EPPM, suggest that the persuasive messages in the posters could backfire. The following sections discuss the findings and their implications in detail. Indications for future studies are also explored.

**Conclusions drawn within the EPPM**

The EPPM was chosen as the theoretical framework for this study because the fear appeal was considered to be one of the most prevalent persuasive strategies used by the Chinese government in its anti-drug campaigns. Such a premise was based upon the review of literature, which, as discussed in Chapter One, is a collection of historical or anthropological studies that are not empirical and are out of date. Findings from the current study provided fresh empirical support for the premise. With 88.6% of the posters emphasizing “Severity” or “Susceptibility” or both, one can confidently conclude that fear appeals were very commonly employed in the posters in the 2008 Chinese annual anti-drug campaign.

Results show an overwhelmingly large number of severity messages whereas “Response-efficacy” messages are very scarce. “Susceptibility” and “Self-efficacy” fall into the middle ground, with “Susceptibility” addressed insignificantly more.
As discussed in Chapter One, fear appeals can backfire when the messages are unbalanced, that is if the perceived threats are too much higher than the perceived efficacy. Unfortunately, this is just the case with Chinese anti-drug campaign posters. According to the fear appeal theories, there would be three possible negative effects when efficacy is not addressed adequately. Viewers may reject the message by the denial of a threat (e.g. I don’t believe heroin is addictive), defensive avoidance (e.g. Let’s just get high and not worry about it), or reactance (e.g. The government just want to scare us.) for the purpose of fear control (Hovland, Janis& Kelly, 1953; Janis, 1967; Witte, 2001).

Therefore the EPPM suggested more attention should be given to efficacy messages, particularly response efficacy messages, by campaign designers in China.

The above suggestion was made on the whole design of the campaign, and it would be enough if all the posters were viewed together as a whole, but there was no guarantee that viewers would look at all the posters, because these posters were exhibited on the city square or places alike and viewers were passengers who came and went with free will. Thus it is necessary to take a close look at the content structure of the individual posters.

It is noticeable that in Table 9 “Specific, step by step instructions (SSS)” was either not correlated or negatively correlated with the majority of the threat subcategories (with the only exception of “Hypothetical example (HE)”. Similarly, “Response efficacy” was either not correlated or negatively correlated with all the threat subcategories. The results that arouse the most concerns are the significant negative correlations between HPH and Response efficacy, LP and Response efficacy, SSS and D, and SSS and DHB,. The findings suggests that: 1) Posters using “Legal punishment (LP)” and “Harm
physical health (HPH)” to elicit fear mentioned little about the effectiveness of the recommended behaviors. This finding is of particular concern because it is known from the previous chapter that “Legal punishment” and “Harm physical health” were the most mentioned verbal threat themes. Thus their negative correlation with the response efficacy message can be especially problematic for the sake of message effects discussed above. 2) “Specific, step by step instructions” was seldom given to the audience within the posters that contain images “Indicating death (D)” or “Showing damaged human body/ bad health (DHB)”. As mentioned in Chapter Three, death and damaged human body were the very frequent visual threat themes. Plus, the pictures on death and damaged human body usually elicit stronger fear or elicit fear more easily because they were more straightforward. Therefore some posters in the 2008 annual campaign can be very dangerous because they send out messages with lots of bloody images but no information on what to do to as prevention.

**Cultural Value Considerations**

Cultural values should be considered when assessing the Chinese campaign messages based on a theory, because most of the persuasion theories, including the EPPM were developed in the western context, and the theories’ adaptability to campaigns targeting at a Chinese audience can not be simply assumed.

Culture values may explain some of the linkage and relationship between threat and efficacy messages described above, but further studies needs to be done to find out what are these specific cultural explanations. Recommendations for future anti-drug
campaign designs in China should be drawn carefully from the EPPM, because it is not yet known how much this theory fits China.

More understanding of the content structure of the Chinese anti-drug posters can be gained by looking at them with some cultural values concerns. Cultural values discussed below are stereotypes in the literature about the Chinese society, and as elaborated in the following, discrepancies were found between the theoretical “Chinese values” and the actual poster contents.

Different cultural value leads to different communication styles. Chinese people, and sometimes East Asian people in general, have repeatedly been found to prefer indirect communication (e.g. Fong, 1998; Ting-Toomey, 1985; Yum, 1988). It is noticeable, however, in the Chinese anti-drug campaigns, legal punishment and health consequences were much more frequently discussed than all the other threats themes both in verbal threats and in visual threats. Going to jail or die of drug abuse would sound more direct to most of the people compared to the social, moral, national, or economical threats. The results here do not deny the argument that Chinese people prefer indirect communication styles. Indirectness may still be appreciated in communication on interpersonal level, but it may not be the way Chinese government choose to communicate with its people, at least not in the context of anti-drug struggles.

Hofstede’s (1980) Individualism (IND) – Collectivism (COL) dichotomy is arguably the most influential and must studied cultural value dimension. A meta-analysis was performed on all 170 empirical studies concerning the IND-COL framework 22 years after the publication of Hofstede’s book *Culture’s Consequences* (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). In his original study, Hofstede labeled China as a collectivist
culture, and generally this label has been continually applied to the culture. Collectivism can mean a lot of things, although the most measured and thus the most consistent collectivistic values in the literature are a “sense of duty to the group” and a “relatedness to others.” Individualism, however, places more stresses on independence, and personal achievements. (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002).

Based on the concepts discussed above, four out of seven verbal threats themes can be grouped as the IND themes: “Legal punishment,” “Harm physical health,” “Economic difficulties” and “Ruin future (career, school etc.),” because those threats are concerned about the well-beings of individuals. The other three “Impede nation development,” “Social Consequences,” “Moral judgment (shame),” are grouped as COL themes because they are concerned about the group and relationships to others. Results showed that more posters talked about the individualistic consequences (n = 95) than about collectivistic consequences (n = 54), $\chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 33.47, p < .001$. Similar to the verbal threats, the five visual threats themes were put into two categories with “Legal punishment,” “Damaged human body/ bad health,” “Death,” and “Economic difficulties” renamed as IND themes and “Hurt or lose family / friend” as a COL theme. Results showed that more images in the posters showed individualistic consequences (n = 92) than collectivistic consequences (n = 17), $\chi^2 (1, N = 149) = 73.01, p < .001$. To conclude, although considered as a collectivistic country, the Chinese government chose to make more individualistic appeals than collectivistic appeals in the anti-drug campaigns. This discrepancy may be the explanation of the ineffectiveness of the campaign, and further research is needed to confirm its potential impact on effects.
Recommendations for future anti-drug campaigns in China

Collectivistic themes

It is a pity that only 56 posters exemplified collectivistic consequences with either words or images or both. In a collectivistic culture like China, anti-drug campaigns should address social consequences more often. To achieve better effects, the results suggest that Chinese campaign designers put out more messages about hurting family / friends, abandoned by family / friends, etc.

“Impede nation development” is a very special threat theme, because it is the only one among the 12 verbal and visual threat themes that does not significantly correlate with “Factual example”. The implication is obvious: the current Chinese government used facts as evidence to support all the anti-drug argument except the statement that drug abuse and drug trafficking can impede nation development. It is doubtful whether there was such evidence at all, and it is an indicator that Chinese anti-drug campaign designers should either try harder to find or provide (if they do have) such factual evidences, or abandon this historical theme and move on to something new.

Implicit versus Explicit Recommendations

Witte (2001) pointed out there were two indispensable components of a fear appeal message: threat and recommended response. Some messages state the recommended response explicitly, like “Stay away from drugs,” while others express it implicitly, like the widely known advertisement of “this is your brain; this is drugs; this is your brain on drugs.” The implicit recommendation messages assume that if people
perceive the danger or threat, they know what to do or not to do. For the present study, 85.2% of the sample posters included the explicit recommendations in their messages, and the other 22 pieces omitted the recommended response.

Researches have repeatedly found out that explicit conclusions or recommendations worked far better than the implicit ones (e.g. Cope & Richardson, 1972; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1996), since people do not always draw the desired conclusion no matter how obvious the linkage is. Thus to make the anti-drug campaigns more effective, posters should never omit the conclusion or general recommendation.

Featuring Heroin

“Harm to physical health” also ranked high in both lists of verbal and visual threats, with “Addiction” as the most addressed health cost. It makes sense to talk addiction more than the other diseases since 81.1% of the problem drug users in China are heroin users. A more effective way, however, to address the heroin problem in China would be to design posters featuring heroin only, since that’s where the key problem lies. Disappointingly, the results from Chapter three showed that 128 out of 149 posters featured “Drugs in general”, and only one piece featured “Heroin”.

In fact, the Chinese word “du pin” (literally means “poisoning product,” but can be translated as drugs or illicit narcotics) was considered interchangeable with “opium” before the 1960s and with “heroin” after the 1980s (Zhou, 1999). This finding fits into Hammett and the associates’ criticism that “ambiguities and gaps persist in the language

Since the current Chinese anti-drug campaign messages do not differ by type of drug, improvements can be made in future campaigns with a clearer focus on heroin. Campaign designers in China can refer to the American experience with marijuana. According to the 2005 National Survey on Drug Use and Health, 97.55 million people in the United States have used marijuana, which constitutes 40.1% of the US population of ages 12 and over. Marijuana is the most widely used drug among youth today and is identified as a major public health problem for American adolescents. In 1998, the Office of National Drug Control Policy (ONDCP) launched a (initially) five-year billion-dollar project called the National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign to prevent and reduce drug use. It contains a marijuana initiative portion specifically to target marijuana abuse. Studies were conducted later to test strategies and examine the effects of these marijuana ads (e.g. Palmgreen, Donohew, et al., 2001; Palmgreen, Lorch, et al., 2007).

**Limitation and Indication for Future Studies**

As mentioned at the end of the introduction in Chapter One, this content analysis is an exploratory and descriptive study that can be used as a starting point for designing other studies to further investigate the Chinese anti-drug campaigns. The current study serves the purpose adequately with some limitations.

An unbalanced source of sample posters may limit the generalizability of the present study. The majority of the posters (n = 107) were from Yichang, Hubei, which is a mid-sized city in central China. Although no evidence was found to suggest posters in
other places would be designed differently, it is noticeable that some of the posters were clearly designed and disseminated by the local government, rather than the central government in Beijing, because they told local stories and gave local factual examples.

The timing of the sample collection may also cause some bias in the results. China passed the first Anti-Drug Law in December 2007, and its implementation began in June 1, 2008. Therefore, it is possible that the 2008 annual anti-drug campaign spent more effort than before to talk about lawful punishment and to introduce the new Anti-Drug Law.

Another limitation comes from the design of the coding scheme. By adopting a non-independent research design and making all the categories not mutually exclusive, it can be problematic sometimes to find the most prevalent subcategories just by looking at frequencies and the significance level. The following example of “Legal punishment” as the most prevalent threat theme could highlight this point.

It is notable that “Legal punishment” was the most covered issue by both words and images. When taking a close look at the messages on “Legal punishment”, however, it was not hard to see that legal punishment messages seldom existed alone, and they usually serve as the subordinate cost to other more salient costs. For example, one poster is a suicide letter written by a teenager who was desperate because of his drug addiction. He blamed his situation on his parents who were also drug addicts but who were under compulsory rehabilitation at the time. This poster was coded as mentioning “Health” (addiction and death), “Social consequences” (hurt family member), and “Legal punishment” (compulsory rehabilitation), but, apparently, the former two themes carried more weight than the third one. Similarly, the “Legal punishment” theme often appeared
in posters containing the theme of “Nation development” when committing a crime for money (like robbery, theft, prostitution) was mentioned. Most of the time, the emphasis was on social order and public security, thus nation development, rather than jail time for individuals. A different coding scheme can be adopted to resolve the problem and hopefully give further evidence of legal punishment’s status as the most popular threat theme in Chinese anti-drug campaigns. One possible resolution would be to make the themes mutually exclusive by training the coders to identify the most prevalent threat theme of each poster, as Stephenson and Quick (2005) did in their content analysis of the parent advertisements in the National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign.

Future studies of the same kind should build on the limitations mentioned above by collecting data from multiple cities, avoiding the time during and after big and influential events, and adopting multiple coding schemes.

This study also points to several directions for future studies that seek to further investigate the Chinese anti-drug campaigns. Firstly, the current study can serve as the foundation of a trend study. Content analyses can be done on anti-drug posters in Chinese annual campaigns year by year (or maybe every other year). Such studies will allow researchers to map the changing anti-drug discourse in China since 2008, and thus to test how the changes in anti-drug discourse correlate with the rapid social and economical changes that China is experiencing now.

Secondly, the present study can serve as the basis for comparative studies. For example, the argument made earlier in this chapter on cultural values can go both ways. The recommendation above assumes that campaign messages should conform to cultural values. It is also possible that cultural values have an impact on the content of campaign
messages, so campaign messages are reflection of cultural values. To be specific, one can ask the question: did Chinese anti-drug campaign messages address social / relational threats more than western (American, for example) anti-drug campaign messages? The current study does not have enough information to do the comparison or to answer the question, but it certainly opened a door for future research on this matter.

Thirdly, this study can serve as the basis to design and explain future studies on Chinese anti-drug campaign effects. Surveys or experiments that aim to test the campaign effects will benefit from a better understanding of the content structure of the current campaign messages.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

**Poster Code Sheet (Revised)**

Poster # _____________                  Coder Initials ____________

1. **Severity**
   [Costs associated with drug abuse/ drug trafficking]

   **Overall perceived threats:**
   No threats | little threats | some threats | severe threats | very severe threats
   --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
   1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

1.1 **Verbal Threats** ☐ Yes ☐ No
   [Verbal description of harms associated with drug abuse/ trafficking]
   ☐ Harm physical health
   ☐ Ruin future (career, school etc.)
   ☐ Economic difficulties (e.g. bankruptcy, in heavy debt)
   ☐ Legal punishment (crime; fine, imprisonment, death penalty)
   ☐ Social Consequences
   ☐ Lose family / friend (e.g. family broken up)
   ☐ Hurt family / friend (Physical / psychological/ economical)
   ☐ Hurt other innocent people (refer particularly to strangers)
   ☐ Moral judgment (shame)
   ☐ Impede nation development (drug abuse is unpatriotic)
   ☐ Other

   **Overall perceived threats from verbal descriptions:**
   No threats | little threats | some threats | severe threats | very severe threats
   --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
   1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

1.2 **Visual Threats** ☐ Yes ☐ No
   [Images showing harms associated with drug abuse/ trafficking]

   **Overall impression of the physical appearance of drug addicts:**
   Normal | a little sick | sick | very sick | dying/dead
   --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
   1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

   Images are:
   ☐ Picture ☐ Cartoon
   ☐ Indicate death (e.g. skull, graveyard, death scene)
   ☐ Show damaged human body/ bad health (e.g. damaged body parts/ organ/ skin, bony body, pale face)
   ☐ Indicate legal punishment (e.g. policemen, courtroom, jail, man under arrest, crime scene)
   ☐ Indicate economic difficulties
   ☐ Indicate hurt or lose family / friend
   ☐ Other
**Overall perceived threats from images:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No threats</th>
<th>little threats</th>
<th>some threats</th>
<th>severe threats</th>
<th>very severe threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Susceptibility** □ Yes □ No  
[Likelihood of experiencing threats above]

- □ Factual example
- □ Hypothetical example
- □ Statistics
- □ Other (_________________________)

3. **Self-efficacy** □ Yes □ No  
[Ability to stay away from illicit drugs]

- □ Giving specific, step by step instructions (e.g. how to say no to drugs)
- □ Recommending ways to access help / treatment / more knowledge (e.g. Call 800xxxxxx )
- □ Providing knowledge about illicit drugs (e.g. what does heroin look like)
- □ Promoting self-confidence (e.g. saying no is easy, it is possible, you can do it)

4. **Response-efficacy** □ Yes □ No  
[Effectiveness of the recommendations in deterring the threat]

5. **Explicit recommendation** □ Yes □ No  
Recommending a general actions (e.g. Stay away from illicit drugs)

6. **Type of drugs** (mutually exclusive)

- □ Marijuana
- □ Inhalants
- □ Ecstasy
- □ Heroin
- □ Cocaine
- □ Multiple specific drugs
- □ Drugs in general
- □ Other (_________________________)
### 海报编码表（修改稿）

海报 # _____________  编码员姓名缩写 _____________

#### 海报编码表

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>编码员姓名缩写</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>______________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1. 使用毒品的严重性

[滥用毒品/贩毒的代价]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>整体感觉到的威胁：</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>没有</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1.1 语言威胁

[对滥用毒品/贩毒的危害性的语言文字描述]

- □ 危害身体健康
- □ 断送前程（辍学，失去工作 / 事业）
- □ 经济困境（破产，欠债累累）
- □ 法律惩罚（犯罪。罚款，监禁，强制戒毒，死刑）
- □ 社会后果
  - □ 失去亲人/朋友（比如：妻离子散）
  - □ 对亲人/朋友造成伤害（身体 / 心理 / 经济）
  - □ 伤害其他无辜的人（特指不认识的人）
- □ 道德评判（吸毒可耻，道德败坏，令家人/自己蒙羞）
- □ 影响国家发展（阴谋论 / 吸毒是不爱国的行为）
- □ 其他 ____________________________

从语言描述中整体感觉到的威胁：

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>没有</th>
<th>一点儿</th>
<th>有一些</th>
<th>严重</th>
<th>非常严重</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1.2 视觉威胁

[显示滥用毒品/贩毒的危害性的图像]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>对吸毒者外表体征的整体印象：</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>正常</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

图像为： □ 照片  □ 卡通图画

- □ 图像暗示死亡
  (例如骷髅头，坟墓，死亡现场)
- □ 图像中有不健康的人体，或暗示人体健康受到危害
  （残破的肢体 / 皮肤 / 器官，皮包骨的人 / 苍白的脸）
- □ 图像暗示法律惩罚
  （警察，法庭，监狱，被捕的人，犯罪现场）
- □ 图像暗示经济困境
- □ 图像暗示失去 / 伤害亲朋
- □ 其他 ____________________________
从图像中整体感觉到的威胁：
没有     一点儿     有一些     严重     非常严重
1                  2                  3                 4                  5

2. 受众的易受侵害性 □有 □无
[经历上述威胁的可能性]
□事实例证
□假设例证
□统计数据
□其他 (_________________________)

3. 自我功效 □有 □无
[远离毒品的能力]
□给出明确详尽的，分步骤的指令 (e.g. 如何拒绝毒品)
□推荐取得帮助/治疗/更多知识的方法 (e.g. 请致电 800xxxxxx)
□提供关于毒品的知识 (e.g. 海洛因看起来什么样)
□提升自信 (e.g. 拒绝毒品很容易，拒绝毒品是可能的，你可以做到)
□其他 ______________________

4. 回应功效 □有 □无
[推荐行为对规避威胁的有效性]

5. 给出明晰推荐行为 □有 □无
推荐大体行为 (e.g. 远离毒品)

6. 毒品的类型 （单选）
□大麻
□吸入剂
□摇头丸 (快乐丸)
□海洛英
□可卡因
□多种毒品
□毒品 (总称)
□其他 (_________________________)

SCHOLASTIC VITA

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UNDERGRADUATE STUDY: Beijing Foreign Studies University, Beijing, China
B.A. in Journalism & Communication, June 2007
Double-Major Certificate in English Literature

GRADUATE STUDY: Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, North Carolina
M.A. in Communication, May, 2009

SCHOLASTIC AND PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

Teaching Assistant, Communication Department, Wake Forest University, 2007-2009. Assist Steve Jarrett in COM 246 “Introduction to Film”
Assist Steve Jarrett with equipment management

Participant, Translational Science Community Research Project, WFU Medical School, 2008-2009.
This project places participants into multidisciplinary research teams. The purpose is to effectively communicate scientific knowledge with the lay public. The focus of the project surrounds cardiovascular disease, specifically hypertension.

Research Assistant, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2008.
Doing statistical analysis for Kevin Heston on his research project of ethnographic study of religion and gender in the virtual community.

Published a 8-page cover story on Lenovo’s unfair recycling program in China.
Published a 5-page feature story on an academician specializing in telecommunication.

Intern Journalist, South China Morning Post, 2006.
Published 3 feature stories and 6 breaking news stories in economic, social, cultural, and educational field.

HONORS AND AWARDS:

Teaching assistantship & Research assistantship, Communication Department, Wake Forest University, 2007-2009.
HONORS AND AWARDS, CONTINUED:

_Alumni Student Travel Award_, Graduate School, Wake Forest University, 2008.

_University Annual Fellowship for Excellent Students_, Beijing Foreign Studies University, 2006.

PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES:

Member, National Communication Association

PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS: