



UvA-DARE (Digital Academic Repository)

Faces of conflict

Bartholomé, A.A.J.

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Bartholomé, A. A. J. (2017). Faces of conflict: Interventionism and substantiveness in the conflict framing process.

General rights

It is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), other than for strictly personal, individual use, unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

Disclaimer/Complaints regulations

If you believe that digital publication of certain material infringes any of your rights or (privacy) interests, please let the Library know, stating your reasons. In case of a legitimate complaint, the Library will make the material inaccessible and/or remove it from the website. Please Ask the Library: <http://uba.uva.nl/en/contact>, or a letter to: Library of the University of Amsterdam, Secretariat, Singel 425, 1012 WP Amsterdam, The Netherlands. You will be contacted as soon as possible.

CHAPTER 3

Towards a Typology of Conflict Frames: Substantiveness and Interventionism in Political Conflict News

Abstract

Conflict framing literature has suffered from a lack of consistent conceptualization in previous studies. Therefore, the aim of this study is to unravel the dimensionality of conflict frames. We conducted a content analysis (N= 1536) to develop a typology of conflict news coverage. Using factor analysis, different aspects of conflict news are distinguished with level of substantiveness and interventionism as the main dimensions. Furthermore, the study focuses on the occurrence of these different types of conflict frames in the news and the role of contextual factors such as election periods. Results indicate that articles with conflict frames contain more interventionism and less strategic framing online, more journalistic intervention in quality titles and less substantive news in election times when compared to routine periods. The study contributes to the literature by offering a more nuanced view of the presence of different types of conflict news in the media.

This study is published as:

Bartholomé, G., Lecheler, S., & de Vreese, C. (2017). Towards A Typology of Conflict Frames: Substantiveness and interventionism in political conflict news. *Journalism Studies*. Advanced online publication. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1461670X.2017.1299033>

3.1. Introduction

Conflict is central to politics, because the essence of democracy is a clash of political ideas (Schattschneider, 1975) and a struggle over which is the best option (Sartori, 1987). This importance of conflict also translates into news framing research, and “conflict frames” are one of the most frequently used frames in political communication research today (Vliegenthart, Boomgaarden, & Boumans, 2011). Conflict frames are particular in that they “emphasize conflict between individuals, groups, or institutions as a means of capturing audience interest” (Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000, p. 95). Empirically, this definition has been translated to include elements such as disagreement, tension between different sides, incompatibility between viewpoints, and politicians attacking each other in the media (Putnam & Shoemaker, 2007). However, a review of the literature shows inconsistent operational definitions of conflict framing in content research, as well as differential findings within framing effects research (see Chapter 1). This promises that conflict frames are multilayered and complex constructs in the news, rather than one single entity. In this paper, we propose that there are two dimensions that are particularly important for conflict framing: The (1) level of substantiveness and the (2) level of journalistic intervention of a conflict frame.

First, conflict news can focus on policy issues and “hard” information (e.g., Hänggli & Kriesi, 2010), as opposed to non-substantive, strategic aspects of politics (e.g., Adriaansen, Praag, & De Vreese, 2010). Conflict news can also be characterized by incivility between politicians, instead of civil and courteous political deliberation (Forgette & Morris, 2006; Mutz & Reeves, 2005)

Second, conflict frames may vary by the extent to which journalists intervene during the news production process. Previous research shows that journalists have a propensity to intervene in the conflict frame building process (Chapter 2). This intervention in conflict framing is exhibited in journalistic speculation concerning consequences of political conflicts, active journalistic framing of conflict news by juxtaposing political actors, and by journalistic interpretations and analysis of political disagreements. Journalists can also be a part of the political conflict themselves. Journalists can also intervene by adding direct commentary within a news report or taking a stance on issues (Hanitzsch, 2007). Yet, the extent to which journalistic intervention is visible in actual coverage conflict frames in political news is unknown.

Hence, this study uses an extensive content analysis to develop a typology of conflict frames, depending on (1) the level of substantiveness and (2) the level of journalistic intervention within the frame. We contribute to the literature by moving away from generic definitions of conflict framing that have proven problematic in the past.

3.2. Understanding Conflict Frames in the News

Following the traditional definition, a conflict frame reflects disagreement between individuals, institutions or countries (Cappella & Jamieson, 1997). In political news, conflict frames are showcased through critique or attacks from and towards political actors, or the visibility of diverging political views in the media. The popularity of conflict frames in the western media may be explained by the fact that Western journalists greatly value objective reporting (Schudson, 2001). Part of this objectivity norm is the routine of balancing between competing positions (Neuman, Just, & Crigler, 1992). Journalists juxtapose positions and viewpoints of actors to give a fair and unbiased account of a story (McManus, 1994). Because balancing competing voices often entails the inclusion of critique or attacks on the other actors, or on the viewpoints of the other actors, this media routine contributes to the emergence of conflict frames in the media.

The generic definition of conflict frames as used in most studies has not led to accumulative research, but has allowed researchers to operationalize the concept of conflict frames in different ways in their studies. Conflict frames have been associated with a number of negative outcomes on citizens. For instance, public approval of politicians decreases after exposure to conflict-laden television coverage (Forgette & Morris, 2006). Furthermore, studies have found conflict frames to contribute to the erosion of political trust (Mutz & Reeves, 2005). However, there are studies that stress the democratic potential of conflict frames, which is connected to the idea that, if conflict is present, citizens are more likely to realise the importance of political decision-making (Schuck, Vliegenthart, & De Vreese, 2016; De Vreese & Tobiasen, 2007). Conflict frames are also found to cause an increase in support for certain policies (Vliegenthart, Schuck, Boomgaarden, & De Vreese, 2008), and a positive impact on turnout (Min, 2004). At closer look, it seems that previous effect studies have actually taken different types of conflict into account, all published under the label of conflict news or conflict framing (Lee, McLeod, & Shah, 2008; Min, 2004). These studies show that exposure to different types of conflict frames leads to different outcomes on citizens.

Surprisingly, most content analyses towards conflict frames fail to take into account different types of conflict frames and look at the more general definition of conflict framing (Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000) or conflict and cooperation (Vliegenthart et al, 2011). To summarize, the wide array of conceptualizations and thus operationalizations of conflict frames makes it hard to generalize results and compare studies on this subject. Also, different variations of conflict frames have led to different outcomes on

Chapter 3

citizens. This calls for a clear and coherent conceptualization of conflict framing that takes into account the dimensionality of the concept. Furthermore, the occurrence of these different types of questions in actual news content is of interest. Certain types of conflict frames can be more prevalent than others. Hence, we pose the following overarching research questions for this paper.

RQ1: To what extent can different types of conflict frames be distinguished?

RQ2: To what extent are these different types present in conflict news coverage?

3.3. Conflict Frames Depend on Journalistic Interventionism

First, we consider the level of journalistic intervention in a conflict frame. The importance of conflict as a news value makes it attractive for politicians to put forward conflicting viewpoints to gain media attention. Conflict frames that emerge can be the product of frames put forward by political or societal actors. However, conflict frames in the news are also a result of active journalistic intervention in the frame building process (Chapter 2). Journalistic intervention reflects the other dimension of conflict frames proposed in this study. Interventionism, or “the media’s discretionary power”, refers to the degree to which the media take a formative role in shaping the agenda of election campaigns (Semetko et al., 1991, p. 3). To consider the involvement of journalists lies at the core of determining whom shapes conflict coverage.

Two aspects of interventionism are of importance for conflict framing. Firstly, interventionism determines the degree to which journalists are visible in a news item (Strömbäck & Dimitrova, 2011). Noninterventionist reporting resonates with a descriptive style, which offers a detached and factual description of events. In contrast, an interpretative style is focused on meaning of events that goes beyond facts and statements of sources (Falasca, 2014) as well as journalistic explanations and analysis (Salgado & Strömbäck, 2011). Journalistic visibility entails the adaptation of a more interpretative style of reporting (Hanitzsch, 2007) and “journalists reporting about political news in their own words, scenarios and assessments” (Esser, 2008, p. 403). This interpretative style has become an important characteristic of political news reporting, both in the United States and in Europe (Iyengar & McGrady, 2007; Strömbäck & Dimitrova, 2011).

Secondly, journalists can perform their watchdog role and evaluate or attack politicians themselves (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996). Here, interventionism is interpreted as the extent to which journalists pursue particular missions and values instead of functioning as a detached, objective observer (Hanitzsch

Towards a Typology

et al., 2011). This aspect of interventionism differs from journalistic intervention in the form of interpretation, because it includes a reference to the journalist's explicit personal perspective. In contrast, an interpretative style entails the explanation of a fact, without necessarily including a value judgment (Benson & Hallin, 2007). This dimension closely resembles the "watchdog role" (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996). The journalist functions as an adversarial to politicians and organizations. In summary, political conflicts in the news can be characterized by a detached and more neutral style or a more interventionist style, with more journalistic interpretation and evaluations of politicians involved in the conflict.

3.4. Conflict Frames Vary in Their Substantiveness

Asides from interventionism, this study proposes that conflict frames themselves can differ in their level of substantiveness. Some studies described conflict frames as being part of the game frame or horse race coverage (e.g., Hänggeli & Kriesi, 2010; Takens, Kleinnijenhuis, Van Hoof, & Van Atteveldt, 2013). Conflict frames have also been operationalized as fundamentally non-substantive (Gross & Brewer, 2007). In this study, we depart from the notion that conflict frames are not necessarily part of a more process-oriented approach or a game frame. Rather, conflict frames can also be substantive and focus on the issues or the ideological clash around which the disagreement revolves (Lawrence, 2000). Hence, this study differentiates specifically between substantive conflict frames that focus mainly on political ideas, policy issues, ideological issues and values, and non-substantive conflict frames that address mainly the political process, politics as a game or personal attacks.

The relevance of such a distinction in conflict framing lies in potential outcomes on citizens. Outside the context of conflict framing, scholars have expressed the concern that strategic news as such becomes more prevalent, often at the cost of substantive news (e.g., Brants & Van Praag, 2006; Patterson, 1993). Furthermore, the use of this strategic game frame is associated with eroding political trust and an increase in political cynicism (Cappella & Jamieson, 1997; Jackson, 2011). For example, Elenbaas and De Vreese (2008) found that strategic framing positively affected political cynicism. In contrast, exposure to issue frames can reduce political cynicism among young voters (Adriaansen, Van Praag, & De Vreese, 2010). Differences in effects between substantive and non-substantive news content have also been found in the context of conflict frames. Findings by Min (2004) indicate that while conflict news focused on policy items increased turnout, conflicts consisting of personal attacks depressed likelihood of turnout. Similarly, Lee, McLeod, and Shah (2008) found that when compared to substantive news, non-substantive

Chapter 3

news on controversial issues discounts partisan affiliation as a primary consideration. Thus, differences in substantiveness can be used to characterize conflict frames in political news and these differences can be important for outcomes on citizens.

3.5. What Determines the Occurrence of Different Conflict Frames?

Any framing process is influenced by the context in which it takes place. Substantiveness and level of journalistic interventionism in conflict frames is likely influenced by both the (1) type of media outlet that produces such frames, as well as (2) the political context within which a conflict frame emerges.

3.5.1. The Impact of Contextual Features on Interventionism

Regarding media type, a first distinction is conflict framing in online versus offline news media. Previous research showed that online journalists value a disseminator role more than a watchdog or interpretative role as compared to journalists from traditional media (Cassidy, 2005). This is arguably a result of the importance of speed of publication in online media, which affects news production processes (Singer, 2003). The speed with which online journalists often have to operate, is likely to cause a less active and interventionist approach in the conflict frame building process. A lack of time may refrain journalists from being visible and play a formative role in reporting on conflict news. Previous research outside The Netherlands suggests that online news contains generally less interpretative news items (Salgado et al., 2016) Therefore, we hypothesize that the level of interventionism in conflict frames is lower in online news than in newspapers.

H1A: Online news articles containing the conflict frame contain a lower level of interventionism than print newspaper articles.

A second factor that likely affects the presence of different types of conflict frames in the media are simply which type of news outlet a journalist works in (Schuck et al., 2013). Different news organizations have different organizational goals and different target audiences. In this study, a comparison will be made between tabloid newspapers and more quality newspapers. Previous research suggests that an interpretative style is more prevalent in quality titles (Falasca, 2014). Quality outlets may want to give readers more than just the news and adapt an active approach, evaluating politicians and provide readers with interpretations and backgrounds. Therefore, we hypothesize that quality newspapers contain higher levels of interventionism as opposed to tabloid newspapers.

Towards a Typology

H1B: News articles containing the conflict frame have a higher level of interventionism in quality news outlets when compared to tabloid newspapers.

The final contextual factor that will affect interventionism in conflict news relates to whether a frame emerges during election context versus during a non-election context. Research towards framing is generally focused on election times (Van Aelst & De Swert, 2009). Routine periods of news are often overlooked. However, agenda setting studies have shown that political news reporting will differ in election periods as opposed to routine news periods (Walgrave & Van Aelst, 2006). It is known that time factors can explain variations in media interventionism in news coverage (Esser, 2008). However, it is not yet clear how these differences play out in the case of conflict frames. Therefore, differing levels of interventionism during different time periods will be treated as an open empirical question.

RQ3: Is the level of interventionism in articles containing the conflict frame higher in election when compared to non-election times?

3.5.2. The Impact of Contextual Features on Level of Substantiveness

Some researchers suggest that the higher commercialized online environment increases an audience-centered approach associated with increased focus on sensationalism and entertainment (e.g., Fenton, 2010). However, on the other hand, research suggests that there are strong similarities between news content online and offline, because journalistic norms are stable, even when the medium changes (e.g., Mitchelstein & Boczkowski, 2009). This inconclusiveness in the literature, paired with the lack of research on content-specific differences between online and traditional news problematizes predictions on whether online news include more or less substantive conflict frames than print news. Previous studies do suggest that online news articles are shorter than print news (Maier, 2010). This may indicate there is less room for elaborations on policy issues. However, we formulate an open research question to investigate whether online or offline news will be characterized by more or less substantive news coverage.

RQ4: Are conflict frames in online news more or less substantive than in print news?

Quality newspapers may differ in their level of substantiveness in conflict framing when compared to tabloid newspapers. Tabloids generally have a greater economic motivation; they are inclined to present news in a format that has a significant entertainment and interest value, sometimes at the cost of civic or educational value (Jackson, 2011). Earlier research suggested that quality newspapers tend to focus more on substantive news than tabloid newspapers (Norris, 2000; Strömbäck & Aelst, 2010).

Chapter 3

Therefore, the expectation is that conflict-laden news elicits higher levels of substantiveness in quality news outlets as opposed to tabloid newspapers.

H2A: Articles framed in terms of conflict have higher levels of substantiveness in quality newspapers as opposed to tabloid newspapers.

Coverage of political conflicts in election times might be more focused on non-substantive features such as personal attacks, attacks on competences and strategic aspects. Indeed, outside the context of conflict framing, previous studies indicate that strategic and game framing are mostly important during election times (Aalberg, Strömbäck, & De Vreese, 2012). Furthermore, Binderkrantz and Green-Pedersen (2009) indicate that during election times, political news is more focused on processes than on issues. Horse race frames are also more often used when an election is approaching (Vliegenthart & Aelst, 2010). For the specific case of conflict framing, these findings suggest that in the buildup towards an election, with candidates struggling for votes and rising stakes, the emphasis on politics as a game, strategy, and personal attacks are more prevalent than in routine times when there is no election at the horizon. Hence in this paper it is expected that during election times, political conflict in the news is less substantive than during routine times. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H2B: Levels of substantiveness in articles containing the conflict frame are lower in in election when compared to non-election time.

3.6. Methods

3.6.1. Sample

To test these hypotheses and research questions, we conducted a content analysis with news articles as the unit of analysis. We assessed the occurrence of conflict frames in political news in the four largest Dutch newspapers, including two quality newspapers (Volkskrant and NRC) and two tabloid newspapers (Telegraaf and AD). Furthermore, online news from the four largest online news websites in terms of readership was included in the sample: the online versions of one quality newspaper (Volkskrant.nl) and one tabloid (Telegraaf.nl), as well as the news website of the Dutch public broadcasting (NOS.nl) and the major Dutch commercial news website (Nu.nl).

We used automated content analysis for sampling purposes; only those political news articles that included conflict frames were selected. For this purpose, we used an automated content analysis method based on supervised machine learning (Burscher, Odijk, Vliegenthart, De Rijke, & De Vreese, 2014).

Towards a Typology

Two yes/no questions are used in this method to determine whether an article entails conflict frame. The first question is: Does the item reflect disagreement between parties, individuals, groups or countries? The second: Does the item refer to two sides or more than two sides of the problem? When one of these indicators was positive, the article was included in sample. These items are often used to measure conflict frames in the news and originate from the work of Semetko and Valkenburg (2000). Subsequently, 5 coders were trained to collect data from the eventual sample of conflict frame articles.

Fourteen random news days were selected during a routine news period where no extraordinary political event occurred. The days included in these weeks were randomly selected from the Dutch parliamentary year of 2014-2015. Constructing a random constructed week as a sample is considered an adequate method for news sampling (Hester & Dougall, 2007). To ensure a sample that is as varied as possible, fourteen days leading up to the elections period of the 2015 were also sampled. In total, the sample consisted of 1536 news articles. These included 1042 newspaper articles: *Volkskrant* (n = 323), *NRC* (n = 343), *Telegraaf* (n = 134), and *Algemeen Dagblad* (n = 242). Furthermore, the sample of website articles resulted in a total of 494 articles: *Volkskrant.nl* (n = 156), *NOS.nl* (n = 137), *Nu.nl* (n = 93), *Telegraaf.nl* (n = 108).

3.6.2. Measures

In order to measure and validate the dimensionality of conflict framing in political news, a total of 14 yes/no questions were included in the codebook. Several training sessions were organized to ensure the five coders could reliably code the items included in this study. This approach resulted in indicators that investigate presence of the concepts measured.

Interventionism.

Interventionist reporting style was assessed using two main indicators. First, we assessed the concept of journalistic visibility. We coded actor type for the three first actors in each news article. The presence of one or more journalistic actors among these three actors indicated journalistic visibility. An actor was coded as journalistic when a journalist or journalistic medium was specifically mentioned or when the writer of the article gave a clear evaluation of an actor involved in the political conflict in the article. Second, a measure was included to assess interpretative journalism. Coders indicated whether journalistic style of the article was predominantly descriptive or predominantly interpretative (Salgado & Strömbäck, 2012). Third, two items were included to tap adversarial journalism or the watchdog role

Chapter 3

in journalism. The first item measured whether a journalistic evaluation of a politician was present in the article (yes/no). For the second item, coders indicated whether the writer or another journalistic actor expresses doubts regarding the competence of political actors (yes/no). Overall, the average intercoder reliability for these variables was $\alpha=.70$ (Krippendorff's Alpha)².

To measure the extent to which the conflict frames in news articles were focused on substantive issues or not, three items were included, based on the work of Cappella and Jamieson (1997). These items assessed, if the article focused predominantly on politically substantive issues (yes/no), laws and policies (yes/no) and the presence of substantive views on policy issues by political actors (yes/no). Non-substantiveness was measured by assessing the presence of the strategic game frame elements in conflict news coverage, specifically sub-dimensions of the strategic game frame. These include two items tapping strategic framing (e.g., Is the article focused on political strategy?). Also included are three items assessing a focus on politics as a game (e.g. Does the story deal with politicians winning and losing?) In order to assess personal attacks and incivility, three items were included (e.g. Does the article include attacks on personality and style). These items were based on Aalberg, Strömbäck and De Vreese (2012). Finally, the concept of incivility was measured by using two items: insulting language and belittling language. These items were based on Sobieraj and Berry (2011). The average intercoder reliability for the substantiveness items was acceptable at .67 (Krippendorff's Alpha). All item wordings can be found in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Item Wording

Item	Wording
<i>Interventionism</i>	
Int1	Is the journalistic style mainly descriptive or mainly interpretative?
Int2	Is at least one of the first three actors in the article a journalist?
Int3	Does the article include a negative evaluation of a political actor coming from a journalistic actor.
Int4	Does the journalist doubt the competence of the political actor in the article?
<i>Substance</i>	

² Item specific intercoder reliability can be obtained with author

Towards a Typology

Sub1	Does the article give extensive information on policy-issues -problems or solutions?
Sub2	Does the article contain descriptions on the substance of legislation or proposed legislation?
Sub3	Does the article contain descriptions on the stands of politicians on policy issues?
<i>Strategy</i>	
Strat1	Does the article refer to winners and losers?
Strat2	Does the article refer to war, games or competition?
Strat3	Does the article discuss strategy and tactics?
<i>Personal Attacks</i>	
Pers_att1	Does the article contain criticism on style or performance?
Pers_att2	Does the article contain criticism on personality from or towards politicians?
Pers_att3	Does the article contain criticism on competence from or towards politicians?
<i>Incivility</i>	
Inc1	Does the article contain insulting or aggressive language from or towards a political actor?
Inc2	Does the article contain belittling language from or towards a political actor?

3.7. Results

We analyze the data using the following steps: first, we aim to examine to what extent different types of conflict frames can be distinguished by conducting an exploratory factor analysis. Second, we further corroborate the factor structure by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis using SEM. We opted for this approach, because using EFA as a precursor for a CFA has been shown to be a good method to validate a factor structure (Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996). Third, we look at the occurrence of the different types of conflict frames in the general sample. Finally, we look at the impact of contextual factors using OLS regressions.

3.7.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

In the first part of the results section, we focus on our first research question (RQ1). We want to assess to what extent different types of conflict frames can be distinguished. Hence we first conducted a principal component analysis with varimax rotation to corroborate the proposed factor dimension³. As

Chapter 3

seen in Table 2, the items form five separate factors that generally follow the structure of the dimensions that were expected beforehand. A total of 66,02% of variance is explained by these factors. All items have a factor loading of higher than .50, which is usually considered to be an adequate threshold by statistical researchers (e.g., Hair, et al., 1998). The first factor that emerges in the factor analysis is the interventionism dimension. This factor explains 24.39% of the variation. Together, the items in the interventionism dimension have a Cronbach's Alpha of .79 (4 items). The second factor that emerges is the substance factor, which explains 12.9% of the variance. The three items of the substance dimension have a Cronbach's Alpha of .76 (3 items). The three next factors represent the three subdimensions of non-substantive conflict coverage. The first of these factors is personal attacks. This factor explains 11,47% of the variance (3 items). Within this dimension, the items have a Cronbach's Alpha of .7

The second of these non-substantive factors is Strategy. This factor explains 9.78% of the variance (3 items). These items have a Cronbach's Alpha of .54 and a correlation of $r = .28$ ($p < .001$). Finally, the Incivility factor explains 7,41% of the variation (2 items). The Cronbach's Alpha for these items is .7 and a correlation of $r = .55$ ($p < .001$). These results indicate that initially, five different dimensions of conflict framing can be distinguished.

Table 3.2. Factor analysis

	Interventionism	Substance	Personal attacks	Strategy	Incivility
Int1	.813	-.091	-.048	.114	.139
Int2	.785	-.103	-.087	.025	.103
Int3	.776	.010	.248	.198	.027
Int4	.689	.028	.445	-.137	.048
<i>Substance</i>					
Sub1	-.066	.842	-.191	.043	-.090
Sub2	.038	.772	-.170	-.185	.001
Sub3	-.126	.820	.093	-.008	.008

3 An oblique rotation method was also conducted and yielded a similar factor structure. However, this analysis yielded no between factor correlations among the five components that exceeded .32. Hence, using this as a benchmark, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) we decided to stick with the initial orthogonal rotation method.

Towards a Typology

	Interventionism	Substance	Personal attacks	Strategy	Incivility
<i>Pers_att</i>					
Pers_att1	.074	-.180	.560	.462	.024
Pers_att2	.046	-.007	.804	.243	.160
Pers_att3	.119	-.176	.787	-.101	.205
<i>Strategy</i>					
Strat1	.051	-.114	.083	.531	-.118
Strat2	.049	-.056	.005	.753	.119
Strat3	.060	.098	.072	.748	.108
<i>Incivility</i>					
Inc1	.074	-.028	.159	.083	.860
Inc1	.179	-.039	.153	.007	.833
Eigenvalues	3.66	1.95	1.72	1.47	1.11
% of variance explained	24.39	12.9	11.47	9.78	7.41
Cronbach's Alpha	0.79	0.76	0.70	0.54	0.7

Note. Factor loadings below .4 are not bold

3.7.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

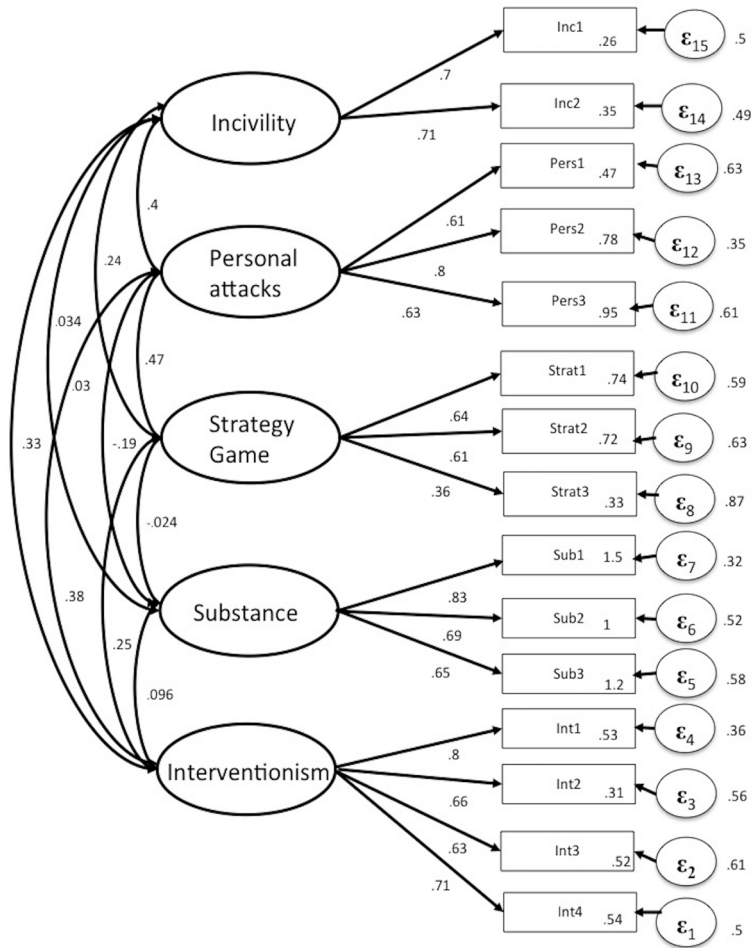
A confirmatory factor analysis was deployed to further validate the factor structure. This was done by conducting structural equation modeling (SEM). Usually, the Chi-Square statistic is used to test SEM models with significance indicating bad model fit. However, a drawback of using Chi-square is the sensitivity that large samples nearly always lead to model rejection (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Since the sample that will be subject of analysis in this study is relatively large (n=1536), three alternative fit indices will be assessed to determine model fit: the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the standardized root mean square residual (RSMR).

The model fit of the factor structure in depicted in Figure 3.2 was implemented in the initial model. As expected, the values for the chi-square were significant, $\chi^2(88) = 1119.13$, $p < .0001$. However, this is unsurprising given the large sample size. Nonetheless, the relevant statistics indicate the hypothesized factor structure did not fit the data well. The RMSEA = .092 where a value of .08 or lower indicates

Chapter 3

good fit. The SRMR also indicated poor model fit: SRMR = 0.06. Here, a value of .05 or lower indicates acceptable fit. Finally, The Comparative Fit Index is too low as well CFI = .837

Figure 3.1. CFA Model

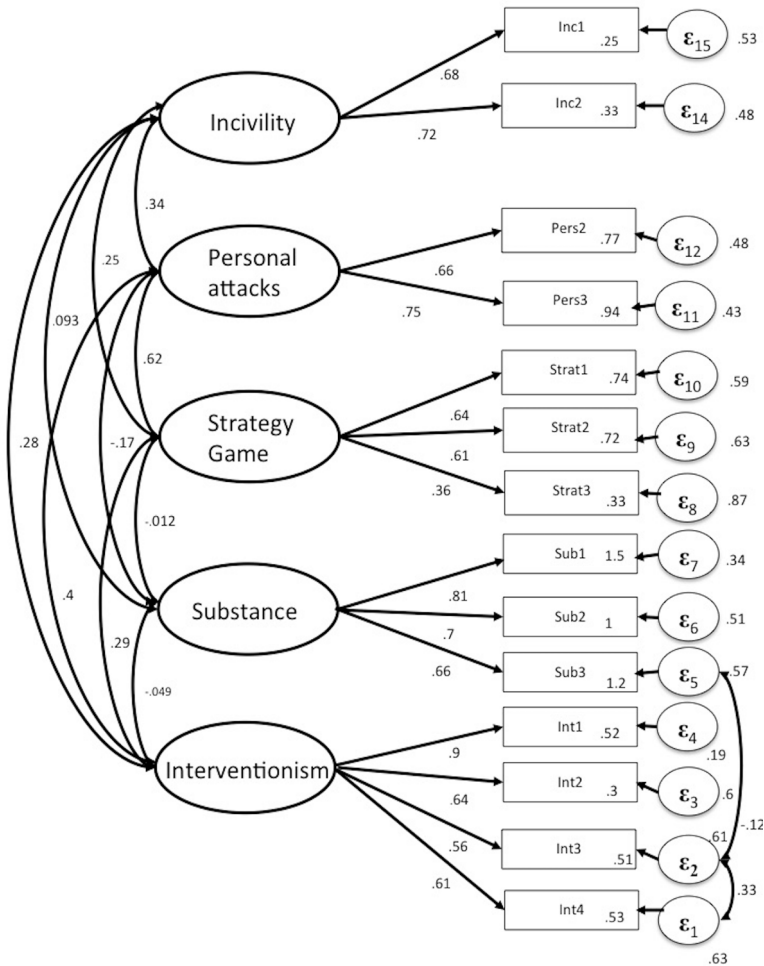


In the next part of the SEM analysis, the standardized residual covariances and modification indices of the model were assessed to see if adjustments could be made for the model. Error terms with high modification indices were covaried in the new model. This was only done for error terms that load on the same latent subdimension (Schreiber et al., 2006). Furthermore, modification indices indicated a

Towards a Typology

problem with the Pers1 variable, with generally high modification indices on other items. Hence, this variable, which also showed low factor loading, was removed. This variable tapped attacks on competence of politicians. The remaining two items of the personal attacks dimension deal with style, personality and performance. After this, the model was again tested for model fit. For the new model the chi-square was again significant. $\chi^2 (65) = 529,4$ $p < .0001$. After these modifications, the model yielded a much better fit to the data (CFI = .929, RMSEA= .07, SRMR= .04). Compared to traditional cut-off criteria, all indicators but the chi-square generated an acceptable goodness-of-fit.

Figure 3.2. CFA Model 2



Chapter 3

To further compare the initial and modified model, we also used the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the Bayesian information criterion (BIC). The absolute value of the models is irrelevant. However, if values of these criteria lower after model adjustment, this indicates an improvement in model fit. For the first model The AIC and the BIC have values of 20368.3 and 20677.69 respectively (see Figure 3.1). For the second model, depicted in figure 3.2, these values are 17936.99 and 18225.05 respectively. This indicates that the model fit has improved greatly. In sum, the results from the CFA confirm the factor structure found in the EFA. We can thus answer RQ1 by arguing that different types of conflict frames can be distinguished. Specifically, we find 5 dimensions of conflict framing, namely interventionism, substance, personal attacks, strategic game and incivility.

3.7.3. Level of Interventionism in Conflict Articles

Next, to answer the second research question (RQ2), we assess to what extent interventionism is present in conflict frame news coverage. For this purpose, the scores of the individual items in each of the dimensions were combined into a multi-item scale variable. The values of these scales range from .00 (dimension not present) to 1.00 (dimension present). Hence, the closer to 1.00 the score of these scale variables is, the more indicators of that particular dimension are present in that news articles.

The first main dimension that can be identified for conflict news is Interventionism. In Table 3, the mean values of the multi-item interventionism scale variable are shown per outlet. The results show that the level of interventionism in conflict news is highest in the quality newspaper De Volkskrant, both in the online (.27) and print version (.29). The other quality newspaper NRC also shows high levels of interventionism (.22). Surprisingly, NOS.nl, which was considered a more quality and sober online outlet, has a low mean on journalistic intervention (.08). Furthermore, articles on online websites generally have lower levels of interventionism than traditional newspaper articles, with the exception of Volkskrant.nl which has higher levels of interventionism than the other websites, including the website of the public broadcasters. As shown in the table, the highest level of interventionism is found in both the newspaper as the website of De Volkskrant. The lowest level of intervention is on the online news site Nu.nl. For our research question, this means that level of journalistic intervention is highest in the print newspapers, with the quality titles showing generally higher levels of interventionism. Furthermore interventionism is mostly higher in print titles when compared to online titles.

Towards a Typology

Table 3.3 Journalistic intervention in conflict news

Newspapers	AD	.17 (.29) (n = 242)
	Telegraaf	.17 (.29) (n = 134)
	Volkskrant	.29 (.34) (n = 323)
	NRC	.22 (.29) (n = 343)
Online	NU.nl	.07 (.19) (n = 93)
	Telegraaf.nl	.11 (.25) (n = 108)
	Volkskrant.nl	.27 (.41) (n = 156)
	NOS.nl	.08 (.20) (n = 137)

Note: Values are means; figures in parentheses indicate standard deviations and number of cases

3.7.4. Level of substantiveness

In Table 4, the mean values of the multi-item scale variables for the substantiveness subdimensions are shown per outlet. The results indicate that the highest level of substance in conflict news articles can be found on the news-site of the Dutch public broadcasters: NOS.nl. With an average of .67 this is the highest mean score where the other outlets range from .51 to .63. Hence, political conflicts reported upon by the NOS.nl generally include more information on policy issues than political conflict news in other outlets. When looking at the personal attacks dimension, a clear difference between online and traditional outlets appears. Generally, online outlets focus more on personal attacks than traditional media. In online titles, the mean score ranges from .52 to .59 whereas in traditional media the means range

Chapter 3

from .37 to .44. These results seem to indicate that conflict news in online media outlets is more likely to include personal attacks than conflict news in traditional media outlets. On the strategy dimension, the highest average is found for the newspaper version of the Volkskrant, with an average of .44, followed closely by the traditional newspaper NRC with .32 and Telegraaf, which have a mean value of .45. The incivility dimension occurred the least frequent of all these dimensions. Both in online and traditional news, conflict coverage was hardly characterized by framing conflicts in terms of games and winners and losers. Values range from .10 to .18. Most incivility was found in the newspaper version of de Telegraaf (.18), followed closely by Volkskrant.nl who have a mean score of .17.

Table 3.4 Substantiveness in conflict news per outlet

Medium	outlet	Substance	Personal attacks	Strategy	Incivility
<i>Newspapers</i>	AD (n= 242)	.59 (.39)	.37 (.40)	.24 (.29)	.11 (.21)
	Telegrf. (n= 134)	.63 (.38)	.42 (.43)	.25 (.29)	.18 (.29)
	Volkskrt. (n= 323)	.63 (.38)	.44 (.41)	.33 (.31)	.13 (.24)
	NRC (n= 343)	.62 (.37)	.39 (.40)	.32 (.31)	.10 (.20)
<i>Online</i>	NU.nl (n= 93)	.51 (.46)	.52 (.45)	.18 (.29)	.13 (.27)
	Telegr.nl (n= 108)	.51 (.44)	.52 (.45)	.20 (.30)	.14 (.26)
	Volkskrt.nl (n= 156)	.55 (.48)	.59 (.47)	.26 (.36)	.17 (.33)
	NOS.nl (n= 137)	.67 (.36)	.53 (.43)	.27 (.30)	.11 (.23)

3.8. The effects of contextual factors

In the final part of the analysis, we conducted ordinary least squares regression regressions on the separate dimensions to examine to what extent contextual factors influence the variation in two main dimensions of conflict coverage. These factors include medium type (newspaper versus online) time period (election coverage versus routine coverage) and type of outlet (“tabloid” versus “quality”).

3.8.1. Effects of Contextual Factors on Interventionism.

First, we look at the Interventionist level. Table 5 displays a series of OLS regressions performed for the multi-item scale variable that represents journalistic interventionism found in conflict frame news

Towards a Typology

items. First, the results indicate that in online news articles a significantly lower degree of online journalistic interventionism is found. Hence, the first hypothesis (H1A) is corroborated. In online coverage of political conflicts, journalists intervene on a lesser scale than in traditional newspaper coverage of political conflicts.

The second hypothesis (H1B) is also supported. Results show that the level of journalistic interventionism is significantly lower for more tabloid media outlets. This suggests that in quality newspapers, journalistic intervention in the form of evaluations and an interpretative style is present more often than in tabloid newspapers.

Finally, the results indicate that in election time, the degree of journalistic interpretation is not significantly more visible. Journalist did not become more visible in conflict news in election coverage, when compared to routine coverage. Hence, regarding RQ3, it can be concluded that there is no difference in journalistic intervention when comparing routine coverage with election coverage.

Table 3.5 Contextual factors as predictors of interventionism

Dependent Variable	Predictors	B	(SE)	Beta	t
Interventionism (F= 16.799***, R2 =.032)	Time (election)	.005	.019	.007	.317
	outlet type (sensational)***	-.086	.016	-.135	-5.346
	Medium type (online)***	-.074	.017	-.111	-4.420

Note: * p<.05, ** p<.01, ***p<.001

3.8.2. Effects of Contextual Factors on Substance

The next part of the analysis focuses on the effect of contextual factors on the level of substantiveness. As seen in Table 6, results indicate that during election times news content is significantly less substantive. This is in line with H2A. In routine coverage, the news is significantly more focused on substance than in election coverage. Furthermore, election conflict coverage differs from routine conflict coverage in the sense that there are more personal attacks, more strategic coverage and more depiction of politics as a game.

When looking at the factors internal to media, results indicate that tabloid newspapers are less

Chapter 3

likely to include substantive content. However, contrary to expectations, the strategy, and personal attacks dimensions are significantly more prevalent in more quality newspapers.

Outlet type had a significant effect on the level of substance in conflict news. However, the results indicate lower degrees of strategy reporting in populist newspapers. Hence, hypothesis H2B can only be partially confirmed.

Medium type also did not influence the level of substance across all sub-dimensions. Nevertheless, higher degrees of strategy reporting were found for online news articles. Furthermore, the strong effect of medium on the prevalence of personal attacks deserves attention. Personal attacks are more prominently featured in online news than in traditional news.

Table 3.6. Outlet, medium type and time period as predictors of Substance

Dependent Variable	Predictors	B	(SE)	Beta	t
<i>Substance</i>					
(F=10.14***, R2 =.02)					
	Time (Election)***	-.09	.02	-.11	-4.47
	Outlet type (sensational) *	-.04	.02	-.05	-2.08
	Medium type (online) *	-.05	.02	.06	-2.32
<i>Strategy</i>					
(F=16.75***, R2 =.03)					
	Time (Election)***	.05	.02	.08	3.26
	Outlet type (Sensational) ***	-.08	.02	-.13	-5.19
	Medium type (online) ***	-.06	.02	-.09	-3.40
<i>Personal attacks</i>					
(F= 18.201***, R2 =.03)					
	Time (Election) ***	.088	.022	.102	4.07
	Outlet type (sensational)	-.03	.02	-.04	-1.51
	Medium type (online) ***	.140	.023	.153	6.08

Towards a Typology

Dependent Variable	Predictors	B	(SE)	Beta	t
Incivility (F= 3.094***, R2 =.06)	Time (election) **	.04	.01	.07	2.77
	Outlet type (sensational)	.01	.01	.02	.70
	Medium type (online)	.01	.01	.03	.99

3.9. Discussion

The aim of this article was to develop a more comprehensive and fine-grained understanding of conflict framing in political news coverage. Our results indicate that articles framed in terms of conflict indeed vary along a number of dimensions. The scale developed to measure interventionism was confirmed as a dimension. Second, level of substantiveness was measured by looking at level of substance in the form of policy news and a focus on legislation. Three dimensions reflected non-substantive news coverage: strategic coverage, personal attacks and incivility. Furthermore, during election times, articles with conflict frames were found to be less substantive, deal more with strategy, personal attacks and incivility when compared to a routine news period. Second, interventionist reporting, substance, strategy, and personal attacks were lower for sensationalist newspapers when compared to quality newspapers. Finally, online articles showed lower levels of interventionism, substance and strategy when compared to print articles. However, the level of personal attacks was higher for online titles.

Framing theory has long been associated with unclear operationalizations and definitions (Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). The criticism aimed towards framing mainly stem from the fuzziness of framing conceptualization and incoherent applications, illustrated in this paper by the example of conflict framing (Matthes, 2009). However, rather than abandoning the concept of framing, this paper suggests that an alternative solution would be to strengthen research towards emphasis-frames. This entails (a) providing clearer and more consistent definitions, and (b) to unravel underlying dimensions which can explain variations within generic frames. The findings in this paper point out the relevance of such variations for the specific case of conflict framing and applies pre-existing theories to identify and measure these underlying dimensions.

Specifically, our results show that contextual factors internal to the media such as medium type and outlet type affect conflict coverage. For example, the findings indicated that less journalistic inter-

Chapter 3

ventionism is more prevalent in online coverage when compared to traditional coverage. This finding may be explained by differing journalistic routines and the emphasis on speed that characterizes online journalism (Singer, 2003). Another explanation can be found is the move towards more quality journalism by traditional media, who seek to differentiate themselves from the large numbers of free content by providing interpretative journalism and performance of the watchdog role, future research should focus on explaining the differences between online and offline content.

The findings also show the impact of election coverage versus routine coverage on the manifestation of substantive news in the media. While there is a lot of research done on election coverage content, (e.g., Strömbäck & Kaid, 2008) and on routine periods (e.g., Entman, 2004), research comparing these two different time periods is scarce. Earlier research did not find proximity to the elections to be a predictor of generic conflict frames (Schuck et al., 2013). Our study shows that proximity to the election does explain variations of differing types of conflict coverage. This difference between these different time periods is in line with findings from Falasca (2014), which suggest that levels of mediatization vary between periods of election and routine coverage. During election times there are several other factors that might affect contextual characteristics of contentious political news coverage that should be taken into account in future studies. One example of these factors is issue-types. Different issues that are present may lead to different characteristics of conflict reporting, due to journalists reporting differently on these issues, but also frames provided by political actors may differ on more emotionally laden issues.

Our study also has a number of limitations. We measure journalistic visibility as a proxy for journalistic interventionism. For the purposes of this study, we considered this method as most reliable as it provides a manifest indicator of journalistic intervention as it is visible to the audience in a media text and hence represents distinguishable ways of reporting about political disagreement. However, there are other, more subtle ways in which journalists intervene in the framing processes (Chapter 2). The journalistic news production process is complex and not easily observed in a content analysis alone. For instance, the differences between offline and online news articles found in this study raise interesting questions regarding the causes of these differences. We can speculate on how to explain differing content in for example online versus traditional media, but future research should focus on journalistic processes and differing routines for online and offline journalists. The enhanced time pressure resulting from the constant flow of news in online titles could affect the ability of journalists to intervene, alternatively, the interactive nature of online news which enhances possibilities for the audience in terms of selective ex-

Towards a Typology

posure might affect reporting by journalists as well, especially since journalists are known to be affected by audience perceptions (Bennet, 2005).

The findings of this study are derived from political news in The Netherlands, which is an example of a democratic corporatist media system with a strong history of public broadcasting (Van Aelst et al., 2008). Future studies should also be conducted in other countries. Particularly in countries with different media systems and different party systems, such as The United States, where for instance the tone of conflict coverage might be different from the tone in democratic corporatist countries.

3.9.1. Conclusion

Concluding, our findings contribute by illustrating the different characteristics of conflict coverage in political news coverage. Our typology provides a starting point for a better and more nuanced understanding of conflict framing. Furthermore, the results highlight the importance of distinguishing between different types of conflict frames.

Future research must disentangle whether exposure to these different manifestations of conflict framing in the news affects relevant political behaviour of citizens. This particularly calls for effect studies which consider different aspects of conflict framing, both in experimental as in panel settings. Nevertheless, conflict framing as a generic concept is still valuable as a framing device that is used in journalism across all reporting contexts. Our results merely add to the concept identifying multiple layers that can be subsumed within the broader concept of conflict framing and that are distinctively present across reporting contexts and media outlets.

Chapter 3

References

- Aalberg, T., Strömbäck, J., & De Vreese, C. H. (2012). The framing of politics as strategy and game: A review of concepts, operationalizations and key findings. *Journalism*, 13(2), 162-178.
- Adriaansen, M. L., Van Praag, P., & De Vreese, C. H. (2010). Substance matters: How news content can reduce political cynicism. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 22(4), 433-457.
- Bennett, W. L. (2005). Social movements beyond borders: understanding two eras of transnational activism. *Transnational protest and global activism*, 203, 26.
- Benson, R., & Hallin, D. C. (2007). How states, markets and globalization shape the news: The French and US national press, 1965-97. *European Journal of Communication*, 22(1), 27-48.
- Bennett, Lance W. 2005. *News: The Politics of illusion*, 6th edition. New York: Longman.
- Binderkrantz, S.A., & Green-Pedersen, C. (2009). Policy or processes in focus? *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 14(2), 166-185.
- Brants, K., & Van Praag, P. (2006). Signs of media logic half a century of political communication in the Netherlands. *Javnost-the public*, 13(1), 25-40.
- Burscher, B., Odijk, D., Vliegenthart, R., De Rijke, M., & De Vreese, C. H. (2014). Teaching the computer to code frames in news: Comparing two supervised machine learning approaches to frame analysis. *Communication Methods and Measures*, 8(3), 190-206.
- Cappella, J. N., & Jamieson, K. H. (1997). *Spiral of cynicism: The press and the public good*. Oxford University Press.
- Cassidy, W. P. (2005). Variations on a theme: The professional role conceptions of print and online newspaper journalists. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 82(2), 264-280.
- De Vreese, C., & Tobiasen, M. (2007). Conflict and Identity: Explaining Turnout and Anti-integrationist voting in the Danish 2004 Elections for the European Parliament. *Scandinavian Political Studies*, 30(1), 87-114.
- Elenbaas, M., & De Vreese, C. H. (2008). The effects of strategic news on political cynicism and vote choice among young voters. *Journal of Communication*, 58(3), 550-567.
- Entman, R. M. (2004). *Projections of power: Framing news, public opinion, and US foreign policy*. University of Chicago Press.
- Esser, F. (2008). Dimensions of political news cultures: Sound bite and image bite news in France, Ger

Towards a Typology

- many, Great Britain, and the United States. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 13(4), 401-428.
- Falasca, K. (2014). Political news journalism: Mediatization across three news reporting contexts. *European Journal of Communication*, 29(5), 583-597.
- Fenton, N. (2010). *New media, old news: Journalism and democracy in the digital age*. Sage Publications.
- Forgette, R., & Morris, J. S. (2006). High-conflict television news and public opinion. *Political Research Quarterly*, 59(3), 447-456.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Hamilton, J. G. (1996). Viability of exploratory factor analysis as a precursor to confirmatory factor analysis. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 3(1), 62-72.
- Gross, K., & Brewer, P. R. (2007). Sore losers: News frames, policy debates, and emotions. *Harvard International Journal of Press/Politics*, 12(1), 122-133.
- Hair, Joseph F., Rolph E. Anderson, Ronald L. Tatham, and William C. Black. 1998. *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis*.
- Hänggli, R., & Kriesi, H. (2010). Political framing strategies and their impact on media framing in a Swiss direct-democratic campaign. *Political Communication*, 27(2), 141-157.
- Hanitzsch, T. (2007). Deconstructing journalism culture: Toward a universal theory. *Communication theory*, 17(4), 367-385.
- Hanitzsch, T., Hanusch, F., Mellado, C., Anikina, M., Berganza, R., Cangoz, I., ... & Virginia Moreira, S. (2011). Mapping journalism cultures across nations: A comparative study of 18 countries. *Journalism Studies*, 12(3), 273-293.
- Hester, J. B., & Dougall, E. (2007). The efficiency of constructed week sampling for content analysis of online news. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 84(4), 811-824.
- Iyengar, S., & McGrady, J. (2007). *Media politics: A citizen's guide*. New York: WW Norton.
- Jackson, D. (2011). Strategic media, cynical public? Examining the contingent effects of strategic news frames on political cynicism in the United Kingdom. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 16(1), 75-101.
- Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1993). *LISREL 8: Structural equation modeling with the SIMPLIS command language*. Scientific Software International.
- Lawrence, R. G. (2000). Game-framing the issues: Tracking the strategy frame in public policy news.

Chapter 3

Political Communication, 17(2), 93-114.

- Lee, N. J., McLeod, D. M., & Shah, D. V. (2008). Framing policy debates issue dualism, journalistic frames, and opinions on controversial policy issues. *Communication Research*, 35(5), 695-718.
- Maier, S. R. (2010). Newspapers offer more news than do major online sites. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 31(1), 6-19.
- Matthes, J. (2009). What's in a frame? A content analysis of media framing studies in the world's leading communication journals, 1990-2005. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 86(2), 349-367.
- McManus, J. H. (1994). *Market-driven journalism: Let the citizen beware?* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Min, Y. (2004). News Coverage of Negative Political Campaigns An Experiment of Negative Campaign Effects on Turnout and Candidate Preference. *The Harvard international journal of press/politics*, 9(4), 95-111
- Mitchelstein, E., & Boczkowski, P. J. (2009). Between tradition and change: A review of recent research on online news production. *Journalism*, 10(5), 562-586.
- Mutz, D. C., & Reeves, B. (2005). The new videomalaise: Effects of televised incivility on political trust. *American Political Science Review*, 99(01), 1-15.
- Neuman, W. R., Just, M. R., & Crigler, A. N. (1992). *Common knowledge: News and the construction of political meaning*. University of Chicago Press.
- Norris, P. (2000). *A virtuous circle: Political communications in postindustrial societies*. Cambridge University Press.
- Patterson, T. E. (1993). Out of order: How the decline of the political parties and the growing power of the news media undermine the American way of electing presidents. *New York: Alfred Knopf*.
- Putnam, L. L., & Shoemaker, M. (2007). Changes in conflict framing in the news coverage of an environmental conflict. *J. Disp. Resol.*, 167.
- Salgado, S., & Strömbäck, J. (2012). Interpretive journalism: A review of concepts, operationalizations and key findings. *Journalism*, 13(2), 144-161.
- Salgado, S., Strömbäck, J., & Aalberg, T. (2016) Interpretative journalism. In C.H. De Vreese, F. Esser, & D.N. Hopmann, *Comparing Political Journalism*. 50-70. Routledge, New York.
- Sartori, G. (1987). *The theory of democracy revisited*. Chatham, NJ: Chatham

Towards a Typology

- Schattschneider, E. E. (1975). *The semi-sovereign people*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Scheufele, D. A., & Tewksbury, D. (2007). Framing, agenda setting, and priming: The evolution of three media effects models. *Journal of communication*, 57(1), 9-20.
- Schreiber, J. B., Nora, A., Stage, F. K., Barlow, E. A., & King, J. (2006). Reporting structural equation modeling and confirmatory factor analysis results: A review. *The Journal of educational research*, 99(6), 323-338.
- Schuck, A. R., Vliegthart, R., Boomgaarden, H. G., Elenbaas, M., Azrout, R., van Spanje, J., & De Vreesse, C. H. (2013). Explaining campaign news coverage: How medium, time, and context explain variation in the media framing of the 2009 European parliamentary elections. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 12(1), 8-28.
- Schudson, M. (2001). The objectivity norm in American journalism. *Journalism*, 2(2), 149-170.
- Semetko, H. A., Blumler, J. G., Gurevitch, M., Weaver, D. H., & Barkin, S. (2013). *The formation of campaign agendas: A comparative analysis of party and media roles in recent American and British elections*. Routledge.
- Semetko, H. A., & Valkenburg, P. M. (2000). Framing European politics: A content analysis of press and television news. *Journal of communication*, 50(2), 93-109.
- Singer, J. B. (2003). Who are these guys? The online challenge to the notion of journalistic professionalism. *Journalism*, 4(2), 139-163.
- Strömbäck, J., & Kaid, L. L. (2008). A framework for comparing election news coverage around the world. *The handbook of election news coverage around the world*, 1-20.
- Sobieraj, S., & Berry, J. M. (2011). From incivility to outrage: Political discourse in blogs, talk radio, and cable news. *Political Communication*, 28(1), 19-41.
- Strömbäck, J., & Van Aelst, P. (2010). Exploring some antecedents of the media's framing of election news: A comparison of Swedish and Belgian election news. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 15(1), 41-59.
- Strömbäck, J., & Dimitrova, D. V. (2011). Mediatization and media interventionism: A comparative analysis of Sweden and the United States. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 16(1), 30-49.
- Tabachnick, B.G., & Fidell, L.S. (1996). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Takens, J., Van Attevelde, W., van Hoof, A., & Kleinnijenhuis, J. (2013). Media logic in election campaign coverage. *European Journal of Communication*, 28(3), 277-293.

Chapter 3

- Van Aelst, P., & De Swert, K. (2009). Politics in the news: Do campaigns matter? A comparison of political news during election periods and routine periods in Flanders (Belgium). *Communications*, 34(2), 149-168.
- Van Aelst, P., Brants, K., Van Praag, P., De Vreese, C., Nuytemans, M., & Van Dalen, A. (2008). The fourth estate as superpower? An empirical study of perceptions of media power in Belgium and the Netherlands. *Journalism studies*, 9(4), 494-511.
- Vliegthart, R., & Van Aelst, P. (2010). Nederlandse en Vlaamse politieke partijen in de krant en in de peilingen: een wederkerige relatie. *Tijdschrift voor Communicatiewetenschap*, 38(4), 338.
- Vliegthart, R., Schuck, A. R., Boomgaarden, H. G., & De Vreese, C. H. (2008). News coverage and support for European integration, 1990-2006. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 20(4), 415-439.
- Vliegthart, R., Boomgaarden, H. G., & Boumans, J. W. (2011). Changes in political news coverage: Personalization, conflict and negativity in British and Dutch newspapers. In *Political communication in postmodern democracy* (pp. 92-110). Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Walgrave, S., & Van Aelst, P. (2006). The contingency of the mass media's political agenda setting power: Toward a preliminary theory. *Journal of Communication*, 56(1), 88-109.
- Weaver, D. H., & Wilhoit, G. C. (1996). *The American journalist in the 1990s: US news people at the end of an era*. Psychology Press.