



Bookshelf

---

2020

## [Introduction to] Convenient Criticism: Local Media and Governance in Urban China

Dan Chen  
*University of Richmond*, [dchen@richmond.edu](mailto:dchen@richmond.edu)

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarship.richmond.edu/bookshelf>



Part of the [Political Science Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Chen, Dan. Convenient Criticism: Local Media and Governance in Urban China. Albany, NY: SUNY Press, 2020.

**NOTE:** This PDF preview of [Introduction to] Convenient Criticism: Local Media and Governance in Urban China includes only the preface and/or introduction. To purchase the full text, please click [here](#).

This Book is brought to you for free and open access by UR Scholarship Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Bookshelf by an authorized administrator of UR Scholarship Repository. For more information, please contact [scholarshiprepository@richmond.edu](mailto:scholarshiprepository@richmond.edu).

# CONVENIENT CRITICISM

LOCAL MEDIA AND GOVERNANCE  
IN URBAN CHINA

Dan Chen

**SUNY**  
PRESS

# Contents

|   |     |
|---|-----|
|   | 1   |
|   | 2   |
|   | 3   |
|   | 4   |
|   | 5   |
|   | 6   |
|   | 7   |
|   | 8   |
|   | 9   |
|   | 10  |
|   | 11  |
|   | 12  |
| List of Illustrations                               | ix  |
|   | 13  |
| Acknowledgments                                     | xi  |
|   | 14  |
|   | 15  |
| Introduction  | 1   |
|   | 16  |
|   | 17  |
| 1. Convenient Criticism                             | 25  |
|   | 18  |
|   | 19  |
| 2. Tangled Maneuvers                                | 63  |
|   | 20  |
|   | 21  |
| 3. Political Edge                                   | 85  |
|   | 22  |
|   | 23  |
| 4. Keen Partner                                     | 107 |
|   | 24  |
|   | 25  |
| 5. Criticism and Correction                         | 131 |
|   | 26  |
|   | 27  |
| Conclusion  | 159 |
|   | 28  |
|   | 29  |
| Appendix A: Ethnographic Observation and Interviews | 169 |
|   | 30  |
|   | 31  |
| Appendix B: Content Analysis and Variables          | 171 |
|   | 32  |
|   | 33  |
| Notes   | 177 |
|   | 34  |
|   | 35  |
| Works Cited   | 183 |
|   | 36  |
|   | 37  |
| Index   | 203 |
|   | 38  |
|   | 39  |
|   | 40  |



# Illustrations

|  |    |
|--|----|
|  | 1  |
|  | 2  |
|  | 3  |
|  | 4  |
|  | 5  |
|  | 6  |
|  | 7  |
|  | 8  |
|  | 9  |
|  | 10 |
|  | 11 |
|  | 12 |
|  | 13 |
|  | 14 |
|  | 15 |
|  | 16 |
|  | 17 |
|  | 18 |
|  | 19 |
|  | 20 |
|  | 21 |
|  | 22 |
|  | 23 |
|  | 24 |
|  | 25 |
|  | 26 |
|  | 27 |
|  | 28 |
|  | 29 |
|  | 30 |
|  | 31 |
|  | 32 |
|  | 33 |
|  | 34 |
|  | 35 |
|  | 36 |
|  | 37 |
|  | 38 |
|  | 39 |
|  | 40 |

## Tables

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| 1.1 Television Livelihood News Programs   | 39  |
| 4.1 Conceptions of Journalism             | 119 |
| 4.2 Factors in Livelihood News Production | 121 |
| 4.3 Political Constraints                 | 122 |
| 5.1 Negative Binomial Regression Results  | 142 |
| A.1 Interview List                        | 169 |
| B.1 The Codebook                          | 172 |
| B.2 Leadership Style toward the Media     | 174 |
| B.3 Summary Statistics of All Variables   | 175 |
| B.4 News Reports by Leaders               | 176 |

## Figures

|  |    |
|--|----|
| 1.1 Livelihood News Reports                  | 40 |
| 1.2 Criticism and Improvement                | 42 |
| 1.3 Reporting Intensity                      | 43 |
| 1.4 Convenient Criticism                     | 60 |
| 2.1 Administrative Ranks and Media Criticism | 69 |

|    |     |  |     |
|----|-----|--|-----|
| 1  | 4.1 | Television Stations and Channels in China          | 110 |
| 2  | 4.2 | Television Industry in China                       | 111 |
| 3  |     |  |     |
| 4  | 4.3 | Television Program Production (10,000 hours)       | 112 |
| 5  | 5.1 | Sample Means of Daily Reports                      | 140 |
| 6  |     |  |     |
| 7  | 5.2 | Interaction Effects in Modeling Critical Reporting | 145 |
| 8  | 5.3 | Interaction Effects in Modeling Positive Reporting | 148 |
| 9  |     |  |     |
| 10 |     |  |     |
| 11 |     |  |     |
| 12 |     |  |     |
| 13 |     |  |     |
| 14 |     |  |     |
| 15 |     |  |     |
| 16 |     |  |     |
| 17 |     |  |     |
| 18 |     |  |     |
| 19 |     |  |     |
| 20 |     |  |     |
| 21 |     |  |     |
| 22 |     |  |     |
| 23 |     |  |     |
| 24 |     |  |     |
| 25 |     |  |     |
| 26 |     |  |     |
| 27 |     |  |     |
| 28 |     |  |     |
| 29 |     |  |     |
| 30 |     |  |     |
| 31 |     |  |     |
| 32 |     |  |     |
| 33 |     |  |     |
| 34 |     |  |     |
| 35 |     |  |     |
| 36 |     |  |     |
| 37 |     |  |     |
| 38 |     |  |     |
| 39 |     |  |     |
| 40 |     |  |     |



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

## Introduction

On February 23, 2017, a popular news program airing on the Jiangsu provincial television city channel reported a news story about a misbehaving local official. According to an anonymous hotline call to the program in November 2016, a civil affairs department director surnamed Xu was repeatedly absent from his work at a street committee in the Gulou District of Nanjing, the capital city of Jiangsu. Reporters then started a three-month investigation. They disguised as ordinary citizens in need of government help on pension funds, an issue of Director Xu's responsibility. The excuse from Xu's coworkers was always, "Director Xu is in a meeting." Through meticulous investigation, reporters discovered that Xu had been playing mahjong at a nearby mahjong room extensively during work hours. In the next day's broadcast, on February 24, the news program aired a follow-up report, stating that the street committee had put Xu on an immediate leave and that the discipline commission of the Gulou District had placed him under investigation, as a result of this program's report disclosing Xu's misconduct. That same day, the street committee convened an organization-wide meeting to educate its officials about their duties and disciplines. Why would the Chinese authoritarian state, equipped with a sophisticated media control system, allow such critical reporting to correct official misconduct?

Over four decades of reform and opening, the media landscape in China has been transformed. Media criticism has become a steady component in the political life of government officials and ordinary citizens, despite the notoriously elaborate and effective censorship system. While the informational, supervisory, and propagandist values of media criticism for the party-state have been discussed in the literature, what remains puzzling is the prevalent yet varied levels of *local* critical reporting and





1 the subsequent corrective action, as shown in the above example. Why  
2 would local officials correct misbehavior instead of lobbying their supe-  
3 riors to censor critical reports? What convenience does the supposedly  
4 inconvenient media criticism provide, and to whom? Finally, how has the  
5 media's role in politics evolved, and what does it mean for governance  
6 at the local level?

7 This book addresses these questions by focusing on local televi-  
8 sion news programs in China. Having emerged in the late 1990s, these  
9 programs pioneered in placing an unprecedented, though comparatively  
10 limited, amount of journalistic focus on inept policy implementation  
11 and inadequate public service provision at village, township, county,  
12 and district levels. Media scholars and practitioners refer to this type of  
13 television news as “livelihood news”<sup>1</sup> (民生新闻), indicating the remark-  
14 able departure in both style and content from traditional television news  
15 programs,<sup>2</sup> which inhabit a formal language to reinforce carefully rehearsed  
16 narratives on political ideology, government policy, and high-level leaders.  
17 Livelihood news programs, instead, use a colloquial language to enliven  
18 ordinary citizens' concerns and grievances. The pioneering livelihood  
19 news programs broadcast in Jiangsu, Anhui, Sichuan,<sup>3</sup> and elsewhere  
20 were an overnight success, during a time when a series of media reforms  
21 substantially elevated the importance of profitability for media outlets.  
22 Their enviable ratings propelled other television stations to follow suit.  
23 Now, every provincial and municipal television station in China has at  
24 least one livelihood news program, operating parallel to their traditional  
25 news programs. Having become a prominent voice among the few local  
26 media outlets dedicated to covering local affairs, livelihood news programs  
27 have grown to shape local narratives on politics and governance and to  
28 participate in the local governance process by correcting misbehaving  
29 street-level bureaucrats. Their sustained popularity and influence in the  
30 past two decades present the unique opportunity to further understand  
31 the role of local media in Chinese politics and governance.

32

33

### 34 Reassessing Media Criticism under Authoritarian Rule

35

36 In the literature on media politics in China, research into the opaque,  
37 fluid, yet exacting rules of media control captures important dynamics  
38 in the state-media relationship (Brady 2008; Han 2018; Hassid 2015;  
39 Lee 2000; King, Pan, and Roberts 2013, 2014, 2017; Repnikova 2017a;  
40





Roberts 2018; Shirk 2011; Stockmann 2013; Tong 2011; Y. Zhao 1998, 1  
2008; Zhou 2000). While our understanding of censorship and other 2  
suppressive measures against journalism is greatly extended, the prevalent 3  
existence of media criticism demands a different perspective to unravel 4  
how critical reporting, the common object of censorship, features in the 5  
authoritarian rule. 6

Existing studies that examine media criticism, defined as journalistic 7  
reports critical of government agencies, policies, or officials, primarily 8  
investigate the nationally known newspapers, such as *Southern Weekend*, 9  
*Dahe Daily*, and *Southern Metropolis Daily*, through which to illustrate 10  
the intricate and volatile dynamics of control, resistance, and maneu- 11  
ver between critical journalists and their censors. This type of shackled 12  
watchdog journalism has nonetheless led to consequential policy changes. 13  
Prominent examples include reports on the 2003 SARS epidemic that 14  
pressured government officials into action and reports on the death of 15  
Sun Zhigang in police custody in 2003 that led to the national reform of 16  
the extrajudicial detention system. The peak of investigative journalism 17  
in the mid-aughts was unprecedented in the seven-decade history of the 18  
People's Republic. However, if high impact characterizes investigative 19  
journalism during its golden years, then high volatility is its aftermath. 20  
The rapidly shrinking space for investigative reporting afterwards has 21  
led to a large-scale exodus of critical journalists, damaging the field of 22  
investigative journalism.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, the dynamics of high impact and 23  
high volatility do not capture this other dimension in the state-media 24  
relationship that enables low-impact but sustainable critical reporting. 25

Expanding scholarly attention from the national level to local lev- 26  
els<sup>5</sup> and from print media to television<sup>6</sup>—the medium with the highest 27  
penetration rate<sup>7</sup> and a high level of credibility<sup>8</sup> in China—this book 28  
examines critical reports by local television livelihood news programs 29  
and reveals two fundamentally different reporting models, which I refer 30  
to as *organic criticism* and *orchestrated criticism*. 31

Organic criticism stems from a regular journalistic news produc- 32  
tion process where news leads are sourced from citizens, beat reporters, 33  
and others within the state-defined reporting boundaries. Orchestrated 34  
criticism, in contrast, is directed by local leaders who assign critical 35  
topics to journalists, directly or indirectly, so that the local media can 36  
help supervise the subordinate bureaucrats and advance the governance 37  
agendas. It is important to note that leader orchestration does not mean 38  
that produced critical reports are fake or fabricated; they are real news 39

40



1 reports, though their topics are determined by local leaders. Essentially,  
2 local leaders participate in the news production process and to a certain  
3 degree play the role of program producer, influencing the selection of  
4 news topics.

5 While organic criticism is produced through a bottom-up channel,  
6 orchestrated criticism is produced in a top-down fashion. Despite the  
7 key differences in their news source and political nature, the two types  
8 of critical reporting are often mixed in the broadcast, sharing similar  
9 topics and often indistinguishable from the audience's perspective. Both  
10 feature citizen grievances and governance problems arising from rapid  
11 urbanization, and both follow the narrative that assigns blame to the  
12 negligence or incompetence of street-level bureaucrats. For example, air  
13 pollution, illegal construction, and food safety issues due to lackadaisical  
14 governmental oversight at the grassroots level are common topics in  
15 television livelihood news; street-level bureaucrats, who are responsible  
16 for the final stage of policy implementation, are the unfailing target of  
17 blame. The more serious critical reports expose petty corruption or neg-  
18 ligence of duty by local officials, such as the news story about Director  
19 Xu. After the initial broadcast, both types of critical reports may lead to  
20 follow-up reports that highlight successful resolutions due to correction  
21 of misbehavior, ending a critical report on a positive outcome. Opera-  
22 tionally, organic and orchestrated criticism can be differentiated through  
23 immersive fieldwork that enables investigation of the source and nature  
24 of media criticism, discussed further in the following chapters.

25 Given their topics and reporting narrative, television critical reports  
26 are not as impactful as the investigative reports published by influential  
27 newspapers that led to national policy changes; instead, television criti-  
28 cal reports mostly address individual grievances and criticize street-level  
29 bureaucrats. With television being the most strictly controlled form of  
30 media in China (Shirk 2011, 11), television journalists are unable to  
31 liberally examine the policymaking process or to ably analyze governance  
32 problems. However, the seemingly low-impact outcome is nonetheless  
33 significant at the grassroots level, shown by the media's emerging role  
34 in facilitating public service provision and redressing citizen grievances  
35 (D. Chen 2017a). More important, the modest scope allows this type of  
36 low-impact critical reporting to be sustainable, avoiding the consequence  
37 of high volatility that typically follows high impact. Chapter 1 elaborates  
38 on how these two types of media criticism are produced and analyzes  
39 their connections and distinctions.

40



## Existing Explanations of Media Criticism

So why is local television critical reporting allowed and what purpose does it serve? Scholars investigating media criticism in China argue that it provides distinctive values to the authoritarian regime—media criticism collects information on emerging problems and offers consultation for government officials (Huang, Boranbay-Akan, and Huang 2019; Repnikova 2017a; Shirk 2011, 5; Y. Zhao 2004, 181); it supervises local officials and holds them accountable for misconduct (Chan 2002; Cheong and Gong 2010; Lorentzen 2014; Shirk 2011, 5; Zhao and Sun 2007; Zhou and Cai 2020); it diverts citizen blame from the central leadership to the local governments (D. Chen 2017c; Cai 2008; Cai 2015, ch. 6; Yang et al. 2014). Together, these arguments point to the regime's need for information, bureaucratic control, and public opinion manipulation.

On the other hand, excessive media criticism poses a challenge to the authoritarian rule. Susan Shirk (2011, 17) points out that critical reporting is riskier than relying on confidential internal reporting within the bureaucracy to tackle the problem of local noncompliance. Once a problem is reported by the media, the stakes in resolving that problem become higher, because a lack of resolution would likely instigate a public fallout. Peter Lorentzen (2014) notes that media criticism can be effective at supervising local officials only after striking a delicate balance between media control and freedom. These arguments highlight the importance of addressing the limits of media criticism, in addition to understanding the utilities it provides to the authoritarian rule. Why are certain critical reports acceptable but not others? This research gap necessitates unpacking media criticism and studying the differences within. For example, Li Shao's (2018) recent research sheds light on the different types of criticism by finding that media censorship tends to tolerate criticism of government performance, especially in public goods provision, while strictly prohibiting criticism that challenges the political rule. Analyzing not only the content but also the source and impact of media criticism, this book differentiates television critical reports and explicates their utilities and limits by situating them in the process of local governance.

More important, the existing explanations, though helpful for understanding the utilities of media criticism, address this question primarily from the central leadership's perspective, thus being unable to offer a sufficient account of media criticism at the local level. In China's decentralized media control system, traditional media outlets, including



1 newspapers and television stations, are owned and *directly* managed by local  
2 governments at matching administrative levels. For example, municipal  
3 television stations are directly managed by municipal governments in their  
4 day-to-day news production, though higher-level governments and the  
5 broader political context certainly also exert influence. Therefore, local  
6 governments are empowered to censor critical reports about themselves  
7 (Tong 2010), which eludes the existing explanations that focus on the  
8 interests of the central leadership and are largely detached from local  
9 politics. If media criticism helps the regime supervise local officials, then  
10 these local officials ought to have strong incentives to block critical  
11 reports by the local media that implicate themselves.

12 An illustrative example of the local power in media control is the  
13 central leadership's response to a journalistic practice called cross-regional  
14 supervision (异地监督), which was popular in the late 1990s and the  
15 early part of the following decade. Journalists developed this practice to  
16 dodge local media control by covering wrongdoing by local governments  
17 in neighboring localities (Liebman 2011). As this strategy became more  
18 popular, local leaders grew wary of cross-regional supervision. They suc-  
19 cessfully petitioned the central leadership to ban this practice in 2005  
20 and closed this loophole in local media control (Shirk 2011; Tong and  
21 Sparks 2009; Y. Zhao 2008). Given this logic, why would local leaders  
22 allow media criticism in their own jurisdiction, where they have the  
23 power to control critical reporting?

24 Furthermore, the existing explanations have yet to offer a sys-  
25 tematic account for the *variations* in topic, frequency, and rectifying  
26 consequences of critical reporting, which again requires a decentralized  
27 view on government authority. To be sure, recent studies in the area  
28 of online censorship have made great strides in identifying the logic  
29 behind controlling online critical information (e.g., Gueorguiev and  
30 Malesky 2019; King, Pan, and Roberts 2013, 2014, 2017). For example,  
31 some recent studies find that the variation in the rectifying effect of  
32 online media exposure of official misconduct can be attributed to the  
33 publicity of such exposure and whether the nature of the wrongdoing  
34 is a priority concern for the government (Cheong and Gong 2010;  
35 Huang, Boranbay-Akan, and Huang 2019; Zhou and Cai 2020). While  
36 these findings are illuminating, the variables of publicity and alignment  
37 with government priorities remain somewhat inexact. Furthermore, the  
38 underlying perspective still treats the government as a unitary entity  
39 without adequately considering the diverging interests of local leaders,  
40



which may be a natural result of the more centralized Internet censorship authority. To understand local critical reporting in television news, there needs to be a systematic examination of its regional and temporal variations from the local leadership's perspective.

### Convenient Criticism

To gain a better understanding of media criticism at the local level, this book first revisits some established assumptions in the conceptual framework of authoritarian media control. Specifically, when media control is eased or lifted, the media can facilitate an open public discourse that would pave the way for political liberalization, playing an important role in regime transition (Diamond and Plattner 2012; Howard 2010; Lawson 2002; Randall 1993; Skidmore 1993); when media control persists or evolves with more sophistication, the media can consolidate authoritarian rule by effectively manipulating public opinion through censorship and propaganda (Brady 2008; Stockmann 2013; Y. Zhao 1998; White, Oates, and McAllister 2005). These assumptions on how media and politics interact, despite their theoretical utilities, do not fully capture the dynamics of limited yet sustainable local critical reporting in China. The derived view on journalists also does not fully describe the mission of Chinese television journalists. This book takes this framework as a starting point, challenging and building on it in three ways.

First, conceptualizing media control primarily as suppression of journalism obscures how the media can be used to advance authoritarian rule in other important ways. The suppression of journalism is undoubtedly important—its theoretical and empirical implications have generated seminal works in this field that articulate the increasingly sophisticated tactics of state control over the media and the consequence of public opinion manipulation and authoritarian consolidation (Hassid 2008; Stern and O'Brien 2012; Stockmann and Gallagher 2011; Stockmann 2013). However, the logic of media control as suppression, persuasive as it is, suggests that criticism is inconvenient to authoritarian rule, thus unable to fully explain why critical reporting on citizen grievances and other governance problems is allowed and sometimes even encouraged by local leaders. As a recent commentary points out, the centrality of the “repression-resistance” axis has led to “authoritarian determinism,” rendering reductionism in the study of political communication in China



1 (Guan 2019). This research gap necessitates careful consideration of  
2 the political and governance context in which media criticism emerges.

3       Recent studies have started to move away from this binary per-  
4 spective. Maria Repnikova (2017a) insightfully argues that the central  
5 state and critical journalists formed a fluid collaborative relationship  
6 based on their shared goal to improve governance. To further understand  
7 the political significance of the less critical, more pragmatic television  
8 journalists at the local level, this book reconceptualizes media control  
9 as a broad mechanism of political domination that limits journalism to  
10 any form of reporting deemed by the political authority as convenient,  
11 which can be either adulatory or critical. In this conceptualization,  
12 media control is embodied as not only suppressing media criticism but  
13 also expropriating it. As this book demonstrates, in the complex and  
14 dynamic realities of politicking, suppression is not the only way that  
15 media control is exercised. Strategically encouraging media criticism can  
16 increase local leaders' capacity of bureaucratic control and their advantage  
17 in career advancement. This is especially true for leaders who are savvy  
18 about leveraging informal politics outside of formal institutional powers,  
19 such as media criticism, to mitigate the principal-agent problem in the  
20 local bureaucracy where street-level implementation is lax or absent.  
21 Therefore, critical reporting in this context should be understood as a  
22 result of political control, rather than a lack of it.

23       When local leaders allow organic criticism, journalists select news  
24 leads about individual grievances or governance problems from citizen  
25 hotline calls and social media posts, report on these problems in the  
26 frame of bureaucratic ineptitude, and sometimes correct misbehaving  
27 street-level bureaucrats. Through this mechanism, local leaders can shift  
28 the burden of supervising street-level bureaucrats to local media outlets,  
29 rather than overseeing their subordinates in a centralized, active, and  
30 direct way. This logic is similar, though on a more limited scale, to  
31 Mathew McCubbins and Thomas Schwartz's (1984) "fire-alarm over-  
32 sight" model that describes a decentralized way of legislative oversight  
33 over the executive branch in democratic politics, where legislatures rely  
34 on interest groups, the media, or constituents to "sound an alarm" and  
35 report problems in policy design or implementation.

36       When local leaders pursue orchestrated criticism, they direct local  
37 media outlets to cover specific governance issues, which are typically  
38 priorities on their governance agendas. Journalists producing these reports  
39 are empowered, with limited supervisory authority, to help local leaders  
40



achieve their governance goals. Orchestrated criticism follows a logic 1  
similar to “going public,” a media strategy used by some presidents and 2  
members of Congress in the United States to overcome institutional 3  
weakness in achieving policy agendas (Cook 2005; Kernell 2007; Vin- 4  
son 2017). Chinese local leaders’ orchestration of critical reporting also 5  
attempts to achieve political and policy objectives by compensating for 6  
the institutional insufficiency in reducing laxity or noncompliance when 7  
street-level bureaucrats carry out administrative orders or implement 8  
policies. By resorting to critical reporting, local leaders employ the media 9  
power of publicity to stage veiled public humiliation of misbehaving street- 10  
level bureaucrats, who then immediately correct their misbehavior due 11  
to public disgrace and the worry over adverse career impact. However, 12  
unlike their American counterparts who may publicly criticize fellow 13  
politicians, local leaders in China orchestrate critical reporting behind 14  
the scene to disparage their subordinates. In this way, the media are 15  
leveraged to influence not only the public by shaping their opinions, 16  
but also the governing elites by inducing compliant behavior (Kedrowski 17  
1996; Malecha and Reagan 2012; Vinson 2017). 18

Taken together, in allowing organic or orchestrated criticism, 19  
local leaders’ career interests empower local media to participate in the 20  
governance process that is often plagued by laxity, noncompliance, and 21  
maneuver. For local leaders, critical reporting can enhance their bureau- 22  
cratic control over subordinates, which then likely improves governance 23  
outcomes and their career prospects. Furthermore, this strategic use of 24  
media criticism advances the theory of media effects by expanding the 25  
media’s role in authoritarian politics from manipulating public opinion 26  
to correcting elite behavior.<sup>9</sup> 27

Second, this book challenges the implication of a deeply antagonistic 28  
relationship between the authoritarian state and the media, emanating 29  
from conceptualizing media control exclusively as suppression. This view 30  
obfuscates the dimension of collaboration or concord between the state and 31  
the media. Recent works by Maria Repnikova (2017a) and Rongbin Han 32  
(2018), for example, respectively show that the central state and critical 33  
journalists actually share the common goal of governance improvement, 34  
and that the pro-government voices online, which often turn out to be 35  
more potent than the dissenting ones, command the cyberspace. The 36  
demanding, persistent political control over journalists and other media 37  
content providers does not necessarily diminish the mutually beneficial 38  
aspects of the state-media relationship. 39

40

1 It has been well established that the small elite segment of print  
2 journalists<sup>10</sup> who courageously resist state control disproportionately  
3 encounter political suppression. But typical Chinese journalists, includ-  
4 ing local television journalists, seek to build lasting bridges between the  
5 government and citizens. These journalists, referred to in this book as  
6 *pragmatic journalists*, mostly work for local print, broadcast, and radio  
7 outlets, and they reliably follow orders from their superiors within both  
8 their news organizations and the local governments.<sup>11</sup> Yet, they are not  
9 merely a mouthpiece for the regime. The commercial pressure to compete  
10 for viewers and the journalistic identity of “helping ordinary folks solve  
11 problems”—a commonly used livelihood news slogan with a populist  
12 flavor—drive pragmatic journalists to engage in limited critical reporting.  
13 Still, they are different from critical print journalists in that their primary  
14 goal for critical reporting is not to engender impactful policy change, but  
15 to produce immediate, incremental governance improvements that correct  
16 misbehaving street-level bureaucrats and redress citizen grievances. This  
17 journalistic intention complements local leaders’ career interests that are  
18 typically pegged to competitive governance records.

19 In producing organic criticism, journalists continually learn and  
20 abide by the changing boundaries of critical reporting at the local level.  
21 With local leadership change occurring every few years, journalists steer  
22 their critical reporting along the shifting political currents, the signs of  
23 which are delivered through both formal ways of administrative orders  
24 and directives and informal ways of conversations, negotiations, and trial  
25 and error. When local leaders are perceived to appreciate media criticism,  
26 journalists employ several tried tactics to push for critical reporting, dis-  
27 cussed in detail in chapter 2. For example, journalists can ride the wave  
28 of local governance initiatives or campaigns by focusing their critical  
29 reporting on relevant governance problems. On these topics, journalists  
30 have more space to criticize street-level bureaucrats for lackluster over-  
31 sight. Journalists can also use the rhetorical frame of “rightful resistance”  
32 (O’Brien and Li 2006) by invoking relevant laws, regulations, policies,  
33 and speeches to justify their critical reporting. These reports, however,  
34 are typically followed up in subsequent news broadcasts highlighting the  
35 resultant governance improvement, ending a negative news story with a  
36 positive outcome that underscores government responsiveness.

37 In producing orchestrated criticism, journalists are empowered to  
38 supervise specific government bureaus and their bureaucrats responsible  
39 for policy implementation. Local leaders determine the topics and bound-  
40



aries of criticism, sparing journalists the effort to negotiate for critical reporting. Here, the converging interests on governance improvement between local leaders and television journalists animate a concerted, mutually beneficial relationship in the pursuit of media criticism. If seen instead through a binary view of journalists as resistant or acquiescent, implied by conceptualizing media control only as suppression, television journalists' intricate role in local governance would be lost. This role allows pragmatic journalists' work, such as television livelihood news programs, to exert persistent, though incremental, impact on local governance, unlike the isolated breakthroughs of influential critical reporting that rarely repeat themselves.<sup>12</sup>

Third, this book dissects the changing boundaries of critical reporting, contributing new findings on the factors that regulate the patterns of critical reporting. It finds that local leaders' career interests and individual characteristics such as age and leadership style are among the powerful explanations. Media factors such as market competition and contextual factors such as national and local political events and local economic development also account for the variations. Given these variables, media criticism is convenient only when motivated political leaders know how to use it, suggesting a complex media strategy consisting of not only bolstering propaganda but also expropriating criticism. When local leaders perceive worthy benefits in recruiting the media as a loyal and eager partner to address governance problems, the resulting critical reporting aligns and advances the interests of three key actors in the local governance process—local leaders, local media, and aggrieved citizens—by criticizing and correcting street-level bureaucrats.

On a deeper level, convenient criticism captures the evolving ways in which the media are perceived and employed by the party-state. As early as 1902, Vladimir Lenin argued in *What Is to Be Done?* that “a newspaper is not only a collective propagandist and collective agitator but also a collective organizer.” (Lenin 1963–70, 5:10–11) This media conception was put into practice when he declared in 1917 that “all bourgeois newspapers be shut down” in the former Soviet Union (Fu 1996, 144). Similarly, the Chinese party-state grasped control and monopolized institutions such as education, newspapers, magazines, television and radio broadcasting, and social science research, all of which “were regarded as tools of political indoctrination under the jurisdiction of the party's Department of Propaganda.” (Fu 1996, 144) Therefore, journalism in its orthodox sense barely existed at the beginning of the People's Republic.



1 Persuasion, indoctrination, and mobilization were the main purposes of  
 2 the media. Then, media reforms started in the 1980s as part of the fun-  
 3 damental policy shift of reform and opening; it consisted of deregulation,  
 4 commercialization, and partial privatization (Stockmann 2013). As a  
 5 result, the space for journalism has grown, not least indicated by the peak  
 6 of investigative journalism in the mid-aughts, as discussed earlier. More  
 7 significantly, the power of media criticism made savvy politicians realize  
 8 that the political potential of the media expands beyond public opinion  
 9 manipulation; it can also enhance bureaucratic control over subordinates.  
 10 As local leaders discover the effectiveness of media criticism at eliciting  
 11 swift responses and actions to achieve governance goals, journalists are  
 12 empowered within a limited scope to criticize and correct low-level  
 13 government officials. The increasingly prevalent use of media criticism  
 14 for intraparty purposes shows how far the state-media relationship has  
 15 evolved since Lenin's conception of the communist media.

16

17

18

### Media Capture at the Local Level

19

20 The theory of convenient criticism elucidates media supervision of a  
 21 different kind; instead of the media independently supervising the state,  
 22 as implied in the notion of the fourth estate and other idealized views  
 23 on the media as an agent that speaks truth to power, the theory of  
 24 convenient criticism shows that the state can capture media criticism,  
 25 through either passively allowing it or proactively pursuing it. The goal  
 26 is not to limit state power, but to improve governance so that relevant  
 27 political interests are advanced. This mechanism of media politics sheds  
 28 light on the innovative force in governance and politicking, released in  
 29 the complex and elastic party-state system.

30 The theory of convenient criticism also illuminates the locus of  
 31 media capture and its intricacies. Local leaders' capture of the local media  
 32 is not absolute, and they have to balance competing priorities. In China,  
 33 within each municipal and provincial party-state, the propaganda depart-  
 34 ment directly oversees the work of the local television station. The local  
 35 propaganda department is under the direction of the local party secretary,  
 36 who is in charge of all affairs in the local jurisdiction; simultaneously,  
 37 it is also under the control of the central leadership via the propaganda  
 38 system (宣传系统) that links the Central Propaganda Department to its  
 39 local branches. As elaborated in chapter 2, such a line/piece (条/块)—  
 40



horizontal and vertical—crosshatching administrative structure allows 1  
local discretion while ensuring central control. An important implication 2  
is that local party secretaries may have to compete with directions from 3  
higher-level leadership delivered through the propaganda system while 4  
leveraging media criticism to increase their bureaucratic capacity and 5  
advance their governance agenda, given that the bandwidth of local 6  
media reporting is finite. Of course, local party secretaries are keenly 7  
aware of the importance of following through propaganda tasks from the 8  
higher level, especially during sensitive political times such as leadership 9  
transition, Party Congress meetings, and People’s Congress meetings. 10  
Therefore, how to balance the locus of media capture so that it serves 11  
local leaders’ career interests while accomplishing propaganda tasks from 12  
the higher-up is a telltale sign of local leaders’ ability to maneuver media 13  
capture to their advantage. Furthermore, to achieve the delicate balance 14  
between critical reporting and its potential backlash of political instability 15  
adds another layer of complexity. The strategic use of media criticism is 16  
an outcome of as much political ambition as astuteness. 17

Indeed, because the state already captures the media through effective 18  
media control, media capture at the local level is more about who 19  
within the party-state dominates that capture.<sup>13</sup> In the Maoist era when 20  
the media were merely a mouthpiece of the party-state, media capture 21  
was more uniform across the country; the content of media reporting 22  
was highly synchronized. In the reform era, policy changes have led to 23  
rapid media commercialization, which, inadvertently, has showcased the 24  
vast possibilities brought about by the media power of publicity. It can 25  
facilitate accomplishment of governance goals, for example. As a result, 26  
the media, as they are perceived and utilized by the party-state, have 27  
diversified from an ideological weapon into a governance instrument. Local 28  
party secretaries who are ambitious and savvy enough to realize how the 29  
media can greatly aid their political careers have greater incentives to 30  
capture the local media. By allowing or even encouraging limited critical 31  
reporting, local party secretaries control the narrative of media criticism 32  
and discipline misbehaving subordinates, the discursive and practical 33  
implications of which reinforce the image of a local government that is, 34  
though imperfect, responsive and capable. As discussed in detail in the 35  
following chapters, some local party secretaries’ heavy involvement in the 36  
production of critical television reports clearly indicates a media capture 37  
that is intended not only to influence political discourse and public opin- 38  
ion, but also to improve governance and advance their political careers. 39

40



1 This book builds on the existing literature on media criticism. By  
2 focusing primarily on the central-level media outlets, existing studies  
3 have found that the central party-state allows media criticism to supervise  
4 and discipline local governments for compliance, as discussed earlier.  
5 The theory of convenient criticism lowers the level of inquiry from  
6 the central level to the local level, yet the findings here are more than  
7 just applying a similar mechanism of limited media supervision to the  
8 local level. Local party secretaries, the main determiner of local critical  
9 reporting, are driven by a set of career interests that are different from  
10 those of the central leadership. As discussed in chapter 3, even among  
11 local party secretaries, those at the provincial level have distinct career  
12 interests from those at the municipal level, which in part explains the  
13 varying patterns of critical reporting. Furthermore, even within a leader's  
14 tenure cycle, the incentive to pursue critical reporting changes; it is  
15 stronger at the beginning of the tenure cycle and it fades as one prepares  
16 for the next promotion. Although the mechanism of using the media to  
17 induce misbehavior correction is similar, the different immediate goals  
18 mean that the frequency, intensity, and substantive topics of critical  
19 reporting vary across region and time, discussed in detail in chapter 5.

20

21

### 22 Contributions to Understanding Authoritarianism

23

24 By situating local critical reporting in the local governance process, this  
25 book reveals the evolving roles that local leaders, local media, and citizens  
26 play in their respective pursuits of career advancement, profit and impact,  
27 and justice and prosperity. These findings have further implications for  
28 the study of authoritarianism.

29

### 30 Addressing Citizen Grievances

31

32 Addressing citizen grievances is key to maintaining “performance legit-  
33 imacy” (Nathan 2009), a crucial factor in prolonging the authoritarian  
34 rule. Existing studies on authoritarian politics find that citizen grievances  
35 can be addressed by limited political openings, or quasi-democratic  
36 institutions, such as the formal institutions of elections, parliaments,  
37 and the rule of law (Brownlee 2007; Distelhorst 2017; Gallagher 2017;  
38 Gandhi 2008; Lust-Okar 2005; Magaloni 2006; Manion 2015; Truex 2016;  
39 Yuhua Wang 2014), and the informal measures that allow civil society

40



groups (Hildebrandt 2013; Teets 2014; L. Tsai 2007) and local protests (X. Chen 2012; O'Brien and Li 2006). These limited political openings deflate challenges and epitomize authoritarian resilience.

Building on these theoretical insights, the theory of convenient criticism reveals another mechanism through which citizen grievances, typically framed in television reports as individual problems rather than mobilizable issues, can be addressed in an effective and sustainable way. Journalists help citizens articulate their grievances and strategize about acceptable but potent narratives of corrective critical reporting. In orchestrated criticism, citizen grievances in relevant issue areas receive immediate responses due to local leaders' calculated support. In organic criticism, street-level bureaucrats also tend to respond quickly due to fear of public humiliation and adverse career impact.

The channel of corrective critical reporting is similar to the local governments' own feedback systems aiming at absorbing citizen grievances, such as the letters and visits bureau (Dimitrov 2013, 2015; Luehrmann 2003) and the online complaint system (Cai and Zhou 2019; Distelhorst and Hou 2017). However, these governmental feedback systems may be difficult for average citizens to access, and they often fail to effectively respond due to insufficient rule of law (Hu, Wu, and Fei 2018) and distortion of information by the intermediate levels within the local governments (Lorentzen 2017, 478–79; O'Brien and Li 1999: 179; Pan and Chen 2018). Many citizens turned to the media precisely because governmental feedback systems turned out to be futile. Indeed, most petitions filed online or through the letters and visits bureaus received no response (Ling 2014; Chen, Pan, and Xu 2016), and many aggrieved citizens had to use the “troublemaking” tactic to elicit an effective response (X. Chen 2009, 2012). The limitations of the governmental feedback systems can, to a certain degree, be mitigated by media criticism, especially when the issues overlap with local leaders' governance agendas.

### Limitations of the State-Society Framework

This book's focus on local media reveals the limitations of the state-society framework in studying authoritarian politics in China. The mutually beneficial relationship between local governments and local media and between local media and aggrieved citizens position pragmatic journalists somewhere in between the state and the society. Pragmatic journalists are different from the traditional civil society, such as nongovernmental

1 organizations (NGOs), religious groups, and civil associations, because  
2 they work for media organizations owned and controlled by the state.<sup>14</sup>  
3 Meanwhile, after three decades of media reforms that catalyzed the  
4 remarkable evolution of journalistic norms and practices, pragmatic jour-  
5 nalists' professional identities have aligned with the interests of ordinary  
6 citizens, which often contradict local governance outcomes.

7 Because the local media straddle the state and the society, they have  
8 established credibility among both. Citizens trust the local media due  
9 to their effectiveness at correcting misbehaving street-level bureaucrats  
10 and the observable progress on redressing grievances; local leaders trust  
11 the local media as an institution firmly under their control. Television  
12 journalists are known to obey political boundaries, different from their  
13 elite counterparts at print media outlets who have developed a reputation  
14 for muckraking. This quality has turned into an advantage for television  
15 journalists when they interact with local officials. Consequently, local  
16 television news programs are in a unique position to advance the interests  
17 of both the state and the society by disciplining street-level bureaucrats  
18 and addressing citizen grievances. This is fundamentally different from  
19 the role played by other civil society groups such as NGOs and religious  
20 groups that the authoritarian regime distrusts and constrains.

21 Other recent studies have also challenged the dualistic framework  
22 of state and society. As Yuen Yuen Ang (2018, 45–46) insightfully points  
23 out, “the presumed dichotomy between the state and society is a false  
24 one,” and in China “there has always been an intermediate layer of actors  
25 between the state and society,” such as the educated, landholding elites  
26 in ancient China and the civil service today. Local media also occupy an  
27 intermediate position where they have access to those in power through  
28 their official status while being rooted in local communities as a result  
29 of their commercial orientation and journalistic motivations. In his  
30 recent article, Philip C. C. Huang (2019) argues that a more important  
31 dimension to understanding China's governance system is the long-term  
32 interactions *between* state and society, which has given rise to “the third  
33 sphere” where much of governance occurs through administrative con-  
34 tracting. This view further explicates the logic of convenient criticism,  
35 where critical reporting becomes a governance instrument operated by  
36 the media power of publicity, rather than administrative authority or  
37 political power, to achieve immediate governance outcomes. In other  
38 words, critical reporting is “contracted” to improve governance. The  
39 news production process, as shown in this book, consists of frequent  
40

interactions among citizens, journalists, and local officials, bridging and  
integrating the traditionally conceptualized state and society.

### Informal and Innovative Local Politics

Local leaders' innovative and strategic use of media criticism to increase  
bureaucratic control and improve governance reflects the importance  
of informal politics in mitigating the inadequacy of formal institutional  
powers (D. Chen 2016; Heilmann and Perry 2011). Leveraging the media  
power of publicity to discourage noncompliant behavior at the lower levels  
of bureaucracy is an unscripted strategy that accomplishes local leaders'  
political objectives. This innovative energy stems from the complex and  
elastic political system that rewards achieving desirable governance goals.  
Competence, including that achieved through innovative means, is often  
seen as an effective path toward career advancement.

The innovative energy in authoritarian media politics finds reso-  
nance in democracies. Bartholomew Sparrow (1999), Michael Schudson  
(2002), and Timothy Cook (2006) argue that the news media should  
be seen as a political institution exerting influence in the political pro-  
cess and affecting policy. More recently, Danielle Vinson (2017) finds  
that elected officials in the United States often “go public,” also an  
unscripted strategy, to achieve their policy objectives when faced with  
gridlock or legislative opposition within formal political institutions.  
Beyond the United States, the edited volume *How Political Actors Use  
the Media* highlights the importance of studying not only how the media  
affect public opinion but also how political actors use the media in  
innovative ways to advance their goals in Western democracies (Van  
Aelst and Walgrave 2017). In a similar vein, local leaders in China use  
media criticism when their formal power in the bureaucratic structure is  
insufficient to fully discipline subordinates. Importantly, this use of media  
criticism is not institutionalized, accentuating the role of informal politics  
in understanding the fragmented yet responsive governing apparatus in  
China (Junyan Jiang 2018; K. Tsai 2006; L. Tsai 2007).

Indeed, the informality that characterizes Chinese politics has been  
studied extensively in the literature. Between the party-state and the  
population, Yao Li's (2018) recent study on the rising protests finds that  
informal rules structure the state-protester interactions and mitigate con-  
flict, demonstrating regime resilience. Within the party-state, the notions  
of underinstitutionalization, flexibility, pragmatism, experimentation,



1 and “guerrilla policy style” (Gallagher 2017; Heilmann and Perry 2011)  
2 all indicate “how flexibility and discretionary power are built into the  
3 governing institutions of autocracies” (Gallagher 2017, 47). In fact,  
4 informal politics in China can be traced back to the revolutionary era  
5 and the initial years of the People’s Republic. As Sebastian Heilmann  
6 and Elizabeth Perry (2011, 3–4) eloquently put it,

7

8       China’s governance techniques are marked by a signature  
9       Maoist stamp that conceives of policy-making as a process  
10       of ceaseless change, tension management, continual experi-  
11       mentation, and ad-hoc adjustment. Such techniques reflect  
12       a mindset and method that contrast sharply with the more  
13       bureaucratic and legalistic approaches to policy-making that  
14       obtain in many other major polities.

15

16       The strategy of convenient criticism employed by political leaders  
17 at provincial and municipal levels adds additional tactics of informal  
18 politics into the repertoire of governing tools. The informality means  
19 that media criticism correcting street-level bureaucrats and improving  
20 governance is often ad hoc, subject to change based on a number of  
21 factors related to individual leaders and the governance context. As the  
22 following chapters show, such informality can turn into an advantage for  
23 ambitious and astute local leaders, but it can also stifle media criticism  
24 when favorable conditions are absent. Such uncertainty grows out of the  
25 complex maneuvers in local politics.

26

## 27 Fluid Yet Clear Media Control

28

29 Informal politics also accounts for media control at the local level.  
30 Although we already know much about the logic and tactics of media  
31 control, more needs to be learned about the actual practice of how  
32 media control is carried out on a daily basis and at the local level. As  
33 Vivienne Shue and Patricia Thornton (2017, 2) observed, scholars “have  
34 tended to concentrate too narrowly on governing *institutions* as opposed  
35 to governing *practices*” (italics in original). To be sure, existing studies  
36 have already highlighted the importance of fluidity, improvisation, and  
37 ambiguity in understanding Chinese state control over the media (e.g.,  
38 Hassid 2008; Repnikova 2017a; Stern and Hassid 2012; Stern and O’Brien  
39 2012), yet these useful characterizations have yet to offer a more exact  
40 depiction of the patterns of media control at the local level.





Observing the day-to-day news production process at provincial and municipal television stations, this book traces the mechanism of media control to local discretion, necessitated by the crosshatching bureaucratic structure and fragmented authoritarianism. Local discretion allows local leaders' career incentives, their leadership styles, and the governing context to shape their preferences regarding the boundaries of critical reporting, which shifts as the governance context changes and as the local leadership alters every few years. Meanwhile, pragmatic journalists diligently and continually learn the changing media preferences and adjust their reporting accordingly. Their competent understanding through both informal signals and formal rules from the incumbent local leadership enables them to quickly identify the shifting boundaries of critical reporting and stay in line. As a result, the varying levels of media criticism indicate effectiveness, rather than precariousness, of local media control. It is pragmatic journalists' studious and proficient understanding of the changing boundaries of critical reporting at the local level, rather than the lack of it (Hassid 2008; Stern and Hassid 2012; Stern and O'Brien 2012), that contributes to the effectiveness of media control and, by extension, the longevity of their model of livelihood news. Therefore, situating critical reporting into local governance allows this book to attribute the animating forces behind local media control to local leadership and the governance context.

### Redefining Media Politics under Authoritarianism

Pragmatic journalists make up the majority of news workers in China. Unlike critical journalists working for nationally known newspapers and magazines, pragmatic journalists pursue a professional goal of incremental governance improvement and immediate grievance redress, which affords them a strong sense of social reputation and positive impact. In this process, however, while their journalism is invigorated by commercial and professional forces, it is ultimately defined by the party-state. In other words, their journalistic agency has been channeled by astute politicians, kept alive but confined to defined boundaries, to advance relevant political interests. Critical reporting allowed or orchestrated by local leaders and its rectifying effect make television journalists the recognizable hero in improving local governance, shown by the popularity of their programs and the appreciation spontaneously offered by citizens who received their help. The satisfaction of professional aspirations then propels television journalists to identify with this unique style of

1 corrective critical reporting, reinforcing their pursuit of advocacy work  
2 for aggrieved citizens that is clearly demarcated and officially endorsed.  
3 As a result, selective and limited critical reporting that disciplines street-  
4 level bureaucrats and redresses citizen grievances becomes a professional  
5 ideal for pragmatic journalists. Because this model of news production  
6 has earned great appreciation from the general public, pragmatic jour-  
7 nalists internalize it as a gold standard for impactful journalism. In the  
8 long term, the inflated sense of journalistic empowerment perpetuated in  
9 this model of news production enables the party-state to capture media  
10 criticism and reinforce its dominance.

11 This adroit manipulation of journalism is echoed in other authoritar-  
12 ian countries. In their recent study on the manipulation of economic news  
13 in Russia, Arturas Rozenas and Denis Stukal (2019) find that autocrats  
14 manipulate news not just through censorship. On economic affairs, for  
15 which citizens have reasonable benchmarks through their incomes, market  
16 prices, and other observables, the Russian state television strategically  
17 frames economic facts, rather than censoring them, in a way that blames  
18 external factors for bad news and attributes good news to domestic poli-  
19 ticians. These recent developments in authoritarian media politics reveal  
20 that, the crude ways of media control, that is, suppression of journalism  
21 through propaganda and censorship, have grown into more sophisticated  
22 tactics of media manipulation. Convenient criticism, a form of limited  
23 critical reporting utilized by local leaders as a governance instrument  
24 in China, contributes to this growing repertoire of media manipulation  
25 that aims to mold journalism into an active and sustainable mechanism  
26 advancing authoritarian rule. Criticism, conventionally understood as  
27 inconvenient to autocrats, is now embraced and expropriated by the  
28 more sophisticated authoritarian regimes like China and Russia.

29

### 30 **Nonlinear Implications for Authoritarian Durability**

31

32 The findings in this book reveal new dynamics in the local state-media  
33 relationship in China. They do not yet, however, portend boon or doom  
34 in the political future of the party-state. Media criticism is a convenient  
35 tool only when used as such. When media criticism is used to rein in  
36 street-level bureaucrats and to mitigate the inadequacy in local lead-  
37 ers' institutional power, it increases the efficiency and quality of local  
38 governance. Additionally, correcting misbehaving government officials  
39 on television indicates governmental recognition of legitimate citizen

40

grievances, reinforcing the hegemony of the current political system. As 1  
 elaborated in the next chapter, iteration of this process reduces the need 2  
 to resort to alternative channels to realize individual interests, fostering 3  
 support for the status quo. 4

While the informality of media criticism can be a source of power, 5  
 it can also undermine critical reporting. Local leaders have the power to 6  
 encourage critical reporting, and they can also shut it down. Therefore, 7  
 convenient criticism can stagnate or even lose its utility when political 8  
 leaders limit or reject the media channel as a way of absorbing citizen 9  
 feedback and increasing bureaucratic control. 10

Furthermore, the convenience of media criticism goes only as far as 11  
 intended by local leaders; thus, the success and intensity of media-induced 12  
 governance improvement vary across region and time. Specifically, critical 13  
 reports that can pass the local political scrutiny typically reflect problems 14  
 that the local government already has an interest in addressing, not 15  
 the ones beyond its governance agenda. Therefore, the lack of in-depth 16  
 reporting on real issues means that governance is improved by way of 17  
 immediate, short-term results, rather than sustainable, long-term solutions. 18

## Sources and Methods 19

This book utilizes a mixed-methods approach to illustrate and explain how 23  
 local leaders use media criticism to improve governance, how journalists 24  
 negotiate with street-level bureaucrats who they intend to criticize, and 25  
 how aggrieved citizens find motivated allies in the complex and opaque 26  
 governance process. The data were collected from three sources. First, 27  
 I conducted ethnographic observation in two separate years—2013 and 28  
 2016—for a total of three months at a municipal television station in 29  
 Jiangsu. This immersive fieldwork enabled me to trace the process of 30  
 news production, which is necessary to parse the forces, incentives, and 31  
 negotiations in the dynamic interactions between journalists and local 32  
 officials. I use pseudonyms when referring to this program, its producer 33  
 and journalists, and the party secretary in charge of the municipality. 34

Second, I supplemented the ethnographic observation with 47 semi- 35  
 structured interviews of over 80 hours with reporters, editors, and producers 36  
 at 20 television, print, and online media outlets and with media scholars. 37  
 Some of the media scholars have had experiences working as mid-level 38  
 television executives and interacting with local government officials in 39

40



1 charge of media affairs. These interviews provide the necessary historical  
2 and political context and offer behind-the-scenes revelations that help  
3 develop and validate the arguments in this book. The interviews and  
4 ethnographic observation are complementary, enabling me to triangulate  
5 the evidence. The interviews were conducted intermittently from 2012  
6 to 2018. I revisited eight interviewees to crosscheck my findings as this  
7 research project progressed. In 2013, one interviewee graciously granted  
8 me access to journalists working at a municipal television station in Jilin  
9 to conduct a survey. Though nonrepresentative of pragmatic journalists  
10 in China, this survey provides useful portrayals of journalists and their  
11 evolving professional identities. Details about ethnographic observation  
12 and interviews are provided in appendix A.

13 Third, I built an original dataset using content analysis and data  
14 from governmental documents and media sources. The content analysis  
15 coded news reports from five television livelihood news programs at  
16 provincial and municipal levels in Jiangsu and Shaanxi from November  
17 2016 to December 2017.<sup>15</sup> This original dataset is analyzed to test the  
18 expectations developed from the fieldwork and to draw conclusions on  
19 the scope, impact, and variations of media criticism. Importantly, three  
20 fieldwork sites where interviews and ethnographic observation were  
21 conducted are three of the five livelihood news programs included in  
22 the dataset, providing additional information to crosscheck and interpret  
23 the quantitative data. Where possible, I also draw on other sources,  
24 including government documents, existing research, and news reports,  
25 to triangulate the findings. Details about data sources and the coding  
26 procedures are provided in appendix B.

27 As much as the research design tries to include a diverse and  
28 somewhat representative group of television livelihood news programs,  
29 practical constraints limit the dataset to five programs in two provinces.  
30 Though these programs are not representative of all local television  
31 livelihood news programs in China, they nonetheless provide reasonable  
32 variations on the key variables. More important, the quantitative findings  
33 are situated in and interpreted with qualitative findings from in-depth  
34 fieldwork at a variety of media outlets. The theoretical mechanism of  
35 convenient criticism is demonstrated by the qualitative cases and vali-  
36 dated on a larger scale by the quantitative results. The findings in this  
37 book shed further light on authoritarian media politics, and the core  
38 argument on convenient criticism may provide a promising direction  
39 for future research.  
40



## Plan of the Book

The five chapters in this book follow an analytical order to present, explain, and illustrate the theory of media criticism. Chapter 1 presents the levels and variations of local critical reporting and outlines the theory by introducing the constitutive pieces of the conveniences afforded by media criticism to various involved actors. Situating media criticism in the local governance process, this chapter argues that critical reporting on bureaucratic ineptitude is convenient, first and foremost, to local leaders by advancing their political careers via increased bureaucratic control and immediate governance improvements; it is also convenient to the local media by advancing their commercial interests and to the journalists by fulfilling their professional aspirations for reputation and impact; finally, it is convenient to citizens by redressing their grievances. Ultimately, the iteration of media criticism correcting misbehaving bureaucrats and redressing citizen grievances reinforces the political hegemony. Besides advancing citizens' material interests, the narrative of media criticism, which blames street-level bureaucrats for governance problems and highlights subsequent governance improvement, strengthens the regime's political dominance by calibrating citizen expectations and maximizing the discursive power of correction.

Chapter 2 delves deeper into the day-to-day business of critical news production, contextualizing and expanding on chapter 1 by exploring how the political, market, and journalistic forces interact and fit together. It starts with a zoomed-out view that overlooks the national media landscape, analyzing how the crosshatching structure of the Chinese bureaucracy shapes media control at the local level. It then addresses how local leaders' political interests and career incentives are translated into the news production process via proficient journalistic learning. Tracing the process of news production at local television stations, two demonstrative in-depth cases are presented to illustrate how advocacy-minded journalists, through learning, adapting, and maneuvering, translate media preferences of local leaders into higher or lower levels of critical reporting.

Chapters 3 and 4 contextualize and elaborate on the bureaucratic, political, and journalistic conveniences, putting together pieces from the recent historical past to shed light on the current institutional structures that incentivize local leaders and local media to pursue critical reporting. Chapter 3 examines the historical legacy, the institutional factors that form local leaders' career interests, and the individual-level characteristic



1 of leadership style that shapes media control at the local level, outlining  
2 the political opportunities as well as constraints for critical reporting.  
3 These opportunities and constraints, however, do not fully explain the  
4 form and content of criticism, which are shaped by the choices of jour-  
5 nalist and the influence of the local governance environment. Chapter  
6 4 outlines the origins of the immense commercial pressure faced by local  
7 television stations, before zeroing in on the formation of the unique  
8 populist-flavored advocacy journalism that absorbs citizen grievances and  
9 reflects governance problems arising from rapid urbanization.

10 After the theory of convenient criticism is presented and explained,  
11 chapter 5 illustrates the validity of this theory through a quantitative  
12 analysis substantiated by qualitative cases. It systematically tests the  
13 expectations regarding variations in media criticism from the previous  
14 chapters using an original dataset. The results show differing explanatory  
15 powers of factors in three broad categories—local leaders, local media,  
16 and the governance environment. Qualitative cases of two livelihood  
17 news programs in Xi'an and Nanjing illustrate the differing processes  
18 of how critical reports correct misbehavior and improve governance.  
19 Finally, the conclusion summarizes the main arguments and theoretical  
20 contributions of this book and discusses the limits of convenient criticism  
21 and implications for the authoritarian rule.

22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

