ICCMTD - 2015

IV. International Conference on Communication, Media, Technology and Design

May 16 - 18, 2015
Dubai - United Arab Emirates

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

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Eastern Mediterranean University Press
Famagusta, North Cyprus

Cover Design & Layout: Engin Aluç
AKNOWLEDGEMENT

We are holding the fourth International Conference on Communication, Media Technology and Design in Dubai, United Arab Emirates. This is going to be a great and significant event as the experience will be shared and actions will be explored.

This Conference is organized by Anadolu University - Institute of Communication Sciences and powered by the Eastern Mediterranean University, Online Journal of Communication and Media Technologies, Journal of Contemporary Educational Technology and Online Journal of Art and Design.

Around 130 well-known colleagues and audiences from 30 different countries have been invited to participate in this conference.

Here, please allow us to express our sincere welcome on behalf of the Anadolu University and Eastern Mediterranean University to all the colleagues and audience that have participated in the conference.

This international conference provides a very good opportunity for all the participants to share experiences and cooperation with international colleagues.

International Conference of Communication, Media, Technology and Design aims to gather academics who are interested in communication, media studies and design from all over the world. The ultimate aim is to promote different ideas to offer a place for participants to present and discuss their innovative recent and ongoing research and theoretical work and/or their applications or development.

We are very willing to share experience with international friends. On the other hand, we also hope to learn more from international experience through extensive exchange, discussions and cooperation to improve our work.

We hope that you all will discuss the issues deeply, freely and openly,

Finally, we wish the conference a complete success, and wish all the participants and the international friends a good time in Dubai - United Arab Emirates.

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Keynote Speakers

**Nico Carpentier** is Associate Professor at the Communication Studies Department of the Vrije Universiteit Brussel (VUB - Free University of Brussels) and Lecturer at Charles University in Prague. He is a research fellow at Loughborough University and the Cyprus University of Technology. He is also an executive board member of the International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR) and he was vice-president of the European Communication Research and Education Association (ECREA) from 2008 to 2012. Recent publications are: Trans-reality television. The transgression of reality, genre, politics and audience (ed., with Van Bauwel)(2010), Media and participation. A site of ideological-democratic struggle (2011), Audience transformations (ed., with Schroeder & Hallett) (2014), Social engagement, civil society and online media (in Dutch and French)(2014) and The social construction of death (ed., with Van Brussel)(expected August 2014).

**Keynote Address:** Expanding communication and media studies’ interdisciplinary reach How theories on the discursive and the material can (cross) fertilise the field of communication and media studies: A case study on media participation

**Vicki Mayer** is a Professor of Communication at Tulane University. She has published widely on media consumption and audiences, production and producers. She is Editor of the journal Television & New Media (http://tvn.sagepub.com/), and she directs the digital humanities projects MediaNOLA (medianola.org) and New Orleans Historical (neworleanshistorical.org).

**Keynote Address:** Where Did Audience Ethnography Go? The Turn to Production Studies in Media Research

**Umit Inatci** is a Painter, poet, writer and art critic. Umit INATCI was born in Limassol–Cyprus (28/11/1960). He completed his higher education in “Pietro Vannucci” Fine Art Academy in Perugia-Italy with distinction in 1984… His ideographical signs as “paralogic writing” are deliberately spread on the surface to give shape to a prosodic rhythm which defines a poetical character of his *painting as writing*. The primitive tendencies as a ritual relationship with nature and the sense of geometrical perfection are introduced in a dualistic way which represents eclectic coherence of modern man.

**Pictograms** are instinctively designed as an invention of incomprehensible and incompatible language which aiming to produce signs of intellectual independency. The absurd and logic, chaos and system, light and dark, gold or silver and black, physical and metaphysical depth… the antimony is the real habitation of his microcosmic protagonists (pictograms). Each painting is like a garden where cosmogony is being reflecting as like as the geometry of chaos. In his art the necessity of inter-subjective communication is developing the sense of comprehension in abstract way that means: decentralization of the logo centric semantics... Writing is an intellectual presence, black is **geometry of emptiness**, rigorous lines and hasty writing are psychological contradictions that he use them as a precondition of sub-conscience... Many time the presence of the primary materials as a talismanic accessory on the structure of the painting are reflecting ritual relation between me and art work. The contradiction between a shamanic instinct and scientist logic is evident, but no any mystical tendencies are being aiming to be emphasised on purpose; although it seems so. Since 1993, he has worked as a faculty member in various universities. Recently, he is working as the faculty member in the Department of Visual Arts and Visual Communication design, in Eastern Mediterranean University. He is a publisher and director of an art magazine “insan zaman mekan”.

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A Study on the Usage of Mobile Phones for Cyber Bullying Among Tweens & Teens of Chennai, India

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Abstract
A 2014 survey by Ipsos reports that India accounts for the highest among 24 countries, in the number of child cyber bullying cases (32%) compared to the USA (15%) or Great Britain (11%). About 70 percent of Indian tweens & teens, spend over five hours on the Internet in a normal week, out of which 27% kids use smartphones, says a McAfee Intel survey report. Popular among them are Social Networking Sites such as Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Snapchat, Vine, Pinterest, Tumblr, including Tinder (a dating app meant for adults). Earlier the access to the internet and the social networking sites for these children used to be from home through desktops but with IPad, IPod, Tablets, and mobiles, the whole problem take a deeper significant turn.

This paper is based on a study which attempts to check on how much of cyber bullying exists in the Chennai scenario and how much of cyberbullying happen through mobile phones. The study also attempts to find out the most prevalent form of cyberbullying among these children and the reasons why these kids either become a victim or bully in the cyberspace.

Keywords: Mobile phones, cyber bullying,

Introduction
Constraining space & time, the revolutionary technology of mobile phone has long established itself as the tool for connectivity any time anywhere. For children, especially teens & tweens, it seems to have liberated them from the demands of existing social structures and parental surveillance. (Ito.M., 2005). Much has been talked, about the ‘Identity’ factor this technology plays amongst this population. (Boyd 2008; Turkle 1995; Weber and Mitchell 2008). The use of mobiles as a mode to escalate status in the peer group is an identifying trait of this group (Abeele. MB & Cock. RD, 2013). A mobile phone’s features, appearance, personalized accessories, applications etc. all contribute to identity formation among adolescents (Netsafe, 2005). According to Ling (2001, 2004), by understanding the developmental need in adolescents to gain freedom, form individual identities and manage relationships, the role mobiles play in their lives can be apprehended.

Numerous studies have however established major adverse effects & impact this technology has on this young population. Addiction to this technology is one such concern. Studies have shown affected individuals to experience unpleasant symptoms of withdrawal if mobile phone were switched off or happened to be out of range (Walsh et al.2007). Also called as the Problematic mobile phone use or mobile phone addiction or compulsive mobile phone use, this condition has been documented in plenty among young individuals. Excessive usages of mobile phones have been linked to sleep problems (Kubiszewski et al. 2013). Studies has shown that with mobile ownership comes increase in calling/sending of messages and time spent online before sleep leading to depression. (Lemola .S et al, 2015).

Studies on effect of continuous usage of internet among this population has long been associated with depression, social anxiety, insomnia, hyperactivity or conduct problems (Ozturk.FO et al 2013; Cheung and Wong 2011; Jenaro et al. 2007; Morgan C and Cotton SR 2003). Similarly excessive use of mobile too have been associated with sleep disturbances, anxiety and mental health symptoms (Thome’e et al. 2011, Lemola.S et al.,2015). Scientists are still uncertain about the vulnerability of young children’ developing brains to the exposure of radio waves that are emitted from mobile phones and other wireless technologies. Some studies have associated the electromagnetic radiation emitted by mobile phones to delay melatonin production which could be related to later sleep onset (Wood et al. 2006) which in turn could lead to depression. Inattention is also one of the major problems associated with excessive mobile use in adolescents (Zheng.F et al, 2014).

The rising number of cyberbullying cases among tweens & teens is yet another menace that has increased parental and governmental concerns to a large extent. Additional concerns include ‘sexting’, infringement of privacy, reputational risks etc. (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010; Juvonen & Gross, 2008; Marwick, Diaz.M, & Palfrey, 2010; Steeves & Webster, 2007; Strassberg et al, 2013). The problem is on a continual high world over due to increasing smartphone ownership in this population. In India, the problem is manifold, due to lack of proper regulatory laws to curb the issue among this particular age group. A survey by Ipsos (Nov-2014) report that India account for the highest among 24 countries, in the number of child cyber bullying cases (32%) compared to the U.S (15%) or Great Britain (11%). About 70 percent of Indian tweens & teens, spend over five hours on the Internet in a normal week, out of which 27% kids use smartphones, says a McAfee Intel survey report. Popular among them are Social Networking Sites such as Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Snapchat, Vine, Pinterest, Tumblr, including Tinder (a dating app meant for adults).

The rising number of suicides among young cyber bully victims here is a definite cause for concern. This issue coupled with the
fact that there is a lack of literature on the cyber bullying menace in a conservative city like Chennai, led to this study. This study was undertaken to understand the problem among tweens & teens of Chennai, who use mobile phones for the same.

Adolescents & Mobile Phones Ownership World Over
Mobile phones, especially smart phones usage is becoming rapidly common among children in several countries across the world. The rate of ownership, however, varies by nation and age group. The number of children who owned a smartphone in the U.S., increased from 35 % in 2011 to 56 % in 2013 (Smith, 2013). Switzerland saw an increase from 47% in 2010 to 79% in 2012 (Willermse et al. 2012). The number of adolescents using the mobile phone to surf the Internet increased from 16 % in 2010 to 66 % in 2012. In Germany, the number of 12-19 year old smartphone owners has risen from 25 % in 2011 to 72 % in 2013. In Japan, 47.8 % junior high and 95.6 % high school students have mobile phones [Cabinet Office, Japan.2012.]. In this study it was found that in Chennai, too out of a sample size of 90 students from 12 different schools and 3 city colleges, 79 students were found to own phones. 88.1 % out of this children were found to have smart phones.

The advantage of reduced call and texting costs could be a reason in the increasing number of smartphone usage in this age group. With wireless Internet, smartphones allow communicate with peers without any charge, by using internet based messenger apps such as WhatsApp. (Lemola . S et al, 2015) This include charge free options to share pictures and short videos with a group of friends. Furthermore, smartphones also has the advantage of being lighter & handier than notebook computers, permitting its usage in bed to surf the Internet or to watch videos from YouTube. The availability of internet and a plethora of web based applications on mobile phones poses other grave problems, that of Child Sex Abusers which cannot be overlooked or forgotten. (K.F. McCartan and R. McAlister.2012.)

Additionally the potential of this population to undergo sexual exploitation is very high because of their online behaviors like sexting as well as unwittingly involving themselves in production and distribution of illegal sexually explicit content. (Bryce, 2010). Additionally loading such images on to social networking sites could lead to distribution in the cyberspace in unpredictable ways into the hands of pornographers and pedophiles. What these children fail to realize is that their actions online could result in bullying and humiliation among their social circles and could also affect them later on in life (Boyd, 2007)

Mobiles and Bullying
Bullying is a form of power play which involves unprovoked teasing which in certain situations changes into abuse by one or more children with the intention to hurt, cause pain and distress to another child repeatedly (Dawkins J, Hill P. Bullying: Another form of abuse?) Cyberbullying is an extension of real world bullying involving the use of Information & Communication technologies such as the Internet & mobile phones (forums, blogs, social networking sites, video posting, instant messaging, texting, or email) to harm an individual or a group. Primarily due to their greater degree of online activities (Lupac & Sladek, 2008; Smahel & Lupac, 2008; Wolak, Mitchell & Finkelhor, 2006), the adolescents constitute majority of cyberbully victims (Sevcikova & Smahel, 2009).

As the usage of mobile phones has gone up among tweens and teens, this technology has turned into a convenient choice for bullies. This technology provides with everything that a bully would look for. It gives the bully a perfect medium through which the perpetrator could traumatize his/her victim without any fear. Advantages for the bully include anonymity, slow responsiveness of telecommunication service and weak laws. Cyber bullying through mobile phones like traditional bullying is a strategy adopted by adolescents to amplify their dominant position. A study by Abeele. MB & Cock. RD, have found that girls are more likely to gossip using this medium through SMS as opposed to boys. The same study also found that the most prevalent form of bullying through mobile phones was gossiping through SMS. The Journal of the American Medical Association (JAMA) reported through a fresh study in 2014 that one Indian teenager among every four is a victim of cyber bullying. Low academic performance, social anxiety, social isolation, self-harm, low self-confidence, and depressive symptoms are some of the associated consequences of cyber bullying (Tokunaga, R.S.2010, Sleglova, V., Cerna, 2011), Juvenen, J., Gross, E.F.2008). These consequences can lead the victim to substance abuse or suicide in extreme cases (Hinduja, S., Patchin, J.W.2010).

Studies indicate that majority of minors who have been online have either been subject to some form of cyberbullying or have engaged in it as cyber bullies according to statistics. The McAFee ‘Tweens, Teens & Technology Report 2014’ says that 50 % of Indian tweens & teens have experienced ‘cyber-bullying’ themselves or have seen someone else go through it.

Objectives
The main objectives of this study -
To Find out how much of cyber bullying exists among Chennai tweens and teens
To understand how cyberbullying occur through mobile phones.
To examine the most prevalent form of cyberbullying among these children.

Method
A detailed survey questionnaire was distributed among the high school children belonging to 12 different schools. Questionnaires were also distributed among undergraduate students of three different city colleges. In India, generally undergraduate students fall in the category of 17 to 19 year olds. 90 students participated in the survey by filling up the questionnaires. Snow ball sampling
was used for data collection.

**Findings of the Current Study**

Out of a sample size of 90 students, 79 students were found to have their own mobile phones. 88.1% out of this were found to have smart phones and 82.1% owned their own sets. This goes to show that the children of Chennai are not far behind in using and owning a smart phone of their own. A majority of respondents (79.5%) indicated that owning a mobile phone was important to them and that it helped them to stay connected (87.9%) with friends. 25.8% respondents said that the device helped in expressing themselves. When asked about the brand of devices they owned, 57.6% respondents said that the brand of phone they use mattered to them. To top it, the survey revealed that a majority of the respondents owned devices belonging to top brands. 25.4% respondents owned iPhones, 19.7% owned Samsung phones and 15.5% owned Nokia phones. This reinforces the concept that mobile phones are indeed being used by these children as a tool for establishing identity amongst their peer groups.

On questioning the usage time among respondents during the day, it was found that 57.7% use their mobiles only after coming back from school. But 34.6% respondents indicated that they check their mobiles as soon as they get up from bed and 30.9% respondents said that they use their mobile phones for more than 4 hours. This could mean that mobile phone addictions among children of Chennai does exist but on a smaller scale. Some of the respondents (34.6%) were found to use their mobiles between 2 to 4 hours. Only about 12.3% out of the entire sample population informed of a use of less than an hour.

The survey indicates a zero or nil usage of phone at school. This positive situation could be because of the strict regulations of mobile phone usage during school hours by the authorities of most Chennai schools. Many schools here strictly forbid even carrying the mobile phone to school. When questioned about the expense incurred every month on their phone, it was found that 39.7% students spend about Rupees 200 to 400 a month on their phones while about 15% spend more than Rupees 400. A small percentage (7.7%) spend more than Rupees 800 a month. About 37.2% spend less than Rupees 200 a month on their phones. The major use of mobile phone among this population was found to be for chatting & texting (87.5%). Not far behind was the usage of phones for surfing the internet (67%) and for watching videos (63.8%). 60% respondents used their phones for connecting up on their social media networking groups. This goes to show that among adolescents a smartphone’s secondary features such as SMS messenger, usability of various applications, camera etc. carry more importance than its primary purpose, that of making/receiving calls.

When enquired about the kind of applications (apps) they use on their mobiles, about 93.6% respondents indicated the use of WhatsApp while 35.9% used Snapchat. 29.5% respondents indicated the use of Viber compared to 28.2% who used skye. 60% of the respondents said they used the Facebook app on their phones. 34% respondents used their mobiles mostly to connect on the social media. This could mean a smaller bill when compared with those using mobiles for only making calls. The data also indicates how this population has easily adapted these internet based networking apps which not only help them cut costs but also helps them in staying touch with peers.

On a serious note, this could mean a rampant existence of cyberbullying among this population. Surprisingly, only 9.8% (8 respondents) out of 90 students agreed to have experienced cyber bullying. But a larger percentage (36.9%) of respondents indicated that their friends had experienced cyber bullying. While a large number of respondents (79.3%) claimed that they were familiar with the term ‘cyber bullying’ and understood what it means, the existing data on cyber bullying instances prove that cyber bullying definitely exists on a large scale in the city of Chennai and there is an urgent need to address this issue.

Interestingly, a large percentage (46.2%) of respondents agreed that they have been made fun of on their social media networking sites. When questioned on whether they had made fun of anyone on their social media networks, 38.5% agreed that they had occasionally made fun of someone on their social media groups, while a small percentage (2.6%) respondents said that they always made fun of someone on their social media groups. This could mean that these young children unwittingly, might have either become victims or the perpetrators of this menace. Of the 9.8% respondents who accepted to have been cyber bullied, 18.2% indicate that they have experienced various types of cyberbullying. The most predominant form of cyberbullying experienced by these respondents were found to be ‘abusive language’ (81.8%) followed by ‘hurtful messages’ (36.4%) through social networking sites and text messages. Out of the 36.9% respondents who said that their friends had experienced cyber bullying, 54.6% said that ‘hurtful messages’ through Social Networking Sites and texts were the most prominent form of cyber bullying experienced by their friends followed by ‘Abusive language’ (51.5%) and ‘Mean messages’ (36.4%) through mail or phone. This was followed by ‘Hurtful pictures circulated online’ (15.2%).

2.6% respondents were found to be using tinder, a dating app and about 2.4% of respondents agreed that they chat with strangers online. About 75.4% use their mobiles to check videos on the YouTube. Keeping the vulnerability factor of this age group in mind, all this could mean that these respondents might be at the risk of getting cyberbullied, cyberstalked, exposure to porn etc.

**Conclusion and Discussion**

Though only a small percentage (9.8%) of respondents agreed that they had actually experienced cyber bullying, a larger
percentage (36.9%) of respondents revealed that they had friends who have experienced this menace. 9.8% among 90 respondents would mean 1.08 individuals per ten. This in itself is a worrisome figure. So when considered along with 'friends who have experienced cyber bullying' this figure turns scarier. Also a large percentage of the respondents (46.2%) agreed that they have been made fun of on various social media networking groups. 38.5% agreed that they had occasionally made fun of someone on their social media groups, while a small percentage (2.6%) respondents said that they always made fun of someone on their social media groups. Vulnerable as they are at this age, it is possible that these children could unwittingly either become victims or perpetrators of the crime. So it is taken that cyber bullying menace does exist to a large extent among the tweens & teens of Chennai and cannot be ignored. Majority of children here possess smartphones, of which a large percentage is already slipping into addiction to the device. A handy device, which can be used while on bed or any other place, most of this population use their mobile phones to communicate via various social networking groups through apps on their mobiles. It is on these platforms that most of their interactions take place pre and post school hours. So it is clear that mobile phones have become a medium through which most of the cyberbullying happens in this city. The most prevalent form of cyber bullying was found to be ‘abusive language & ‘Hurtful messages followed by ‘Mean messages’ & ‘Hurtful pictures’.

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Abeele. MB , Cock. RD, 2013. Cyberbullying by mobile phone among adolescents: The role of gender and peer group status, ISSN (Online) 1613-4087, DOI: 10.1515/commun-2013-0006, Volume 38
Lemola.S et al. 2014. Adolescents’ Electronic Media Use at Night, Sleep Disturbance, and Depressive Symptoms in the Smartphone Age


**WEBSITES**

http://www.endcyberbullying.org/what-is-cyber-bullying/

http://www.bullyonline.org/schoolbully/mobile.htm

**REPORT**

Adult Users’ Engagement and Utilisation of Social Networks Sites in Nigeria

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Abstract
Most studies on social media use in Nigeria focus on youths and address issues such as internet accessibility; frequency and extent of social networking sites use; political attitudes and online political participation; academic uses and news consumption, and the addiction to this form of media. Whilst youths are avid users, studies indicate that popularity of social media continues to grow among older adults of 65+ years with multiple use rates. Hence this research describes the specific communication-based activities that occur on these sites among adults in Nigeria. The paper finds older Nigerians’ communication on SNS disposed to bonding social capital as interactions skew towards family members, close friends and colleagues. And although only about three in ten adults’ communication tends towards making new friends on social media, it concludes nonetheless that adult Nigerians’ social interactions on SNS may yet have positive correlation with bridging social capital and its potential resources.

Introduction
The Internet technology has certainly revolutionized the world of communication. It has become not just a means of seeking information but of social relationships and interactions among other people, whether for business or commercial purposes, for making new friends, or for reconnecting with old friends and long lost relatives. Social networking sites or social media have particularly made it possible to develop social relations with people of similar interest and connect people across the globe without any geographic, economic or political barriers (Katz and Rice, 2002). Social networking sites have grown into powerful platforms that facilitate these social interactions and connections among families and friends across long distances and by which people share ideas, experiences, pictures, messages and information of interest (Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2011).

Social networking has become part of the daily life experiences for an increasing number of people (Meyer and Bray, 2013; Kuppuswamy, & Narayan, 2010; Gemmill, & Peterson, 2006) especially young people. The popular image of young people is of them with their faces glued to screens while they are constantly texting, checking e-mail, or updating their Facebook pages and keeping up with world events and helping to shape them (Kacie, 2009). While social media use has grown dramatically among the youths, older users have been especially enthusiastic over the past few years about embracing new networking tools and now rely on social network platforms to help maintain contact with friends, families and colleagues, and manage their daily communications—sharing links, photos, videos, news and status updates (Bell, Fausset, Farmer, Nguyen, Harley and Fain, 2013).

Research on online social networks is vast but most of academic research has focused mainly on experiences of adolescents and young adults on these sites including social capital outcomes, probably to justify the popularity of SNS among undergraduate students or the college student population. There is currently little academic research that describes the activities of older adults on these sites (who does what and with whom) and how these behaviours affect outcomes of interest especially in Nigeria. In the research presented here therefore focused on older adults. Major objectives are to determine their awareness and understanding of social media, verify their frequency of use of these sites, validate modes of accessibility, and authenticate the most popular social network sites among them as well as purposes for using these social network sites.

Literature Review
Although previous literature seems to indicate that new communication technologies such as computers, tablets and mobile phones, the Internet and online social technologies are underutilised by older people (Feist and McDougall, 2013), recent studies show that older adults who are aged 50 and above are fast adopting and utilizing social media to extend their social relationships and as part of their everyday life (Chakraborty, Vishik, and Rao, 2013; Phang, Sutanto, Kankanahalli, Li, Tan, and Teo, 2006; Selwyn, 2004).

While some studies suggest that older adults perceive the internet generally as an unwelcome place for sociality, and SNSs as places for people who seek publicity and superficial relationships (Lehtinen, Näsänen and Sarvas, 2009), other studies have shown that the percentage of adults of over 55 years online has nevertheless increased steadily (Fox, 2001, 2004; Demunter,2005). As of 2011, Chakraborty, Vishik, and Rao (2013) quote J. Carracher and Corbett3000, 2011 as reporting that there were approximately 16 million people 55 years and older, who were Facebook users.

In one of Pew Research Centre’s Internet & American Life Projects, Madden (2010) reports that growth of young adult internet and social networking sites use paled in comparison with the gains made by older users. Within a space of one year, she said, internet users of ages 50-64 who said they use a social networking site like MySpace, Facebook or LinkedIn grew 88% and those ages 65 and older grew 100% in their adoption of the sites, compared with a growth rate of 13% for those ages 18-29.

For most American senior internet users of ages 65 and older, Zickuhr and Madden (2012) say internet use is a daily feature in their lives with about 70% using the internet on a typical day and about 82% of all adult internet users going online on an average
day overall. In one of Pew Research Center’s Internet & American Life Project, Rainie, Smith and Duggan (2013) say Facebook appeared the dominant social networking site in this country with about two-thirds of online American adults (67%) saying they were Facebook users. According to Brenner and Smith (2013), percentage of online U.S. adults using social networking sites increased from 67% in late 2012 to almost three quarters (72%) as of May 2013.

An Ofcom (2014) report in the United Kingdom indicates that more UK adults, especially older adults, are now going online with over eight in ten (83%) of adults now going online using any type of device in any location with the number of adults almost doubling from 16% in 2012 to 30% in 2013. In Australia, Feist and McDougall (2013) state that while the generation of older people aged 65 years and above had low rates of Internet adoption, those between the ages of 55 to 64 years had a much higher rate of Internet use.

All these researches suggest that although adolescents and young adults make up the majority of online social networkers, older populations are increasingly using sites such as Facebook and Twitter (Pfeil & Zaphiris, 2010; Sum, Mathews, Pourghasem, and Hughes, 2008). Ostensibly, the fastest-growing group of the Internet and SNS users is people over 50 years and, as Lovett (2011) predicts, the number of older SNS users may grow significantly in the subsequent years.

The most prominent functions on SNS sites are communication, picture sharing and entertainment, buying things, playing games (Joinson, 2008). Depending on computer skills and preferences of the individual involved, adults now go online using any type of device in any location using personal computers, tablets or mobile phones (Nef, Ganea, Müri, and Mosimann, 2013). Studies investigating potential reasons for engaging with this kind of technology by older people suggest that connecting with friends and family remains the biggest reason to use a social networking site. That is, main benefit of using social networking sites for older adults is to enter in an intergenerational communication especially with younger family members (children and grandchildren (Nef, Ganea, Müri, and Mosimann, 2013). Interaction benefits of such intergenerational communication, Lindley, Harper and Sellen (2008) argue, support the maintenance of emotionally meaningful ties since older adults value their existing relationships more than new ties.

Aside from satisfying the need for social contact, several studies (Bradley & Poppen, 2003; Farkas, 2010) suggest that online communication helps older people to prevent isolation and decrease loneliness. Selwyn (2004) notes other advantages of older adults using social networking sites as lower perceived life stress, and access to societal and health related information as well as avoidance of social isolation. Also, from their in-depth longitudinal studies of older people making use of social networking sites, Harley and Fitzpatrick (2011) identified six core (motivational) themes of relevance in relation to their appropriation of SNS: social contact; acquiring knowledge; supporting independence; intergenerational connection; reminiscence/life review and creativity. Nonetheless, Jones and Fox (2009) declare that most internet users aged 64+ go to web sites that provide information or support for a specific medical condition or personal situation. Either way, research seems to establish that online communication can enhance older people’s quality of life and well-being (Xie, 2007).

Most of these studies have however been conducted in industrialized countries of Europe and America. That is, there is currently little empirical research that focuses specifically on adults’ usage and interactions on these sites from Nigeria. But Nigeria is reputed to have the largest internet population in Africa and is 11th in the world (Internet World Stats, 2014). And Terragon Insights (2013) puts Internet penetration in Nigeria at 39.7 % in 2013 up from 28.4% in 2012 and that the average Nigerian spends not less 3 hours on the internet daily. Corroboratory statistics released by market research and statistics specialists (Azeez, March 27, 2014) show that Nigeria’s internet connections have grown to about 200 per cent in the last four years spanning 2009 and 2013.

On use of SNS, Terragon Insights (2013) quotes data from Internet World Stats, June 2012, as putting social media penetration in Nigeria at around 5.4% albeit young adults (age 15 to 34) demonstrate greater likelihood of being social network users than those 35 and older. And Nigeria’s most frequently used SNS appeared to be Facebook, 2go, Twitter, Eskimi, Google+, Naij, Skype, Mobofree, Nairaland and Linkedin with top online activities among the older population being work and business/studies, email, news and information, social networking, downloads, entertainment (music, videos, gaming) and online shopping. A Gallup/BBG (2012) survey also found that sending or receiving email, finding the latest news, and updating a social networking profile are the most popular activities on the Internet among Nigerians.

Much of academic research in Nigeria has focused on activities of adolescent users and address issues such as why Nigerian students use of internet and social media (Sanusi, Buhari, Ibrahim and Bashir, 2014; Akindelhin and Akindelhin, 2011; Udende and Azeez, 2010; Adaja and Ayodele, 2013; Camilia, Ibrahim and Dalhatu (2013; Ojo and Madaki, 2014). Others hub on news consumption (Oyero, 2013), while some explore extent of online political participation by youths on these social networks sites (Dagona, Karick, and Abubakar, 2013) as well as attitudes and addictions to these sites (Alabi 2013; Suleiman, 2012). Some studies have drawn attention to patterns of social media-arranged-gender-based violence among youths in Nigeria (Idongesit, 2014; Radda and Ndubueze, 2013).

with little on experiences of older adults on these sites and how these affect outcomes of interest among them. The current study tries to fill this gap by focusing on experiences of adult SNS users, rather than adolescent users. Our work investigates the use of
SNS by older people. In particular, we are interested in the major activities that consume the time of older adults on these sites and possibly the reasons why they engage in such activities on SNS.

Methodology

In order to investigate how older people use social network sites, we tried to establish our use of the term “older people” as a frame of reference for this study. But defining “old” is difficult and age classification varies among countries and over time (Seeman, Lusignolo Berkman and Albert, 2001). Thus, for a working definition for this study, we adopted the chronological age of 45 years since the World Health Organisation (2012) puts life expectancy in Nigeria at less than 55 years.

To analyze how older people use social network sites and what benefits they derive from them, a survey of older adults living in the metropolitan Makurdi, capital of Benue State was conducted to understand the characteristics of older adults who do and do not use SNS. Using purposeful sampling, we collected information about demographics and other descriptive variables, including gender, age, occupation, income, education, ethnic group. A purposeful sampling became necessary for face value validation of the age of respondents prior to administration of instruments. Structured questionnaires were employed to collect data from a representative sample of 400 adults. A total of 395 filled in questionnaires were received back, which comes to an overall response rate of 98.75 per cent. The data were analysed and inferences were made based on standard statistical methods.

Findings

As illustrated in Figure 1 below, internet use varies considerably by age and gender. Internet use is more prevalent among males than females almost in the ratio of three to one female. That is, females appeared almost three times less likely (27.8%) than males (69.7%) to go online or use social networking sites. It is probable that this significant difference between male and female users may not be unconnected with gender inequality determined largely by African/Nigerian culture where females have fewer opportunities to do what they want without intervention from family or any person responsible from them (A’lamElhuda and Dimetry, 2014).

Figure 1: Demographics of older adults using the internet

Internet use varies considerably and daily internet use appears to decline by age. Among those 50-55 and 56 years older, only about one in every ten (13.92%) use the internet compared to four in every ten (40.51%) of those ages 40-44s and almost three in ten (25.32%) of 45-49s. This means there is strong likelihood that younger people will continue to be the heaviest users of the internet social networking sites. Overall, 93.67% of all adults ages 40 and older say they use the internet or SNS, albeit 6.33% refused to share their experiences in his regard. Invariably, older people who do use the internet tend to do so less frequently than younger people (Berry, 2011).
Internet access certainly depends on socioeconomic status. Those with more than a primary education appeared more than 6 times as likely as those with a primary education or less to have used the Internet. Although income does not appear to define internet use here, those with middle level income are about three times (65.5%) as likely to report using the Internet as those who earn below and above (25.4%) them. Similarly, those who have attained higher levels of education – first degree and above - appeared far more likely to use the internet and SNS than those who are not. Research has also shown that internet use tends to be lower among people with lower incomes and lower educational attainment, disabled people, single parents, female homemakers and people living in rural communities (Räsänen, 2006; Wong et al, 2009).

Figure 2: Internet and SNS modes of access and frequency of use

Figure 2 shows that older people are spending an average of one and a half hours weekly online. Of these, about one in every five said they do spend up to 2 hours online or less. And while nearly one sixth of all adults sampled spend between 2 to 3 hours online, approximately one-third reported spending more than four hours weekly online or that they spend as long time as they can online and on their favourite social network sites. For the majority, the internet and social network sites are a daily part of life. That is, over half (55.7%) of the sampled adults visit social networking sites daily. Conversely, this means at least one in two adult is a “heavy” social media user, meaning they use at least two different types of social media each and every day.

As illustrated in Figure 2 above, most adults sampled are using several devices to go online. While at least one in every four adult uses the PC or laptop to go online, the most common device to access the internet is the mobile phone. Use of mobile phone of any kind among all adults is almost universal at 86.1%. This use of alternative devices like games console (3.8%), portable media player and E-book reader (1.3%) and other devices appears supplemental to using a mobile phone or PC/laptop.

Data on usage shows a very high level of awareness and understanding of social media is amongst Nigerian adults. Same as among the younger generation, findings reveal that Facebook is the most popular and widespread social media site accounting for about 81% active Nigerian adult users. Following almost by half is Google+ (36.7%), then Twitter (16.5%), and YouTube (11.4%) closely followed by Wikipedia (10.1%). Few members of the older adult population seem to use Instagram, LinkedIn and others.
Results from figure 3 suggest that many older adults use social network sites primarily to be informed of current issues and events (50.6%) and for research or studies (40.5%), followed closely by communication with friends (49.4%) and family (34.2%). About one in five adult Nigerian sampled said they use social media to make friends (27.8%), communicate with colleagues and said share or create content (22.8%). Only about one in every six of the adults said they use social network sites either to play games, or for entertainment or professional purposes. These results show that an average Nigerian adult on social networking sites primarily seeks information and updates their knowledge and equally communicate with friends and family members. But the average adult Nigerian SNS user desires to communicate with friends, family and colleagues and make new friends almost twice as much as he/she would seek information and research online. Overall, an average Nigerian adult’s social networking activities revolve around communicating with friends, family and colleagues and making new friends.

Discussion of Findings
This research was conducted to find out the level of awareness and use of social media especially the purposes for which older adults use these social network sites. This became necessary against the backdrop that most of academic research has focused mainly on experiences of adolescents and young adults on these sites with little academic research describing the activities of older adults on these sites and their points of interest especially in Nigeria.

Findings confirm a strong correlation between age and usage. There is growing evidence that older age groups are becoming more active online, those relatively younger demonstrated greater possibility than older people to use the internet and social networking sites more frequently (Berry, 2011). As among the younger users, internet use varies considerably by gender being more prevalent among males than females probably. This tendency is perhaps best explained by gender inequality that is quite prevalent in African/Nigerian culture where females have fewer opportunities to do what they want without intervention from family or any person responsible from them (A’lamElhuda and Dimetry, 2014).

Among older adults, Internet and social media use seems defined by socio-economic variables like level of education and income. While we may argue that income does not define internet use in absolute terms, those with higher levels of education appeared to use the internet and SNS than those who are not. Invariably, research has also shown that internet use tends to be lower among people with lower incomes and lower educational attainment, disabled people, single parents, female homemakers and people living in rural communities (Räsänen, 2006; Wong et al, 2009).}

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Frequency of use, modes of access and time spent online by older people do not appear to vary greatly among the younger generation. For most adults, the internet and social network sites are a daily part of life. Results show nearly one in two adults is...
In this paper, we have attempted to broaden our knowledge of older adults’ social network site use through both their activities on these sites and what implications and gains. Overall, older Nigerian adults’ communication interactions on SNS seemed inclined to building and maintaining social relationships that are constitutive of bonding social capital is found between individuals in tightly-knit, emotionally close relationships, such as family, close friends and colleagues. But because at about three in ten sampled said they use social media to make friends, it seems plausible to conclude that adult Nigerians’ social interactions on SNS nevertheless support loose social ties and augment bridging social capital from which they could potentially draw resources. It is our hope that this work will contribute to our understanding of older adults’ activities on social networks especially in Nigeria but we suggest further research into real and potential benefits such interactions garner for the older population especially the social capital implications.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have attempted to broaden our knowledge of older adults’ social network site use through both their activities on these sites and what implications and gains. Overall, older Nigerian adults’ communication interactions on SNS seemed inclined to building and maintaining social relationships that are constitutive of bonding social capital is found between individuals in tightly-knit, emotionally close relationships, such as family, close friends and colleagues. But because at about three in ten sampled said they use social media to make friends, it seems plausible to conclude that adult Nigerians’ social interactions on SNS nevertheless support loose social ties and augment bridging social capital from which they could potentially draw resources. It is our hope that this work will contribute to our understanding of older adults’ activities on social networks especially in Nigeria but we suggest further research into real and potential benefits such interactions garner for the older population especially the social capital implications.

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An Examination of Academic Studies Covering Israel Palestine Conflict over its Reflections through Media

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Abstract
The media plays an important role in during the periods of wars and conflicts. The media ensures public knowledge of the events by carrying the messages to the masses in these periods. The contents of media messages usually cause the public to develop certain views and feelings about the war and the conflict. The long-term and still ongoing conflict between Israel and Palestine today are still among the most long-lasting conflicts. Events and representations regarding this conflict are also reflected in the contents of various media. The mentioned conflict has became subject to a remarkable number of academic studies. This paper examines academic studies covering Israeli-Palestine conflict through its reflections on various media. Within this context, a total number of 50 academic studies were analyzed. Of these studies, 25 were about newspapers, 16 were about television, 6 were about both television and newspapers, 2 were about movies and 1 was about magazines. The contents of these studies were examined in terms of the most focused issues, types of mass media, ideological and their emerging results.

Keywords: War, Conflict, Media, Israel Palestinian Conflict

Introduction
The media plays an important role in during the periods of wars and conflicts. The media ensures public knowledge of the events by carrying the messages to the masses in these periods. Especially, the importance of the media further increases in long term conflict. Because, it is important to have information about their condition both inside the public as well as world public opinion. The media are important as a place the attack on the grounds that the production and victimization shown for the parties to the conflict.

The long term and still ongoing conflict between Israel and Palestine today are still among the most long-lasting conflicts. With a long historical background, conflict between Israel and Palestine still continues today. This conflict dates back to the ancient history of the Middle East (Armaoğlu, 1994). Conflicts between Israel and Palestine have further increased as from early 20th century. Conflicts have ever been present in the region especially after 1948, the foundation year of Israel. Conflicts between the two societies can mainly be grouped as the war of 1948, the war of 1967, First Intifada, Second Intifada and Gaze wars (Slier and Atmaca, 2006).

Methodology
This study was conducted on the basis of general survey model. Researches in general survey model are for describing the situation as it is as regards the subject matter handled (Karasar, 2010: 79). In this study, general survey model was used since it was tried to reveal out the present situation through a general assessment of academic studies dealing with how the conflicts between Israel and Palestine were reflected in the media.

50 academic studies in total could be reached within the scope of this study. Classification of academic studies dealing with reflection of conflicts between Israel and Palestine in the media was again provided through such academic studies handled. According to this, studies were collected under 6 event titles such as “First Intifada, Second Intifada, First and Second Intifada, Gaze Attacks, 11 September attacks and Nakba.”

50 academic studies handled in this research were analysed on the basis of aspects with respect to event and period, media type, country media, distribution of studies by newspapers and televisions and the type of publication. Further the results emerged as a result of these studies were mentioned generally. The studies subject to analysis were reached from the Library of Anadolu University as printed and e-sources.

Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Number</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>First Intifada</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second Intifada</td>
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<tr>
<td>First and Second Intifada</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaze Attacks</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 September Attacks</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakba</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Distribution of studies dealing with reflection of conflicts between Israel and Palestine by subjects in media was presented in Table 1. According to this; 14 out of 50 academic studies reached consist of First Intifada, 21 of such consist of studies dealing with aspect of reflection to media of Second Intifada, 3 of such consist of First and Second Intifada, 6 of such consist of Gaze Attacks, 4 of such consist of 11 September Attacks and finally 2 of such academic studies consist of Nakba.

Table 2. Distribution of Studies by Publication Type

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>Books</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapters in the books</td>
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<tr>
<td>Articles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Phd thesis</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of studies dealing with reflection of conflicts between Israel and Palestine by publication type in media was presented in Table 2. According to this; 8 out of 50 academic studies reached consist of books, 13 of such consist of chapters in the books, 28 of such consist of articles and 1 of such consist of Phd thesis.

Table 3. Distribution of Studies by Media Type

<table>
<thead>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Newspaper and television</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of studies dealing with reflection of conflicts between Israel and Palestine by media type in media was presented in Table 3. According to this; 25 out of 50 academic studies reached consist of newspaper, 16 of such consist of television, 6 of such consist of both newspaper and television, 1 of such consist of magazine and 2 of such consist of films.

Table 4. Distribution of Studies by Country media

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Country</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>USA, Israel</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel, Palestine</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine Cinema</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of studies dealing with reflection of conflicts between Israel and Palestine by country media in media was presented in Table 4. According to this; the majority of the academic studies reached 50 consist of USA and Israel media. There also studies about British, Dutch and Palestine media.

First Intifada

There are 14 academic studies analysing reflection of First Intifada to the media. 3, 5, and 6 of these studies are books; chapters in the books and articles respectively. Newspapers are handled in 7 studies and televisions are handled in other 7 of the studies. As to the distribution of studies by country media, there are 5 studies on the media of USA, 8 studies on the media of Israel and 1 study...
on the media of USA, Israel, England and Germany. While the newspapers which were taken as sample in the academic studies on the reflection of First Intifada in the media and which were mostly reviewed were Yediot Achronot and Ha'aretz from Israel media, such were The Washington Post and The New York Times newspapers from American Media. Still the televisionanalysed as regards this period were Mabat and Chadashot television from Israel media.

According to the results reached by the studies; Israeli media’s attitude towards the First Intifada was in a way to “trivialize, delegitimize the intifada and define it such as events that took place with the support of foreign powers.” Israel media pursued a policy not to mention much about the events and Palestinians in their news (First, 1998). Besides, the press of Israel became an area where dominant ideology was reproduced thereby declaring mobilization in crisis periods and leaving aside policies of journalism to enlighten the public. Newspapers and television deemed the events of intifada in terms of national interests (Wolfsfeld, 1997). Attitude of American press towards the events in the First Intifada; unlike the relations of America and Israeli, news about intifada had a wide coverage in American media (Liebes, 1992). The attitude of American press in the First Intifada had a significant role on taking the attention of world opinion towards the claims of Palestinians (Wolfsfeld, 1997).

The role of media in the First Intifada: Generally speaking Palestine found place in world opinion thanks to the First Intifada. The world had an opportunity to see the situation and lives of Palestinians. As for Israel, it was stuck in a difficult situation in front of world opinion.

Second Intifada
There are 21 academic studies analysing reflection of Second Intifada to the media. 4, 4, 12 and 1 of these studies are books, chapters in the books, articles and phd thesis respectively. Newspapers are handled in 11 studies, television are handled in 4 of the studies and both newspaper and television are handled in 6 of the studies. As to the distribution of studies by country media, there are 7 studies on the media of USA, 6 studies on the media of Israel and 3 studies on the media of England. Also, there are 1 studies on the media of Arabic, 2 studies on the media of USA, Israel, 1 study on the media of Israel, Palestine and 1 study on the media of USA, England, Israel, Palestine. While the newspapers which were taken as sample in the academic studies on the reflection of Second Intifada in the media and which were mostly reviewed were Yediot Achronot, Ma‘ariv, Ha‘aretz, The Jerusalem Post, The New York Times, The Guardian, The Observer and The Independent. Still the televisions analysed as regards this period were NBC TV, BBC, ITV and Aljazeera.

According to the results reached by the reviewed study; attitude of the media in Israel towards Second Intifada was generally to move ahead in accordance with mobilization which is as usual in every conflict period. Israeli media in these periods reproduces the differences between Israel and Palestine. Reflecting that the struggle of Israel to be against terrorism, Israeli press has a tendency to associate Palestinians with terrorism (Korn, 2004a; Korn, 2005; Rinnawi, 2007). Furthermore, the editors in Israeli press in these conflict periods prepared the news in accordance with broadcasting policies and national interests but not in company with the information reported by pressmen (Dor, 2004). As to the attitude of American press to the events in the Second Intifada was from the perspective of Israeli. Associating Palestinians with terrorism, American press present the attack of Israel against Palestinians as a struggle against terrorism (Friel and Falk, 2007; Ismail, 2008; Elmasry, 2009). As to Arabic media (Aljazeera), pursued a news policy in favour of Palestine (Zayani, 2005).

Unlike the First Intifada, America and Israel pursued a joint news policy as regards the intifada in the Second Intifada. American and Israeli media saw the events from the perspective of Israel, they had an inclination to condemn the deaths caused by Palestinians and they presented Palestinians as cruel and offensive while legitimizing the deaths caused by Israel, justifying such deaths and presenting Israeli people as sufferers. As for American press, they present the attack of Israel against Palestine as a struggle against terrorism thereby associating Palestinians with terrorism.

First ve Second Intifada
There are 3 academic studies analysing reflection of First and Second Intifada together to the media. All of these studies are articles and newspapers are handled in this studies. As to the distribution of studies by country media, there are 2 studies on the media of Dutch and 1 study on the media of USA, Israel. According to the results obtained from the studies; while the image of Palestine in the First Intifada was favourable and the image of Israel was unfavourable according to the results reached by Deprez and Raeymaekers (2010; 2011) who analysed the presentation of First and Second Intifada in Flemish newspapers in two separate studies, completely contrary results were obtained in the Second Intifada; the image of Israel become favourable and the image of Palestine became unfavourable. As for Matt Viser (2003), he concluded that the media of both countries pursued a broadcasting policy in favour of Israel during the First and Second Intifada in his study on American and Israeli press.

Gaze Attacks
There are 6 academic studies analysing reflection of Gaze attacks to the media. 1 and 5 of these studies are books and articles respectively. Newspapers are handled in 2 studies and television are handled in other 4 of the studies. As to the distribution of studies by Gaze attacks, there are studies about the media of USA, Israel, England and Arabic. While the newspapers which were taken as sample in the academic studies on the reflection of Gaze attacks in the media and which were mostly reviewed were The Jerusalem Post, The New York Times and Washington Post. Still the televisions analysed as regards this period were BBC, ITV.
Channel 4, Al-Jazeera and Al-Arabiya. According to the results reached by the studies reviewed; the studies conducted include American, Israeli, British and Arabic media. It was concluded that Arabic media (Aljazeera and AlArabiya) pursued a news policy in favour of Palestine (Elmasry et al., 2013) whereas the British media pursued a broadcasting policy in favour of Israel (Thomas, 2011).

11 September Attacks
There are 4 academic studies analysing reflection of after 11 September attacks to the media. 2 and 2 of these studies are chapters in the books and articles respectively. Newspapers are handled in 2 studies, televisions are handled in 2 of the studies and magazine is handled in 1 studies. As to the distribution of studies by after 11 September attacks, there are studies about the media of USA. The study on magazine is about Time magazine. While the newspapers and magazine which were taken as sample in the academic studies on the reflection of after 11 September attacks in the media and which were mostly reviewed were The New York Times and Time magazine. Studies on the representation of Arabs and Palestinians in particular, in the media were conducted especially after 11 September attacks. Perspective of American media on the conflict between Israel and Palestine is not independent of Middle East policy of America. Therefore, American press indicates Palestinians as aggressive, terrorist, bad man and Israeli people as sufferers (Ross, 2003a; 2003b).

Nakba
There are 2 academic studies analysing reflection of Nakba to the media. This studies are about films. Both studies aimed to determine how the Nakba represented in cinema (Bresheeth, 2007; Yaqub, 2013).

Conclusion
It was carried out in this study, a general assessment of academic studies dealing with the reflection in the media of the conflict between Israel and Palestine on the basis of survey model. To this end, assessment of 50 academic studies reached were made in several categories. According to the results of the study; most of the studies were conducted about the First (14) and Second Intifada (21). As regards the type of publication, chapters in the book (13) and articles (28) are at the forefront. As for the type of media; newspapers (25) and televisions (16) were focused on. As to the distribution of studies by the media of country, the media of USA (18) and the media of Israel (16) comprise the most of the studies. Another reason obtained from the studies is that while the Palestinians were reflected as sufferer and right and Israeli people as offensive and unfair in the First Intifada in the reflection of conflicts between Israel and Palestine in the media; Palestinians were reflected as terrorists or as those who are associated with terrorism and the Israeli people were reflected as sufferer and as those who have a struggle with terrorism in all other conflict periods. Besides, Israeli press has an inclination to make news of the events in accordance with national interests beyond reality thereby declaring mobilization in the periods of conflict. As to the press in USA, it maintained its news policy coordinated with the policy of country. All in all, it can be said that media is affected by several events in the periods of war and conflict while reporting the incidents to the public.

References

Academic studies


Assessments on the Media and Ethics in Turkey in the Light of the Social Responsibility Approach

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Abstract
Each of the social incidents on the agenda in the world, the economy, politics, wars, successes and exhibitions are a raw material used by the media, while media ethics, which is defined as the rules and principles media workers are required to abide by while performing their occupation, organise society from the moral aspect, serve the function of ensuring a life in harmony and as a guide by setting out which practices need to be avoided. However, possession of the media by the owners of capital, who hold economic power in capitalist societies, and the attitude of intervention to the media by state governments which move away from democracy are causing the concept of ethics to be put into question. These developments bring the social responsibility approach on to the agenda and bring to the forefront the fact that the media has responsibilities to society. The aim of this study is to assess the functions of the media within this context.

Keywords: Social Responsibility Theory, media ethics, the social functions of the media

Introduction
People have both been influenced by and had an influence on their surroundings throughout every period of history. Homo sapiens has been living on earth for around 50,000 years, while the first known written documents which have been found are from 6,000 years ago. The history of humanity has experienced three large revolutions to date. These are the processes of the discovery of writing, the discovery of printing and the entry of electronics into human life. As both the cause and outcome of the advance of humanity, communication has ensured great progress. The information era is defined as the production of information, its research, assessment and service by being announced to society via the channel of the media, and the advancement of societies becomes possible through their acquisition of correct and impartial information. Thus the media carries a great responsibility. (Mora: 2008)

The field of communication carries such vital importance that it cannot be abandoned to the arbitrariness of the professional who work in this area. Those in government have wanted to take the media under their own control and supervision. The media has been categorised as the “third eye” in democracies, and the “fourth power” after legislation, execution and adjudication (Işık: 2002, 1). The power of the business world and the media to determine life is increasing from day to day together with the fast progress made by communication technologies, and the decisions taken by those working in these areas are directing and shaping society. While correct decisions have a positive impact on people, incorrect decisions threaten the future of societies. The fact that the media is a large sector, a public service and a political power gives it important status.

When the functions of the media are considered, two significant characteristics come to the forefront. One of these is the role of the media as the “public lookout”. As the public lookout, the media has the duty of revealing the bad practices in the use of state authority. The role of the public lookout is also closely related to the manner in which the media is organised. That is because no media organisation, which is unable to become organised independently of the public authority and obtain its economic freedom will be able to carry out its duties as the public lookout. The occupational and ethical role of the media is the announcement of information and news to the public in a correct manner. When this function slides from the objective of providing information and news to shaping and directing, both occupational and ethical rules are violated. On the other hand, the ownership and control of the media are important factors which have serious impact on the cultural production ideology of the media.

With influential forms of media such as radio and television becoming prevalent very fast during the 20th century, advertising too has increased at the same rate, and the influence of advertisers on the media has also increased. Press freedom has become the freedom of a small number of media owners (Işık; 2007,34). The damaging use of the power of the press has been a factor in the birth of the social responsibility approach.

The media has certain duties connected to social responsibility; it is possible for us to refer to certain duties such as the formulation of the behaviour codes of the press, the improvement of the standards of journalism, the protection of the interests of journalism and journalists and the implementation of certain sanctions in the event of the violation of the rules of criticism and behaviour (http://communicationtheory.org/social-responsibility-theory).

The Concept of Media Ethics
Media ethics covers the vitally important rules for the whole of society as well as each individual and the positions of the personal assets of individuals and vehicles of mass communication, their relationships and reconciliation. The matters mostly dealt with
within the scope of media ethics are whether the publications of vehicles of mass communication are consistent with the ethics of society, how the points which are in contrast with social values are revealed, whether the issues which are revealed originate from the media or from society and who has failed to carry out their responsibilities.

Media ethics consists of a series of principles and rules which have been determined by members of the profession, preferably together with the users of the media, in order to ensure that the media provides a better service. (Bertrand; 2004,10). Accuracy, objectivity, impartiality and balance, correct representation, fabrication, the distortion of the agenda (publishing news which is not news, arranging the news, etc.), truth, the honesty, validity and suitability of the sources, presenting the same image over and over again, and failing to adhere to legal and personal rights are at the top of the issues concerning ethics in media practices. These are standard media practices (Erdogan. İ; 2006,23). It is possible for us to define media ethics as the whole set of rules and principles which journalists are required to abide by while carrying out their occupation. These ethical principles guide journalists by setting out which actions are good and which applications need to be avoided (Irvan; 20.06.2011).

There is a specific “statement of principles” in Turkish law, in connection with press freedom, which media organisations and members of the press are required to abide by. Naturally, there are no legally binding principles or rules for media organisations and members of the press, over and above the general rules of law. For this reason, members of the press are required to abide by the general rule of law. Some of the principles accepted and announced by the Press Council, which operates in Turkey, are as follows:

Not casting or insulting anyone in publications due to their race, gender, age, health, physical handicap, social level and religious beliefs;
Not publishing anything which restricts the freedoms of thought, conscience and speech, or which is traumatising or hurtful to the general understanding of morality, religious sensitivities, and the fundamental bases of the family unit;
Not including statements which degrades individuals and organisations beyond the boundaries of criticism, or insults them or carries the characteristics of being slanderous;
Not making the private lives of people subject to publications, other than where this is in the public interest;
Publishing news, the research into which is within the possibilities of journalism, without researching them or being sure of their accuracy;
Not publishing information which is required to remain confidential, other than when required to a serious extent for the benefit of the public;
Not declaring anyone “guilty” until and unless they have been found to be so by a decision of the judiciary;
Avoiding publications which encourage violence and tyranny, and which are hurtful to human values. (http://www.medyahukuku.org/makale/basin-kuruluslarinin-yayil-ilkeleri-nelerdir/).

The ethical standards of journalism can be listed as the gathering and presentation of data which is as accurate, objective and factual as possible, by taking care during the process of producing information, ensuring that information, advertising and propaganda do not overlap, taking care to ensure that the quality of information is high, reflecting diversity within the news and ensuring the possibility of balanced representation among sections of society, protecting the boundaries of private life and personal rights, and being sensitive towards the values of society (Alver; 2007,133).

When we examine the relationship between the media and the government in Turkey, while there are differences in certain periods, it can be seen that they are based on a relationship of mutual interest. The government provides the media certain credits, tenders and commercial gains in order to achieve support for itself, while the media uses its power to direct public opinion in favour of the government, thus assisting the advantages presented to it by the government.

The relationship between the media and politics is mutual (Arabaci: 2004, 109), and media has been under the focus of political influences in the early years of the Republic, and of capital in more recent years. This has meant that the fundamental function of the media, of presenting the news and information and contributing to the creation of a healthy public opinion, has been replaced by instances such as endeavouring to ensure that the world it has created itself is injected into society and preventing the creation of a healthy public opinion.

Theoretical Approaches Related to the Media

The media has a direct relationship with the social, economic and political structure. It feeds off them and takes shape according to them. Within this context, while on the one hand the changes observed in the economic, social and political areas feed the developments in the field of communications, on the other hand, they pursue a process which is influenced by new formations in the field of communications (İşik; 2002, 3). Therefore, it is seen that the intellectual foundations on which communications systems are based in the organisation of normative theories needs to be supported with the widespread values and feed off traditions in society (Kaya: 1985, 38).

The most widely accepted study concerning media theories in the world is the study entitled, “Four Theories of the Press”, by Siebert, Peterson and Schramm. According to this study, media theories are dealt with under four main headings – Authoritarian,
Liberal, Soviet Totalitarian and Social Responsibility Theories (Vural, S.; 1944, 8). Together with this, Denis McQuail has taken the theories of Siebert et al as his foundation, and added two more theories – the Theory of the Vehicle for Development and the Theory of a Participating Democratic Media – due to new political, social and economic changes and transformations (İşık; 2002, 8-37). Let us now review these approaches.

Authoritarian Approach
This is an approach which dates back quite far. In this system the general broadcasting policy of the vehicles of mass communication are determined by the existing political power. Journalists cannot produce the content they desire, without the permission of the political power. Newspapers cannot go outside the boundaries of the wishes of the political power, even if they are privately owned. According to the underlying principles of the functioning of the authoritarian mass communication system, vehicles of mass communication cannot be independent of the political power. Self-regulation and censorship are legitimate. It is compulsory for any opposition to the dominant system to be deemed as an offence and to be punished. The owners of the vehicles of mass communication must accept these rules (Kaya; 1985).

The underlying assumptions of the authoritarian approach can be summarised as follows:
The media / press must avoid activities which will undermine the controlling authority;
He media must always be under the supervision of the controlling authority;
The media must avoid attacking the dominant political and social values;
Censorship should be a vehicle which supports these principles;
Diverting from the general policies and principles must be deemed to be an offence.

In the ideological hegemony theory Gramsci states that those who hold power use the vehicles of mass communication in order to spread their own philosophies, culture and ethical values, and strengthen and maintain their wealth, power and position. Media is the determinant in many subjects – primarily political choices, as well as culture, perception, lifestyles, and economic attitudes.

In the manner stated by Althusser, the devices which serve the state in order to shape individuals in the intellectual respect are the family, the school and the media. As an ideological device, media, together with technology, spreads into a much wider area and reinforces its power (Arsan / Çoban; 2014, 11). When the routes opened by the concepts of ‘hegemony’ and ‘consent’ of Gramsci and Althusser are followed, it can be seen that the media is one of the fields of battle of ideologies which are endeavouring for control.

Liberal Approach
The liberal approach was born and developed within capitalism. Liberal thinking, which forms the intellectual basis of capitalism, has also formed the foundation for the establishment of the organisations and institutions of the capitalist system. The notion of free speech is a part of the freedoms which develop together with liberal political thinking. The notion of Locke has influenced Europe and the independence movements in America. Locke, who is the founder of classical liberalism, has opened the route to the free press, and been the precursor of a new language paradigm. This was followed by Adam Smith laying the foundations of the “laissez faire, laissez passer” (let them do, let them pass) capitalist approach in his book entitled, “The Wealth of Nations” in 1776. This notion has its concrete expression in declarations on “Human Rights”. Liberal Theory has stated to people that the rational route of reaching the required truth goes through the debates held in the media (Vural; 1994, 18-23). According to the liberal approach, the media is perceived as a business organisation which should naturally make profit, and the news is reduced to free competition, has been reflected on the media in a negative sense. The belief that the best will be selected and will prevail in an atmosphere of the flow of information must not be restricted (Öztürk; 2007, 13).

Published works must not be subjected to any prior censorship in any way;
Persons who are to take part in publishing and broadcasting activities must not require permission from the administrative authorities. However, the method of providing declarations can be implemented.
Assessments on the government, organisations and individuals must not be punished, as long as they remain within the boundaries of criticism;
The materials required for the publishing process must be freely available within market relationships;
The flow of information must not be restricted (Öztürk; 2007, 13).

The Liberal Approach is a view which has been placed on top of professional codes and news values (proximity, timeliness, significance, extraordinariness, conflict and fame). The Liberal Approach envisages that the only threat to the free speech of the press, which it is based on, will come from the state, and believes that the press will censor itself, while arguing that the media is a neutral vehicle.

Social Responsibility Approach
The fundamental view held by this approach is that the organisations of mass communication are different from the other sectors with a commercial objective within capitalism (Güngör; 2011, 284-285). The Social Responsibility approach surfaced in the USA
as a result of the failure of the free market to be realised in the theoretical manner envisaged by the freedom of the press, and its insufficiency in responding to the expectations of society.

As a principle, while it does not oppose the principles of liberal theory, it aims to bring solutions to the issues raised by liberal theory in practice. In time the press sector has experienced a move towards monopolisation and commercial concerns have come to the forefront. This has resulted in the question, “what is the responsibility of the press?” coming on to the agenda. The search for the response to this question is what has resulted in the development of the “social responsibility” theory. The intellectual basis of this theory dates back to the report entitled, “A Free and Responsible Press”, prepared by the Hutchins Commission in 1947. There was negative criticism of the press based on this report.

The new approach which appeared as a result of the Hutchins Commission report emphasises the independence of the press and its duties towards society. In particular there are duties which the press must perform in order for democracy to be able to continue its existence. Those who own the media and undertake the duty of providing communication have an obligation to fulfil the expectations of society. Accordingly, the media must accept that there may be interventions for the purposes of public benefit, espouse the fact that it is its fundamental duty to convey a pluralist structure which reflects the diversity of society and includes their views, as a whole, and perform these. It must not overlook the principles of factuality, accuracy, precision, impartiality and balance while conveying information and news, and develop the professional standards which will ensure these. It must also make efforts for the spreading and development of culture and arts, alongside the conveying of the news. In order to ensure that democracy is able to function in a healthy manner within society, matters such as violence, social disruptions and criminal offences must be included in the media as little as possible (Kaya; 1985: 52-55). Social responsibility theory, which aims to reconcile the concepts of responsibility and freedom, claims that the press has a duty to turn conflict into debate, alongside its duties to sell, inform and entertain. The media has important responsibilities towards society in order for democracy to be able to continue its existence (Işık, 37). A socially responsible media resorts to certain means in order to ensure that values and opinions are extensively deactivated. The solutions which have been found constitute the basis of the ethical codes of the media. News must be gathered in an impartial and unbiased manner, and comments which are comprised of opinions must be separated (Mutlu; 2005, 236).

In liberal systems there has been extensive debate concerning the duties of the press, both in academic circles and within the profession itself. According to what is generally accepted in the liberal approach, the media is a vehicle which audits the political government on behalf of the society and citizens, and in other words, acts as the “fourth power” alongside legislation, execution and adjudication. The notion “watchdog” is used in order to describe this state of affairs in the literature.

Soviet Totalitarian Approach

The socialist approach in mass communications began with the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917. In the socialist order the duty of the vehicles of mass communication is to take their place alongside the political government – the socialist party – and assist in the taking root of the socialist thinking (Güngör; 2011, 285). The Soviet Press became organised with a new normative approach in the 1920s, together with the Soviet government. This approach was based on Marxist teachings and was within the framework of the principles set out by Lenin. Marxist teaching, or historical materialism and dialectic materialism is the official ideology of the state. As a vehicle which produces culture and ideology, the media conveys the views of the dominant class within society (Kaya; 1985, 55-58).

Marx has collected together media analysis in capitalism in four main dimensions:

*Media and commodities:* The accumulation of capital, the media technology industry, the media content industry, the cultural industry, the numerical media industry, media and globalisation, audience commodification, media concentration...;

*Media and ideology:* Media manipulation, media propaganda filters, advertising, public relations, cultural imperialism...;

*Media reception and use:* Ideological reception, critical reception, critical media use...;

*Alternative media:* Alternative media production area, alternative public area, media and social struggles... (Başaran: 2014, 34).

While there is a similarity between authoritarian theory and the Soviet totalitarian approach in terms of the control of the vehicles of communication by the dominant authority, there are also differences. In authoritarian theory the press is expected to protect the dominant power and authority – in other words the status quo. However, in the socialist system the media is given a duty to transform society. The functions and responsibilities of the press have been combined.

Progressive Approach

Denis McQuail, who considered that the four theories put forward by Siebert and his colleagues were no longer sufficient, also developed a new theory which is based on normative media theories. This approach, which is known as the progressive or developmental, surfaced after the 2nd World War. This approach argues that less developed or developing countries are under threat from colonialist countries in terms of mass communication, and that therefore every country needs to have its own mass communication organisations and vehicles (Güngör; 2011, 286). The media is positioned according to the economic, cultural and political development objectives of the country and where necessary restrictions are stipulated. It is stipulated that media should concentrate more on the objectives of society than on individual objectives.
The Media, Economy and Politics Triangle within the Context of the Social Responsibility Approach

While ensuring social control, vehicles of mass communication are also today accepted as being a source of power – government which are among the leading vehicles of social change. What needs to be emphasised more importantly is the fact that the media creates an area where public occurrences take place. The truth within social life is generated and conveyed through the media. Therefore, the media continually provides society with a “system of meaning” and shows what is ordinary and natural and what is extraordinary and unnatural – in short is the leading determinant of what is normal (Demir; 2006, 7).

The media also possesses a very big importance politically. The vehicles most used by the society to observe the incidents and politicians are newspapers, television, radio and the social media. These vehicles of mass communication have a large impact on the political decisions of the voters. The questions which lie at the root of the relationship between the media and political organisations are how independent the media organisations are, what types of methods are used to limit this independence and the scale of this limitation on their independence. There are numerous ways and real examples of keeping the media under pressure.

It is seen within the historical period, that political governments have implemented various forms of censorship against media which do not broadcast in line with their own views and which act in contrast with their interests. The fact that governments apply various pressures on the media in their own interests causes the restriction of the freedom of the media, which is performing its duties of informing society within a democratic order.

Further, various pressure groups also use the media groups which they have influence over, in order to attribute their own views, beliefs and interests to the general public (Bektaş; 2000, 131). Governments have a tendency to use the news to be conveyed by the media in line with their own interests. This tendency prevents the independent and impartial broadcasting of the news. Under these circumstances it is possible to say that the media is being directed by political authorities. Media organisations other than the alternative media are in the possession of different power groups. The establishment of the hegemony, and its continuation, is possible through the media, which is among the ideological devices of the state, positioning itself alongside the dominant ideology.

In Turkey, an area of activity which capital owners of a certain size within the media have taken an interest in, in recent times, is the building and operation of ports. In recent years, The Doğuş Group has won the tender for Galataport in Istanbul Karaköy (Hürriyet, 2013) and the company belonging to Fettah Tamince, one of the partners in the Star newspaper and TV24, has won the tender for Haliçport. Tamince is also known for his investments in the field of tourism. The Ciner Group operates the port of Hopa and the Albayrak Group operates the port of Trabzon (Süzeri; 2014, 77).

Another conspicuous element among the non-media investments of the owners of the media is that the tenders they have won from municipality and town planning services has increased over the years. It is not possible to believe that a media structure which is so interlinked with the commercial and dominant powers will be on the side of the public, and act as their watchdog. It cannot be believed that a media which produces news with a commercial concern can free itself from the hoop of money – commodities – money (www.kongar.org/medyanotu/239_Medya_Siyaset_liskileri.php). Under these circumstances, there exists a media which is devoid of accurate reporting and social responsibility.

Conclusion

The technological developments brought by the process of globalisation show that the vehicles of mass communication which direct, persuade and generate the consent of public opinion will increase their importance in our life even further. As the media becomes a very important power directing public opinion, powers that desire to direct the media also surface at an increasing rate. That is because the shortest and most effective route to influence public opinion, which possesses a very complex structure, goes through manipulating the media. At the head of the organisations which wish to direct and control the media are political organisations.

Some journalists who came together in the United States of America developed Social Responsibility theory after the 2nd World War, in the belief that the press needs to possess social responsibilities. It was deemed that the duties of the press included transforming conflict into debate, as well as presenting information and entertainment. This argument put forward by this approach is that everyone should be allowed to state their views and if the media is not performing its duties, “someone” needs to tell them to perform these duties. According to the social responsibility approach, the media is under the control of the regulatory mechanisms of the government through restrictions related to public opinion, consumer tendencies, professional ethics, and channel and broadcasting times.

In Turkey the media is in need of the financial resources transferred by media owners from non-media activities. As it may not always be possible for media owners to transfer resources, in time media organisations may be forced to enter into relationships which stretch the ethical rules in order to be able to obtain revenue. At this point it is also necessary to focus on the element of advertising. The most important source of revenue for the media is advertising. While newspapers do also obtain a certain amount of revenue from newspaper sales, television and radio channels are only able to survive very largely as a result of their advertising revenues.
Thus advertising has a role of vital importance, and when not used correctly, it can give rise to dangerous outcomes. Certain advertisers are able to use the economic power they possess for the purposes of directing the broadcasting policies of media organisations. For instance, practices such as removing advertising due to news which displeases them are frequently seen occurrences.

The social responsibility approach, which was influential following the 2nd World War, accepts functions of the press such as serving the democratic political system, enlightening society and defending the freedoms of individuals. However, the role of serving the economic system does not take precedence over these functions. The role of entertaining is also accepted, but this function of entertaining is expected to be qualitative. In all systems the media is in a position of being the representative of the holders of political and economic power. The content of the media is always consistent with the interests that meet the costs of the media. All press systems are based on the belief in free speech, but it is seen that free speech is defined in different ways. All press systems approve the social responsibility approach and accept that it serves the wishes and interests of individuals.

It is unavoidable that a free, independent media, which does not need the support of any power, will make a significant contribution to the creation of a more habitable world. It should not be forgotten that when the power of the media is used for the public there will be peace and tranquillity, and when it becomes the “media of power” it will lead to injustice and unlawfulness. All of these negative elements increase when the circumstances whereby the media is able to carry out its real duties begin to be eroded. The media should be independent, free and transparent and media organisations should not have economic and political interest relationships with any powers – especially governments and global companies. Media owners should only be active in the media sector, and should in particular stay away from sectors where it will be forced to enter into relationships with finance and government. It is only then that media will be able to take its place as an indispensable component of a democratic society.

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Challenging the Whiteness of Britishness: Co-Creating British Social History in the Blogosphere

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Abstract

Blogs are a valuable medium for preserving cultural memory, reflecting the various dimensions of human life (O’Sullivan, 2005) and allowing ordinary individuals and marginalised groups the opportunity to contribute to the ‘dialogue of history’ (Cohen, 2005:10). The diverse perspectives to be found in the blogosphere can help deepen understanding of historical moments. Such examples include 9/11 (Cohen, 2005), the London bombings in 2005 (Allan, 2006) and Hurricane Katrina (Brock, 2009). Using critical race theory (CRT) as a theoretical framework and cultural democracy as the conceptual framework, this study examines the symbolic power of counter-storytelling through the blogosphere. The findings reveal that in relation to coverage of the UK ‘riots’ in 2011 and the Stephen Lawrence verdict in 2012, African Caribbean bloggers advanced alternative perspectives of the events and appropriated blogs as a medium for self-representation through their own constructions of Black identity. In so doing they performed a vital role as co-creators of British social history.

Introduction

Historical archives in Britain often exclude or fail to capture the presence and experiences of people of colour (which dates back to the 17th century with the first arrival of slaves from the west coast of Africa), resulting in a ‘whitening of Britishness’ (Bressey, 2006:51). The term is defined as a process through which the exclusion of a person’s skin colour in historical records results in the assumption of a white identity (Bressey, 2006). In the 21st century, while the Census captures the ethnic and cultural diversity of the British population, the mainstream media remains a key terrain for on-going struggles against hegemony (Bailey et al, 2008; Downing, 2001; Cammaerts, 2008). How African Caribbean people are represented within the mainstream media through dominant discourses is a key concern. Research suggests that they are frequently framed as social problems (Law, 2002) through racist discourse (Van Dijk, 2006). Therefore it can be argued that 100 years from now, historians analysing news archives will be confronted with a version of history that is equally borne of the white imagination, told from the perspectives of the white middle classes who make up 96 per cent of journalists working in the UK (Journalism Training Forum, 2002). Under such circumstances, the role that bloggers play in providing broader socio-cultural perspectives of historical moments is of major significance. Who better can critique mainstream representation that continues to perpetuate problematic stereotypes than the communities on the receiving end of such racial oppression?

This study therefore examines blogs as a medium for reflecting the varied dimensions of human experience (O’Sullivan, 2005). It explores the role that African Caribbean bloggers played in contributing to the dialogue of British social history in coverage of the UK ‘riots’ in 2011 and the Stephen Lawrence verdict in 2012. Throughout this paper, the term ‘racialised minority’ is used in preference to the term ‘ethnic minority’, since the latter does not reflect the cultural reality of the world we live in (where people of white, European descent represent the minority ethnic group); serving only to reinforce notions of inferiority and superiority (Aldridge, 2000). The term ‘racialised minority’ exposes the hidden presence of whiteness by emphasizing that people of colour are located outside the realm of Britishness and positioned at the bottom a social hierarchy in relation to white identity, creating boundaries of inclusion and exclusion (Campbell, 2008).

Literature Review

Whiteness In The Mainstream Media

A lack of newsroom diversity has often been cited as a contributory factor to the marginalisation and misrepresentation of racialised minority groups across the mainstream media (Ainley, 1998; Cottle, 2000; Kretzschmar, 2007; Van Dijk, 2006). A large scale survey of the industry revealed that just 4% of UK journalists are from a racialised minority background (Journalism Training Forum, 2002). Several scholars have examined how media discourse reproduces racism including Law (2002) and Van Dijk (2006), among others. Racist discourse is defined as a form of social practice linked to personal beliefs and attitudes about people from racialised minority backgrounds that can lead to racist behaviour or discriminatory practices (Van Dijk, 2006). The role of the media is of major significance since it reproduces negative stereotypes of racialised minorities which can influence perceptions about these groups. This frequently involves focusing on social differences where racialised minorities are presented as social problems (Parekh Report, 2000; Van Dijk, 2006).

CRT with its focus on the collective and cumulative effects of racism as it operates on structural levels has been used to explain through the concept of whiteness, how the media reproduces racism. Whiteness has been conceptualised as a multi-faceted social construct that functions to maintain white supremacy; (Owen, 2007) a system of unearned privileges (Kendal, 2006; Mc Intosh, 1988) and by the exclusion of others racialised as non-white (Gillborn, 2008). White supremacy has been defined as: A political, economic and cultural system in which whites overwhelmingly control power and material resources, conscious and unconscious ideas of white superiority are widespread, and relations of white dominance and non-white subordination are daily re-enacted across a broad array of institutions and social settings. (Frances Lee Ansley cited in Gillborn, 2008:36) The power of whiteness as it functions through the media is its invisibility (Gabriel, 1998), whereby what are essentially European values, beliefs, practices and traditions are universalised and presented as the defining principles that apply to all cultures (Fiske, 2000). Racist discourse is often framed in the media through news stories where racialised minorities are deemed as social problems to society and occupy the realm of the racialised other (Van Dijk, 2000). Despite this, racist discourse is often
observed as negative stories about racialised minorities which follow common themes such as immigration and racialised crime such as mugging, often appear at the same time that messages of social inclusion and anti-racism are disseminated in the news. Contextual analysis by Ian Law (2002) of news content in the British media between November 1996 and May 1997 revealed that racialised minorities were constructed as social problems in 11% of items, compared with coverage of their contribution to society, which occurred in just 4.5% of items. Much wider coverage was given to individual contributions of racialised minorities than the contributions of minorities as a group. The emphasis on individual achievement promotes the view that racism does not exist, since individuals are held up as examples of success; while collective experiences of educational underachievement and unemployment are deemed to be self-induced and caused by a lack of ambition, lack of motivation and laziness. The same study found that a third of tabloid newspapers and a quarter of broadsheets carried negative stories about racialised minorities. While some newspapers appeared to carry anti-racist messages, this was deemed to be a strategy for:

Highlighting how African Caribbean communities are frequently framed as social problems through dominant discourses in the mainstream media provides an important socio-political context for this study by emphasising the need to provide alternative perspectives.

**Blogs as Historical Archives**

Blogs function as a valuable medium for preserving cultural memory alongside traditional archives. As online diaries, they serve the same purpose as traditional diaries as a ‘window onto the past’. They reflect the varied dimensions of human life ‘in a particular time and place’ and ‘often provide interesting, insightful or humorous perspectives on contemporary events’ (O’Sullivan, 2005:54). Along with other forms of electronic communication, blogs helped to provide an expansive record of the events of September 11 2001, reflecting the growing significance of ICTs as part of America’s cultural output. Led by the Pew Internet and American Life Project, the Library of Congress archived 30,000 websites between September 11 and December 1 2001. A significant benefit of blogs which is of particular relevance to this study is that ‘they allow ordinary people and marginalised constituencies…a more important role in the dialogue of history’ (Cohen, 2005:10). The diverse perspectives to be found in the blogosphere can lead to new interpretations or help deepen understanding of a historical moment. For example, digital archives created after September 11, reveal that ordinary Americans viewed the terrorist attacks in personal terms through the loss of loved ones or devastation to their communities and not in nationalistic terms, as might have been expected (Cohen, 2005). During the London bombings in 2005, ordinary citizens caught up in the chaos became accidental journalists, relaying what they witnessed and offering personalised accounts of traumatic events. London’s blogging community in particular, mobilised to provide news and information including photographs, video clips, survivor’s diaries and names of victims, helping to piece events together. Numerous blog posts were used by mainstream news organisations such as the BBC and Guardian, helping to enrich and further contextualise mainstream reporting on the bombings (Allan, 2006). Previous research provides useful examples of how blogs have captured pivotal moments in Black History. Moyo’s (2011) study on bloggers’ reporting of the Zimbabwean elections in 2008 demonstrates the important role that they played in documenting the country’s political history in the absence of mainstream journalists. During the elections, press restrictions resulted in the alleged arrest, torture and murder of professional journalists for criticising the government. Facilitated by Kubatana, a civic organisation focused on democracy and human rights; ordinary citizens used blogs as a platform to produce and disseminate news stories documenting human rights abuses and violence during the elections. Stories reported vote rigging, violence, rape, abductions, torture, hunger and starvation. They captured an important moment in Zimbabwe’s political and social history in the wake of censorship and functioned as an alternative public sphere through which opinions were formulated, nurtured and sustained during the elections.

Another study by Brock (2009) examines websites maintained by African Americans (mostly blogs) in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina. Analysis of the content reveals their observations and experiences of racism. For example, African Americans were referred to as refugees, while whites were automatically assumed to be American citizens. This culminated in American-born Blacks being refused aid that was provided to foreign-born white Americans. As Brock (2009:103) argues, African Americans used blogs ‘to express their entitlement to citizenship in a country they were born in, worked in and died for’. Racist representations of African Americans during Hurricane Katrina have been well documented by academics and intellectuals. This includes analysis of the mainstream media’s tendency to associate African Americans with crime and violence and inaccurate reporting of criminality where whites were depicted as survivors and Blacks as looters (Sommers et al, 2006; Troutt, 2006). However, blogs captured the unique and personalised perspectives of ordinary African Americans on a major national disaster that occurred in the largely Black population of New Orleans. Their blogs represent ‘a coherent presentation of African American identity’ while further demonstrating how blogs were appropriated ‘to reify their right to citizenship and humanity’ (Brock, 2009:104).

According to historian Mary Friedman, blogs can serve an important function in documenting social history. Mommy bloggers (mothers who blog about their family and life experiences) are co-creators ‘of maternal history…the history of mothers at this moment in time’ (Friedman, cited in Leow, 2010:238). It is further argued that topic-based blogs can be regarded as ‘archives in the making’ and therefore every blog ‘is a potential historical source’ (Leow, 2010:239). Using the same logic as Friedman and Leow, it is argued here that African Caribbean bloggers in the UK can be conceptualised as co-creators of British social history.
This study is approached through the theoretical framework of CRT and the conceptual framework of cultural democracy. CRT is an interdisciplinary movement of scholars and activists seeking to study and transform the relationship between race, racism and power in the privileging of white social, economic and political interests developed in the US in the 1970s. Its defining principle is the acknowledgement that racism is deeply ingrained within the fabric of American society to the extent that it has become normalised and taken-for-granted and appears natural (Delgado and Stefancic, 2001). Despite its American origins, CRT is used by scholars worldwide to examine the experiences of people of colour across a range of academic disciplines. Adopting CRT as a methodological approach for this study helps to contextualise the historical experience of African Caribbean people by highlighting how dominant discourses in the British mainstream media can perpetuate stereotypical and negative representations of racialised minorities. CR is used also as praxis to capture the unique perspectives of African Caribbean bloggers in Britain through in-depth interviews. One of the principle tenets of CRT is that it is grounded in the experiences of people of colour. As Milner (2007:391) argues: ‘From critical race theory perspectives, knowledge can and should be generated through the narratives and counter-narratives that emerge from and with people of colour’.

Cultural democracy advances the view that within a diverse society, all ethnic and cultural groups have a human right to equality of opportunity and equal access to power. Within this framework, power is defined as the capacity to have an effective voice to advance one’s view of the world and one’s place within it as an active participant (Aldridge, 2000). It recognises the intersections between knowledge, culture and power and offers an effective approach through which to scrutinise and deconstruct unequal power relations in and through the mainstream media.

This study is based on in-depth interviews in 2012 with two male and two female African Caribbean bloggers based in the UK extracted from a larger sample of 30 participants sourced through accidental and random sampling. This study emerged from a larger inquiry into the use of blogs among African Caribbean people in the UK and relates to the research question: how do African Caribbean people in the UK use blogs to address issues of representation in the mainstream media? Two of the interviews were conducted face-to-face at the British Library and two were via telephone. Thematic data analysis has been used as an inductive approach to identify key themes emerging from the data as outlined by Harding (2013), Le Compte (2000) and Thomas (2006). The findings are presented as a combination of narratives from the interviews and extracts of the blog post referred to during interview. The language-in-use method of discourse analysis developed by Gee (2005) has been employed as an analytical approach to capture the social, cultural and political meanings of their narratives.

Analysis & Discussion

Uk ‘Riots’ Blamed On ‘Black Culture’

In August 2011 Mark Duggan, a 29 year-old father of four of mixed heritage was shot dead by a Metropolitan police officer in Tottenham, north London, sparking a wave of national protests. What started as a peaceful demonstration outside Tottenham Police Station on 6 August descended into violence as petrol bombs were thrown at police and buildings and shops were set alight. By 8 August protests flared up in several other British cities including Birmingham, Liverpool, Nottingham, Bristol and Manchester. It emerged later that Duggan was not in possession of a firearm at the time of his attempted arrest but an inquest ruled his death lawful (BBC News, 2014). The public discourse after August 2011 delegitimised the idea that events represented protests against injustice and instead were used to mount attacks against multiculturalism. Speaking on BBC Question Time, historian David Starkey used the events to demonise Black communities and the white working class. He suggested that they constitute a criminal underclass motivated purely by a desire to acquire consumer goods through illegal means: ‘these weren’t protests, these were shopping with violence’ (cited in Jensen, 2013:1.3). Through this discourse, the concerns and frustrations of those who participated in the unrest were swept aside, and served the purpose of ‘personalising and individualising property and disadvantage’ (Jensen, 2013:5-4). Since Starkey’s professional interests lie with the upper classes, his racialisation of the riots also reflect a distaste of the working classes, who he claims have adopted a ‘Black’ identity. In blaming Black culture for widespread public disorder he ‘essentialises whiteness as good (and English) and Blackness as its antithesis’ (Phoenix & Phoenix, 2012:62).

Much of the negative media coverage that racialised the riots focused on young Black males and the working class, demonstrating that contemporary racism is intersectional in nature with its emphasis on race, class and gender. Gaudio & Bialostok (2005) argue that there is a tendency among white middle class social actors to attribute social and economic inequalities among racialised minorities to cultural differences, which are often perceived as deficiencies. In doing so they fail to acknowledge white privilege or barriers based on race and class, and take no responsibility for addressing racial inequality, since they perceive that assimilating into ‘white’ culture will lead to social and economic advancement. Culture is therefore perceived as a hierarchical system of values in which, middle class cultural values are routinely accepted as superior to those of racialised minorities. Culture has therefore become a mask that hides racist ideology since there is rarely any historical reference to the fact that the political and economic systems in the US and elsewhere are racially stratified and promote white racial power and privilege. Although racism was once premised on presumed biological differences, culture is now invoked as a justification for racial inequalities and ‘effectively serves as a euphemism for race’ (Gaudio & Bialostok, 2005:54).

During an interview in 2012, Adrian, one of the participants, aged 30 who describes himself as a social commentator stated that misrepresentation of Black communities was amplified in media coverage of the UK riots in 2011:

I personally don’t think the riots were a race issue. I think the problem was a class issue...A lot of the mainstream media was like let’s look at Black leaders and okay that’s fine because Tottenham is a predominantly Black area. But it’s also a Turkish area, a Kurdish area and all the kids that were rioting were not all Black. It really annoyed me that you were seeing all this stuff in the media and it’s like they’ve clearly not done their research about what happened. The mainstream media is often quite lazy when it comes to these issues. It’s like, let’s just go for the easy target.
Extracts of his blog post below reveal his own analysis of how the riots were racialised by the mainstream media, misrepresenting Black communities, who bore most of the blame for the widespread social unrest:

The events that preceded the initial riots in Tottenham were the death of Mark Duggan and a subsequent peaceful protest on the Saturday afternoon before the rioting commenced. Several commentators attempted to make hurried and tenuous links between the peaceful protest and the rioting. However, there was no correlation between the aims of the initial protesters who sought answers over the death of Mark Duggan and the rioters who sought opportunistic destruction.

…any indignation of the rioters in Tottenham, and the locations of subsequent rioting, was not apparent. Nonetheless, a number of rioters and commentators claimed the death of Mark Duggan served as a tipping point for frustrations of disaffected youth, particularly within the Black community and anger over racial profiling.

In the aftermath of the unrest, socio-economic, racial and generational tensions have all been opined as the cause of the riots along with wider community tensions with the police. Finding a neat social group by which the rioters can be identified appears to be much desired.

The extent of British multiculturalism has been apparent in the varied ethnic groups of the rioters. To suggest a link between race relations and the unrest is therefore a flawed assumption. Nonetheless, some commentators, both within and outside of the Black community, have attempted to argue this case. However, historian David Starkey, in what were career-ending utterances on the BBC’s Newsnight, went one step further.

Referencing Enoch Powell’s ‘Rivers of Blood’ speech that criticised commonwealth immigration to Britain, David Starkey asserted “Black culture” had been assumed by non-Black rioters, effectively equating Black culture with the nihilistic behaviour that was witnessed in several English cities. Conversely, claiming Black Labour MP David Lammy’s well-educated diction as that of a white person, he intimated white culture was the antithesis of all that had occurred with the unrest.

Needless to say, David Starkey’s comments were unfounded and utterly racist, totally rejecting the many positive contributions the Black Diaspora, and those of other ethnic minority communities, has made to British society.

There was not a ‘Black’ issue behind the riots. The issue of race relations, let alone one exclusive to the Black community, was very much secondary, if at all applicable, to the cause of the riots.

Adrian’s post reveals his perception that through the dominant discourses in the mainstream media following the ‘riots’, Black cultural identity was problematized, demonized, criminalized and devalued as Black communities were used as a scapegoat by some journalists and commentators seeking a facile explanation of the events to present to the British public. In particular, Adrian sees the use of language as a mechanism to construct the Black population as the ‘other’ as polluters of legitimate Britishness restricted to white Europeans. This is evidenced through Adrian’s reference to historian David Starkey attributing the social disorder to Black culture and by default Black communities through reference to wider problems around mass immigration.

Starkey’s essentialist conceptualisation of Black identity viewed from a white imperialist perspective equates formal English language with whiteness. This is exemplified by his appropriation of MP David Lammy as an example of a Black male that embodies whiteness. By contrast, the informal language sometimes referred to as urban slang, is equated with Black culture and viewed as illegitimate and inferior.

Adrian’s observations and analysis are not dissimilar to theoretical interpretations on racist discourse found in the literature. For example, in his examination of the relationship between racism, discourse and ideology, Van Dijk (2000) argues that racist ideologies are reproduced through talk and text (as exemplified by Starkey’s comments on prime time television). They are characterised by a strategy that seeks to ascribe negative attributes to racialised others, whilst presenting whites as victims. In the example above, white British society is presented as a victim of Black culture that is linked with illiteracy, violence and social disorder. Racist ideologies often frame Black communities as social problems, focusing on social differences which are presented as negative traits that threaten the stability of white British society. Carter et al (1996) argue that the British state has played a key role in the racialization of migration and in the construction of national identities, through which race is signified as a location of difference. Studies have shown that the mainstream media consistently produces negative and alarmist coverage of immigration issues that uncritically repeats and therefore perpetuates racist discourse by government ministers who use metaphorical terms like ‘tides’, ‘floods’ and ‘swamping’ (Law, 2002: 91).

By contrast, Mitchell, a 44 year old blogger who writes about current affairs, focuses less on critiquing white, middle class commentators and instead draws attention to the absence of the perspectives of those who participated in the protests. He attatches significance to his own voice being heard and contributing to the national debate: ‘One of the deepest posts I’ve written is about the riots’, which suggests that his post was crafted after considerable reflection on the events. In the aforementioned blog post which centred on the causal factors that initiated the disturbances, he opined:

The true answers lie with the rioters. In the main their voices have not been heard… in this regard, it would be most helpful therefore if the media obtained more interviews with the culprits, just as Sky News, for instance did on Friday 12 August, with their interviews with four track-suited, hooded youths...

While his key aim is to advance societal factors that influenced the events that began on 6 August; by referring to the protagonists as ‘culprits’ and the events as ‘riots’, his central focus of analysis are social actors that have already been criminalised and delegitimised, rather than individuals who were exercising their legal right to protest. He also repeats and therefore perpetuates (rather than critique) the stereotypical representation of the main protagonists by Sky News, who interviewed young males wearing hooded tracksuits. The ‘hoodie’ is already associated with criminality due to being the focus of Anti-Social Behaviour Orders, framed as a moral panic (Wayne et al, 2008). Mitchell does however, attempt to advance causes for the disturbances that are de-racialised that include: the impact of the recession; the police service—including deaths in police custody and fewer employment opportunities.
Stephen Lawrence Verdict: justice at last?

January 2012 brought the conviction of Gary Dobson and David Norris for the murder of Stephen Lawrence marking the conclusion of a 20-year campaign for justice. The Independent (Cathcart, 2012) ran a story headlined: ‘The life and legacy of Stephen Lawrence’ which featured interviews with the parents of the murdered teenager. Speaking of her son’s life, Doreen Lawrence said:

Now that we have some sort of justice, I want people to think of Stephen other than as a Black teenager murdered in a racist attack in south-east London… I want him to be remembered as a bright young man… He was a wonderful son and a shining example of what any parent would want in a child. Hopefully now he can rest in peace.

The political significance of the events and actions that followed the death of Stephen Lawrence, driven largely by the persistence of his parents is now embedded in the history of race relations in Britain as Hall et al (2013: introduction) assert: Arguably the most significant single event that was ultimately to propel the issue of violent racism to the top of the political and social agenda was the murder of Black teenager Stephen Lawrence in April 1993.

Grace, a 35 year old woman, uses a fictional character called Ebony to write commentaries from a Black, female perspective. During an interview she stressed the importance of her positionality: ‘It’s important that people understand that it’s written by a Black woman because I can get quite political and quite rebellious and I want to be quite authentic …’ The articulation of a Black woman’s standpoint is a strategy used to resist raced, classed and gendered oppression and represents spaces that Black women create to construct their own self-definitions and oppose dominant constructions of Black female identity (Collins, 1990). The authenticity of Black identity and the Black experience is highly contested. Efforts to challenge negative representations of African Caribbean people in Britain through cultural projects in the seventies seeking to counter objectification by presenting ‘authentic’ images of Blackness have been criticised for reproducing essentialist notions of Black identity (Hall, 1996; Marotta, 2001). However, authenticity as a dimension of blogging practice represents the dissemination of experiential knowledge based on unique perspectives that serve as counter-narratives to dominant discourses It functions as a tool against raced and gendered oppression that does not necessarily reflect the belief of a homogenous Black identity but represents a political position from which people of colour explore, negotiate and define their own subjective reality. Speaking through her alto ego Ebony, Grace writes:

News outlets all over the UK hail Stephen Lawrence’s murder as the catalyst that implemented an overhaul of how the British Law system works. How racist incidents are treated. How serious the UK takes racial crimes.

Yet whilst these British stalwarts get to back slapping and hoorah-ing all I can hear running through my mind are the words of the most absolute representation of strength, determination and fearlessness that is Ms Doreen Lawrence:

The fact is that racism and racist attacks are still happening in this country and the police should not use my son’s name to say that we can move on.

Ms Lawrence is right. It is not a time to celebrate. Not at all. Because whenever ‘we’ talk about racism we’re told off for stirring up trouble, carrying chips on our shoulders, dragging up the past, imagining things, being oh so boring.

I guess, yes of course, it must be so tiresome to hear the natives complaining about their lot. I mean gosh darn it we the natives should be grateful to have been rescued from walking around the bloody jungle naked except for strategically placed bones and cooking each other for tea and what not! Indeed, master indeed.

During interview, Grace explains that adopting Ebony as an alter ego is a way of informing and educating her audiences through humour: ‘I kind of have this thing of educating through humour, so it’s kind of getting points across with a bit of tongue-in-cheek’. Her unique approach is a strategy for challenging hegemony–by demonstrating ‘that there are alternative ways of seeing the world and other stories to be told’ (Lievrouw, 2011: 372). She uses the powerful words of Doreen Lawrence who maintains that there is no reason to celebrate the Stephen Lawrence verdict due to continued racist attacks; to remind her audiences that racist discourse still prevails and this represents another form of racial oppression. She argues that in the mainstream media, the perspectives of African Caribbean people are delegitimised as any reference to their experiences of racism in contemporary society are framed as resulting from their failure to assimilate into the dominant culture. Racial neoliberalism is defined as the process of ‘de-racialisation in order to promote post-racialism’ (De Genova, 2010 cited in Kapoor, 2013:1028). This manifests in discourse that asserts that race is no longer the primary determinant of social and economic outcomes, and to name and acknowledge race is deemed problematic– a point that Grace articulates well in the above post.

Chiomia, a 48 year old woman writing on the topics of race, gender and politics also emphasises the importance of her positionality from a Black female standpoint: ‘I’m a UK African woman…I was talking about being voiceless in a society that doesn’t hear me…having the blog was part of me using my voice’. In her post on the Stephen Lawrence verdict she writes: I remember staring into the wistful and innocent gaze of Stephen Lawrence… a smile that held promises of so many things to come in his life. And then he was stabbed relentlessly to death by virulent and venomous racists, who chased him down like a runaway slave and who took away his dreams and evaporated his own destiny...

This made me even more aware that living within this multicultural society was just a dream. It was not utopia. I had fear. I had an unhealthy, almost pathological fear for my boys that they would one day end up as a statistic and a blot on this vanilla landscape.

I attended the Macpherson Inquiry at Hannibal House in Elephant and Castle in June 1998. I saw the smirk of those white men who casually sauntered away with blood on their hands and murder on their conscience.

Today is a bittersweet day for me I will never forget. It had a huge impact on me, a mother [of] two young black men… I cry tears for Stephen Lawrence and the extent of SOME justice for him; my tears will still flow every now and then and until there is a fair completion…until all of the murderers involved are convicted and sentenced.
I pray that they will also be held responsible for Stephen’s murder as well. That is why I have written that SOME justice has been meted out today. It’s not complete but I remain forever optimistic.

While Grace focuses on how the mainstream media perpetuates racist discourse, Chioma’s post is centred on the perspective of Black mothers and their fears for their own sons, heightened by the failure of the Metropolitan Police to bring all the killers involved in the murder to justice. She also draws on imagery linked to the historical experience of slavery by African Caribbean people, through an analogy depicting the manner in which runaway slaves were hunted and brought to death, in a similar fashion to the murder of Stephen Lawrence, also pursued and killed by white males. This statement echoes a key tenet of cultural democracy—that marginalised groups should be able “to speak in a culturally authentic, socially meaningful and politically powerful voice” (Aldridge, 2000: 103).

Conclusion
The narratives presented in this study serve an important purpose in privileging the voices of African Caribbean bloggers in this study and in acknowledging their role in the construction of new knowledge arising from these findings. Blogs function as an important medium that enables African Caribbean people to create and interpret events as counter-narratives in opposition to dominant discourses. This is of major significance since power and privilege are unevenly distributed across all cultural and social arenas and as such can only be challenged through ‘democratic practice’ (Aldridge, 2000:102). The findings demonstrate that the bloggers featured in this study appropriate blogs as a medium for self-representation, leading to the cultivation of symbolic power through their own constructions of Black identity and social life.

In their role as historical archives, extracts of the blog posts analysed in this study demonstrate their usefulness in challenging homogenised representations of Black identity and in reflecting the varied perspectives of the bloggers in relation to their experiences as racialised minorities in Britain. Valdes et al (2002:244) argue that this is an effective strategy for resisting stereotypes perpetuated through the dominant culture ‘by representing people of colour as complex and heterogeneous’. Another important outcome is that through powerful counter-narratives, blogs perform an important role in creating alternative perspectives that reframe historical events in ways that have meaning and significance to Black communities.

As historical archives blogs have played an important role in capturing key historical moments and this study highlights the role of African Caribbean bloggers as co-creators of British social history; helping to generate new levels of understanding on the lived experiences of racialised minorities and challenging the whiteness of Britishness.

References


Communication Barriers in Online Teaching and Online Learning with Digital Media, in the Framework of Teaching and Learning Theory Approaches

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Abstract
Online education is a new trend at Universities in Turkey. To enable effective and productive communication, both between learners and between teachers and learners, it is of vital importance to identify all the difficulties and obstacles which may arise during the communication process. Considering this, the purpose of this study is to find out how teachers and learners perceive communicational barriers in online education, with regard to the implication of the three commonly known learning theory approaches - behaviorism, cognitivism and constructivism. To identify which communicational barriers exist in online education, a survey for online learners has been conducted at the University of Celal Bayar, one of the Universities in Turkey where the use of online education technologies for teaching and learning is relatively high. In order to find out teachers’ perceptions of online teaching and its communicational barriers, interviews were conducted with teachers from the same University.

Introduction
Nowadays, communication and technology play a significant role in everyday life, particularly in the way we educate our students. In Turkey the number of online courses and programs at institutions for higher education is rising rapidly. Interactive and multimedia systems offer online education a new culture of teaching and learning. Online education provides new opportunities and many advantages, especially in the organization of the learning process. Learners are able to learn almost entirely independently, as they can access all learning materials at any time and from anywhere in the world. They can also determine their rate of learning progress and the learning extent themselves. For this reason, online education is gaining in importance, in particular as a form of virtual classroom, supported by online learning methods, features and tools. Learners who want to acquire knowledge are easily reached and motivated through the provision of lecture accompanying learning materials. Regarding the continuing technological advancement within the private and academic environment, traditional teaching methods require an extension through online education to satisfy new expectations and requirements for teaching and learning. Whilst acknowledging this, we should consider that using technology in education may create some new communication barriers for teachers and learners.

Teaching And Learning With New Media
New media provides new learning opportunities that expand the learning environment and learning space to an extent that would have been difficult to imagine in former times. Learners are able to design their own learning processes; they can search online for all the information that is relevant to them. Furthermore, they have the opportunity to talk online with their teachers, tutors and other learners, about their progress, questions and results (Zürcher, 2007, p. 76). Learning is no longer considered a collection of facts. It is a process, in which learners become aware of their personal knowledge - generated by a variety of inputs - and acquire new knowledge, which they exchange with other learners.

Online Teaching and Learning
The term ‘online teaching and learning’ has not yet been clearly defined. There is a common consensus that online teaching and learning, in principle, can be described as a form of teaching and learning, which is supported by information and communication technology (Bürwald, 2009, p. 105). In literature, online teaching and learning generally refer to: web-based training, e-Learning, Internet-based learning, web-based instruction, cyber learning, virtual learning, net-based learning etc. (Apostolopoulos, Hoffmann et al., 2009; Urdan & Weggen, 2000). Online teaching and learning is a subtype of distance education and contains huge opportunities with technology applications and learning processes including computer-based learning, web-based learning, virtual classrooms and online collaborations (Urdan & Weggen, 2000).

Online education can also be described as a ‘new culture of learning and teaching’ which supports the learning processes of the learner through the use of digital technologies. The characteristics of online teaching and learning are the interactive and multimedia design of learning contents, the implementation of the learning process over digital networks such as the Internet, and the network-based communication between the teachers and the learners. To make online education possible, several subsystems, including the learners, teachers, tutors, authoring tools, learning platforms and contents as well as the learning environments must
interact effectively (Wache, 2003, pp. 1-3).

**New Forms of Teaching and Learning in Response to Changing Environmental Conditions**

The Internet acts as a channel that provides a wealth of information and knowledge to learners. The large quantity of data and information available necessitates skills that teachers and learners must acquire, in order to deal sensibly and efficiently with it. Consequently, it is of great importance that learning is structured and organized differently, because without a restructuring of the learning processes, learners become overwhelmed; they don’t know how to deal with the extensive amount of information. The information will be useless if learners do not know what information they can use - which is significant and which can be discarded - for their learning processes. In this context, media literacy on the one hand, and the competence to judge, are essential skills. They are especially necessary for the learners, because the teachers are no longer mediators of knowledge but ‘companions and moderators of learning processes’ who do not lead the learner as they did in traditional methods of teaching. From a technical point of view, online learning is connected to devices, which learners and teachers have to deal with. These are primarily computer and multimedia devices (Ehlers, 2004, pp. 20-36).

There are various forms of online teaching and learning, but most are asynchronous; learners are able to access available learning materials on the Internet at any time and anywhere they want. Because of this, learners can plan their time frame by themselves and are not tied to specific times, as in traditional teaching and training programs. However, this means that learners have to have a high degree of self-discipline and self-learning competence (Ehlers, 2004, p. 37). It can be noted that in technical terms online education enables ‘new forms of learning’, which can be considered as a response to the changing environmental conditions. These new environmental conditions are created by the Internet and the wealth of available information, data and knowledge and are accompanied by increasingly rapid technological developments.

**Teaching Approaches - Characteristics and Development of Knowledge**

For a long time traditional teaching approaches prevailed at Universities, in which knowledge was conveyed with only a little media integration. The classes consisted usually of the lecture by the teachers and the listening of the learners. With the use of media for classes this has now changed and there are different approaches to knowledge transfer. The method of knowledge transfer is referred to as the ‘teaching method’ and can be divided into three different approaches: the presenting, compiling and explorating (see table 1). In practice, teaching approaches are generally combined (Einsiedler, 1981; Gruehn, 2000; Steindorf, 2000).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The role of the teacher is ...</th>
<th>The role of the learner is ...</th>
<th>The learning contents are worked on by the ...</th>
<th>The learning materials are ...</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>presenting</td>
<td>receptive and retracing</td>
<td>teachers.</td>
<td>provided</td>
<td>Lecture. Demonstration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compiling</td>
<td>to work under the instructions of the teacher and is collaborative.</td>
<td>learners under the instructions of the teachers.</td>
<td>provided in small quantities.</td>
<td>Supervised trainings or exercises.</td>
</tr>
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Table 1: Characteristics of teaching processes (Einsiedler, 1981; Gruehn, 2000; Steindorf, 2000).

**Learning Approaches and Their Importance for Media use in Teaching**

Generally learning is the appropriation of knowledge and skills or the process of committing something to memory. Thus, learning can be defined as a complex process of information processing, in which information is converted at the levels of ‘understanding’, ‘memorizing’ and ‘automating’ into meaningful and available knowledge and skills (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978). This also includes the process to gain -through experience, practice, study etc. - attitudes and behaviors that are determined by consciousness and awareness. Hence learning is only possible through the active participation of the learners. Learning is influenced by various factors, which initiate the learning process and have an effect upon it. Learning processes themselves are not directly observable, but are inferred from the permanent change of the behavior of the learners. The attempt to systematize the knowledge of learning, which refers to learning conditions and learning outcomes as well as to their cohesion, is the main subject of learning theories (Gudjons, 2008, p. 213).
Behaviorism Theory of Learning – Learning by Reinforcements

The word ‘behaviorism’ derives from the American word ‘behavior’. The theory determines an understanding of learning, in which the creation of a particular situation evokes specified predicted or desired behaviors by the learners. Behaviorism considers behavior and knowledge to be the result of reinforcing or punishing factors. The brain is regarded as an organ which reacts to which the creation of a particular situation evokes specified predicted or desired behaviors by the learners. Behaviorism considers learning to be achieved by the use of reinforcement principles. If this behavior can be observed, it should be followed by feedback to reinforce it. Thus, behaviorism proposes an objective perspective of the observable reactions of the learners, and emphasizes the control of behavior caused by external stimuli and reinforcements. With the use of media for lectures, the defined learning objectives should be achieved. The use of computers is justified by the fact that certain information and cue stimuli are presented, which create and induce the desired learning behavior.

In behaviorism, the use of digital media as a teaching tool is not justified through this theoretical position. Through the use of new media, in particular through the use of the Internet, defined learning objectives can be inadequately achieved because online research by a learner on the Internet will differ from the other learners and therefore will trigger different learning processes. Furthermore, a digital learning environment makes it difficult for teachers to evolve a deep relationship with the learners as in traditional face-to-face classrooms. Hence, online behaviorism is especially applicable when using educational software, such as drill and practice tutorials, to reward the learners “through an encouraging comment before moving on to the next learning objective” (Shield, 2000, p. 1).

Cognitivist Theory of Learning - Learning by Insights

In contrast to behaviorism, cognitivism is concerned with processes inside the learner. Generally speaking, cognitivism can be defined as follows: the processes by which an organism acquires knowledge of his environment, including perception, imagination, thinking, judgment or language. Knowledge is acquired through cognition (Edelmann, 2000, p. 114). An essential basis for the cognitivism theory is the assumption that learners are not impartial individuals, when faced with the learning situation. The pre-existing knowledge of learners is important for information processing, because any new knowledge is combined with the existing knowledge of the learners. Therefore, learning is determined through the personal aims, individual attitudes and prior knowledge of the learners. New knowledge arises from the synthesis of perception and existing knowledge structures (Edelmann, 1986, pp. 213-215; Fatke, 1991, pp. 299-301).

Thus, in cognitivism the learner is no longer considered as a passive recipient. Learning is a more active process, in which the learners receive information to adapt into their existing knowledge structure. The learners are not influenced by external stimuli but treat external stimuli actively and independently (Tulodziecki, 1996, p. 43). So the learner is like an acting, interactive recipient of mediated learning opportunities. Furthermore, cognitivism presumes that learners select incoming information, organize it as coherent mental representations and integrate it into existing representations (Mayer, 2001, p. 44-45). Therefore, multimedia presentations are particularly suitable for the transfer of knowledge. It can be taken for granted that the spoken word and appropriate visualizations are conducive to the learning process.

Constructivist Theory of Learning - Learning Through Personal Findings, Experiences and Interpretations

In constructivism it is assumed that reality is not an objective truth, but that learners construct their own subjective reality. The results of this learning process are a reality that can be considered as a subjective construct of learners (Merten & Schmidt, 1994, pp. 309-310, Coenen, 2001, p. 35; Schellmann et al., 2002, p. 32). In contrast to the transition from behaviorist to cognitivist approaches, the main focus of constructivism is not the subject matter, but rather the learners and their ways of actively dealing with information. So learning is considered as an active and constructive process that is always contextual and situational. As a result, sluggish and structured knowledge is prevented (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992, pp. 2-5).

Learning is no longer restricted to the pure reproduction of factual knowledge. It is expected of learners, that they are able to utilize what they have learnt in a flexible way. While doing this, learners determine for themselves what and how they learn, in the context of their own learning experiences. The knowledge is not easily transported, but rather individually constructed and considered as open, diverse and dependent on individual and social contexts (Gruber et al., 1995, p. 168). Constructivist teaching approaches aim to make possible active, self-directed and relevant self- motivated learning. In addition, the structure of various combinations and processes of understanding is supported. The learners as active learners develop, independently from the content and the presentation of the information, their own model of knowledge (Arzberger & Brehm, 1994, p. 33).

Hence, constructivism concentrates not on teaching, but on learning within specific learning environments. The everyday
knowledge, the preferred learning strategies and the individual knowledge of learners are the main point of learning theory analysis. Educational constructivism strategies for traditional classrooms are, for example, projects where the learners work on their own to discover themselves, or group projects which allow collaboration with other learners through interaction. “Cooperative learning, hands-on activities, discovery learning, differentiated instruction, technology, distributed practice, critical thinking, and manipulatives are elements that embrace the constructivist educational philosophy” (White-Clark et al., 2008, p. 41). Regarding this, the constructivist theory of learning in online education makes discovery learning and critical thinking exercises, through synchronous communication and collaboration, an immense learning experience for learners.

**Barriers to Online Teaching and Learning**

The literature is full of discussion regarding different types of barriers to online education, which can be categorized in various ways (Berge, 1998, Berge & Mrozowski, 1999, Pajo & Wallace, 2001, Barrett, 2002, Meyen & Yang, 2003, İşman & Dabaj, 2004). Communication obstacles can arise during the whole online education process, including in the design of the course, the development of course materials, organizing online collaborative working situations etc. For this study, the following types of barriers, which directly or indirectly affect communication, are seen as significant: technical, physical, cultural, emotional, gender and personal barriers. But firstly, to use new technologies for online teaching and learning, the necessary technical equipment must be provided. Adequate hardware and software as well as Internet connection are of great importance to prevent technical barriers. Furthermore, the lack of technical expertise among the teachers and the learners has to be addressed (Nkonge & Gueldenzoph, 2006).

Other issues with online education are a lack of access to teachers, and the time needed for learning online. Online courses provide a more comfortable teaching and learning environment but learners are more likely to be disturbed by noise and by others. Also, cultural barriers may be expressed in ethnicity, religion etc. This also refers to the variations in language for teaching or learning, accent, the use of different dialect, slang, jargon, colloquialism, acronyms and abbreviations. Furthermore, with a change from face-to-face communication to online communication, emotional barriers can be observed. This change in environmental conditions can result in an absence of emotional connection between teachers and learners, which can lead to feelings of isolation, fear and mistrust. Another significant challenge in online education can be defined as a gender barrier, which relates to a difference in the usage of technology between female and male teachers and learners. Additionally, personal feelings can be defined as barriers that influence the communication in online courses.

**Research Methods and Results**

In this study, one hundred students from the University of Celal Bayar, Manisa, Turkey were interviewed using (http://www.surveey.com/). The students are from the first and second grade of different departments. The students were chosen randomly and signed the consent form before answering the questions. The majority of the students (86%) were aged between 18 - 25. The gender ratio of the students was almost equal. The students involved in the survey are from different regions of Turkey. 70% of students do not work whereas 23% of students work either full-time or part-time. Regarding the teachers, semi-structured interviews were conducted with five female and five male teachers.

**How Often Students use Internet Applications and Media Tools**

20% of the learners use e-mail ‘very often’, and the majority of students use e-mail ‘fairly often’. One in three learners uses e-mail ‘rarely’. A surprising find is that 7% of the students have never used e-mail in their entire lives. One in three students uses web search engines very often. All learners have used a search engine at some point in their lives. Almost all of the learners (99%) use social networking services and video-sharing websites such as Facebook, Twitter and YouTube. Half of the learners state that they employ these media tools ‘very often’. One in three learners visits online discussion groups ‘fairly often’. One in ten learners never uses this kind of online media tool. There is an interesting point regarding this question; 23% of the learners say that they never use instant messaging sites such as ICQ, Skype etc., and half of the students state they are not interested in these sites. The majority of learners (75%) often use websites with download contents, for instance, YouTube, Instagram, Academia, and Google Scholar. One in three students declared that he or she never uses online-games websites. Having said that, two in three students do use online games. Half of the students do not use online banking. Only 6% say that they use online banking ‘very often’. One in three learners never uses online shopping websites. Half of the learners use some kind of online shopping site. One in ten says that they do online shopping very often.

When asked if learners can overcome computer related technical problems on their own, half of the learners say ‘yes’ to this question, the other half says ‘no’. Since learners are chosen randomly, regardless of their educational departments, it is assumed that those who answered positively are likely to be from the computer programming department. This could be established with further research. The majority of learners are capable of dealing with technical issues such as software problems, computer formatting and hardware problems. The learners from the computer programming department, claim that they manage to solve almost all their computer related problems.

In Turkey, online teaching and learning methods are both synchronous and asynchronous; both methods are used whenever online education is part of the higher education system (Yeniad, 2006, p. 74). One in three of the students finds the online teaching materials provided by their teachers satisfactory. More than two-thirds (74%) of learners are following every online class until it
According to learners, a teacher should be the one; (i) who can make a difference and has the ability to teach the lesson in the first place; (ii) whose capability can attract learners to the classes and who can make useful suggestions to the students (chosen as a second option); (iii) who is a leader (chosen as a third option).

According to learners, in order of importance, a learner should be the one, firstly (i) who can work as a collaborator with teachers’ teaching methods; (ii) who has the ability to learn when taught and to make necessary research whenever needed; (iii) who is an independent person and thinks all the time about the subject s/he is learning.

Two-thirds of learners agree that teachers and learners should work together and have equal involvement in the context of lectures and, teachers should make teaching materials available for use in the teaching session.

When asked about the form lectures should take, learners’ answers are as follows; the majority of learners (89%) believe that lectures should be made as interactive as possible, and that teachers should provide the teaching material actively during the class session. More than two-thirds (73%) of learners want the teacher to give homework, which learners can work through with their friends during online class sessions. Almost all learners (98%) agree that teachers should employ different teaching methods, using different teaching materials, during online class sessions.

Two-thirds (70%) of learners prefer a traditional in-class teaching environment, where the teacher and other fellow learners are present. More than half (52%) of the learners say that they would much rather do the classes face-to-face than online. Learners tend to listen more attentively to the teacher in a traditional class environment with their friends.

Difficulties and Barriers Encountered by Learners
The difficulties and barriers determined are mostly technical, cultural, background and communication related. Two-thirds (68%) of learners agree that technical barriers are the most common barriers among all the other possible barriers. The majority of the learners surveyed believe that they do not have sufficient computer skills (60%), Internet connection (about 66%), knowledge to deal with hardware problems, or the time required to get used to the online learning system (about 80%). They feel they may get panicked if something goes wrong during a lecture and they cannot get assistance to solve it (64%). Also, they are also influenced negatively by noise from others. Furthermore, they may not follow the lectures completely and could miss subjects, since there is no control over the pace of lecturing.

There are also cultural problems imposed by the society in which they live that influence how they use the Internet (cultural barriers: approximately 60%). Half of the learners believe that male learners are superior to females in the use of technology and that female learners encounter problems in communicating with male class mates. In addition, they feel concerned that their privacy is invaded somehow during on-line education (50%).

74% of learners would prefer conventional classes and would like to be able to make eye contact with the teacher and classmates (about 66%), being uncomfortable with the non-verbal communication. It is believed that online learning does not take individual requirements into account (50%). Either they do not understand the shorthand writing used by teachers or classmates from time to time (more than 50%), or they have difficulties in understanding either teachers or other learners, owing to local dialects or the way they speak (about 60%). Sometimes they do not have courage to ask questions (54%).

Difficulties and Barriers Encountered by Teachers
After having interviewed ten teachers on a face-to-face basis, problems similar to those experienced by the learners (technical, cultural, communicative) were determined. The problems experienced by the teachers during online learning could be summarized as follows.

Lack of Internet, computer, headphones and microphones as well as their compatibility with the whole system are the primary problems faced by the teachers. For example, one teacher shared this experience: “the apps worked smoothly in the previous lecture but failed to work in the next one due to updating problems”. Having special cameras and microphones are indispensable to prevent background noise from hindering communication. It is also apparent that there is a need for a quiet environment, isolated from outside noise. Not only outside noise but also noise in the room such as a ticking clock can be a problem.

Secondly, use of time seems to be another irritating problem. The time it takes to upload videos or slides, especially when it is done via the Internet is one problem. Answering each learner’s e-mail also consumes considerable time. And occasionally, either learners or their friends interrupt an on-going lecture, even though there is a notice outside indicating the class is in progress. Teachers feel awkward as they cannot build a thorough communication with the learners and cannot adjust the pace of the lecture to the learners’ needs, due to the lack of feedback from learners. While the teacher is reading one message they may miss one from another learner.
The third main area of problems is that of learner related problems. Teachers often complain about learners neglecting to check their emails related to classes, which causes poor learning, lecturing and teaching. Most of the time there are only 7-10 learners present out of 40 students attending the class. Since there is no ‘outside and auto’ control system learners mostly engage with other things which they may find more entertaining. Being in front of a screen, learners feel like watching TV and easily get bored of the lecture. Although each learner has a camera and a microphone, most do not participate in the lecture. In most cases, learners try to express their problems by writing. However this is insufficient most of the time. They usually try to send short messages and shorten or mistype words, which causes misunderstandings. Some learners do not have an efficient Internet connection so they cannot benefit from the lecture as expected. While teaching online, teachers often miss the written messages because they are looking into the camera. Learners cannot express themselves properly. Another disadvantage of this type of teaching is that learners cannot adopt the teacher as their role-model since they see each other so rarely.

Additionally, it is difficult for teachers to determine whether a subject is understood by the learners or not, because their gestures cannot be observed as well as they can be in a conventional class environment. While in a conventional class environment, students are more active and their questions are more sincere, compared to online learning. Learners cannot function properly for some subjects requiring oral input. Learners may not participate actively during the majority of e-lecture sessions because they are busy with other things. In some lectures, such as ‘introduction to communication’, which requires intense participation by learners, this may not happen during online lecturing. Teachers and learners often have the chance to communicate informally outside scheduled classes during traditional learning. However, this cannot be the case for online learning. Teachers also have the opportunity to observe and praise learners in traditional classes. During a traditional learning session, teachers and learners can get together in different environments at the university, such as in a café, canteen, or garden. In this situation, learners can socialize with both their teachers and their friends, whereas online education cannot provide such an opportunity.

**Conclusion**

The tremendous growth of online education has changed the traditional learning environment to learning in cyberspace. This environmental reversal has provoked psychologists, educators and also computer scientists to analyze the learners’ learning progress with new media. The main aim of this research is to find out communication barriers in online teaching and online learning with new media, considering teaching and learning theory approaches. To summarize, it can be said that the implication of technology in online education has postponed the theoretical balance from the learning theory of behaviorism and cognitivism, to constructivism. This is due to the fact that the use of educational technologies is increasing very rapidly and the gap between face-to-face communication and online education can be bridged through the use of new technologies. Even so, the results of this study suggest that due to the social nature of human beings and the traditional educational background of the learners, the traditional in-class teaching environment is preferred by learners. In this environment, teachers and other fellow learners are present and face-to-face interaction can take place. It was found that both teachers and learners appear to be in need of observing the other side’s gestures and behavior. In addition, technical and cultural barriers seem likely to remain problematic, for both teachers and learners. This situation is likely to change, as barriers are eliminated and both sides become more familiar with the system. Therefore further research will be needed to monitor and to improve the whole system in the future.

**References**


Comparative Study of Social Media, Television and Newspapers’ News Credibility

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Abstract
The advent of social media as a news platform and its patronage daily by people to know what is happening around them has elicited several comparative studies on the news credibility on social media, television and newspapers. This study conducted a comparative investigation of the news credibility of social media, television and newspapers. The study in its research design used both focus group discussion and the survey method. The researcher employed source effects model as the theoretical framework for the study. Findings of the research revealed that level of education and knowledge of internet have influence on the selection and believability of news by respondents. Likewise, most people rely on another media after their exposure to their preferred choice of media in order to authenticate the truthfulness of a news story. The study also revealed that those who placed television and newspaper news as higher on the credibility scale than the social media did so because news in the newspapers and on television are produced by well trained personnel and there are institutionalized ways of filtering news stories to ensure their accuracy and objectivity.

Introduction
Every day people receive information that is far more than they can possibly use. Information from the mass media, friends, books and lately the internet influences people in their decision making process and their perceptions of event and happenings around them. The mass media particularly has become an important organ through which people make meaning out of their lives, social activities and issues within the society.

People regularly stay glue to their television and radio set for information and flock the newspaper and magazine stands for same purpose. Even, in a situation where information is spread around in a society; it does not carry any iota of credibility until such information is confirmed by the media. For several decades, the mass media especially television, radio, newspaper and magazines has been a major source of information dissemination such that it assumed the pivotal role of the ‘fourth estate of the realm’ and also, a societal watchdog.

The news content of the media especially in developing countries like Nigeria where the government at both state and federal levels dominates ownership has been dogged by questions like whether the news content is accurate and true or a reflection of the government position. Similarly, the private media organizations do not fair better as market compulsions and profit making objectives raise such pertinent questions like whether the media should be accountable to private interests or the society. This has continued to generate controversies and arguments about the blurred distinctions between news and views, news and advertisements and propaganda and information. Also, profit motives and ownership often influence news managers to manipulate content (Bakshi and Mishra, 2010). This therefore makes the credibility of media content a concern especially with the mass of information that is available daily for consumption.

In recent years, new communication technology and the rise of the internet have opened up a new vista of information dissemination that has never been experienced before. It, especially the internet, has penetrated people’s daily lives in ways that hitherto are unimaginable. According to Fogg et al (2001), the growth of the internet since the 1980’s has been faster than the growth of any other communication medium. The emergence of a new medium often affects existing media (Liu, 2003) in several ways such as audience base, credibility and production process. The internet provides an alternative space for expression by citizens against the limited access provided by the mainstream media of television, radio and newspaper where length of freedom and space are determined by the government and/or ownership interest. The news media has transformed people from being passive and at the receiving end of one way mass communication to becoming producers and transmitters of information (Creeber and Martin, 2009; Bennett, 2003). With this phenomenon, the internet and the news media have assumed great importance and popularity in the society as people are free to create their own news comment on issues and get the other side of a story (Rosenstiel, 2005).

As the new media platforms assume an important source of information dissemination and expression of opinion, the level to which people place trust and credibility in both the mainstream media and the news media becomes an issue of concern and investigation. It is not all information that is useful and credible and this explains Griffin (2009)’s argument of source credibility as one of the three major ways through which speakers convince audience members.

Against this background therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate the perception of the news credibility of social media, television and newspapers.

Literature Review
Credibility
Kaufman et al (1999) explains that the credibility of the news sources is important to audience members. It is so because it plays a big role in the way the audience interprets and understands information. The study of media credibility is often approached from
two dimensions. These are medium credibility and source credibility. The source credibility dimension investigates the expertise and trustworthiness of the person who initiates the message or communication (Holland and Weiss, 1951; Kiousis, 2001; Seif, 1996). The medium credibility stream on the other hand evaluates the credibility of media channels the communicator uses in sending a message (Graziano and McGrath, 1986; Metzger, 2003). Burgoon, Burgoon, & Wilkinson (1981) point out that credibility is anchored on believability, trust and perceived reliability. Slater and Rouner (1996) argue that the perception of source credibility by audience can be influenced by the aesthetic and internal characteristics of messages. Similarly, Chartprasert (1993) contends that the writing style of a news source whether simplistic or complicated also influences credibility and perception. One major problem however in credibility research is the question of distinguishing between source, message and channel credibility.

Social Media
Social media are the various internet based applications that build on the technologies of web 2.0 which allows for the creation and exchange of user generated content. Pew Research (2010) reports that social network sites such as Facebook, YouTube, LinkedIn and Twitter are now some of the foremost online communication platforms. Bonds-Raacke and Raacke (2010) posit that gathering and sharing of information as well as maintaining and making friendships are some of the emerging dimensions of social media. Gangadharbatla (2012) in his study on social media using the survey method concludes that young adults are more likely to obtain their news information from social media more so than from the traditional media sources. Johnson and Kaye (1998) in their study of the usage of the internet for political information by individuals found that online media are more highly credible than traditional media. However, concerns and scepticism have been raised on the credibility of social media and online news content because of the questions of professionalism, anonymity of sender location, etc. (Hilingoss and Rieh, 2008; Fogg, 2003; Kiousis, 2001).

Another factor in the discussion of the credibility of news on social media is whether the definition of what is news on the mainstream media is the same as the concept of news on the social media. Also, does the news pass through the filtering (gatekeeping) process of the mainstream media and if it does, is there any platform of attributing the source of news to a particular person?

Television and Newspapers
Long before the appearance of the internet and the social media, there has always been the question of which of the two—newspapers or television—carries the higher level of credibility. The various credibility studies conducted by Roper Institute up till about 1961 saw the newspaper as more credible than other forms of mass media (Self, 1996).

Similarly, Wesley and Severin (1964), using demography and psychographics as parameters argue that literate people prefer newspapers while television appeals to those who read less and radio is for people in farmlands. Newhagen and Nass (1989) using the survey research method in their study concluded that audiences rate television news higher on the scale of credibility than newspapers. They based their argument on the fact that respondents in the study rated news credibility on television higher because the news presenters on television are familiar and could be identified while newspapers are a faceless, unchanging structure that does not permit individual variation. Carter and Greenberg (1966) postulate that television is more believable when it comes to conflicting news but describe newspapers to be more dependable. Gaziano and McGrath (1986) in their findings concluded that people’s stands on newspaper and television credibility were related to their attitudes toward press freedom. Schweiger (2000) asserts that both internet and non-internet users rated the credibility of newspaper news and the news on the internet to be similar.

The theoretical framework for this study will be situated within the Source Effects Model with particular focus on the source credibility strand of the model. The source effect models “…posit that certain perceived characteristics of a communication source may have a positive effect on the audience’s reception to the conveyed message” (Erdogan 1999: 297). The source credibility strand of source effect models explains that the acceptance and favourable response to a message depends on the perception the audience have about the expertise, trustworthiness and knowledge of the source (O’ Mahony and Meenaghan, 1988; Erdogan, 1999). It is also about the communicator’s positive characteristics that can influence the receiver’s acceptance of a message (Ohanian, 1990). Goldsmith, Lafferty & Newell (2000:16) argue that source credibility is the “extent to which the source is perceived as possessing expertise relevant to the communication topic and can be trusted to give an objective opinion on the subject”. Hovland and Weiss (1951) confirmed that the “credibility” of a communicator reflects the public perception of the communicator’s fairness and factualness.

Research Questions
The following research questions will guide this study;
RQ1: What type of news media—television, newspaper and social media—is the most credible?
RQ2: Is there a relationship between demographic antecedents and news credibility?
RQ 3: What are the criteria for evaluating news credibility?

Methodology
This paper has as its objective to comparatively investigate social media, television and newspaper news credibility. The study
therefore used the triangulation method by employing focus group discussion and survey methods in its research design. For
the focus group discussion, three sessions were conducted with the sample population drawn from the students’ population of
Plateau State University through the purposive sampling technique. A total number of 24 students participated in the focus group
discussion.

Questionnaires were administered to 100 respondents for the survey component of the study. Respondents for the study were
selected through simple random sampling technique and the population comprised of academic staff of Plateau State University,
Journalists and readers at newspaper vendor’s stand. For the analysis, the data collected from the field survey were analyzed
using the simple percentage. The return rate of questionnaire administered was 100% as all the respondents duly completed their
questionnaire and returned the same.

Results
The researcher conducted three sessions of focus group discussion with each session having 8 participants. All the participants
for the three sessions are students of Plateau State University. Morgan (1998) argues that focus groups are characterized by the
explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without interaction found in a group.
Participants were initially asked about their understanding of credibility and their responses tallied with the operational definition
given by the researcher for the study which is the extent to which a receiver sees the source as having relevant knowledge, skills,
experience and trust to give unbiased and objective information. The following questions were developed to serve as a guide for
the discussions:
Do you listen, read or watch news?
What is the frequency of carrying out the action in question 1
Do you have easy access to the mainstream and online media?
On what media platform do you access your news?
Of radio, television and online news, which one do you prefer?
After your first exposure to news from your media choice, do you still rely on another media platform for authentication or
verification of the story?

All the 24 participants in the three FGDs conducted agreed they all expose themselves to news media at different times of the
day. They also responded that because of their academic activities, they spend less time watching television, listening to radio or
reading newspaper. Rather, they access most of their news on their mobile handsets connected to the internet.
82% of the respondents in the three groups were of the opinion that news on the social media and the internet are more credible
than those sourced from the mainstream media. They said unlike the mainstream media, the internet provides links through which
any information received that is in doubt can further be verified. A hyperlink according to 82% of the respondents is not only to
display another document but actually helps in ascertaining the veracity of a story. When the contents of various pages opened
share similarity with the initial story, the truthfulness of the story is not in doubt. 18% however think news from the mainstream
media is higher in credibility because the gathering, processing and dissemination of the news involve professional who will not
like to jeopardize their image and social acceptance. They were also of the opinion that news on the mainstream media is more
trustworthy and credible because there are ethical guidelines that guide their operation unlike the social media platform where
anybody without organization or industry instituted restraints can publish anything.
83% of the discussants in the three sessions accepted that the news accessed most of the time on the mainstream media largely
reflect the elite and the ruling class and very often, the news is slanted to tow the line of the owner of such news organization.
However, the social media and the internet offer a participatory platform where contributors of news are not obliged or restrained
by any ideological or economic underpinnings.

In summary, the participants obviously because they are of the younger generation and more in tune with information technology
prefer news on the social media and the internet to the mainstream media.

Survey
100 questionnaires were administered to respondents that included practicing journalists, academic staff of Plateau State
University and readers at newspapers vendors’ stand. All the questionnaires distributed were completed and returned which made
the return rate of the questionnaire to be 100%. The average age of respondents for the survey component of the study based on
the data collected from the field is 35 years and 25% of the sample population are female while the remaining 75% are male.
Table 1: Comparison of News Credibility on Television, Newspaper and Social media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>I disagree %</th>
<th>I do not agree or disagree %</th>
<th>I agree %</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Television news is more credible than other media source</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper news is more credible than other media source</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social media news is more credible than other media source</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field work, 2015

According to this data results from the survey, 45% of respondents believe news on television is more credible than other media source. They attributed this to the fact that news on television are often accompanied with video which makes such news believable. According to respondents, news on television are more trustworthy because most often, people that are involved in a particular issue are invited and before the public view allowed to state their positions. 41% agreed that newspaper news is credible. They attributed their responses to the fact that newspaper reporters are well trained and they have an institutionalized way of determining and verifying news before publication. Another reason is that newspapers separate for their readers facts from opinion hence such page like “opinion page” and also identify the source of a story through attribution. 30% do not agree or disagree on whether newspaper news is more credible. However, 29% disagree and based their responses on the reason that news content on newspaper sometimes does not reflect reality as the influence of the owner or the ideology standpoint of a newspaper organization could influence how news is reported thus questioning the concept of objectivity.

39% of respondents agreed that news on social media is more credible. They based their response on the reason that most of the news on the social media are news that have already been disseminated on the traditional media hence, there is no much difference. They argued that social media provides a platform for people to express their opinion on issue that has already been disseminated by the mainstream media in which the latter may not have provided or bring to the public all the angle to such issue. Social media therefore provide a space for people to discuss exhaustively on the issue and through that, verify the authenticity of the news. 29% of the respondents however do not agree that social media news is credible.

To them, verification of news and source is difficult on the social media. The news does not pass through any institutional filtering mechanism and most of the people that post news on the social media are not trained for such purpose. One interesting observation from respondents is that all the respondents that disagree with the credibility of social media news are not computer literate and does not use their phone for social media activities like chatting on Facebook even though their phones have the facilities.

Table 2: Media platform on which respondents access news

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Television %</th>
<th>Newspaper %</th>
<th>Social Media %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondents</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field work, 2015

From the data analyzed all the respondents’ access news from television and newspapers. They all agreed that one of the two media served as their first point of accessing the news while the second serve as a platform for confirming what was reported in the first. They said that when the news reported on their first media choice is reported by their second media choice, it indicates that the news item is credible. 39% percent of the respondents however access news from the social media. 95% percent of respondents that access news from the social media are academic staff which shows that literacy and knowledge of the internet are
factors that influence news credibility.

**Conclusion**

This study revealed that young adults exposed themselves more to news on the social media and as such rate news credibility on social media higher. The participatory and hyperlink features of the social media allows for people to investigate and confirm the authenticity of news. The study also concluded that level of education and knowledge of internet influence the choice of media and ultimately, how credibility of news is rated. The researcher also concluded that findings support O’Mahony and Meenagh(1988) and Erdogan (1999)”s assertion that acceptance and a favourable response to a message depends on the perception audience have about the trustworthiness of the source. Similarly, comparing news credibility between newspaper, television and social media is influenced by the credibility is influenced by the public perception of the news platform’s fairness and factualness.

**Reference:**


Perspectives on Source, Message, and Media Credibility in the Contemporary Media Environment. Communication Yearbook, 27, 293-336


Congressional Communication Managers’
Roles, Motivations and Messages Related to U.S. Foreign Policy

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Abstract
This analysis provides a broad overview of the roles, motivations and messages of the United States Congress’ 500+ press secretaries/communications managers employed by virtually every U.S. senator and representative. It focuses, in particular and for the first time, on their communications related to U.S. foreign (as opposed to domestic) policies. Doing so it summarizes select findings from a book the author has written, the prospectus for which is under review, with the title, Press Secretary: The Story of Capitol Hill’s Image Makers.

The analysis reports the press secretaries build close relationships with the Members of Congress they faithfully serve; function best when practicing the Two-Way Symmetrical Model of public relations; use common persuasive techniques employed by public relations specialists worldwide; stress “truthfulness” in their communications; practice a “wave model” when choosing issues on which to focus; experience new media’s challenges and opportunities; and suggests their work ultimately serves the U.S. democracy.

The politician will be only too happy to abdicate in favor of his image, because the image will be much more powerful than he could ever be.

- Marshall McLuhan

Introduction
In the introduction to Fox and Hammond’s book, Congressional Staffs, published nearly four decades ago, former Senator Dick Clark wrote: “Dependency on (U.S. congressional) staff is great. Domination, no. Dependency, definitely. There is no question of their enormous dependency and their influence. In all legislation, they’re the ones that lay out the options.” Roland Evans, in the same introduction, wrote: “Of all the sources of power in Washington today, the most nearly invisible--yet in some ways the most influential--is the congressional staff. A staff of professionals is no less essential to the care, feeding and orderly operation of Congress than Merlin was to King Arthur or Cardinal Richlieu to Louis XII.”

Capitol Hill’s press secretaries--found in virtually every one of the 435 U.S. Representatives’ and U.S. 100 Senators’ offices--are indispensable players on Congressional staffs. They are responsible for external communications, about both domestic and foreign policies, emanating constantly from the congressional office. In today’s new media environment, via on-line technologies, their messages can immediately reach the farthest corners of our shrinking “global village.”

Few in the United States (and fewer across the world) realize the press secretaries work full-time, meticulously crafting and delivering a politician’s image. Their jobs, at their most basic level, are to make their boss “look good” before local, regional, national and, increasingly, international audiences. For good or ill, the United States’ functioning and its place as the world’s super power depends, at least in part, upon their behind-the-scenes work. Simply put: their words and images can angle world opinions about the United States. Members of the U.S. This analysis, based on several data sets noted in the next section, highlights select findings, exclusive insights, that speak to the press secretaries’ roles, motivations, and techniques--not from the perspective of a U.S. based audience per se but, for the first time, with an international audience in mind. Thus, the analysis, for the first time, considers primarily these individuals’ influence on U.S. foreign (as opposed to U.S. domestic) positions.

Methodology
It’s interesting you mention that you found only 50 pages or so that discuss the press secretaries…. That’s because we’re really doing our jobs. The better job I do, the less you’ll see my name or my face.

- 33 year-old press secretary with five years experience


This analysis’ findings come from ten studies its author has presented/published since Cook and Hess published their important works. A bibliography of these studies appears at the end of this paper. Following is a list of the research/data gathering
procedures the author utilized between 1993 and 2014 to uncover, through the aforementioned studies and for the first time, an in-depth understanding of the roles, motivations and practices of Congress’ press secretaries. The earlier studies were built primarily from data gathered from telephone and in-person interviews, a focus group, and two surveys. The latter were built primarily from data gathered from telephone and in-person interviews with the press secretaries. All drew additional information from secondary sources.

(1) 1993  First phone interviews with practicing press secretaries
(2) 1994  First focus group with current and former press secretaries
(3) 1994  First large-scale survey of practicing press secretaries
(4) 1996  First in-person interviews with practicing press secretaries
(5) 1997  Second large-scale survey of practicing press secretaries
(6) 2003  First in-person interviews with practicing state legislative aides who play the role of press secretaries for state governments
(7) 2003  First survey of practicing state legislative aides who play the role of press secretaries for state governments
(8) 2004  First survey of practicing governors’ press secretaries
(9) 2008  Second in-person interviews with practicing state legislative aides who play the role of press secretaries for state governments
(10) 2009  Second large-scale survey of practicing state legislative aides who play the role of press secretaries at the state-level
(11) 2009  Second survey of practicing state legislative aides who play the role of press secretaries at the state-level
(12) 2010  First in-depth, in person, interview with a former press secretary
(13) 2012  First historical analysis of the press secretaries from a humanities perspective
(14) 2011  Second phone interviews with practicing press secretaries
(15) 2011  Second historical analysis of the press secretaries from a humanities perspective
(16) 2012  Second in-depth, in person, interview with a former press secretary
(17) 2013  Third phone interviews with practicing press secretaries
(18) 2014  First content analysis of Congressional websites
(19) 2014  First content analysis of Congressional directories and related documents
(20) 2014  Third in-depth, in person, interview with a former press secretary
(21) 2014  Second in-person interviews with practicing press secretaries
(22) 2014  Fourth phone interviews with practicing press secretaries
(23) 2014  Third in-person interviews with practicing press secretaries
(24) 2014  Fourth in-depth, in person, interview with a former press secretary

Each analysis above--and consequently each of the ten papers/presentations--was built on the previous one/s. The result has been a growing, often seamless, in-depth exploration of the press secretaries’ roles, goals and motivations. These analyses have deeply informed a 390-page book the author has written titled, Congressional Press Secretary: The Story of Capitol Hill’s Image Makers. Its prospectus is under review by potential publishers.

Findings
Relationships with Members of Congress

I have to consider, about every other day on my job, that I work for someone who’s been elected to office--who the people have put a trust in. Moreover, that someone is working for a federal government that, for better or worse, is the government that has been established by the people and our Constitution. And, uhh, it’s a weighty responsibility.…

-32 year-old Congressional press secretary

Rebecca Riffkin, writing for the Gallup organization only five months ago (December 2014) noted, “Americans’ job approval rating for Congress averaged 15% in 2014, close to the record-low yearly average of 14% found last year. The highest yearly average was measured in 2001, at 56%. Yearly averages haven’t exceeded 20% in the past five years, as well as in six of the past seven years.”

Despite these grim statistics indicating such low regard for the institution of which they are a part, the press secretaries share intense, deep, meaningful, long-term relationships with the Member of Congress they faithfully serve. They draw on the trust inherent in this relationship in their roles as Members’ unabashed promoters and most fierce advocates--and, to varying degrees, as their confidants, emotional supporters, sounding boards, and even teachers. They unabashedly advocate for the Members of Congress (hereafter, “Members”) they serve. And remain ever loyal to them. Most hold this person in high esteem. The vast
majority believes their boss has virtue, a commendable code of conduct, and is an admirable person. Their boss’ image—whether on display in a local news interview or broadcast worldwide—is seldom uninfluenced by, and is often shaped significantly by, the Member’s press secretary. Whether managing communication about issues ranging from the “very local” (such as those related to farm subsidies or tax breaks for small businesses) to the “very international” (such as those related to military intervention or foreign aide), it is important to always remember any power the press secretaries have comes only from their attachment to the Member of Congress they serve.

Relationships with Traditional Media

Although we’re in the age of blogging and social media, being featured in the traditional media (TV, print and radio) is still tremendously important. In many ways it’s even more important than it was a decade ago. The recognition factor that traditional media offers is immense. Most consumers will be able to recognize and identify popular newspapers, magazines or TV station much more readily than then will the most popular blogs. The traditional media have built credible brands that carry weight, influence and credibility.

- Anthony Mora

The Two-Way Symmetrical Model

Good press secretaries, public relations theory tells us, would build solid relationships with reporters through “conversing with” rather than “talking at” them—regardless of whether a reporter works for the local college radio station or an international media outlet such as the British Broadcasting Corporation. The most effective press secretaries tend to listen to the journalists; they seek compromise when necessary; and they strive for mutually beneficial outcomes. In other words, many of the best press secretaries practice the “Two-Way Symmetrical” model of public relations scholars tell us often works best. The advantage of practicing this model over others is referenced throughout James Grunig’s seminal book, Public Relations and Communication Management (1992). Its pluses and prominence are also referenced and countless peer-reviewed articles.

The Essential Role as Spokesperson

Whether a U.S. senator (of which there are 100--two in each of the 50 states) or U.S. House representative (of which there are 435--one for roughly every 700,000 constituents in a congressional district) hundreds of individuals want that politician’s time and attention. Chief among them traditional reporters. Since it is impossible for Members of the Senate and of the House to speak with all these people, their press secretaries often serve as their spokespersons. In this role, whether addressing local or international journalists, the press secretaries must be “right-up-to-the-date” on their boss’s political positions—particularly as an issue comes to fruition, is compromised upon, and is finalized for a vote.

While communicating about a Member’s decisions, both mundane and grave, Congress’ press secretaries dutifully go about their jobs amid the ebbs and flows of the nation’s political communications emanating from Capitol Hill and reaching the corners of the globe. It is no surprise, therefore, that most press secretaries have an extensive breadth of knowledge of events ranging from those involving a prominent business in their boss’ district to those taking place across the globe—such as those defending a vote “for” or “against” going to war.

And what is life like on Capitol Hill? In a word: fast. Behind the headlines on any given day in the nation’s capital there are a thousand sub-plots taking form: the Member of Congress and her staff working at breakneck pace to prepare a bill to reform Federal education programs; a last minute compromise to pass a key piece of legislation; a House member positioning himself for a run for even higher office; a reporter about to break a big story about a new scandal. The environment is continually changing, and the confluence of national politics, local interests, ambitions, and personal agendas creates a sense of constant flux and excitement.

- Vault, Career Intelligence

In a five-minute period, press secretaries may promote how their boss found a lost social security payment for single constituent and, a couple minutes later, about why their boss supported sanctions against a foreign government.

Always (Always) Truthful

Regardless of the gravity, breadth, depth, or geographical considerations related to the issues press secretaries address, honesty and truthfulness, when it comes to their communications with reporters and others, remains paramount. A consistent theme across the author’s interviews between 1992 and 2014—regardless of whether the issue under discussion was the most mundane of local issues or the most profound with worldwide implications—was press secretaries’ stressing they must not lie. The following quotations (in which the names were changed) taken from interviews the author conducted in the late 1990’s would be just as readily be spoken by today’s press secretaries: Jonathan said, “You just simply cannot lie to a reporter. I’ve seen people do it for short-term gain and it turns out to be a disaster. You never win a reporter’s trust again.” Charlie said, “Look, you’re only as good as your last phone call… The first rule that any press secretary has to learn, regardless, is two words: never lie. Period.” And
Denise, said “Be honest, be direct, never be deceitful, or never lie to a reporter.”

The “Wave”
How do press secretaries determine which issues (here, international ones)—ranging from those involving everything from Mexican immigration, to the changing Chinese economy, to worldwide cyber-threats—to focus their attention on? By jumping on and off “waves”....

A “wave,” as described by the press secretaries, represents one of many political issues, either foreign or domestic, on which a press secretary can focus. When these issues, these “waves,” come before the public—that is, when they are “in the news”—Members do something: They “ride” waves when doing so serves their interest and avoid riding waves that might hurt. Thus a member on the U.S. Senate Committee on Foreign Relations or the U.S. House Committee on Foreign Affairs might more likely “jump” on international issues (waves) more quickly than one whose focus (or committee assignments) dealt primarily with domestic issues.

The majority of Members (and, thus, the majority of press secretaries) pay attention to those issues (those “waves”) on the front burner of American’s consciousness. In regard to international issues, for example, in recent times most press secretaries had to be sure they were generally familiar with the pros and cons (as well as their boss’ positions) on issues related to U.S. Secretary of State John Kerry’s visit to Somalia; President Obama’s work in the Middle East; U.S.-Japan relationships; nuclear agreements; U.S. warships in foreign ports; et al. Conversely, they might ignore other international issues (“waves”) with life and death consequences (such as those related of global genocides or famines) which are not on the news agenda.

Five Persuasive Techniques
Following are five persuasive techniques many press secretaries use to convince audiences across the U.S.—and across the globe—that the Member they serve has made the right decision. They are surprisingly simple practices to understand. And easy to use. They make their way not only into conversations the press secretaries have with reporters and others, but also into the materials they create, ranging from news releases to speeches. It is important to point out, however, that persuasive/rhetorical techniques (such as those discussed next) are sometimes culturally specific. Thus they may need to be modified or even ignored when utilized for audiences for select global audiences.

Tactic 1: Succinct Explanations: Press secretaries favor brief explanations. Thousands of journalists across the developed and developing world are busy and work on deadline. Few have time to waste. And these journalists, regardless of their home country, are seldom scholars, lawyers, or historians in need of deep analyses. Knowing this, good press secretaries can—on the telephone, in an email, in a text, via Skype or other online channels, as well as in most types of promotional materials—succinctly explain, in a few seconds, a complicated decision the Member has made.

Tactic 2: Hooks: Press secretaries often have at least one news “hook” to entice whoever they are trying to convince of there boss’s thinking. “Hooks” are an angles, catch phrases, enticements. They get reporters’ (and others’) attention. Oftentimes, if a traditional reporter is not interested in a story—no matter how remarkable, dire or meaningful that story might be in the press secretary’s eyes—it will seldom be covered. Thus, that reporter must sometimes be “hooked in.”

Tactic 3: Talking Points: Press secretaries use “talking points” to persuade reporters to buy into what those press secretaries want us to buy into. Generally speaking, these are carefully constructed words or brief phrases, seldom longer than a sentence, that sound good to audiences. And thus move audience members toward the Member’s way of thinking. Most are succinct (as a general rule, the fewer words the better); catchy (thus getting people’s attention); easy to remember (through, for instance, offering a memorable statistic); and often stated shortly after the start of the interview (to assure they get into the conversation).

Tactic 4: Catch Phrases: Press secretaries use phrases we will remember; that is, phrases that “catch” our attention. Like talking points, catch phrases are easy to remember. What differentiates them from talking points, however, is that they are more striking, more dramatic, more spectacular than talking points.

Tactic 5: Euphemisms: Press secretaries also carefully choose euphemisms to replace more harsh, less acceptable, or otherwise upsetting phrases. To illustrate how euphemisms are used, assume a press secretary is listening to her boss being interviewed by a prominent journalist. In turn, she hopes the Member will use neutral phrases or different words—that is, preferred euphemisms—in order to make otherwise tasteless phrases or concepts palatable, unpleasant ones amiable, unfriendly ones approachable, or ones evoking upsetting imagery more neutral. Euphemisms, perhaps more so than the previous four techniques, are especially culturally sensitive largely because of words/word usages varies among even relatively similar cultures.

Alan Harrington summarized well the justifications for using these techniques when he wrote, “Public relations specialists make flower arrangements of the facts, placing them so that the wilted and less attractive petals are hidden by sturdy blooms....”

New Media and New Choices
The rapid adoption and diffusion of new (i.e., social/digital/alternative/emerging) media communication channels have blasted
open the world’s doors—within and among nations—opening the way for unfiltered, targeted communications across the globe.

The following excerpt from the author’s book’s manuscript sheds light on the profound changes that have shaken the press secretaries’ worlds, both locally and internationally:

The 21st century on Capitol Hill has seen rapid changes in Internet-based and other computer applications. These have—immensely, incredibly, and immediately—shaken the worlds of Congress’ press secretaries: The blog search engine Technorati available to any press secretary currently tracks over 14 million blogs. iPhones do what cameras did, and iPods do what radios did. “Google” is the name of one of the world’s leading corporations as well as a verb. Press secretaries’ business cards displaying their name, the Member’s name, and their office’s phone and fax numbers, could soon (and might already) also show their IDs for LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter, personal and workplace blogs, friendfeed.com, del.icio.us, etc.… Internet journalism anyone? No doubt, new media have brought forth a new message-sharing paradigm through which the press secretaries send and receive messages—written, spoken and viewed.

In a new media environment the role of traditional journalists across much of the world has been weakened. No longer do the press secretaries always “need” journalists to tell their stories. Using tools such as blogs, tweets, and instant messages, today’s press secretaries can bypass traditional journalists all together—instantly sending messages across to the person sitting next to them—or to the other side of the world—while skipping over traditional journalists. No doubt, the role professional/traditional journalists have played roles as the gatekeepers of information to the public have been altered dramatically.

This does not suggest, however, that traditional journalist do not remain the primary audience for many, perhaps most, press secretaries. Both “new media” and “old media” are always both on the press secretaries’ radar screens. Often in partnership. The most prominent international reporter is still important for today’s press secretaries…albeit probably not as important.

The “Digital Divide”

Many cringe when they realize that, while new Internet technologies allow “the world” to keep a close eye on Member’s of Congress, vast portions of that world are left behind. A discussion of the global impact of the press secretaries’ work would be incomplete without mention of the disparities present in the ever-broadening “digital divide” between the globe’s “information rich” (with access and the ability to use new media) and its “information poor” (without such access or abilities). And the economic and social inequalities that have resulted. Simply put: millions of people across the planet now have the chance, via the Internet, to access the press secretaries’ messages. And millions of others—who do not have access to such the technology or lack the skills to use those technologies (such as literacy)—never will. Neither the author’s research nor others of which the author is aware has suggested viable avenues through which the press secretaries might address this divide—only that it’s present. And pervasive. And growing.

Other Questions and Answers

With this analysis’ goal of providing a kaleidoscopic view of the press secretaries’ work and influence, yet cognizant of space limitations for an article such as this, following are a series of brief questions-and-answers. These will broaden further readers’ understanding of the press secretaries worlds, particularly international communicators.

How much expertise/background do today’s press secretaries have in international affairs?: Most press secretaries are formally educated with at least a bachelor’s degree. About a quarter have graduate degrees. The vast majority are in their late 20s and 30s. There is no requirement that a press secretary formally study international issues. Only a select few have academic degrees focusing on international issues and only a small number have taken coursework in international relations. Within the Member’s office, however, legislative staff specializing in foreign affairs and, thus, serve as resources for the press secretaries on global issues.

Do press secretaries promote positions—such as those to support a controversial foreign leader—in which they, personally, do not believe?: With few exceptions, press secretaries put aside their personal views and, in turn, promote those views—unabashedly—of the Member they serve. Most, however, are very much “in sync” with their boss’ views, especially on the major or highly controversial issues of the day. It would be highly unusual, for example, for a press secretary who personally supports Israeli Prime Minister, Benjamin Netanyahu, to work for a Member on the other side in the Israeli/Palestinian conflict.

What do the press secretaries think of the concept of “spinning” messages—especially via the Internet’s ability spread messages to an increasingly global audience?: Press secretaries readily concede they are often labeled “spin doctors.” In the words of one, “that’s just how it is.” Many would prefer, however, to be thought of not as “spin doctors” but instead as, say, “providers of necessary, imperative information that is required for an informed—and hence a healthy democracy.” This applies equally whether the press secretary is discussing international or domestic issues.

How rapidly are the press secretaries integrating on-line and new/social/alternative media into their work?: Many U.S. and globally-based companies, international NGOs, and other entities have adopted new technologies much faster than may congressional offices. Since each press secretary’s office is an independent employer, the speed, focus and sophistication with
which any office, and thus any press secretary, is adopting these media varies significantly among offices. What is clear among all of today’s press secretaries, however, is that new media are profoundly changing what it means to “communicate from Capitol Hill” with the ability to do instantly with audiences “across the globe.”

Discussion

Good for Democracy?

Information is the currency of democracy.

- Thomas Jefferson

Is press secretaries’ work—pejoratively, as mentioned, labeled the work of “spin doctors”—good for democracy? While the answer has no consensus, consider the following: Democracy (here, the U.S. democracy) is well-served when a fair-minded reporter consults a press secretary who vigorously shares his or her boss’s position with that reporter. If, after listening to the press secretary, the reporter in turn seeks out an opposing source of information and considers carefully that opposing view prior to producing a story, this “balancing act” produces as fair and balanced a story as possible. And democracy is likely well served.

Imperfect as such a scenario is, and complicated by the rise of citizen journalists, if both press secretaries do their jobs well (that is, if they vigorously advocate for their boss) and if reporters do their jobs well (that is, seek out opposing points-of-view and produce balanced stories absent their personal biases), messages shared with the citizenry have verity, a nation is well served, and democracy’s mechanism can work effectively—thanks, in part, to the information provided by Capitol Hill’s “spin doctors”?

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Appendix


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Creating Meaning through Interpretations: A Mise-En-Scene Analysis of the Film
‘The Song of Sparrows’

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Abstract
Cinema is a mass medium and it stimulates experiences in its pursuit to put across ideas and perceptions (Acker, 1991). Filmmakers adopt different ways to transfer their thoughts and perceptions to the audience. Elements like décor, lighting, space, costumes and acting, which can be collectively referred to as mise-en-scene, play a crucial role in creating mood and meaning to the shots (Barsam and Monahan, 2010). Specific scenes from the Iranian film ‘The Song of Sparrows’ are identified to discuss each of the five elements and their importance in the storyline and its possible effects on the audience are analyzed using content analysis. The paper concludes that meanings can be created through the interpretation of these five mise-en-scene elements. A close observation and analysis of these elements in the film could lead to a much enhanced film-watching experience.

Keywords: Film, Mise-en-scene Analysis, Majid Majidi, Content Analysis

Introduction
In Cinematic terms, mise-en-scene can be referred to as all the elements of a film that we see in front of the camera and the way it is arranged (Bordewell and Thompson, 2003). Those elements, which include décor, lighting, space, costumes and acting, have an important role in imparting a mood to the story and delivering a meaning to the visuals, thus playing a crucial role in signifying the director’s narrative mastery. It involves visual composition, the movement and position of on-screen actors and the properties set as part of stage design (Barsam and Monahan, 2010). Expressionist films like ‘The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari’ employed mise-en-scene to good effect, both stylistically and ideologically, to convey a certain message to the audience. The sets, lighting, acting, costumes and make up were all done in a particular manner to generate a sense of horror and thrill.

The set and the way it is designed play a crucial role in creating a mood, interpreting the visuals, and providing an aesthetic appeal to the shots. There are several instances where the set designers had control over all the visual aspects of the particular film. An example of this is Victor Fleming’s ‘Gone with the Wind’, where production designer William Cameron Menzies played an important role in the overall look of the film (Ward, 1994). The props, which are a part of the set design, also have a specific role to play in terms of lending meaning to the visuals.

The key aspect of lighting is to focus on imparting moods and meaning to the scenes. The amount of light used to frame a subject or light up a room and the direction of the source from which the light appears can all denote a particular meaning and interpretation to the overall content of the scene. Variations in lighting is used to show change in time during the day or night and even to symbolize the character’s mindset at a given juncture. Low-key lighting is often used to create strong contrasts and shadows in horrors and thrillers while high-key lighting would suit musicals and comedies that call for a brighter setting.

The mood of the scene or the characters in it can be explained by analyzing the placement of subject and the amount of space in the frame. The space can be open or closed (Monaco, 2009), negative or positive (Cassidy, 2013), deep or shallow, and offscreen or frontal (Pierson, 2010). The use of costumes also deems extreme importance not just in defining characters but also as indispensable elements in the narrative (Bruzzi, 1997).

The colour, texture and even the detailing of the costumes would be decisive in characterization and narrative style. Discussion of culture, perspectives and ideologies within narratives is also a possibility with a clear and apt marking of costumes.

Another mise-en-scene element, acting, is a key aspect in the creative success of a film. The effectiveness of the actor’s portrayal of actions and emotions determines the audience connectivity with the mood and feel of the film (Pierson, 2010). The best scenario is where the audience is able to connect themselves with the characters and thereby easily being able to read their performances better. The act could be a failure if the performance is not convincing or believable (Sanford, 1987).

Majid Majidi is an internationally acclaimed Iranian filmmaker, whose films have enthralled both the Iranian and the Western audience equally. Some of his critically acclaimed works are ‘Children of Heaven’ (1997), ‘The Colour of Paradise’ (1999), ‘Baran’ (2001), and ‘The Song of Sparrows’ (2008). Almost all his films have a universal theme, thus enabling the international audience to relate themselves to the content better. Majidi’s ‘Children of Heaven’ was the first Iranian film to receive an Academy Award nomination. With a neo-realist approach, Majidi most often narrates the life of the middle-class Iranian and their struggles, though mostly as a sub-theme.

Majidi, along with other neo-realist Iranian directors like Abbas Kiarostami and Jafar Panahi, is often recalled for his
imaginative mise-en-scene approaches in his films. Majidi, however, manages to make his visuals more engaging and presents the audience a greater sense of belonging with his close shots and point-of-view narrative styles. Many of the mise-en-scene elements and the way they are effectively used can be clearly identified in most of his films. This approach helps to create perceptions among the audience, thus helping them create their own perspectives about key concepts that are discussed within the film (The Film Sufi, 2010).

Mise-En-Scene In Films

The use of mise-en-scene has a serious effect on the reading of the film. It can be extended to the whole film rather than a selection of scenes in order to create a feel from start to finish (Moura, 2014). For instance, the use of mise-en-scene in ‘The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari’ was to generate an effect of thrill and horror, whereas mise-en-elements could also be adopted to convey certain ideas or messages. Hodsdon (1992) explains that an inner meaning is generated through the tension between the film and its director’s personality. He feels mise-en-scene is neither the director’s vision of the world nor his outlook about life.

The way in which the mise-en-scene elements are treated in a movie gains considerable significance. Renowned French film critic Andre Bazin, in his essay ‘De Sica: Matteur en Scene’, has briefly compared how Vittorio De Sica’s mise-en-scene differs from Roberto Rossellini’s mise-en-scene through their films’ Bicycle Thieves’ and ‘Rome, Open City’. Bazin’s essay reveals how De Sica’s films generate a deeper sense of understanding among the audience through the adaption of techniques like these (Snyder and Curle, 2000).

Mise-en-scene involves a combination of what the audience views on screen as it is and the way they are invited to view it (Gibbs, 2002). It is all about the means of communication in the film and the ways in which they work out an expressive narrative pattern. Gibbs explains this through an example of lighting being used as an effective mise-en-scene technique in Alfred Hitchcock’s 1946 film ‘Notorious’. With the help of low-key lighting, Cary Grant is shown as silhouette and is made to sit with his back facing the camera. This allows us as audience to think from his perspective and share his viewpoints as Ingrid Bergman interacts with him.

On the contrary, there are many instances where high-key lighting was used in films. In ‘American Beauty’, it was primarily done to show the glow on Angela’s blonde hair and almost naked skin as she appears as the seductress in the dream sequence (Redmond, 2014). The high-key lighting technique involves the use of fill lights at par with key lights to make the scenes bright and devoid of shadows. Three-point lighting is used in films like ‘Gentleman Prefer Blondes’ (1953) and ‘Breakfast at Tiffany’s’ (1961) to increase the depth of frame and make the people and objects in the background visible in certain scenes (Pierson, 2010).

Pierson (2010) also describes costumes as “the most easily noticeable aspect of mise-en-scene”. Costumes reveal a character’s personality, social status, or the era he or she belongs to. The role of costumes in biopics is clearly evident while observing Salma Hayek’s character in ‘Frida’ and Abbie Cornish’s character in ‘Bright Star’. Costumes can also be employed to emphasize a particular theme. The cheetah-patterned fur coat used by the female character in the opening scene of ‘The Graduate’ makes Anne Bancroft “look like a predator hunting for her pray” (Moura, 2014).

The set design is considered an effective mise-en-scene to give the audience a sense of place, mood and the character’s mindset. It can be created inside a studio or filmed in an outdoor location (Pierson, 2010). The set and the props used will have a specific theme to convey and will make the audience indulge in deep thoughts to develop interpretations. In another scene from ‘The Graduate’, the central character played by Dustin Hoffman will have a fish tank placed behind his bed to symbolize his presence in a world he longer wants to be in. Another scene where he’s seen on the bottom of a swimming pool further establishes this concept (Moura, 2014). The use of certain colours is often adopted to display an emotional or symbolic meaning, or even to draw out a character. Red colour, for instance, is a representation of danger or sexuality, or a symbol of loss and trauma like in the 1973 film ‘Don’t Look Now’ (Redmond, 2014).

Acting, as part of mise-en-scene, is an essential presence because the characters in it are the face of the film itself. Cast and acting will have a lot to do with the nature of role he or she is supposed to depict and their performance is important in creating the right mood and conveying the right meaning. The modulation in expressions and dialogue deliveries helps the audience to understand the mindset of the character at various parts of the film. An example of this is Kevin Spacey’s performance during a couple of office scenes in ‘American Beauty’. In an earlier scene, Spacey appears dull and subdued as his boss reminds him of his lack of efficiency at work. Later, when he quits the job, he looks more confident and comfortable as he tells his boss that he doesn’t care about the job anymore (Richards, 2014).

The use of space is a very important element of mise-en-scene as it influences the way a film is read. The depth of field, distance from one character to the other, size of the people, places and props within a frame are all factors that determines space. Majidi’s use of space, especially in films like ‘Children of Heaven’ and ‘Colour of Paradise’, is particularly noteworthy. A slightly different aspect of space is emphasized in the 1937 film ‘Grand Illusion’. In a particular scene, there is a slow pan of the camera on many faces to capture the expression of each one of them separately. This allowed the audience to perceive the impact of the action performed to bring out the expressions. A wider frame showing all the faces together wouldn’t have created the same effect (Kolker, 1999).
This paper is relevant because of the limited academic research done in this area. Even though mise-en-scene appears as a chapter in most books on film studies, the possibility of its application in an entire film has rarely been explored before. There are numerous articles on the web, which gives a sample or two of the mise-en-scene elements using various films. However, a detailed analysis of all the mise-en-scene elements in a single film has hardly been attempted before. Considering the impact of mise-en-scene and the effect it could have on the audience in terms of their understanding makes it a very relevant topic for discussion.

Methodology
In this study, content analysis is used to analyze the five mise-en-scene elements in Iran’s Academy Award nominee ‘The Song of Sparrows’. Specific scenes are identified and elements like décor, lighting, space, costumes and acting are analyzed in detail. This would help to explain the extent to which these elements combine to provide mood, meaning and value to the visuals.

Findings and Discussions
All the findings in the analysis part are interpretations of the researcher, which is intended to help the audience to have a better understanding of the film and add to the existing knowledge. Every scene that is possible for a mise-en-scene analysis is identified and analyzed in detail.

Décor
Décor plays a major role in bringing out certain key aspects in the film ‘The Song of Sparrows’. Karim’s house is clearly shown as the abode of a struggling man with random things scattered here and there and unpainted doors and walls. It also signifies that he has more things to worry about than maintain his house in the best possible manner. Many of the things in the house are too old and rusty and are a clear indication of his financial status too.

A clever use of décor is witnessed in the scene where Karim is accounted for the loss of the ostrich and loses his job. As Karim reaches his workplace the following day, a close shot of his shoes and belongings placed out of the door is shown. He meets his co-worker friend but he doesn’t utter a word about Karim being sacked. The tight shot of Karim’s belongings outside the workplace is an aesthetic representation of getting fired from his job.

The difference in décor of the two clinics, where Karim visits to repair his daughter’s hearing aid, depicts how advanced healthcare can be in cities when compared to villages. This is important in the storyline because it shows Karim making a visit to the city clinic to find a better opinion about the hearing aid. It is that particular visit to the city that brings a twist to his life and hence the story. The clinic in the village displayed old files, scattered pens and dull walls (figure 1) while the city clinic (figure 2) was neatly arranged with modern equipments and polished furniture.

Lighting
The most interesting aspect about the lighting in this film is that all the scenes that follow a depressing or unexpected twist are shot at dim light, also giving a feel that they were purposely taken at night. The scene where Karim returns home after losing his job, the scene where his wife cries after Karim insults her cousin, the scenes which show his struggle at home nursing an injured body are all shot in relatively low light.

Another instance of a variation in lighting is seen in the clinic scenes. The village clinic is dimly lighted while the city clinic is brightly lighted, giving emphasis to all the props in the scene and enhancing the overall look of the city clinic.

Space
The opening scene of the film shows the close-up shot of a group of ostriches in a farm. The space is shallow with no depth of...
field and makes the audience think from the ostriches’ perspective and shows its importance in the whole storyline (figure 3).

As the film moves further ahead, one of the ostriches escapes from the farm. Karim, who is the central character of the film, makes an attempt to find it. He takes his bike to ride deep into the outskirts of the village and several places nearby. The filmmaker has displayed his craft in using deep space to signify how far he has travelled to reach his goal. High-angled shots of Karim driving the bike through a deserted land are shown to explain the difficulty of the task he has undertaken and his resolve to find it. There are similar shots of Karim walking through an isolated mountain, which can be interpreted as the extent to which he stretches himself and the helplessness of the situation he is in.

After Karim accidentally takes up the job of a motorcycle taxi driver, there is a significant change in his attitude towards life. It is here that the director shows several scenes of Karim driving his bike with discarded items randomly picked up from the places he visited. Frontality staging is employed to show Karim riding the bike so that it cuts the space between him and the viewer and thereby gives a feel that he communicates with them. This sort of framing and use of space enables the audience to think from his perspective.

Another scene where space is effectively used to convey a particular message is the little girl’s entry with a smoking aspand while Karim was stuck in a traffic block. The girl’s expression is captured in a tight frame, which shows her innocence and the glimmer of hope and expectations on her face. A wide shot wouldn’t have conveyed the right mood and meaning of the scenario. A similar approach can be noticed in the scene where Karim takes home the blue door from Abbas’ house, where a random selection of close shots of his face and top-angled shots of the blue door on his head is a reflection of the greedy man he has turned into.

The expression on the faces of the children in the final stages of the film is yet another instance of adopting space in a very effective manner. As the fish barrel breaks, the expression on each of their faces is shown by panning them one by one rather than a single wide shot, giving the audience a greater sense of their loss and misery.

Costumes
Karim wears just one pair of t-shirt and shirt in all the scenes in the film and that is important to show his financial condition. There is no change of shirt until there is a slight improvement in his economic status. Such an approach also helps in maintaining continuity as well. The pattern of Karim’s make-up also provides necessary inputs on his circumstances and inner conflicts. The uncombed hair, tanned skin and overgrown stubbles enables the viewer to get deep into the character and relate to his feelings. It gives the audience a realistic image of a man who is not bothered about maintaining his looks or as somebody who has bigger things to worry than being concerned about what he wears or how he looks.
The costumes of people in the city play a vital role in narrating how different they are from the villagers. The director shows that the differences are not just in their attire but also in their behavioral patterns, which is detectible from his experiences with most of his customers. Every person Karim meets on the busy Tehran streets are wrapped in suits and blazers, which also throw light on the over-the-top city life and the extravagant nature of the people living there (figure 4).

**Acting**
Karim’s facial expression and dialogue to the ostriches while feeding them in the opening scene indicates the lack of concern he showed towards them at the beginning of the film. This can also be compared to his smiling gesture at the climax scene as he gazes at the ostriches and can be interpreted as the director’s highly symbolic and philosophical way of telling the audience about an underlying message in the film.

A very significant aspect of this film is the change in Karim’s behavior and mentality as the story progresses. This is evident from his behavior towards his children at various points in the film. The children’s reaction on just seeing him when they are caught searching for his daughter’s hearing aid implies Karim’s character and mindset. The fear on their faces is a reflection of his short-tempered nature and how he generally behaves with the kids.

The shocking twist of Karim falling down from the top of the junk items and injuring himself is a decisive element in the film. Karim’s reactions to his family and neighbors while lying on the bed is an example of how method acting helps not only in taking the story forward but conveying meanings that are even beyond the filmmaker’s imagination. The look on Karim’s face in a tight frame portrays regret, disappointment, love, concern and helplessness in one single expression (figure 5).

Karim’s expression of shock and disappointment on hearing the ostrich’s return in the penultimate scene is a symbolic representation of his feelings towards them. This could generate a conflict in the viewer’s mind especially when one considers Karim’s nature in the earlier part of the film. Here, Karim’s acting helps to reveal the change in his attitude towards life and a sense of freedom that was installed in his mind, especially after his accident and the sparrow incident.

**Conclusion**
This paper emphasizes the role of mise-en-elements like décor, lighting, space, costumes and acting, in understanding the mood
and meaning of the film. The researcher discusses how these five elements were used in the Iranian film ‘The Song of Sparrows’ to analyze the role of interpretation in effectively narrating a film. A study of how these elements were adopted in some of the other films from different eras is also done to denote the various contexts in which they can be employed.

For a well-rounded approach, the researcher looked into all the scenes of the film and identified the ones that can be interpreted for mise-en-scene analysis. Specific scenes are taken to discuss each of the five elements and their importance in the storyline and possible effects on the audience are analyzed. The paper concludes that meanings can be created through the interpretation of these five mise-en-scene elements. A close observation and analysis of these elements in the film could lead to a much enriched film-watching experience.

The main focus of the current study was to look into the role of mise-en-scene in understanding the mood and meaning of the visuals in the film. The importance of interpreting the five elements in mise-en-scene and how they help in creating an enhanced level of viewing experience was explored in the study. However, the study was limited to the researcher’s interpretation and analysis of the scenes. For future study, it would be interesting to also form a focus group, which has the technical expertise to interpret and analyse the scenes of a film, and hold a discussion with them on how they interpret particular scenes. Personal interviews can also be conducted to see the extent to which they feel these scenes could impact the audience.

References
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Curating Visual Memory: Photographic Representations of Identity in Japanese American Concentration Camps

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Abstract
Elizabeth Edwards (2001) argues that photographs are little narratives that reflect specific visual experiences and at the same time have the potential to respond to and evoke the larger narratives of a culture. This essay explores a specific experience – the internment of Japanese Americans during WWII in violation of the U.S. Constitution – and the photographs circulated to tell the story of the internment. I am particularly interested in the types of identities that these photographic representations reveal about the internees, two-thirds of who were American citizens, and the implicit judgments they render about the conditions of incarceration. The essay investigates how photographs by Ansel Adams and Dorothea Lange work to inscribe a particular history and judgment of Japanese Americans, and thereby curate a memory of America’s past.

Introduction
On December 4, 1941 Japanese planes attacked Pearl Harbor in Hawaii, sinking most of the U.S. naval fleet stationed in the Pacific. Over the next six weeks, largely fueled by the mass media, a war hysteria combined with race prejudice escalated on the West Coast of the United States, especially in California. The Secretary of War and the Commanding General of the Western Defense Command recommended to President Roosevelt that all persons of Japanese heritage living in Oregon, Washington, California and Western Arizona should be excluded from these areas for national security reasons. Their arguments assumed “ethnicity ultimately determines loyalty” (Personal Justice Denied, 1997, p. 6). Based on this recommendation, Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 which declared the West Coast a military zone thereby compelling Japanese Americans to leave the area. The War Relocation Authority decided the best course of action was to exclude, remove and incarcerate in internment camps Japanese Americans persons living in this area. Notices of relocation gave these individuals about one week to close their homes and businesses and report for transport. Each person was allowed to carry what he or she could manage. They were not told where they were going or for how long. Government propaganda said it was for their protection, but arriving in the permanent camps they discovered barbed wire fences and guard towers with guns facing inwards. They were interned until the end of the war when they were given train or bus fare to return to their homes, many of which were no longer there. The communities were hostile to their return with signs declaring, “We don’t want any Japs back here ever!” Bank accounts frozen in 1942 remained frozen until the 1950s in many cases.

President Gerald Ford finally rescinded Executive Order 9066 in 1976. President Jimmy Carter commissioned a report on the internment which, in 1980, concluded that “race prejudice, war hysteria, and a failure of political leadership” (Personal Justice) and not national security were the reasons for the internment. Public Law 100-383 mandated an apology and redress of $20,000 to be paid to each internment survivor (finally paid in 1990). The United States Congress and President Ronald Reagan issued formal apologies for violations of civil rights of Japanese Americans unjustly interned from 1942-1946.

This essay explores a specific experience – the internment of Japanese Americans during WWII in violation of the U.S. Constitution – and a specific place – the internment camps, 10 in number, located in isolated parts of the United States and housing 120,000 Japanese Americans, two-thirds of who were United States citizens, and the visual memory markers of this act in the form of photographs, with limited circulation for decades after the internment and now displayed in memorial museums attached to the internment camps, on internet sites established to tell the story of the internment, and in community memorials dedicated to preventing the erasure of this shameful part of the nation’s past. I approach the historical fact of internment and the construction of memory through photographs from a rhetorical perspective, assuming that messages, whether verbal or visual are not neutral accounts of history, but are highly partisan. In writing about language, and this includes the visual, Kenneth Burke argues that to name something, to bring something forward for our attention will “give us the cues as to how we should act toward the objects” (1965, p. 177). In other words, identifying something as worthy of our attention is “per se to suggest a program of action” toward it (Burke, 1965, p 177).

Photography as Little Narratives
The history of photography reveals that almost from its inception photographs have been thought to have evidentiary value, of capturing the “having-been-there” of the image. Susan Sontag states it bluntly: “Photographs furnish evidence” (1977, p. 5) and Caroline Brothers contents they are perceived as “bearers of truth” (1997, p. 161). They do not tell the whole story, however; the choice of what to preserve in taking a photograph is already a judgment to leave out surrounding objects that might contextualize the story differently. So, “[p]hotoed images do not seem to be statements about the world so much as pieces of it, miniatures of reality that anyone can make or acquire” (Sontag, 1977, p. 4). Does the photographer capture what he or she believes to be a representation of reality? In this case I want to explore the photographs of the Japanese American internment and explore how we should read these, in Elizabeth Edwards’ (2001) term, little narratives, that reflect specific visual experiences yet at the
same time have the potential to respond to and evoke the larger narratives of a culture. A host of questions emerge in examining
the photographic record of this shameful part of American history. Do the internment camp photographs serve an ideological
function? Do they sanitize the reality of internment? Can we trust that the Japanese American identity represented by these images
is a preferred identity of the internees or the projected identity of the photographer? Are the images of place so censored that the
little narratives fail to represent meaningfully the place of internment or the space of America’s failure to guarantee civil rights to
all?

Sontag argues, “despite the presumption of veracity that gives all photographs authority, interest, seductiveness, the work that
photographs do is no exception to the usually shady commerce between art and truth” (1977, p. 6). The closest analogy to
meaning in photographs comes from discussion of war photography – the injured and dead in combat. Brothers warns us about
assuming that what we see is transparent: “representation of injury and death are rarely transparent” instead they are “controlled,
disguised or interpreted according to a brace of cultural assumptions, and muted so as not to offend” (1997, p. 17). Photographs
are mediated by aesthetic choices, censorship, the relationship between the subjects and the photographer, and the context in
which the images are read by viewers. What we can say, however is the photographs contribute to the public memories we create
about the internment. I use the term public memory in the sense of Edward Casey who sees it as “both attached to a past (typically
an originating event of some sort) and acts to ensure a future remembering of that same event” (2004, p. 17). Public memory is
open, contestable; it “serves as an encircling horizon” (Casey, 2004, p. 25): it is “not a nebulous pursuit that can occur anywhere,
it always occurs in some particular place” (p. 32). In this case the preserved internment camps, interpretive centres, museums
and memorial sites. But Massey (1994 reminds us, place is always in process, changing as the needs of the present change. That
specific place can be circulated in news media or on the Internet through photographs that give the public access to the places of
internment and the broader space of America’s violation of civil rights.

Although answers to the questions posed above may be elusive, as a beginning we can discover shared motifs in the photographic
record that we have and explore how these motifs are consistent or divergent from the other forms of representation of life in the
internment camps.

Photographic Motifs

How might we categorize the images taken of the internment camps? In examining the work of Ansel Adams and Dorothea Lange,
professional photographers commissioned to record the history of the internment, several shared motifs become apparent: a focus
on setting, especially the landscape of the camps; how the camps magnify the interruption of the lives of Japanese Americans on
the West Coast; and a constructed identity for Japanese Americans. In part, these motifs may be a result of restrictions placed on
the images that Adams and Lange were allowed to produce.

Adams and Lange were both invited to record the internment: Adams was a personal friend of the director of Manzanar who was
a fan of his work. Lange had been invited by the Farm Security Administration to photograph the Depression and her success
with that project led the War Relocation Authority to commission her to photograph the internment process. Restrictions placed
on official photographers limited the kinds of images that could be created; both were told they could not take photographs of the
barbed wire fences, the guards or guard towers. Jasmine Alinder (2011) reminds us:

photographs have long been deployed to establish categories and hierarchies that justify structures of power. . .[the government]
cultivated an image of Japanese Americans as releasable and as deserving of the same rights as other Americans. Yet the image
of Japanese Americans as fit for participation in American civic life outside of the concentration camps hinged implicitly on its
opposite pole: the purportedly dangerous, disloyal Japanese American. (p. 2)

The photographic record the government wanted would not include displays of resistance. It would emphasize the American-like
identity rather than the foreignness of this group. Gordon contends that the majority of Lange’s photographs have never been
circulated because they didn’t tell the story the government wanted to tell. Danita Smith, writing for The New York Times notes,
“But at nearly all of the 21 locations Lange visited, the government tried to restrict her. At the assembly centers and at Manzanar
she was not allowed to photograph the wire fences, the watchtowers with searchlights, the armed guards or any sign of resistance.
She was discouraged from talking to detainees. At one point she was almost fired when one of her photographs appeared on a
Quaker pamphlet denouncing the internment” (6 November, 2006).

Photographic censorship obviously made it easier for the government to claim they were protecting Japanese Americans from a
growing race prejudice that could threaten the internees. Government propaganda films went as far as to claim that the internees
were not incarcerated: they were free to leave the camps at their choosing. While it is true that volunteering for military service,
proving you had a job away from the West Coast of the United States, or receiving permission to attend college – assuming one
had the necessary funds – (remember bank accounts were frozen from the initiation of E.O. 9066) could get one out of the camps,
for the majority of internees, however, the camps were designed to incarcerate them.

We have a few photographs taken surreptitiously by internees that more fully capture the camp experience, including the work of
Toyo Miyatake. As an internee, he was forbidden to use a camera. Alinder (2011) argues the camera was regarded as a “kind of
visual gatekeeper that determined who was fit to be part of the body politic and who should be cast out” (p. 3). Gatekeeping power was kept from Japanese Americans, except for those who were serving in the armed forces who visited family in the camps while on leave. As recognized loyal Americans, they were able to take family snapshots. Miyatake smuggled a lens and film holder into camp and built a wooden box camera. One of his photographs defies the restricted subject matter of the camps. It is strikingly different from Adams’ images and the relatively few photographs taken by Lange that have been published. Boys Behind Barbed Wire is one of the most frequently reprinted images of the internment and replicates the images of restrictive camp life that are central to drawings and painting produced in the camps and recreated after the camps were closed. These are the kinds of images not allowed in the official photographs Adams and Lange created.


Three motifs tell the story of internment, although each suggests a different judgment of what was happening and demands a different program of action.

**The Setting: Sublime and Oppressive**

Better known for his landscape photography, it is not surprising that the Sierra Nevada Mountains figured prominently as a backdrop for Adams’ outdoor shots of Manzanar. For some the beauty of the mountains and sky hide the bleakness of the barracks and become the basis for a claim that the camps were set in a nature that would inspire any internee. Sublime nature would make up for any restrictions imposed by camp life. Alternative readings use images such as this one to argue that the isolation and natural barriers made escape from the camps seem futile. Like all memory markers, verbal and visual, alternative readings are possible.

*Image 2.* Manzanar street scene, clouds, Manzanar Relocation Center, California

Library of Congress, Prints & Photographs Division, Ansel Adams, photographer, [reproduction number, LC-DIG-ppprs-00284]
What is remarkable to me is the lack of physicality evoked by the images that Adams took of Manzanar. Aden et al. (2009) argue that places evoke meanings for us partial as a result of how we sense our experiences (p. 320). Adams’ Manzanar is not the place I visited last July with a temperature of 112 degrees in mid-afternoon, with the land parched and cracked. The majesty of the mountains in Adams’ work eclipses the harsh reality of a dry, dusty, and hot terrain that saps one’s energy. Note a different narrative of the landscape in the image I shot: “bodily experiences, moreover, help concretize our memories of places; they translate the bodily experience into an emotional one” (Aden, et al., 2009, p. 320).

In a letter accompanying the donation of his negatives and prints to the Library of Congress, Adams said, The purpose of my work was to show how these people, suffering under a great injustice, and loss of property, businesses and professions, had overcome the sense of defeat and despair (sic) by building for themselves a vital community in an arid (but magnificent) environment” (Ansel Adams’ Photographs). The photograph of farm workers demonstrates the remarkable success incarcerated Japanese Americans had in turning a harsh and barren desert into a productive agricultural enterprise. Gordon (2006) argues that Adams found it necessary to apologize for saying that harsh conditions strengthened the internees (p. 34). Some have argued that his work glossed over the depravations that defined camp life.
Surprisingly, the majority of Adams’ photographs of the camps are portraits. Adam’s images are optimistic; his subjects are most often smiling. Although Adams and his proponents explain that his familiarity with his subjects is reflected in their ease and hence tendency to smile when he photographed them in the camp, and this was not just fodder for the WRA propaganda effort, others have argued that Adams failed to capture the trauma of incarceration. Adams gives a face to the previously faceless enemy. The stereotypic U.S. propaganda image of the Japanese at that time is aptly captured in Sam Keene’s film, Faces of the Enemy that includes the following declaration about Japanese soldiers: “He and his bother soldiers are as much alike as prints off of a photographic negative” (1987). Adams changes this stereotype through portraits that individualize his subjects. In addition he shows the internees in work and relaxation that could be equally enjoyed by white America. This then is the vital community and the hard work to overcome adversity and injustice that Adams claims characterizes his depiction of Japanese Americans. Like Adams, Lange also records the productivity and Americanism of the internees.

The Camps: Lives Interrupted
Dorothea Lange’s images generally depict lives interrupted. She is best known for her documentary photographs, funded by the Farm Security Administration, of migrant workers and poverty during the Depression of the 1930s. The Depression photographs were commissioned to show farm workers in a positive light, as Americans who should be helped to get back on their feet. “American documentary was never neutral or apolitical, but an exhortation to action” (Gordon, 2006, p. 11).

Because of her earlier success as a documentarian, the War Relocation Authority (WRA) commissioned her to document the Japanese American internment; she began by photographing the roundup and evacuation and followed through with photographs of the temporary relocation centers and main concentration camps. Linda Gordon contends 97% of the images she created have never been published; suppressed by the government, one marked Impounded by one of the censors: consequently, her documentation of the internment is largely unrecognized by the public (2006, p. 5). Lange’s images tell a different story than Adam’s photographs. She captures some of the oppressiveness of the sites, especially the temporary relocation centers. Her image of the horse stalls at Tanforan, each one housing a family are a shameful reminder of what was done to innocent citizens and resident aliens.

Lange captures the inhumane treatment internees receive in the camps (e.g. children kneeling on hard floors to do school work because chairs or benches were not provided). One major visual trope is the line; evacuees lined up with their luggage waiting to be evacuated; lines of internees being given identification tags, lines waiting for food in the mess hall, for toilets, for showers. Public waiting, a lack of privacy and individuality, captures the interruption in the lives of thousands crammed into hastily built, poorly supplied concentration camps.
Rather than exclusively emphasizing the hard conditions, Lange also followed families and documented their “respectability, Americanism, work ethic, good citizenship, and achievements of these people now being treated as criminals” (Gordon, 2006, p. 28). One of the families was the Mochida family photographed with their identification tags, another visual trope of displacement and life interrupted. These are the lives interrupted, displaced by the internment. Displacement, however, was not the symbol that the WRA sought to publicize. The memory captured in Lange’s photographs makes the government less a caretaker and more an oppressor. Lange’s images that challenged the WRA’s desired narrative of the internment were excluded.

American Identity: Fitting In, Embracing Their Place of Origin, Proving Their Loyalty

Numerous photographs illustrate children fitting in with the all-American stereotype – playing baseball and football, enjoying dances, forming bands, hanging out with one another. Both Lange and Adams created images of children reading comic books, getting haircuts, just acting like typical American children.

There are also images that illustrate loyalty to the nation – children saluting the American flag illustrated below, Japanese American boys who are in uniform returning to visit their families who are incarcerated. Lange’s photograph of the school children in San Francisco saluting the flag was taken a month before the incarceration of Japanese Americans, including some of the children in this photograph. Along with similar shots, images of Japanese American children saluting the flag are displayed in museums, interpretive centres, and on Internet coverage of the internment. Their circulation argues implicitly that Japanese
American children are American and express their loyalty just as other American children do. As a visual trope, these photographs demand reconsideration of race prejudice, indicting the violation of civil liberties even young children suffered.

Although fewer in number, there are photographs that focus on the Japanese heritage of the internees: girls dressed in kimonos for Girl’s Day, boys engaged in Kendo practice, Shinto shrines fashioned of used wood, and beautiful Japanese rock gardens. Especially important to Issei, one’s Japanese identity was often downplayed because of issues of loyalty and prejudice. Before the formal evacuation, Japanese American homes were searched for items like swords, photographs, and flags from Japan. When discovered, these relics of Japanese identity were regarded as sufficiently subversive that they warranted the arrest of the male head of household. So, displaying one’s Japanese heritage would have been perceived as risky. Fitting in, being as American as possible becomes the narrative told in the majority of photographs from this time and from the camps.

Conclusion
Photographs, as is the case for all communicative messages, are not neutral. Symbolic expressions, whether words or images, carry with them, in Kenneth Burke’s terms, a program of action: do this as a consequence of your understanding, believe this, value in this particular way. Sontag addresses this directly when she concludes, “There is an aggression implicit in every use of the camera” (1977, p. 7). That aggressiveness, the imposition of a standard or judgment gets extended as the photograph is used as a representation of a particular reality. With the recent controversy in the United States over the plans to auction off Japanese American concentration camp art one former internee wrote the auction house that it was inappropriate to sell an image of his mother used by the War Relocation Authority who “took the photo as propaganda to misrepresent, as a happy event, the racial tragedy it perpetuated” (Himel, 2015). He argued that his mother was a unjustly incarcerated, her likeness used without her permission to express a sentiment she did not hold, and “To profit from these items is a second injustice. I wonder how the consignor and you justify to yourselves this second exploitation of my family’s, and our people’s, suffering” (Himel, 2015).

The problem is that Adams and Lange both create little narratives that make America’s actions in the early to mid 1940s unremarkable. Images of children and adults enacting the American dream, working hard, and demonstrating loyalty to the nation are not the oppressive images of the Nazi concentration camps – the images we recall when we think of oppression and ultimate violation of civil rights. Alinder argues, “Adams intended his positive representation of Japanese Americans to counter dehumanizing images then current in U.S. popular media and war propaganda” (2011, p. 20). Lange’s images that show a more restrictive living situation were impounded until the circulation of over 100 of her collection of 800 images in 2006. From what both artists have said, their intention was not to hide the inappropriateness of Executive Order 9066 and the War Relocation Authority’s incarceration of Japanese Americans without regard to due process and other civil rights guaranteed American citizens. Given restrictions on what they could record, both photographers give individual faces to an otherwise depicted faceless enemy and threat posed by Japanese ethnicity. Nonetheless, these images do not demand condemnation of the suspension of civil liberties of Japanese Americans and the incarceration of this population in American concentration camps.

Adams’ and Lange’s photographs remain the most prominent record of what happened between 1942 and 1946 with respect to Japanese Americans. Roland Barthes noted, “The number of readings of the same lexical unit or lexia (of the same image) varies according to the individual” including his or her “different kinds of knowledge – practical, national, cultural, aesthetic – invested in the image” (1977, p. 46). Unfortunately, the more positive the images of camp life, the more difficult it is to accept alternative readings to what the viewer sees in the image. Because photographs are assumed to have evidentiary value, these little narratives
do not significantly challenge the larger and more familiar heroic narrative of U.S. involvement in World War II. Museums and memorials continue to display these largely positive images and organize their exhibits around the three motifs identified. Unfortunately the program of action that they initiate is likely to be limited to one of increasing one’s knowledge of a largely unacknowledged part of American history, but not extended to action to prevent similar violations in the future. That broader program of action would necessitate a response of indignation to trigger a larger, careful examination of U.S. actions toward any group identified as enemy. If the message received is that lives were unfairly interrupted rather than the more pointed recognition that this nation strategically violated the civil rights of 120,000 individuals based on a stereotype of race, then extending these little narratives is less likely. German Americans and Italian Americans did not receive comparable treatment then: the link between their loyalty and their ethnicity was not as complete as it was for Japanese Americans. Since 9/11, Muslim Americans have been suspected of similar disloyalty, and public discourse about the violation of their civil rights suggests that our nation’s history of gross mistreatment of Japanese Americans has not prevented similar racial/religious prejudice from trumping civil rights for this new group of enemies.

I posed a number of questions at the beginning of this essay: Do the internment camp photographs serve an ideological function? Despite what Adams and Lange hoped to accomplish, restrictions limited the images they were allowed to construct. Those images that were circulated and continue to be re-circulated served the ideological purpose of the War Relocation Authority. Do they sanitize the reality of internment? Yes. The images create an American identity, hard working, domestic, enjoying similar occupations and pastimes as the majority of Americans, Japanese Americans are different from the stereotyped enemy. The negative interpretation of this constructed identity is their victimhood is largely left unsaid. In its absence internment interrupts lives but is not an horrific violation of Japanese American civil rights. Can we trust that the Japanese American identity represented by these images is a preferred identity of the internees or the projected identity of the photographer? No, we can trust that the Japanese sentiment expressed in the term “shikata ga nai” – “make the best of it” combined with embarrassment and shame taught the Issei to hide their feelings, even from their children and grandchildren. Are the images of place so censored that the little narratives fail to represent meaningfully the place of internment or the space of America’s failure to guarantee civil rights to all? Yes. Restrictions of the images that were allowed and the photographs that could be circulated made it difficult to offer the public a counter narrative to the one the government wanted to advance. Marita Sturkin summarizes the problem of the internment: “Its images are overwhelmed by their sense of the ordinary and the domestic, outside of the discourse of war” (1997, p. 695). During war, displacement, interruptions in lives occur, but the photographs of Japanese American internment that were circulated failed to create a clear sense of victimage. In this sense they remain little narratives that curate a time and memory place less horrific than it was.

References


Discourse Analysis of a Moodle Based Academic Discussion among Student Community

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Abstract  
The last two decades have witnessed an unprecedented growth in the number of users going online. While it has not happened overnight, the growth has been exponential in the last one decade. Chronologically, New media revolution started with the advent of internet. Innovations in computer and network technologies led to a massive adoption of communication technologies in varied forms. The scene in education domain is no different. There is lot of interest and investment in technology integrated education. With innovations such as MOODLE and MOOCS, the opportunities have grown manifold. New media has enabled the end user to make a transition from a mere information consumer to a spontaneous information producer. Moreover, all along, new media has broken the space and time barrier leading to ubiquitous environment to communicate. It is in this context that the discourse generated through the new media is becoming an object of interest from research perspective. This paper uses a MOODLE based university Learning Management System and its discussion forums to make students participate in online discussions. The resulting academic discourse has been analysed using content analysis through a facet based approach. The objective of the study is to understand how technology and social aspects of an academic discussion are manifested in a mediated discourse.

Keywords: Computer-mediated Communication, New Media, Online Discourse, Content Analysis, Learning Management System, Discussion Forum

Introduction  
The last two decades have witnessed an unprecedented growth in the number of users going online. While it has not happened overnight, the growth has been exponential in the last one decade. Chronologically, New media revolution started with the advent of internet. Innovations in computer and network technologies led to a massive adoption of communication technologies in varied forms. The scene in education domain is no different.

Technology intervention in education is not a new concept. Technology has been used in various forms and for various purposes to make teaching and learning more effective. Starting from radio and television to audio recordings and Video cassette players, technology has been used in classrooms for various purposes. This is particularly true for language and communications disciplines. With the advent of computers and internet as a mainstream technologies, new and varied platforms of communication and collaboration are available to teachers and students. The teachers and learners can not only consume content but also create content of their own which can be shared and disseminated.

There is lot of interest and investment in technology integrated education. With innovations such as MOODLE and MOOCS, the opportunities have grown manifold. New media has enabled the end user to make a transition from a mere information consumer to a spontaneous information producer. Moreover, all along, new media has broken the space and time barrier leading to ubiquitous environment to communicate. It is in this context that the discourse generated through the new media is becoming an object of interest from research perspective.

This paper uses a MOODLE based university Learning Management System and its discussion forums to make students participate in online discussions. The resulting academic discourse has been analysed using content analysis through a facet based approach. The objective of the study is to understand how technology and social aspects of an academic discussion are manifested in a mediated discourse.

Literature Review  
Research in the area of New Media enabled education suggests that there are numerous opportunities that remains unutilized in higher education. Level and Hoseth (2008) argue that about 90 percent of the college students in the U.S. have gone online and thus are the members of the so called ‘net-generation’ who are surrounded with technology and internet so much so that these have affected almost every facet of their lives. Obviously not all are technology savvy individuals but majority of the students, given their familiarity with technology and the internet, are ‘digital natives’ as opposed to ‘digital immigrants’ (Kvavik, 2005; as quoted by Level &Hoseth, 2008).Further discussing in the same context, Richardson (2007) argues that learning with the help of Web 2.0 is the process of building connections where sharing, filtering and saving the relevant information can help build one’s own
curriculum. Olarinan (2008) argues that Web 2.0 facilitates a high cognitive thinking as its ‘browse’ feature enables students to learn while they seek information.

The curiosity that Web 2.0 arouses leads to enhanced knowledge acquisition. Web 2.0 facilitates social constructivist pedagogy (Rosen & Nelson, 2008; Huang et al., 2009; Newland & Byles, 2013) and creates a ‘prod-user’ identity where users are also the producers of learning resources (Brown, 2008; Huang et al., 2009). Hence, unlike the previous version of web, Web 2.0 invites participation and enables users to contribute content, thereby, giving equal opportunity to every user. Another major opportunity that Web 2.0 offers is that it empowers individuals by facilitating learner-controlled learning environment (Brown, 2008; Crummett & Perrault, 2008) where students learn through interaction (Rosen & Nelson, 2008; Su & Garcia, 2008; Huang et al., 2009; Churchill, 2011), collaboration (Richardson, 2007; Rosen & Nelson, 2008; Su & Garcia, 2008; Huang et al., 2009; Churchill, 2011; Kale, 2013), and sharing (Richardson, 2007; Rosen & Nelson, 2008; Churchill, 2011). Kit Hang Leung (2008), in his research, finds out that high order thinking emerges in online discussions, because when the discussants discuss ideas, they ponder over and expand the existing concepts and in this process, new ideas and concepts emerge. Further user participation increases owing to the ease of use and social networking options of Web 2.0 (Rosen & Nelson, 2008; Su & Garcia, 2008). Web 2.0 offers the opportunity to interact beyond time/space barriers (Crummett & Perrault, 2008; Price, 2008; Risquez, 2008), and this flexibility, in turn, offers extended opportunities of participation (Risquez, 2008). Crummett and Perrault (2008) even argue that since most of Web 2.0 tools and applications are available free, they provide more opportunities of participation and interaction. For implementing Web 2.0 in higher education, Olarinan (2008) argues for blending CMC with traditional face-to-face interactions, for it would give students time to adapt to the CMC system.

In the social context, the interactive features of Web 2.0 lead to strengthened bonding between students and teachers (Churchill, 2011). While collaboration in the educational context facilitates learning by building ‘collective wisdom’ (Rosen & Nelson, 2008) and sharing of ‘expertise’ and resources (Risquez, 2008); in the social context, it enables the emergence of a feeling of community or belonging which is extremely advantageous for efficient learning (Su & Garcia, 2008). Education through Web 2.0 promotes self-expression, increases motivation and inquiry skills of students (Kale, 2013) and provides opportunity to those students who are either shy or uncomfortable in expressing themselves in the face-to-face classroom (Price, 2008).

Methodology

A MOODLE based Learning Management System (LMS) of a private university was used as a new media platform for this study. The LMS offered the utility of online discussions. An elective course, named Computer-Mediated Communication, was offered to the students. 85 students registered in the course. The students were asked to participate in an online discussion. Though the discussion was an evaluation component in the course, it was offered as an out-of-the-class activity. 81 students participated in the discussion. The discussion was initiated by the instructor. Students were given 48 hours to participate in the discussion. At the end of the discussion data was compiled and statistical as well as qualitative analysis was carried out.

Findings and Discussion

At the end of the discussion data was compiled and statistical as well as qualitative analysis was carried out. The discussion threads were identified; numbers of posts per user were counted. Of the total posts per user, the reactions/feedback and threads initiated by the user were counted separately. Apart from quantitative contribution, the substance of the contribution was also observed during the analysis.

To begin with, the topic of the discussion was:

“CMC has been widely accepted as an enabling force in the context of communication across the globe. CMC is providing a powerful platform to users to participate and influence all aspects of life such as information creation and consumption, politics, religion, freedom, entertainment, culture etc. But at the same time, there are dysfunctions also.”

It was expected from the students that they comprehend the breadth of the topic and pick appropriate aspects for discussions. They should also be able to identify the dysfunction contrast in the statement. The number of total posts by a student, initiations by a student and replies to others participants were counted for the entire course. Fig 1 shows the frequency of posts by students. The figure shows that approximately 26% of the students posted only once, 17% posted twice, 22% posted between three to five times, 26% posted between six to 12 times. The highest number of posts was 32 by one student. The data implies that the participation was skewed and was not uniform. A majority of student didn’t participate beyond couple of times. The concept of discussion and its dynamics were discussed in the classroom and the students were given 48 hours of duration to contribute. Although there were a total of 418 posts contributed by the entire course team but the distribution of discussion was not uniform.
Turn taking is an important aspect of conversation communication. Since discussion is also a type of conversation, albeit argumentative in nature, turn taking becomes important. Turn taking in an online discussion may be measured through the count of frequency of replies. Figure 2 shows the reply frequency of the participants. The graph shows that an overwhelmingly 71% of the students replied only once and the remaining 29% were distributed in the reply frequency of two to 12. This data implies that the students really didn’t get into the nuances of the topic. It also implies that a minority of the participants were discussing the topic among themselves and that the remaining once were isolated from them. Consequently, with this kind of behaviour the impact of technology in learning would be minimal.

Apart from turn taking, raising an argument and starting a topic thread which helps in covering the breadth of the topic, is also an important aspect of discussion skills. This can be measured in an online discussion from the counted frequencies of new threads started from the original one. Figure 3 shows the initiation frequency of the participants in the context of the topic. It can be deduced from the figure that 53% of the participants initiated only once or twice, 34% initiated between three to seven times and the remaining were distributed between eight to 22 times. This again reflects that un-interactive behaviour of the students in the group. A majority of the students were concerned about contributing a ‘post’ rather than an argument or an explanation to an argument by self or other participants.

A closer look at the data shows that overall there were 418 posts made by 73 students. This turns out to be around 5.7 posts per student which is impressive. But this average statistical participation is undone by the individual contribution of the participants. The participation very skewed. Similarly average initiations stand at 3.9 which again is very impressive and suggestive of substantial participation. In this case again the students were not as forthcoming as the data suggests. All this implies that the dynamics of a discussion were not reflected in the discussion activity carried out via technology intervention. It seems a small population of the classroom was more active than the rest of the class population. It also implies that the technology intervention may bear better results if smaller groups are engaged.
The nature of participation among students can also be understood from New Media Theories also. Ulnan and Markus (1987) coined the term Cues-Filtered-Out Theories to describe a set of theories which explain communication interaction via new media technologies. All these theories propagate the view that computer technologies have varied capabilities to transmit nonverbal cues, i.e. technologies vary in their message carrying capacities. It implies that certain nonverbal cue systems are not transmitted and therefore certain social functions can’t be achieved to the desired effect. In an activity such as discussion, the intensity of argument is also affected by the non-verbal and para-verbal aspects of communication. A technology like text based discussion forum severely limits transmission of nonverbal cues. Consequently, participants may not feel as engaged and involved in the task.

Herring (2007) proposed the faceted approach to understand and classify the mediated discourse. She proposed two main dimensions, namely – technology and social., with several facets for each of the dimensions to understand the nuances of the generated discourse. Table 1 provides summarised presentation of the characterization of the discussion on several facets proposed by Herring.

Table 1. Discourse characterization using Herring’s Faceted Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology Dimension</th>
<th>Facet</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Facet</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Synchronicity</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
<td>Channels of Communication</td>
<td>Text Only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Message Transmission</td>
<td>Multidirectional / Broadcast</td>
<td>Anonymity</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>Message Format</td>
<td>Heap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Message Size</td>
<td>Unlimited</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Dimension</th>
<th>Facet</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Facet</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant structure</td>
<td>Large group, public part.</td>
<td>Tone</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant characteristics</td>
<td>Same age group</td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Social, Academic</td>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>Original contribution, formal language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Topical</td>
<td>Code</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 1, it can be opined that the activity (discussion) was carried out in an asynchronous mediated environment which provided response time flexibility to the participants and therefore the expected substantial contribution by the active participants in terms of argumentative and expository discourse. The message transmission happened in a broadcast fashion which implies that it was a publicly generated discourse. This made participants more context aware. The size of the posts was unlimited and therefore many instances of lengthy arguments in the form of long paragraphs were observed in the discussion. This is equivalent to an undesirable lengthy monologue in an oral discussion. Anonymity was not allowed which reduced bogus and deviated arguments in the discussion. The format of the discussion was ‘last in at the top of heap’ which presented the discourse in sequential and chronological order. This also allowed to assess the duration between the posts by individual participants.

With respect to social dimension, the participants belonged to same age group and the participant structure consisted of a large, academically heterogeneous group. This resulted in a varied level of intensity in the arguments and message composition. It may also have affected the skewed distribution of the contribution in the discussion. Since the theme of the discussion was topical, there were minima digressions and the discourse that was generated was also academic in nature. Since the activity was part of the course, the formal code of discussion was English and the participants also adhered to formal use of English. The course norms, in terms of original contribution and formal discussion, were also observed among the participants.

It can be inferred from the faceted explanation of the discussion discourse that apart from participant skills and the dynamics of the activity, the technology properties and social characteristics of the participating group may also influence the outcome of the activity and the kind of discourse that is generated.

Conclusions
This study used a MOODLE based LMS to conduct an online discussion among the students registered in a course. It may be concluded from the short study that the intervention of technology in education in general and in language and communication discipline in particular is still a work of experiment. The technology use is still evolving. In this particular case, although the
average participation seems okay but overall participation and discussion distribution is poor. Also the constructive nature of
discussion activity and the consensus building exercise was not reflected among the participants. These observations are very
specific to this study and can not be generalised. More studies using smaller and varied groups are required to make a more
generalised conclusion about new media technology usage in inculcating written communication skills.

References


Distance Higher Education within the Scope of Internet Using Habits

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Abstract
Within the scope of this study, which has approached to the distance education methods as a communication process, a focus group interview has been conveyed to the students who are selected randomly as a voluntary from different departments/programs and classes at the University of Istanbul Distance Education Department in order to determine the relationship between their general internet using habits and their internet using within distance learning and accordingly their expectations. Questions asked to students within the interview techniques have been prepared on the basis of internet medium being a mass medium and being used multi-purposes. As a result of the study, it has determined a positive relationship between general internet using habits of distance education students and their internet using habits during their learning within studentship processes. It is seen that students’ adaptations are high to social media applications and especially to social networks which are the latest internet applications based on interactive communication. Students’ expectations for the latest internet applications are also high in distance education process.

Keywords: Distance Education, Communication, Internet, Information and Communication Technologies

Introduction
Although history of distance education method based on the early 20th century, it has started to be carried out effectively on the internet with the current application since the mid-1990s. Since 2000’s, internet environment has been used very widely in the world. Due to the fact that wide variety of content and services offered in the media, purposes of internet usage have also diversified at the same rate. In today’s world, using the internet for learning and teaching is very important. We can find virtual reflection of our lives on the internet environment in an adapted form. Learning and teaching are one of the most important facts in human life. Therefore, importance of this process will be better understood with adapted way into internet environment.

The main aim of this study determines the role of the learning-teaching process of the internet environment which is an important variable in distance education methods. The diversity offered by the media and multi-used options will be considered. This determination has revealed communicative expectations of the current situation and helped recommendations to be presented. In addition to this, adaptations of students in environment and their usage practices has revealed requirement to contents produced media-oriented.

Around the world, studies about distance education methods generally are approached to distance education as pedagogical, technological and engineering aspects. Pedagogical approaches ask the question of ‘how we learn’ in the traditional sense for distance education putting forward learning theories and it seeks an answer. Technological approaches comprise used technological materials in an instrumental sense in distance education. The engineering approaches involve media design and computer automation programs. Today, all approaches are expressed mostly in the context of internet-based distance education method.

In this study, the center of these approaches is related to communication process. Especially, this study is concerned about how communication is made more effective with the tools and contents in internet as a most widely used distance learning environment and it specifically affects the automation program. The study has aimed to be able to establish a good communication design in distance education methods to put forward students’ expectations.

Internet-Based Distance Education and Communication Process
The fastest growing communication tool of in all media is the internet up to now. The adoption rate of the internet has eclipsed others. It took thirty years for radio to become a popular medium; television took thirteen years. Internet has reached 40 million users in a short period of 4 years (Holtz, 2002: 4).

Mayfield (2008:7) defines social media “to be a group of new kinds of online media, which share most or all of the following characteristics: participation, openness, conversation, community and connectedness. A good way to think about social media is that all of this is actually just about being human beings. Sharing ideas, cooperating and collaborating to create art, thinking and commerce, vigorous debate and discourse, finding people who might be good friends, allies and lovers – it’s what our species has built several civilizations on. None of the prior technologies from internet have provided ability to communication for users as today’s blogs and social networking sites provide (Rheingold, 2000: 301). Recently, a new “wave” of internet based applications has emerged, often described as “web 2.0” or “social media”. These internet applications enable greater interaction between user and application through user generated content. This content is varied, and includes photographs, video, text comments, forming a media rich mélange (Komito ve Bates, 2009: 233). Social networks are used for many different purposes at the present time and there are many sites in these sharing networks. It has a main purpose as online interaction and provides communication according to the target audience and formal customized features. It is possible to encounter too many social networking services as social
networks which targets professional work life and establishes special interpersonal relationships. Social networks have become widespread as most preferred communication way for individuals to communicate with each other.

What internet offers in communication process and how it offers is one of the most critical issues in terms of distance education applications. Learning is also a communication process and internet has functioned as a tool at this point. Therefore, all of these make the details of the implementation of internet communication very important. Individuals have realized their learning acquisition with the returns of communication processes on internet environment by meeting the communication needs. In this regard, distance education design and mediating automation programs are needed to be prepared by considering dual contribution of the internet for distance education.

According to an opinion, the educational approach of the 21st century is independent from time and place, oriented towards objectives and results, student-centered, weighted active team work, directed to obtaining training and it should involve the differences in skills and language. In addition, it is considered that education of 21st century have two important facts. These facts are life-long learning and information society. In this information society, individuals live knowledge intensively. To be able to provide this training the necessity of using the technology is emphasized clearly in education (Aggarwal, 2000).

Web-based learning entails content in a web browser (not just activities), and actual learning materials delivered in web format. In this, web-based learning is analogous to textbooks, where the content determines whether a book is a novel, a report, or a textbook. Simply offering computer-based training (CBT) for download from a web site is not web-based learning since there is no learning content in web format. Web browsing the learning content (even linearly) is the key feature of web-based learning. Web-based learning content is typically retrieved from a web site, but alternative solutions are acceptable (a hypertext web does not require internet or networks) (Tsai ve Machado, 2002). Perception is defined as process of the knowledge collected systematically by the brain (Tight, 2007: 32). Perceptual learning modalities (also known as modes or styles) refer to the way information is extracted from the environment during learning to aid perception, organization, and processing. There are many ways of defining the construct of learning style, but one common system emphasizes the perceptual or sensory input of information: aural (or auditory), visual, and kinesthetic (or tactile). While individuals may exhibit a personal preference for one modality, some individuals can easily alternate between multiple modalities or exhibit no dominant style (Barbe, Swassing, & Milone, 1979).

It is not only stimulus determines the qualification of perception at a certain moment, but also personal history of the sensor, way of thinking, mental style, motivation and as other factors. These are all referred to as an experience space of individuals (Inceoğlu, 2010: 108). It is known that the environment has shaped our perceptions. All kind of physical structure of the environment gives some messages how we need to think. Our personal history in real life, way of thinking and motivation emerges as an important stimulus in the virtual environment.

The relationship between the learner and the learning environment is determiner in learning styles. Having learning style, either dependent or independent from the space is directly related with learning environment. Previous experiences, experiential factors and habits are influential in determining the learning styles. Different personality structures reveal different learning styles.

Internet-based teaching methods used in distance education have created the opportunity to present customized options perceptually for each individual thanks to multimedia applications, synchronous and asynchronous content delivery and high-level interaction possibilities. However, as previously stated, internet environment is used for many purposes, it is multi-part and noisy. Therefore, turning internet environment into classrooms has some deficiency and disadvantages.

It is not possible to avoid perceptual differences in the communication process. But, Oskay (1999: 42) reminds that the symbols used for coding the message have to be known signs by target audience who is sending message as well as getting and commenting messages. At the same time the message should be designed to attract the attention of target audience so message can strike on recipient. The internet has become a social space than just a communication tool. This space creates new forms of social relations and covers the entire period of human life. Human, existing with the outside world, making sense of it, has regulated own inner world. When an inconsistency between the outside and the inner world of human being has occurred, this inconsistency and uneasiness will be felt by individuals in their real living space (Poster, 1997: 206-210). Studies have demonstrated that person uncertainty and ambiguity decrease in enriched online environment and people have felt themselves more belong to the environment (Benson ve Harkavy, 2000: 49).

Internet based distance education method is defined as the distribution and management of the learning opportunities by using computer, networking and web-based technologies in order to support individual behavior and development (Hillage ve Pollard, 2001: 20).

When suitable methods and technologies for structure of education in internet based distance education system are used, high level interaction between students and the regular feedback from learners are provided, it can almost reached an effective result as in traditional education. In particular, the interaction between learner and teacher is very important. Apparently, the importance of technological proficiencies is major in this process. Inadequacies and difficulties on technical devices can reduce motivation on learner and teacher.
Method
The aim of the study is to determine general internet usage habits and internet usage habits within learning of students studying at the University of Istanbul with the distance education method. Internet environment is also main environment for students’ learning in this system. Therefore, it is important to know how they use internet and other services offered by internet for their education. It is conducted focus group interview with 12 students to understand details of the relationship between distance learning and communication processes better. The scope of interview, it is asked questions to determine internet usage habits and preferred media tools mostly. In the scope of interview, participants have been chosen representatively from different grades and programs. 4 of the participants are from Radio TV and Film Program, 3 of them from Public Finance Program, 2 of them from Labor Economics Program, 2 of them from Justice Vocational School Program and 1 of them from Banking and Insurance Program. All students are selected randomly based on voluntariness. 3 of the participants are 1st degree, 3 of them 2nd degree, 4 of them 3rd degree and 2 of them 4th degree. The age of participants ranged from 21 to 31. Interviews with participants were carried out on July 6, 2013 and in Istanbul University Faculty of Communication official building. Participants are divided into 2 groups and each 6-person interviews were conducted with 1 hour in a row.

Findings
Questions prepared within the scope of Focus Group Interview have been presented to participants as a semi-structured. Interview has been performed with a moderator and reporter by ‘note-taking’, ‘information form’ and ‘voice recorder’. The data obtained during interviews has been processed Kruger’s (1994) ‘Focus Group Information Form’. Participants have been expressed with codes from K1 to K12. At the same time, participants have been divided into categories according to the program in which they are enrolled. PRTS refers to department of Radio TV and Film, PM refers to department of Public Finance, PÇE refers to department of Labor Economics, PAMYO refers to Justice Vocational School Program, PBS refers to department of Banking and Insurance.

Questions have been coded as follows:
S1= For what purpose do you use the internet most?
S2= For what purpose do you use the social networks most?
S3= How would you like the distance education courses to be offered in the means of course contents and materials?
S4= What communication tools would you prefer most in your distance education learning process?
S5= What tools would you prefer most to communicate with your instructor?
S6= What tools would you prefer most to communicate with your classmate?
S7= What tools would you prefer most to communicate with the student affairs?
S8= Do your general internet usage habits have an effect over your internet usage habits in the scope of distance education studentship?
In focus group study, subjects concentrated by most of participants and given answers have been processed and analyzed considering ‘the frequency of words and phrases’. The data set is shown below:

### Table 1: Focus Group Interview Data Set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes of Questions</th>
<th>Codes of Department</th>
<th>Codes of Participants</th>
<th>View (All answers)</th>
<th>Focus Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S1</strong></td>
<td>PRTS</td>
<td>K1, K2, K6, K8</td>
<td>- Communication, business correspondence, entertainment (I consider activities such as listening music and watching film in entertainment category.)</td>
<td>- Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Communication and following the agenda, entertainment (I consider activities such as listening music and watching film in entertainment category.)</td>
<td>- Entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- communicating with friends, following the news through social media (I use Facebook mostly.)</td>
<td>- Communication and information, entertainment. I watch film and listen to music.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- communicating with friends, following the news through social media (I use Facebook mostly.)</td>
<td>- News</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PM</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>K3, K4, K7</td>
<td>- Social networks, information, work, entertainment.</td>
<td>- Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Information, Social networks, Communication.</td>
<td>- Entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- to communicate for work (I use for work mostly.)</td>
<td>- Communication and information, entertainment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PÇE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>K5, K9</td>
<td>- Entertainment, research, information, following the news.</td>
<td>- Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- communicating with friends, entertainment, reading the news.</td>
<td>- Entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAMYO</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>K10, K11</td>
<td>- communicating with friends, playing game, passing the time, reading the news.</td>
<td>- Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Information, communication, play around</td>
<td>- Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PBS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>K12</td>
<td>- communication, entertainment, sharing information and news.</td>
<td>- Communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| <strong>S2</strong>             | PRTS                | K1, K2, K6, K8         | - Communication. | - Communication |
|                    |                     |                       | - I use for just entertainment. I follow my friends. | - Entertainment |
|                    |                     |                       | - Communication, having new friends and educational content videos. Especially, “how to make” type videos. | - Communication |
|                    |                     |                       | - Communication, news, information and entertainment. I include the entertainment into the communication purpose. | - Having new friends |
|                    |                     |                       | - Communication, information, entertainment (we definitely exist for entertainment in this environment.) | - Entertainment |
|                    |                     |                       | - I use for reading news mostly. (Tabloid press ‘paparazzi’ also included.) | - Communication |
| <strong>PM</strong>             |                     | K3, K4, K7            | - News, communication, entertainment | - Information |
|                    |                     |                       | - Communication, to have fun, sharing information and news. | - Communication |
| <strong>PÇE</strong>            |                     | K5, K9                | - Reading news, sharing information, to have fun, to communicate with friends. | - News |
|                    |                     |                       | - Communication, news, information, entertainment | - Communication and information, entertainment |
| <strong>PAMYO</strong>          |                     | K10, K11              | - Reading news, sharing information, to have fun, to communicate with friends. | - Communication |
| <strong>PBS</strong>            |                     | K12                   | - Communication, information, to have fun | - Entertainment |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRTS K1, K2, K6, K8</td>
<td>- I would prefer multi-contents but it depends on the scope of the course. - It depends on the scope of course. Contents are generally sufficient. - I would prefer audiovisual contents. - I would prefer audiovisual contents. I don’t like writing, my visual memory is stronger.</td>
<td>- Variable according to the course - audiovisual - Multi-contents - Written - Figures and diagrams for support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM K3, K4, K7</td>
<td>- Written mostly. - I would prefer written mostly, but audiovisual for support - I would prefer audiovisual contents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCE K5, K9</td>
<td>- Primarily written, audiovisual for support and figures and diagrams may be as a brief. - Audiovisual.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAMYO K10, K11</td>
<td>- Written and visual. - I would prefer multi-contents included all.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBS K12</td>
<td>- Written and visual.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRTS K1, K2, K6, K8</td>
<td>- Social networks - Face to face meeting, message board, e-mails. - Telephone, Facebook - Social networks</td>
<td>- Social networks (Facebook mostly) - Message board - E-mail - Web site - Telephone - Face to face meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM K3, K4, K7</td>
<td>- Social networks, notice board on web - Social networks - Telephone, message board, e-mail</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCE K5, K9</td>
<td>- Telephone or web site - E-mail, social networks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAMYO K10, K11</td>
<td>- Telephone, social networks - Web site, e-mail, social networks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBS K12</td>
<td>- Facebook, telephone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRTS K1, K2, K6, K8</td>
<td>- E-mail (I am forced to use e-mail because of all instructor have not facebook account.) - Face to face - Telephone - Message board during live course, e-mail generally. - E-mail</td>
<td>- E-mail - Face to face - Telephone - Message board during live course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM K3, K4, K7</td>
<td>- E-mail - E-mail</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCE K5, K9</td>
<td>- I didn’t need to communicate with instructors but I call the school when i need. They forward me. - I communicate via social networks if they have, if they have not, I communicate via e-mail or telephone.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAMYO K10, K11</td>
<td>- E-mail</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBS K12</td>
<td>- E-mail, message board</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRTS K1, K2, K6, K8</td>
<td>- Facebook, face to face, telephone - Social networks, face to face, telephone - Telephone, internet (Facebook mostly) - Social networks, telephone</td>
<td>- Social networks (Facebook mostly) - Telephone - Face to face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM K3, K4, K7</td>
<td>- Social networks, telephone - Social networks, telephone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCE K5, K9</td>
<td>- Telephone - Social networks, telephone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAMYO K10, K11</td>
<td>- Social networks, telephone - Social networks, telephone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBS K12</td>
<td>- Telephone, social networks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to data obtained as a result of focus group interviews, it is seen distance education students, who are participants in this study, use the internet generally for ‘communication’, ‘entertainment-leisure’, and ‘information’, ‘following and sharing the news’ purposes. Time spent on social media applications is related to entertainment as well as sharing news and information.

It have been determined that all participants in the focus group discussions use one social media application at least. Social media usage purposes are ‘communication’, ‘to have new friends’, ‘entertainment’, ‘following-sharing news and information’ in this study. It is clear that the importance of social networks for students is remarkable. They use many social networks, particularly Facebook, as a communication tool in their studentship process. Students’ expectations about presentation format of the course contents have comprised multi-content models mostly. In short, demand for combination of written and audiovisual course contents is remarkable. Demands for video contents have mentioned by students constantly. It is observed that interest for only written contents gradually decrease. Students generally prefer ‘social networks’, ‘message boards’ and ‘e-mail’ as a communication tool in their all distance education processes. They prefer ‘e-mail’, ‘face to face’ and ‘telephone’ as a way to communicate with their instructors; ‘social networks’, ‘telephone’ and ‘face to face’ ways with their classmates; ‘face to face’ and ‘telephone’ ways with their student affairs. They have stressed often there is no way to communicate with the student affairs. Social networks as a communication way for students are most important way in their general studentship processes as well as to communicate with their friends. Social networks choice is the most preferred method for these two options. However, it is seen that students cannot use the social networks to communicate with their instructors and the student affairs.

Participants have declared that their general internet usage habits have a positive effect on their distance education internet usage habits. This positive effect is direct as well as indirect. Students stated previously that they used the internet for leisure and entertainment unconsciously and frequently and it increased their awareness level with their studentship. They have declared that they start to use more careful and qualified internet environment as a classroom. Students, who used the internet for entertainment often, have stated that using of entertainment purpose has not any effect on their studentship activities. Generally, given answers are about that education and entertainment are unconnected facts from each other. Students have pointed out they are aware of it. In addition, some participants have said they have got enough and effective internet usage abilities and this cause positive effect on studentship processes.
Conclusion

Istanbul University Distance Education students have demanded to be more effective in their learning process and they have denied one-way communication and monotype contents. In this sense, it is clear that distance education method should be considered in a constructivist approach. Therefore, the student should be done active and much option should be offered about with content and transfer way of content. Especially, all audiovisual factors in communication process should be used efficiently in the process of structuring the content.

It is seen that general usage habits of internet environment have reflected partly to usage habits in learning process. General internet usage habits of students, no matters how, have reflected positively to internet usage habits of learning process. Students often have used the internet and its tools with motivation of their studentship process. Multipartite and much noisy internet environment has affected negatively sometime and partly the learning-teaching activities requiring great care. Students have believed distractions can be solved with technical interventions. Distance education method takes support from the traditional education method. This method has not revealed a new communication style literally but it has been strengthened to demand for new communication tools. Especially, students want to use further the social networks in their learning processes. Carrying out their demands can enhance their motivation. Therefore, supporting efforts for improving social network applications should be increased. Integrating audiovisual factors with social networks will result in positively.

The potential of the internet environment and its offers have caused increase in expectations of students who are adopted to internet environment. Students demand using internet practices within their general internet usage habits as a student either. They think that all applications’ usage should be included in the-official distance higher education administration.

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Effectiveness of Visuals in E-Learning on Media Communication Courses

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Abstract
Visual presentation is providing greater impact and retention among the human beings all over the world. From entertainment to education the visuals are played a vital role. Visuals are highly useful to the learners for understanding the complex content into a simple one. Visuals are effectively and smartly used in various forms of electronic media. At present the visual presentations are effectively used in the kinder garden education to higher education and research and training.

A study was conducted to find out the effectiveness of visuals in media communication courses where significant role played with art and design. For the study, a sample of 415 students was chosen from bachelor degree courses (art, architecture and media) of various colleges. Different types of visuals i.e. static visuals comprises of Black and White, Colour, Drawings, Illustrations, Real Images, Photographs and dynamic visuals comprises of 2 D graphics, 3 D graphics, Animation, Video for the Art and Design subject was taught in the face-to-face and e-learning modes to the students. The students understanding level on media, art and design were pre and post tested with self-administered questionnaire tool. The study has found that visual based e-learning method make the students more understanding of the media, art and design subjects than traditional face-to-face teaching method. It also found that, visuals based e-learning can create easy understanding, focus on learning, retention level, and higher score in the examinations among the students are highly possible.

Keywords: E-learning, media, visuals, effect, art, design, teaching and learning, impact.

Introduction
Across the world E-learning strives to build a one-stop learning portal where communities can learn, share, contribute and exchange ideas. At other levels, e-learning is getting a boost through cross country and cross institutional arrangements. The content of e-learning materials fully packed with various types of visuals to convey the concepts meaningfully.

The pedagogy of science as well as in practice depends on the use of various type of visuals. However, the components of ‘visual literacy’ classified in to three types, such as visual thinking, visual learning and visual communication are relatively less popular in Indian context. Randhawa, 1978 states the visual thinking refers to the incorporation of visual images as part of conscious or pre-conscious process of thought, and how a person visualizes mental images meaningfully. Visual learning refers to the development of visual images for instructional purposes and the use of visual content to learn better. Visual communication refers to express ideas and convey meaning to others through visuals images.

Visuals are highly useful to the learners for understanding the complex content into a simple one. Visuals are effectively and smartly used in various forms of electronic media in specific from the kinder garden education to higher education also in research and training. Though popular media make use of different kinds of visuals, expression of understanding through visuals and their comprehension is not given explicit focus within instruction.

In addition, effective visual presentation first attracts the learner, motivates to focus on learning and to remember the learning process. Thus, this article attempts to explore the effectiveness of visual presentation in e-learning on the subject Art and Design. The specific research questions to be addressed as given bellow.

1. To what extent do learners’ prior knowledge and pre-learning attitudes relate to their learning achievement and learning attitudes after the visual presentation of e-learning on art and design subject?
2. What are the measures applied to visuals for the effective learning on art and design subject which can create greater impact among learners.

Background
The studies from Suzanne Stokes Troy State University shows the success in thinking and learning visually instead of or in addition to traditional teaching and verbal description, a change in technique is required. Teachers need to learn to teach visually and students need to learn visually. “A good picture is equivalent to a good deed” - Van Gogh.

West (1997) stated that an innovative mathematics approach whereby students doing mathematics rather than watching mathematics. This emphasizes learning through interactive visuals without words. “The words go into an idea only after the idea has already settled in our mind.”
Li-H Juan Chanlin (1999) describes animation has been found most effective and helpful to illustrate complex structural, functional, and necessary relationships among the content. By presenting an accurate model of interpretation, it can help students to form accurate schematic representations. However, the effective use of animation is confirmed only by providing appropriate learning content material. If a concept is simple, any single medium can convey it successfully. If a concept is hard to understand, whatever combination of media is used, the presentation will fail. The failure of using animation is due to the high complexity of the textual material. If the learning content or the graphic animation itself is too complex, an animation cannot compensate the knowledge deficiency. A number of researchers have identified knowledge discrepancy among learners as influencing effectiveness of animation. Inconsistent findings exist among various studies on these subjects.

Connie Madlame stated in his article How Visual Clarity Affects Learning in particular, visual clarity should be a guiding principle in any design. To achieve visual clarity, consider these findings from other research on processing fluency and aesthetics. People prefer prototypical and familiar stimuli over highly unusual examples. What’s familiar is easier to process. Symmetry is valued more than non-symmetry, particularly vertical symmetry. High figure-ground contrast makes graphics clear and text legible. Visual clarity creates an effortless experience, which is preferred over experiences that are highly effortful. Less information is preferred over more information.

Battha, Al-Slaimeh & Besoul, 2006 saying that the digital image aspects of aesthetics and design are not merely photos or graphics displayed on a screen, but are the method of purposefully arranging elements to appeal to the senses or emotions of the end user; or the act of creating something that has not or does not exist. As part of the design process both aesthetic and functional considerations are evaluated, which requires considerable research, consideration, modification and redesign.

Anderson (2009) suggests that the language commonly used to describe design by those in the technology field like “eye candy”, “skinning a design”, and “styling,” serves to limit the importance of visual design and separates aesthetics from usability. Are aesthetics and usability truly separate? There is a significant amount of research that supports the view that design, aesthetics and usability are inexorably linked with each other.

Lin, H. (2011) stating that an animation has been used in various disciplines to deliver instructional material that is hard to present alone using static visuals or that contains content that is highly abstract or invisible to human eyes. Animation, presented as pictures in motion, is analogous to a subset of visual graphics. In a computer based instructional (CBI) environment, animation is typically used due to its inherent characteristics that facilitate the instructional and learning processes. Animation also has the potential to provide feedback in various forms that may be both entertaining and motivating to learners striving for the correct response. Visuals have been well recognized in terms of their function in facilitating knowledge construction and in shaping, reflecting, and representing our society.

Jeffers, 2002 describes people in post-modern society learn visually and most of the time, need to learn to “visualize” things that are not visual-based, since visuals have occupied almost every aspect of our society and everyday life. Visuals have dominated most instructional materials that we use and, therefore, instructional designers need to understand general instructional principles that apply to all graphic materials.

Rieber (2000) has suggested conditions that need to be taken into consideration when designing graphics or visuals based instructional materials. First, the purposes that graphics serve and the specific type of instructional objective each graphic is designed to achieve must be determined prior to the design process and evaluated throughout the process. Second, the selection of the types of graphics depends on the needs and the types of learner, the content to be delivered, and the characteristics of the learning task.

One important design principle that Rieber (2000) pointed out that is especially relevant to this study is “...the important relationship between attention-gaining and presentation principles associated with graphics ...” As was revealed in previous studies, students might not attend to relevant parts of a graphic presentation due to selective attention. Therefore, “... direct and overt directions to actively search for or use specific information in the visual ...” should be provided to increase the chance that students would pay attention to a graphic. Such strategies also reduce extraneous cognitive load resulting from irrelevant search and free working memory space for more intrinsic learning.

Souleles, N. (2005) highlights that ‘...[At Norwich School of Art and Design] There is uncertainty about the ‘fit’ of commercial VLE [Virtual Learning Environment] platforms with the specific and to some extent a-typical needs of the Art and Design curriculum... At the University of Wales Institute, Cardiff there was an historical reluctance [in the School of Art and Design] to engage with the VLE because of the importance of studio-based, student teacher interactions...’...’The physical interaction with artefacts is essential to the studies [in art and design] as is the real-life interaction between learners and subject. This cannot be replaced...’

Drew (2002) suggests that it is characteristic of art and design that the adoption rate of ICTs is generally slow. explored some
of these themes and referred to ‘recurrent practices and implicit theories of learning and teaching’ that stem from the vocational nature of the related disciplines. Similarly, Gruba (2001) admits that ‘In the Arts, we’ve been a bit slower than some Faculties in coming to terms with the increasing use of IT & MM [Information Technology & Multimedia] in teaching…’ A survey of staff development to support the use of ICTs in art and design identifies the lacuna in the research literature and emphasizes the need for specific and targeted staff development in the related disciplines. The same survey quotes a Scottish report released in 2002, titled ‘Supporting C&IT Staff Development Activity in the Visual Arts Sector of Scottish Higher Education’, which concludes that the uptake of ICTs in general to support teaching and learning within the art and design HE sector lags behind other subject areas and disciplines. The picture these limited studies sketch about elearning in studio-based disciplines, is of an under-researched area, where the uptake levels of ICTs in general and elearning more specifically, tend to lag behind other HE disciplines. However, this needs to be qualified for the use of electronic resources within these disciplines for the passive provision of information, in the form of online galleries, repositories and portfolios, is widespread.

A good example is the ‘intute’ (2006) web site, created from the amalgamation of smaller Arts and Humanities online repositories to become an extensive online portal for a wide variety of dispersed online sources. Similarly, the ‘art in context’ (1995) web site claims that it provides to over six million visitors annually, information concerning artists around the world. It does so by maintaining a list of museums, galleries, artists, current exhibitions, and making available online a collection of images that covers areas such as architecture, ceramics, design, drawing, photography and sculpture. Another appropriate example of provision of passive online information about art and design is the Visual Arts Data Service (2008) that proclaims it ‘…has built up a considerable portfolio of visual art collections comprising over 100,000 images… for use in learning, teaching and research in the UK.’

Karla Gutierrez (2014) The Power of Visuals in eLearning - In this post, the statistics and facts confirm and proves why e-Learning developers should embrace visuals when creating their modules. Visual content plays a tremendous and 65 percent of the population are visual learners. In broadband, cell, networks, and high-resolution screens made it possible for high-quality images to be a part of e-Learning visual content design. Drawings, photographs, real pictures, illustrations, charts, maps, diagrams, 2D graphics, 3D animation and videos are enhancing and replacing the text-based content. The visuals have the strong power as (a) Visuals Stick in Long-Term Memory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(b) Quick Transformation of content for example</th>
<th>Textural Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graphic description</td>
<td>A plane figure with four sides equal straight and four right angles.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) Visuals Improve Comprehension: It has been found that the visuals improve learning by up to 400 percent. Visuals affect learners on a cognitive level and stimulate imagination, so the users can process the information much faster. Stanford University’s Robert E. Horn, explained clearly “When words and visual elements are closely entwined, we create something new and we augment our communal intelligence … visual language has the potential for increasing ‘human bandwidth’—the capacity to take in, comprehend, and more efficiently synthesize large amounts of new information.” Other studies studies also proved that visuals such as graphic improve performance in areas like reading comprehension, student achievement, organizing and communicating ideas, finding patterns and relationships. This shows how brains are pre-wired and interpret relationships between subjects with minimal effort. (d) Visual Cues Trigger Emotions- look at the picture bellow

(e) Visuals Motivate Learners: Nearly 40 percent of learners respond better to visual images than text alone. Seeing a picture allows the users to recreate and experience in their mind. e Learning designers can benefit by telling the content in stories through the images and videos therefore the motivation will be very strong among the learners. (f) Use of improper Visuals Can Also Deter Learners.

The other studies say data provided that the visual presentation in e-learning on the subjects had a positive effect on students’ learning achievement. Further support the superiority of male students’ learning attitudes and learning achievement over those of female students. The estimations performed confirm that there were significant differences between male and female students in terms of their attitudes and achievement with visual presentation e-learning. For the most part, the literature is replete with studies suggesting that the gender differences exist in social science. The authors of this study suggest that visual presentation e-learning on engineering drawing should consider gender differences, and this study could lead to a better understanding of gender differences in visual presentation e-learning. It is proved that effective learning happens from both genders.

Methodology

In order to achieve the goals, a literature review was used to construct the research frame. This study has adopted the systematic survey method with a self administered questionnaire tool and field observation to find the learning effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content on media communication course with reference to art and design. Sample of 415 students were
selected for the pre and post test for the survey. A well designed questionnaire was distributed among the graduate students of art, architecture and media discipline from the government, aided and private colleges in and around Chennai.

Analysis on sample were studied using Student t test, ANOVA followed by Duncan Multiple Range Test (DMRT), Chi-square test, Friedman test, Correlation Analysis, Multiple Regression Analysis and Structural Equation Model (SEM) are used to find the results.

**Results And Discussion**

**Demographic Profile**

Percentage analysis is one of the statistical measures used to describe the age group, gender, management and branch of the students.

**Age Group**

- 19-20
- >=23
- 17-18

![Fig 4.1.1 Diagram represent age group of students](image)

Maximum numbers of students are in the age group of 17-18 and the minimum number of student are in the age group of more are equal to 23.

**Gender**

- Female
- Male

![Fig 4.1.2 Diagram represent Distribution of Gender of students.](image)

Maximum numbers of students are females and less number of student are male.

**Management**

- Aided
- Private
- Government

![Fig 4.1.3 Diagram represent Type of Management.](image)

Maximum numbers of students are from Government colleges and minimum numbers of students are from private colleges.

**Branch**

- Media
- Fine Arts
- Architecture

![Fig 4.1.4 Diagram represent Branch in the college.](image)

Maximum numbers of students are from architecture branches [B.Arch] and minimum numbers of students are from Fine Arts branch [B.F.A].

**Descriptive Analysis Of Awareness On E-Learning**
### Table 4.2.1 Mean and SD of Awareness on E-Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Awareness on E-Learning</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning encouraged by teachers?</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning creates interest to explore the learning.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-learning used for updating knowledge and user friendly.</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-learning accessible at any time and any place.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy to remember the e-learning content?</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-learning expensive than other learning.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual learning is better than the face to face class.</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visuals in stories are adding interest and improve learning.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solve the problems in a better way compared to classroom assignments?</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like the idea of learning with 3D graphics and animation using in a computer than sitting in a classroom with a teacher and book?</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on mean score, Visuals in stories are adding interest and improve learning(4.31) is the most important factor on awareness on e–learning content, followed by E-learning used for updating knowledge and user friendly(4.27), Learning creates interest to explore the learning (4.25), Like the idea of learning with 3D graphics and animation using in a computer than sitting in a classroom with a teacher and book(4.18), E-learning accessible at any time and any place(4.0) and so on. The least factor is E-learning expensive than other learning(3.12) followed by Solve the problems in a better way compared to classroom assignments(3.73), Visual learning is better than the face to face class(3.79), Easy to remember the e-learning content(3.93) and so on.

Descriptive Analysis of Effects of Various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design

### Table 4.3.1 Mean and SD of Effects on Black – white and Colour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of Black - white and Colour:</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colour images attract than the Black and White image</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More colours are needed to understand a visual.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced colours are better than the basic colours.</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour images encourage the learner to learn more.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective colours has more impact than the multi colour,</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At what % do you like black and white visuals.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At what % do you like colour visuals.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on mean score, 1Colour images attract than the Black and White image (4.40) is the most important factor on Effects of various Types of Visuals In E-Learning Content Design of Students, followed by more colours are needed to understand a visual. (4.12), Colour images encourage the learner to learn more(4.11), At what % do you like colour visuals (4.02) and so on. The least factor is At what % do you like black and white visuals(3.13) followed by Selective colours has more impact than the multi colour (3.91), Balanced colours are better than the basic colours (3.95) and so on.
### Effects of Drawings and Illustrations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning is effective through line drawings and illustrations.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line drawings are easy to convey overall idea.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing with few lines create high impact on the learner,</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mono colour drawings are good than the multi colour.</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At what % remember the drawings from your memory.</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on mean score, Learning is effective through line drawings and illustrations (4.19) is the most important factor on Effects of various Types of Visuals In E-Learning Content Design of Students on Drawings and Illustrations, followed by Line drawings are easy to convey overall idea (3.92). The least factor is Mono colour drawings are good than the multi colour (3.16) followed by at what % remember the drawings from your memory (3.73). Drawing with few lines create high impact on the learner (3.74).

![Table: 4.3.3 Mean and SD of Effects of Real images and Photographs](data:image/png;base64,iVBORw0KGgoAAAANSUhEUgAAAIgAAAAHCAIAAACQHhD0AAAAAElFTkSuQmCC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real images gives general outline of the content to learn.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In depth learning is difficult through real pictures.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At what % real images convey the meaning of the content.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animations have high impact in learning than photographs.</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on mean score, Real images gives general outline of the content to learn (4.19) is the most important factor on Effects of various Types of Visuals In E-Learning Content Design of Students on Real images and Photographs, followed by At what % real images convey the meaning of the content (3.78). The least factor is In depth learning is difficult through real pictures (3.22) followed by Animations have high impact in learning than photographs (3.77).

![Table: 4.3.4 Mean and SD of Effects of 2D Graphics](data:image/png;base64,iVBORw0KGgoAAAANSUhEUgAAAIgAAAAHCAIAAACQHhD0AAAAAElFTkSuQmCC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2D graphics has details in supporting the learning content.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simplified forms of 2D graphics are an added advantage.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I see 2D graphics, I usually turn it in to 3D images in my mind.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness of 2D graphics in supporting the content.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced colours in 2D graphics made the content to learn easier.</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on mean score, 1-2D graphics has details in supporting the learning content (3.92) is the most important factor on Effects of various Types of Visuals In E-Learning Content Design of Students on 2D Graphics, followed by 2-Simplified forms of 2D graphics are an added advantage (3.81), 3-When I see 2D graphics, I usually turn it in to 3D images in my mind (3.76). The least factor is 5-Effectiveness of 2D graphics in supporting the content (3.47) followed by 4-Balanced colours in 2D graphics made the content to learn easier (3.54).

![Table: 4.3.5 Mean and SD of Effects of 3D Graphics and Animation](data:image/png;base64,iVBORw0KGgoAAAANSUhEUgAAAIgAAAAHCAIAAACQHhD0AAAAAElFTkSuQmCC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3D visuals have more details, clarity and depth.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concepts of 3D graphics are better than 2D graphics.</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D graphics and animations are self explanatory.</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More learning happens by 3D graphic animation than the text + audio.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced colours drag the learner very close to learn for longer time.</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of 3D graphics in conveying the meaning of the content.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stronger colours disturb the learner to learn.</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animated drawings have maximum information to the learner to learn in short time.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on mean score, 3D visuals have more details, clarity and depth (4.41) is the most important factor on Effects of various Types of Visuals In E-Learning Content Design of Students on 3D Graphics and Animation, followed by Concepts of 3D graphics are better than 2D graphics (4.26) and so on. The least factor is Stronger colours disturb the learner to learn (3.68) followed by Balanced colours drag the learner very close to learn for longer time (3.82) and so on.

![Table: 4.3.6 Mean and SD of Effects of Video](data:image/png;base64,iVBORw0KGgoAAAANSUhEUgAAAIgAAAAHCAIAAACQHhD0AAAAAElFTkSuQmCC)
Based on mean score, Video gives overall input about the content along with audio (4.42) is the most important factor on Effects of various Types of Visuals In E-Learning Content Design of Students on Video, followed by Feel of reality is high in video than the other forms of visuals (4.29). The least factor is Stronger colours disturb the learner to learn (4.09) followed by Text + audio are highly supported by visuals for effective learning (4.12).

**Dicriptive Analysis Test on Impact of Various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design Among Media Communication.**
Media communication and design principles related questions were prepared on drawing, black and white, colour, photographs, 2 D graphics, 3D graphics, animation and video in appropriate places in the e-learning content to test the effectiveness of learning. Which were grouped as static and dynamic visuals. Focused on time, concentration long time focus, retention, sharing, user friendly, cost, reach were targeted to find the effectiveness of visuals.

Table: 4.4.1 Mean and SD on Impact of various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design among Students (Pre-Test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective questions</th>
<th>Wright 1</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Wrong 0</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which line is more dynamic</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>39.04</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>60.96</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Radial line</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>40.72</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>59.28</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Harmonious line</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>48.67</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>51.33</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Contrast line</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>43.13</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>56.87</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is Value with reference to drawing</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>44.58</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>55.42</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A colour mixed with black is called</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>38.31</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>61.69</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shadow is defined as</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>41.20</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>58.80</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A colour mixed with white is called.</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>44.10</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>55.90</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hue, Value and Chroma of colour is well described in</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>49.88</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>50.12</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the contrast colour</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>46.51</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>53.49</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Colours that are equally placed on the colour wheel are called as  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Wright Answer</th>
<th>Wrong Answer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96</td>
<td>23.13</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which colour combination produce cool colour?</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>69.88</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The warm colours in a picture or design appears to the observer</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>53.98</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which colour scheme do you like while learning?</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>35.18</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtract theory based on</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>61.45</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasing arrangements of colours in design known as</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>58.31</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper and colour both are wet when creating a water colour rendering is known as</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>56.39</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What circumstance demonstration of water colour rendering is more useful to the learner to recall</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>30.60</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following clearly sense in the water colour demonstration</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>70.60</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristic of water colour has.</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>55.90</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The descriptive analysis on impact of various type of visuals in e-learning content design before showing e-content visuals to the respondents is explained in the above table. Around 39 percent of the respondents selected correct answer about the character of the line and 60.96 percent selected wrong answer. To identify the radial line, 40.72 percent answered correct and 52.58 percent answered wrong. About harmonious and contrast line, 48.67 percent and 43.13 percent selected the right answer and 51.33 percent and 56.87 percent selected wrong answer respectively. To identify the Value with reference to drawing and colour mixed with black, 44.58 percent and 38.31 percent answered the right answer and 55.42 percent and 61.69 percent answered wrong for the respective questions. Around 41.20 percent and 44.10 percent of the respondents selected correct answer about the Shadow and colour mixed with white and 58.80 percent and 55.90 percent selected wrong answer for the respective questions. Around 49.88 percent and 46.51 percent of the respondents selected right answer about the Hue, Value and Chroma of colour and to Identify the contrast colour and 50.12 percent and 53.49 percent selected wrong answer respectively. To identify the Colours that are equally placed on the colour wheel and about the colour combination 23.13 percent 69.88 percent selected correct answer and 76.87 percent and 30.12 percent selected wrong answer respectively. Around 53.98 percent and 35.18 percent of the respondents answered correct about the colour scheme do you like and appearance of the warm colour whereas 46.02 percent and 64.82 percent selected wrong answer for the questions respectively. To identify the Subtract theory and Pleasing arrangements of colours, 61.45 percent and 58.31 percent answered the right answer and 38.55 percent and 41.69 percent answered wrong for the respective questions. About rendering colour, demonstration and characteristic of water colour 30.60 percent, 70.60 percent and 55.90 percent of the respondents answered correct whereas 69.40 percent, 29.40 percent and 44.10 percent selected wrong answer for the questions respectively.

Table : 4.4.2 Mean and SD on Impact of various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design among Students (Post-Test)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Score1</th>
<th>Score2</th>
<th>Score3</th>
<th>Score4</th>
<th>Score5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Which line is more dynamic</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>70.36</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>29.64</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Radial line</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>68.43</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>31.57</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Harmonious line</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>57.35</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>42.65</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Contrast line</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>54.22</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>45.78</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is Value with reference to drawing</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>79.28</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>20.72</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A colour mixed with black is called</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>82.65</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>17.35</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shadow is defined as</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>66.75</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>33.25</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A colour mixed with white is called</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>71.57</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>28.43</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hue, Value and Chroma of colour is well described in</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>74.22</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>25.78</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the contrast colour</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>59.52</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>40.48</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colours that are equally placed on the colour wheel are called as</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>46.99</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>53.01</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which colour combination produce cool colour?</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>81.93</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18.07</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The warm colours in a picture or design appears to the observer</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>71.33</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>28.67</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which colour scheme do you like while learning?</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>59.52</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>40.48</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtract theory based on</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>58.07</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>41.93</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasing arrangements of colours in design known as</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>61.45</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>38.55</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper and colour both are wet when creating a water colour rendering is known as</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>71.57</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>28.43</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What circumstance demonstration of water colour rendering is more useful to the learner to recall</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>68.43</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>31.57</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following clearly sense in the water colour demonstration</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>76.63</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>23.37</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The descriptive analysis on impact of various type of visuals in e-learning content design after showing e-content visuals to the respondents is explained in the above table.

Around 70.36 percent of the respondents selected correct answer about the character of the line and 29.64 percent selected wrong answer. To identify the radial line, 68.43 percent answered correct and 31.57 percent answered wrong. About harmonious and contrast line, 57.35 percent and 54.22 percent selected the right answer and 42.65 percent and 45.78 percent selected wrong answer respectively. To identify the Value with reference to drawing and colour mixed with black, 79.28 percent and 82.65 percent answered the right answer and 20.72 percent and 17.35 percent answered wrong for the respective questions. Around 66.75 percent and 71.57 percent of the respondents selected correct answer about the Shadow and colour mixed with white and 33.25 percent and 28.43 percent selected wrong answer for the respective questions. Around 72.2 percent and 59.52 percent of the respondents selected right answer about the Hue, Value and Chroma of colour and to identify the contrast colour and 25.78 percent and 40.48 percent selected wrong answer respectively. To identify the Colours that are equally placed on the colour wheel and about the colour combination 46.99 percent 81.93 percent selected correct answer and 53.01 percent and 18.07 percent selected wrong answer respectively. Around 59.52 percent and 71.33 percent of the respondents answered correct about the colour scheme do you like and appearance of the warm colour whereas 40.48 percent and 28.67 percent selected wrong answer for the questions respectively. To identify the Subtract theory and Pleasing arrangements of colours, 58.07 percent and 61.45 percent answered the right answer and 41.93 percent and 38.55 percent answered wrong for the respective questions. About rendering colour, demonstration and characteristic of water colour 68.43 percent, 76.63 percent and 83.86 percent of the respondents answered correct whereas 31.57 percent, 23.37 percent and 16.14 percent selected wrong answer for the questions respectively.

**Inferential Analysis on Sample**

Differences between two groups in the mean scores of variables are studied using Student t test are discussed in this section. Also ANOVA followed by Duncan Multiple Range Test (DMRT), Chi-square test, Friedman test, Correlation Analysis, Multiple Regression Analysis and Structural Equation Model (SEM) are used to verify this chapter. Important test were considered for discussion.

Paired t test for significant difference between Pre Test and Post Test with respect to Impact of various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design among Students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of Visuals</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T Test</th>
<th>P Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre Test</td>
<td>9.78</td>
<td>3.978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Test</td>
<td>14.04</td>
<td>4.136</td>
<td>21.140</td>
<td>&lt;0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ** denotes significant at 1% level

Since P value is less than 0.01, null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level with regard to Impact of various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design among Students of pre test and post test. Hence there is significant difference between pre test and post test with regard to Impact of various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design among Students. Based on mean score, Post Test (14.04) is higher than Pre Test (9.78). Analysis says that the 70.2% of the students are performing better after exposing the visuals in e-learning content. 48.9% of the students are performing poor before exposing the visuals in e-learning content on art and design.

Because most of the information pertaining to the subject contents are visually transformed to the respondents mind in short time. Images in the form of static pictures like black and white, pictures, drawings, illustrations, real images and photographs convey the overall information. The images in the form of dynamic pictures like 2D graphics, 3D graphic animation and video type of motion pictures delivering the information continuously in appropriate phase of the subject content without any interruption in short time. The knowledge gained may be reveled at any point of time. The visuals are created and designed carefully to the subject content in order to cater the focused learning. In this process text, colour, proportion, size, placement, composition and visual movement are taken care to convey the content message through the visuals for the purpose of focused learning.

**Multiple Regression Analysis on Impact of Visual (Post Test) of Awareness on E-Learning Content Design and Effects of Various Types of Visuals in E-Learning Content Design.**

Regression is the determination of statistical relationship between two or more variables. In simple regression two variables are used. One variable (independent) is the cause of the behavior of another one (dependent). When there are more than two independent variables the analysis concerning relationship is known as multiple correlations and the equation describing such
relationship is called as the multiple regression equation.

Regression analysis is concerned with the derivation of an appropriate mathematical expression is derived for finding values of a dependent variable on the basis of independent variable. It is thus designed to examine the relationship of a variable Y to a set of other variables X₁, X₂, X₃,……Xₙ, the most commonly used linear equation in Y=b₁X₁ + b₂X₂ +…….+ bₙXₙ + b₀,

Here Y is the dependent variable, which is to be found. X₁, X₂,… and Xₙ are the known variables with which predictions are to be made and b₁, b₂ ,….bₙ are coefficient of the variables.

In this study, the dependent variable is Impact of Visual-Post test; Independent variables are Awareness on e-learning content and Effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content design are discussed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Impact of Visual-Post test(Y)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent variables</td>
<td>1. Awareness on e-learning content (X₁)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content design (X₂)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R value</td>
<td>: 0.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square value</td>
<td>: 0.0338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F value</td>
<td>: 105.379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P value</td>
<td>: &lt;0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5.2 Variables in the Multiple Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized co-efficient</th>
<th>SE of B</th>
<th>Standardized co-efficient</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>12.617</td>
<td>1.873</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.738</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₁</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>1.983</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₂</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>12.277</td>
<td>&lt;0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ** Denotes significant at 1% level

The multiple correlation coefficient is 0.582 measures the degree of relationship between the actual values and the predicted values of the Adjustment. Because the predicted values are obtained as a linear combination of Awareness on e-learning content (X₁) and Effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content design (X₂), the coefficient value of 0.582 indicates that the relationship between Impact of Visual-Post test and the two independent variables is quite strong and positive.

The Coefficient of Determination R-square measures the goodness-of-fit of the estimated Sample Regression Plane (SRP) in terms of the proportion of the variation in the dependent variables explained by the fitted sample regression equation. Thus, the value of R square is 0.0338 simply means that about 03.38% of the variation in Impact of Visual-Post test is explained by the estimated SRP that uses Awareness on e-learning content and Effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content design as the independent variables and R square value is significant at 1 % level.

The multiple regression equation is

Y = 12.617 + 0.079X₁ + 0.173X₂

Here the coefficient of X₁ is 0.079 represents the partial effect of Awareness on e-learning content on Impact of Visual-Post test , holding the other variables as constant. The estimated positive sign implies that such effect is positive that Impact of Visual-Post test score would increase by 0.079 for every unit increase in Awareness on e-learning content and this coefficient value is significant at 1% level. The coefficient of X₂ is 0.173 represents the partial effect of Effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content design on Impact of Visual-Post test, holding the other variables as constant. The estimated positive sign implies that such effect is positive that Impact of Visual-Post test score would increase by 0.173 for every unit increase in anxiety and this coefficient value is not significant at 5% level.

Based on standardized coefficient, Awareness on e-learning content (0.087) is the most important factors to extract Impact of Visual-Post test score, followed by Effects of various types of visuals in e-learning content design (0.540).

Findings and Conclusion

The results of this research proved that the Impact of visuals among Students before showing the various Types of visuals in media communication and design principles on e-learning content is 48.9%. The Impact of visuals among Students after showing the various Types of visuals in media communication and design principles on e-learning content is 70.2%.
The results of this research have suggested that undergraduate e-learners and educators working in e-learning environments all prefer media communication through visuals in their learning environments. This finding supports the assertion that we are shifting from an age where text as the baseline of literacy is becoming outmoded, and moving towards an era of multi illiteracies; a socio-historical juncture wherein visuals in communication takes an importance in the electronic age at the highest level.

The conclusion is that the effective learning through visuals in e-learning content environment is greater than the other conventional type of learning, moreover it creates greater effects and impacts among the students and the younger generations in terms of long time memory, time, sharing, focusing and retention and accessibility. As educators and media communication designers of e-learning spaces, we need to be prepared to offer eco-friendly variants in visuals that can communicate and provide a balance, a place in which all may learn.

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World Transactions on Engineering and Technology Education - WIETE Vol.11, No.3, 2013
Elasticity of Knowledge in Communication: A Case of the Teacher and Student Interaction

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Abstract
Lack of knowledge makes a barrier for human communication. Similarly, a poor quality of knowledge of the communicating parts also impairs effectiveness of communication. In this paper, the elasticity of knowledge is proposed to be viewed as an aspect of its quality. Only the propositional knowledge on some subject is considered. The simplest form of its representation—a list of concepts—is viewed. Knowledge elasticity is defined in terms of the response sensitivity of the communicating parts to the change in a message. In particular, a question and an answer are viewed as the messages; the change of answer in response to the change of question is considered. The idea of the knowledge elasticity in communication might be compared to the idea of elasticity applied in economics (e.g., elasticity of the supply and demand). A process of the teacher and student communication is considered in terms of elasticity in more details.

Introduction
Knowledge is one of the factors considered in describing the models of human communication; David Berlo provides one of such models (Berlo, 1960). It is commonly admitted that lack of knowledge on the subject of communication makes a barrier for communication. More generally, effectiveness of communication depends upon the features of knowledge on the subject of communication of the sender and receiver. In this paper, it is assumed that a special feature of knowledge, its elasticity, is one of the factors influencing the process of communication and its effectiveness.

Elasticity of knowledge in communication might be interesting for various research areas of communication; this paper focusses on the area of instructional communication (Mottet, 2006; Walton, 2014). Elasticity of knowledge until now was not considered neither in the research area of instructional communication, nor in any other domain of communication.

The purpose of this paper is to introduce the idea of knowledge elasticity into the description of the communication process. In more details, the purpose is to analyse one of its cases—knowledge elasticity in teacher and student communication; and, in particular, in the process of communication in assessing the student knowledge.

The Idea of Elasticity of Knowledge
The concept of elasticity is a widespread idea in modern life and science. In the theory of elasticity, it is considered in scientific terms. In economics, elasticity is considered as responsiveness of a dependent economic variable to changes in influencing factors. For example, demand is said to be elastic when it responds quickly to changes in price. In this paper, elasticity is defined similarly: The knowledge is elastic if it responds sensitively to the change of action exerted on this knowledge. Question and answer as action and reaction are proposed to be used for its external observation. Definition of elasticity then is modified as follows: Knowledge is elastic if it responds sensitively to the change of the question about its content.

Only a few research works consider elasticity of knowledge—as a scientific term—directly (Budrevicius, 2014).

In this paper, only the propositional knowledge on some subject is considered. The simplest form of its representation—a list of concepts—is viewed. A question used to explore the knowledge might be formulated as follows: “What terms describe the topic <a title of the topic>?”. A system of concepts allows representing the basic knowledge. Such a way to represent knowledge allows simple estimation of its change: assuming that a different set of concepts (terms) represents the different knowledge, a change of terms in the set indicates a change of the knowledge. Two questions having a similar meaning might be asked to observe a change of the knowledge; the second question should only slightly (just-noticeably) differ from the first one to remain within limits of the considered topic. It might be formulated, for example, as follows: “What terms belong to the topic <a title of the topic>?”. The answer should indicate, correspondingly, a slight change of the knowledge—a part of the listed terms in the answer, generally, should be different. Several or more pairs of questions should be employed to assure that sensitivity of the response is a regular phenomenon.

Not all knowledge—even of an expert—is elastic. This feature is applicable only for the knowledge belonging to the domain of elasticity. The domain might cover all considered subject area or only its part. In case of the teacher and student interaction, its content might be described, for example, by a lecture title. The elasticity domain might be determined experimentally. Preliminary, existence of a particular domain of elasticity might be assumed taking into account quality of the considered knowledge: It is natural to expect that the top-quality knowledge should be elastic. Taking into account definition of elasticity, it is natural to require that knowledge in the domain of elasticity should be: a) full (complete, all-inclusive), and b) sufficiently detailed. Generally, domains of elasticity might be found considering knowledge about things we know very well; it is natural to think that experts, advanced researchers, highly qualified professionals, and best students might possess elastic knowledge in the domain of their competence.
Implementation of the difference between two questions is essential for observation of the elasticity reactions. Elasticity is a relative feature: The same knowledge for a stronger action—when there is a bigger difference between two questions—might behave as inelastic. The difference therefore should be relatively small. The same requirement might be obtained taking into account the idea of response sensitivity used in the definition of elasticity. The difference between two questions is not physical; it is semantic—defined in terms of meaning. Physically, e.g. in terms of number of words in their formulations, the questions might differ significantly. Here is an example of two just-noticeably semantically different (jnsd) questions:

a) “What are the main terms of your topic?”

b) “What are the most important terms of your topic?”

The just-noticeable difference is implemented here by means of replacing the word main by a phrase most important which has more or less equivalent meaning. The difference, therefore, is really very small and possibly it might be treated as just-noticeable. Its final evaluation, however, might be obtained only by means of analysis of the answers of at least several respondents.

**Elasticity of Knowledge in the Process of Communication**

Berlo (Berlo, 1960) provides a SMCR (Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver) model of communication (see Figure 1); the model includes knowledge as one of the factors describing the process of communication.

![Figure 1. A SMCR model of communication.](image)

Berlo defines a set of factors related to Source, Receiver, Message and Channel. The factors related to Source and Receiver are as follows:

**Communication skills** – it is the individual’s skill to communicate (ability to read, write, speak, listen etc…);

**Attitudes** – towards the audience, subject; e.g. for the student the attitude is to learn more;

**Knowledge** – about the subject one is going to communicate;

**Social system** – it includes the various aspects in society like values, beliefs, culture, religion, etc…;

**Culture** – of the particular society; it also comes under social system.

For an effective communication to take place the source and the receiver needs to be in the same level.

There are following factors related to Message:

**Content** – the matter, e.g. text of the message;

**Elements** – include various things like language, gestures, body language etc.;

**Treatment** – the way in which the message is conveyed;

**Structure** – how it is arranged or split into various parts;

**Code** – how it is sent (language, body language, gestures, music, etc.).

Factors related to Channel are as follows: The five senses which we use, that is, hearing, seeing, touching, smelling, tasting.

In this paper, knowledge is the central idea for describing communication; therefore, the process of communication might be presented as it is shown in the Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Process of communication presented in terms of knowledge.](image)

Considering the model in terms of elasticity, there might be the following four basic cases:

Knowledge of the sender and receiver are elastic (e.g., as in communication of two experts);

Knowledge of the sender and the receiver are inelastic (e.g., as in communication of two students);

Knowledge of the sender is elastic and knowledge of the receiver is inelastic (e.g., when a teacher communicates with (to) a student);

Knowledge of the sender is inelastic and knowledge of the receiver is elastic (e.g., as a student communicates with (to) an expert).

It should be noted that provided examples describe only a typical or more probable state of affairs.

**Knowledge Elasticity in the Teacher and Student Communication**

Knowledge of a teacher—as a rule—is elastic; knowledge of a student on the studied subject, generally, should be elastic only in the final phase of learning, when the student usually is supposed to have a full knowledge on the studied subject.
Completeness of knowledge, however, is not a sufficient reason for some teachers to grade performance of a student excellently. A teacher may want to get more evidence on the quality of the student knowledge. He might ask additional questions for this purpose. For example, he might slightly change his previous question trying to determine how sensitively the student responds to the change of the question. The student is expected to respond sensitively—to change his answer correspondingly. This situation naturally may be treated in terms of elasticity: It may be assumed that the student demonstrates elasticity of his knowledge.

Using above provided definition of knowledge elasticity, and the way of its observation by means of the just-noticeably semantically different questions (jnsd), the situation of teacher and student communication may be presented as it is shown in the Figure 3.

![Figure 3. Model of the teacher and student communication for observation of elasticity of the student knowledge; “jnsd” stands for a “just-noticeable semantic difference”.

Below, an example of the typical elasticity reactions—presented in terms of the teacher questions and answers of the student—is provided to illustrate this situation in more details.

The subject area under consideration is Information management. Three students are considered to illustrate different degrees of knowledge elasticity. The following two questions (similar to those mentioned earlier) are used to explore elasticity of the knowledge:

a) “What are the main terms of the topic Information management?”

b) “What are the most important terms of the topic Information management?”

The students are asked not to look at their previous answer to prevent its influence. The elasticity reactions are as follows.

**Inelastic (rigid) knowledge (elasticity is close to 0%).** Answers of the 1st student:

a) “Information, management, information resources, information maturity, information policy, information culture, information strategy”;

b) “Information, information resources, information maturity, information policy, information culture, information strategy, management”.

All terms in this case are almost exactly the same, only one word is added in the second answer. Knowledge of the student, therefore, might be viewed as almost fully inelastic.

**Medium elasticity of knowledge.** Answers of the 2nd student:

a) “Information, data, knowledge, information resources, collecting, processing, storing, dissemination, using, management”;

b) “Information collecting, processing, analysis, storing, dissemination, using”.

There are four different terms in the two answers; the general meaning of the two answers, however, is quite similar; the grade of knowledge elasticity, therefore, might be viewed as medium.

**Highly elastic knowledge (close to 100%).** Answers of the 3rd student:

a) “Information, management, knowledge, information science, intelligence, non-material wealth, resource”;

b) “Perspectives, information management, innovativeness, non-concreteness, uncertainty, non-materiality”.

There are nine different terms in the two answers; hence, the answers are almost entirely different. Nevertheless, both answers still belong to the domain of Information management. It might be concluded, therefore, that a small change in the meaning of question causes a significant change of the answer. This reaction, consequently, might be treated as indication of the highly elastic knowledge of the student.

Considering the provided example, it should be noted that the procedure applied for estimation of the semantic difference between the answers is very rough; it should be improved.

To summarize, the example demonstrates manifestation of the different degrees of the student knowledge elasticity and how it may be estimated. The example is not meant to estimate efficiency of the teacher and student communication; it should be a further task.

**Conclusion**

Phenomenon of the knowledge elasticity in communication has not attracted attention of researchers until now. Its description and
method of observation is provided in this paper. Several main cases of communication processes are singled out on the basis of the
different grades of knowledge elasticity of the communicating parts.

A simplest way to represent knowledge—a system of concepts—is considered. This choice allows simplifying observation of the
elasticity. The method of the just-noticeable semantic difference is used to explore the knowledge elasticity. For illustration, an
eexample of the knowledge elasticity in teacher and student communication is analysed.

Other means of knowledge representation should also be considered in the future explorations of the knowledge elasticity in
communication. Measurement of elasticity is essential for a further research. The scale of order is used for a qualitative evaluation
of elasticity. Indicator of the change in the meaning of the answer—the number of different terms and words—is applied; it
should be further refined to develop a more detailed scale of the order; for example taking into account inclusion of terms into one
another.

As a next step of research, might be analysis of dependence of the efficiency of the teacher and student communication on
the grade of elasticity of the two communicating parts. Described ideas might facilitate a further research in developing
communication models based on the idea of knowledge elasticity.

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Engaging University Alumni through Social Media: Strategies for Creating Community

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Abstract  
Colleges and universities are more reliant than ever on alumni donations to remain competitive in the current economic context. Evidence clearly shows that alumni donations are positively linked to frequent university communication that creates alumni identification. What is less understood, however, is how universities can leverage new media, such as Facebook, to improve identification with alumni. Using in-depth interviews with social media strategists from eight highly-ranked universities, this study examines 1) how universities utilize social media platforms to increase identification and build a sense of community, and 2) what strategies are the most successful in doing so. The results show that the most effective social media strategies for creating identification with alumni are posts that utilize unifying imagery, pride points, relevance, and/or nostalgia. This study provides important insights about how universities can capitalize on social media to improve both alumni identification and commitment.

Introduction  
It is impossible to place a numerical value on education. As Plato famously stated, “knowledge is the food of the soul” (Jowett 1996). Yet in today’s sphere of higher education, that knowledge comes with a hefty price tag. The cost of tuition increases yearly, currently speeding steadily towards almost $60,000 per year. The price of a college degree has risen more than four times faster than inflation since 1978 (Making College Cost Less 2014), necessitated by projects such as state-of-the-art gymnasiums, plush dormitories, and immaculate grounds. Universities that are driven by the desire to rise higher in college rankings such as US News and World Report are forced to conduct these projects and outdo one another or risk falling in the rankings. Lower-ranked universities face the risk of a shortage of applicants, resulting in a lack of funding, and in two recent cases (Sweet Briar College and Tennessee Temple University), these institutions are forced to close the doors on a long history of education. Whether or not these projects are necessary remains to be seen, but what is certain is that they are costly. In an economy that remains in recovery from a recent recession, public universities especially have been forced to endure large decreases in government funding. Both private and public universities alike have struggled as the slow tightening of institutional budgets have increasingly added pressure to find and capitalize on other sources of financial support (Bell & Stephenson 2014).

As a result, institutions are now more reliant than ever upon another source of funding: private donors. According to the US Department of Education, in fiscal year 2013, 26.6% of a private nonprofit 4-year institution’s revenue and investment returns were made up of private gifts, grants, and contracts, which was an increase of 22.2% from 2012 (Council for Aid to Education 2014). These donations are often made by alumni with the desire to “give back” to their alma mater. In order to make up for lost funding, colleges and universities have thrown themselves into pursuing these alumni, using different strategies to capitalize on this important source of funding (Bell and Stephenson 2014). The challenges these universities face is that these alumni are no longer physically on campus and within their sphere of influence. Beginning from the moment they graduate, time slowly creates a distance between alumni and their college experiences. How can these institutions reach out to alumni and make them interested in donating to their alma mater?

Studies have repeatedly demonstrated that identification with a university is an important factor in alumni donations, meaning that the closer an alumnus perceives him or herself to their university, the more likely he or she is to donate (Levine 2008; Parsons and Wethington 1996). There are many strategies that universities use in order to increase identification in their alumni networks, including organizing and sponsoring alumni events in different cities, homecoming events and periodic reunions. Marketing communication has traditionally come in the forms of printed materials such as alumni newsletters, direct mail and brochures; verbally in the form of telephone calls and face-to-face solicitation; and by Internet services such as emails and E-newsletters. More recently, Universities have begun to direct their efforts towards capitalizing on a new medium as a way to communicate and interact with those outside of the university: social media.

Literature Review  
Colleges and universities, in particular, have recognized that social media platforms offer immense potential for reaching out to alumni. Loyal alumni networks have always been an important source of funding for universities, and because of this, universities have always been extremely interested in pursuing these alumni, often adopting communications strategies which allow them to capitalize on potential donations. Three groups within the literature serve to explain different aspects of this phenomenon.
Communication as a Way to Increase Identification

Findings demonstrate that of all strategies, simply more frequent communication with potential donors is most positively associated with giving. According to a study in *The Chronicle of Philanthropy*, 18% of people who choose to stop giving to charities do so because they feel that organization has not kept them sufficiently informed, and 33 percent do so because they are not sure whether their contribution makes a difference (Levine 2008). Levine (2008) seeks to interpret the effects that communications vehicles—varying by frequency, format, and content—have on alumni giving. To measure this, surveys were mailed to annual giving and development directors at mid-sized private US colleges and universities. Analysis of results reveals that the frequency with which both alumni magazines and alumni electronic newsletters are sent is positively associated with alumni giving and participation, indicating that the more often these communication pieces were sent to alumni, the higher the alumni giving rates.

Parsons and Wethington (1996) also assert that “regular communication between an organization and its potential donors can have a far greater impact than the fundraising campaign in progress at the time” (48), but also highlight another important factor—the type of communication pieces being sent out. They conducted an experiment which demonstrates that when institutions embark upon mass fundraising appeals using brochures and cover letters, the response is more positive with a personal touch. The authors used a sample of 622 alumni with little or no history of giving, which they split into two randomly equivalent groups. Half received a cover letter with a brochure only. The other half received a brief personal note written by a student which touched upon an experience shared by the alumni recipient. Giving rates were, in fact, higher in the group which received a personal note. Additionally, there was a marked difference in terms of monetary amounts given, with the former group donating over twice as much as the latter, showing the effectiveness of adding a personal touch to these communications. These studies clearly demonstrate the importance that lies in both frequency and type of communication pieces with alumni by colleges and universities who seek to procure donations. What these studies fail to provide, though, is an explanation for this phenomenon.

Identification and Alumni Giving Patterns

Another set of studies indicate the importance of identification with a university. Hartman et al. (2008) attempt to provide a model of identification for understanding why individuals choose to give to organizations, exploring both the factors in the external environment which increase the perceived status of the organization, and the individual experiences which might promote a positive response to the organization. The authors use an online questionnaire, sent to a population composed of 110 participants from two groups: mid-career professionals and executives participating in a university advisory program. Responses represented 74 different undergraduate universities (25 private and 44 public) from 26 US states. The authors explored different factors that work to enhance college identification, including perceived academic prestige, perceived athletic prestige, attendance of university sponsored cultural events, attendance of academic events, and student organization involvement. Of these, student organization involvement during their time at the university was most positively associated with alumni identification, but all of these factors all contribute to an alumni’s experience while attending a university, and their memories of that experience as a whole. The authors conclude: “increasing alumni’s sense of oneness with the alma mater has a direct impact on alumni donations and university promotions” (9). While Parsons and Wethington (1996) do not address the aspect of identity, their study could be used to demonstrate that highlighting these past experiences (via the personal note) serves to increase alumni identification, and therefore yield greater returns.

Branding as Directed Communication

To increase identification further, colleges and universities have begun to employ business tactics such as branding and marketing. These practices allow universities to transform blanket alumni communication into directed communication—communication directed at promoting a specific university brand. Bell and Stephenson (2014) explain that university brand formation offers a number of benefits, including the establishment of prestige and legitimacy, the communication of organizational values, differentiation from competitor institutions, and the creation of a sense of belonging through “life-long membership.” Aurand et al. (2009) conducted a study seeking to investigate the effectiveness of internal branding within higher education. The authors use a quantitative survey-based method, sending online surveys to university administrators at public and private universities. The authors use four items to determine brand strength among administrators: “1) administrator perception of the distinctiveness of their university brand, 2) administrator perception of the clarity of their university’s branding message, 3) administrator perception of the degree of university involvement in the promotion of that brand, and 4) administrator perception of their university’s brand image as compared to that of prospective students’ perception” (61). The authors find that internal branding efforts are proving to be effective, especially in private institutions, and that universities are very involved in the promotions of these brands.

Yet while this study provides a useful analysis of branding efforts within the university, it does not demonstrate whether or not these branding efforts are effective in influencing those outside of it, something which Bell and Stephenson (2014) set out to do. The authors conduct a study which asks three questions: 1) does university branding affect donations? 2) why do alumni choose to donate? and 3) why do alumni choose not to donate? To answer these questions, the authors use a quantitative survey approach conducted at a medium-sized, state-run institution. The authors define brand identification as “the propensity of an individual to define the self by association with an organization” (179). The authors find that as the level of alumni brand identification with the university increases, the expected number of donations also increases.
Sociologists would say that branding successfully reinforces identification because it communicates a clear “group mentality” that alumni can align and associate themselves with and use to differentiate from other groups and universities. By differentiating themselves from other universities, branding practices provide clear in- and out-group mentalities. By developing a singular brand identity, universities are able to provide a clearer, more specific focus of attention for those both inside and outside of the university. Lastly, communicating a specific brand indicates how those associated with a university should feel about that university, instead of leaving it up to individuals’ interpretations, fostering a greater sense of shared views and emotions.

Communication and University Social Media Usage
Together these studies demonstrate that successful university branding, paired with frequent communication of that brand to alumni, is positively associated with greater identification and higher levels of expected donations, yet they fail to address how these issues apply to social media use by universities. Traditionally, university communications have come in the forms of printed materials such as alumni newsletters, letters, and brochures; verbally in the form of telephone calls and face-to-face solicitation; and, more recently, Internet resources such as emails and E-newsletters. Now, social media outlets offer a new and completely different way for universities to communicate with their alumni network, something that is largely understudied in the literature. Colleges and universities, using Facebook pages, Twitter accounts, and other social media outlets, are now able to reach greater numbers of alumni more easily and with less cost. These social media are characterized by a different dynamic of communication—instead of the traditional forms of communication being directed at each particular alumni, it allows for mass communication, directed at all alumni who choose to follow university accounts. What follows is that this form of communication is inherently impersonal, and as demonstrated by Parsons and Wethington (1996) the less personal, the lower the response rate. Examined in that light, it might seem as if social media is a useless development in the creation of higher alumni identification levels and solidarity.

Yet there is another aspect of social media that works to remedy this shortcoming: Facebook pages and Twitter accounts visually create a sense of community—everything is displayed on a single webpage. On Facebook, users can see exactly how many other people have liked, commented on, and shared (reposted) a specific post. Preece (2001) offers a way to measure the success of an online community, defining “sociability” as the number of participants in a community, the number of messages per unit of time, and members’ satisfaction. On social media, this sociability is measured as ‘engagement’—responses to posts in the form of likes, comments, and shares. According to Preece, the higher the number is, the greater the sense of value of the community. With this community being presented in such a visible way, people are motivated to participate, presumably wanting to be a part of something that is clearly successful. The level of engagement serves as both an indicator for universities that their communication is being received, and allows for those associated with the university to communicate in return. Therefore, increasing engagement increases communication, which in turn increases identification with a university, something which has proven to be beneficial in regard alumni giving levels.

To better understand how higher education social media messages are being constructed, we use qualitative methods to explore the following research questions:

RQ1: Do higher education Facebook managers have strategies for marketing to and communicating with their institution’s Facebook community?
RQ2: Are there any recurring content elements or themes being used in the posting strategies implemented by the higher education Facebook managers?

Method
In order to answer these research questions regarding strategy and recurring content elements or themes the universities are using in their posting strategies, we used qualitative in-depth interviews to examine how colleges and universities use social media to construct their brand messaging online. We selected a representative sample of eight administrators of Facebook pages from eight different universities. We selected three universities from among the top 20 listed by US News and World Report in 2014 from each of the categories of public universities, private universities and liberal arts colleges.

We focused on this sample of universities and colleges because they are ranked within the top schools in the U.S., as identified by a national consumer publication. The U.S. News and World Report methodology first categorizes schools by their mission, which is derived from the breakdown of types of higher education institutions as refined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 2010. Second, it uses quantitative measures that education experts have proposed as reliable indicators of academic quality, and is based on their researched view of what matters in education (16 weighted indicators of academic excellence including: reputation, retention and faculty resources). The ranking methodology goes beyond financial or geographic attributes and also focuses on what may not be noticeable to the public.

We chose these highly ranked universities because they are often very involved with promotion, making it more likely for them to use Facebook for their marketing communications. In addition, these universities often have very loyal alumni networks, which leads alumni to be more active on social media pages such as Facebook (Alumni Factor 2014). Within the three US News categories we selected up to two schools from the East Coast (as the majority of the top 20 ranked higher education institutions
are located here), and one school from the South, Midwest or West Coast. These methods allowed for the opportunity to hear from a variety of university types located in geographically diverse areas. We contacted the university employees we intended to interview by finding their contact information through university faculty and staff directories, and emailing their university email accounts. Interviews were conducted from October 17, 2014 to November 11, 2014 with the average interview time being 55 minutes.

**Measurement of Variables and Analysis**
We examined two broad dependent variables. We define the first dependent variable as the set of goals the university is aiming to accomplish with their marketing communication on their Facebook pages. The second dependent variable is the strategy used in crafting content (copy, visuals, video, etc.) for the Facebook posts. These are measured through the interviews with the individuals, after which we break down the second dependent variable even further into content themes through transcription and coding. The independent variable is the type of university being examined: private university, public university, and liberal arts. The interview format was a set of 37 pre-written questions categorized into sections for: personal information, goals, posting strategies, and definitions of success. To record our interviews we used the iPhone recording app SuperNote for both in-person interviews and video interviews, and Quicktime Player via laptop to record phone interviews. After recording, we transcribed these interviews and deleted the recordings. After collecting and transcribing our interview data, we read through the transcriptions and coded for recurring themes of goals, content and definitions of success.

Through these interviews, we are able to learn the actual goals and strategies these administrators use on a day-to-day basis in an attempt to build an online community and consequently a stronger relationship with alumni. These interviews shed light on the process of how the goals and strategies of the administrators determine and influence social media content.

**Results**
Almost every university interviewed shared a general posting strategy; a typical post was almost always described as including an image, a short, concise description and a link. Social media community managers have relied on the heavy visual aspect of Facebook. In a world where people are bombarded by incredible amounts of information each day, users favor aesthetically pleasing images with very few words, so they can understand the post in a short amount of time with little cognitive investment (Kwok and Yu 2012). Yet beyond this unified understanding of post formatting, interviews with participants clearly demonstrated that some university social media pages employ greater strategic practices than others. The sample could generally be divided into two distinct categories: strategic and non-strategic, illustrated in Table 1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Name of Participant</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts</td>
<td>Mark Jamesstein</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts</td>
<td>Joan Karp</td>
<td>Non-strategic</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts</td>
<td>Linda Theresa</td>
<td>Non-strategic</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public University</td>
<td>Claire Church</td>
<td>Non-strategic</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public University</td>
<td>Richard Nimmons</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public University</td>
<td>Austin Marino</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private University</td>
<td>Sarah Collarman</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private University</td>
<td>Kayla Kames</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>West</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This distinction is often seen as a result of cases where participants came from social media backgrounds as opposed to journalistic backgrounds, as discussed in the following section. In addition, it is possible that some universities are simply more developed in their strategic social media usage than others, and those who are less developed will slowly work to become more so. Less strategic universities provided answers to questions about their posting strategies such as:

I’ll say we are, and this isn’t necessarily a good thing, but we’re a bit reactionary to what news of ours is going on so when we talk about the news we have coming up for the week we’ll discuss is this going on Facebook or is this not going on Facebook, what other social media platforms it goes on. –Linda Theresa, Liberal Arts

Generally, these universities did not have clearly defined approaches to populating their Facebook pages. Many of them admitted to be working towards establishing a clearer set of strategies and goals, or to be in a transitional phase of social media management. Again, these types of universities tend to have a different set of goals than those held by strategic universities, aiming less for results and more for accurate representation.
One aspect which seemed to set strategic and non-strategic apart was the attitude employed towards how content was selected and posted on the Facebook page. Sarah Collarman, speaking for a strategic, private university, explained a fairly complex project management system, where things start in an idea column and then slowly move forward until they eventually make it onto the Facebook page. Austin Marino (public university) explains a Venn diagram concept he uses to inform his content decisions:

One circle is the things that work on Facebook, and that’s like your photos and your pictures and your questions, and the things that just naturally work on Facebook. The other circle that overlaps is things that compellingly tell the university story in a way that we want to tell it. […] Content only works if it’s in that middle section, if it’s something that works on Facebook and is also telling your story validly. That’s the sweet spot for us.

Less strategic universities tended to provide answers that were more organic, and much less evolved, often citing content being sent to them or sought out and then posted, arising from what was happening at that moment.

One factor which worked to differentiate strategic and non-strategic universities was the importance placed in Facebook analytics. Some administrators tend to live and die by the feedback they receive from Facebook Insights, while others use them more as general guidelines. Joan Karp (liberal arts) represents a less strategic university: “Early on I found them [Facebook Insights] extremely helpful. It was nice to kind of see what was doing well and what wasn’t and to make adjustments accordingly. So I actually have found the Insights helpful in establishing what I think is our baseline.” Sarah Collarman (private university) holds a different opinion:

Analytics are key for us. Analytics inform our work. Otherwise, we would just … It would be as helpful as traditional media. You don’t know who it’s hitting, you don’t know where it’s traveling… You have a billboard and you know, “This is targeted to the city, but who actually looked at it, and what did they think of it?” If you don’t look at your analytics, you’re basically … blind. Those universities that are more focused on the feedback they receive from Insights demonstrate an emphasis on the results they set out to create by publishing content, constantly checking to see which posting strategies are more successful than others, and seeking to replicate those effects in future posts. Those that are less focused on the data provided by Insights are not as concerned with results, and simply wish to represent the university appropriately on Facebook, nothing more.

Time was also a factor which highlighted different levels of strategy. Responses by less strategic universities about whether or not time played a factor in how they post resulted in similar answers to this:

Primarily, we’ve just been going for it throughout the day and making sure if we did just post we’ll wait a few hours. So one in the morning, one in the afternoon. We’re trying to get a little bit better about using something to post on the weekend and say that’s like softer news that maybe people will have time for and then also doing some evening posts because you can tell on Insights when people are accessing it. We do get a lot of evening traffic. –Linda Theresa, liberal arts

In contrast, strategic universities employ a great level of thought and strategy in regard to posting according to different times:

We don’t just check it once and go, “OK, that’s how much they’re on line.” We’ve noticed that there are actually shifts. We’ve thought through, “Right, because we have a large following in these other countries, because we’re a very global university, and so they have a different day.” We have to say, “How can we hit the most people? When are they on line? What are their behaviors?” —Sarah Collarman, private university

It’s my theory that everyone has the whale, and every Eastern identity has this whale, so if everybody knows that 9 pm is the right time to advertise… Then I don’t advertise at 9 pm… I advertise at, say, 7:30. –Mark Jamestein, liberal arts

Sometimes health or fitness related things we sometimes post very early in the morning. Between six and eight AM sometimes. If it’s really student centric or very student specific it’s typically going to go out nine, ten o’clock at night. If it’s long form content that might take people a while to read you’ll find us sharing that late at night. Early evening, late at night, or typically early on weekend mornings. We try to look for when our audience typically is on and a majority of the audience tends to be on our channel after seven o’ clock at night. Because if we’re in the strategy that Facebook dumps out your post to a few thousand people and those people like it and want to keep going then we want to find that time when the most of them are on and most active. —Richard Nimmons, public university

Again, these responses demonstrate a high level of thinking and a great amount of energy devoted to employing the best strategy to create the greatest result. In this case, the highest level of engagement and consequent impressions, ultimately allowing them to reach more of their fan-base.

Universities that are more strategic demonstrate astoundingly insightful uses of Facebook as a social medium in other ways as well. For example, strategies which involve the way a post is constructed and sent out on the medium, such as posting as images as opposed to text updates because they take up more space in the newsfeed:

We don’t post a lot of links as links. They’re not embedded … When you post just a link, and then it pulls up a preview of the
link. Instead, we’ll actually choose an image, and have the link in the caption for the image, so there’s no link preview. This allows us to fill more room, if you’re asking why. It fills more room in somebody’s newsfeed. It’s taller. It’s better looking. – Sarah Collarman, private university

By taking up more space with visual, the university is hoping to get more exposure from its post, ultimately increasing engagement and therefore connecting with more users. Another strategy involves a significant amount of thought and planning: One long-term goal for example, is that the fundraising campaign hasn’t started yet. That’s out several months, or a year. Because that’s a long-term goal, because we want to be successful at campaign, what we’re doing now is seeding campaign priorities into our content. It’s almost like the movie “Inception”, where you’re posting about the university and they don’t even realize it. Instead of saying, “The campaign’s coming. Get your money ready,” which is really dorky … There are colleges that do this, but we like to take a little more subtle and psychological approach. If we know that the campaign is going to be fundraising for a certain topic, we will start to find research in that topic, at the university, and start reporting on it. People start thinking, “Yeah, this university is a leader in this topic.” By the time the campaign comes, they think, “Yeah, of course I want to give to this university, because I’ve always thought of them as a leader in that topic.” – Sarah Collarman, private university

Participants who were able to describe such strategic uses of Facebook demonstrated a higher level of thought and planning in regard to Facebook use. These participants tended to place a much higher emphasis on the usefulness of Facebook as a communication tool than did other, less strategic participants.

So why is this important? A higher level of strategic thinking indicates that those universities are more likely to be using Facebook as a means to an end. Strategic universities are more likely to recognize the potential of Facebook in allowing them to achieve certain goals, and have created strategies that work to capitalize on this potential. If Facebook can be used to enhance identification in followers and to build a strong sense of community, then it would be in a university’s best interest to create strategies that allow them use Facebook in the most optimal way possible.

The most significant finding that the analysis suggests is that there are similar content themes used among higher education Facebook page community managers. In analyzing the interview transcripts, four content themes emerged. Discussed repeatedly by participants, these content themes were used to try to increase engagement on their Facebook posts. These four content themes are: 1) unifying imagery, demonstrated by a shared recognition by all interview participants of the fact that Facebook posts which include an image have greater engagement than those that don’t; 2) pride points, which give the university constituents something that they can be proud of and want to associate themselves with, causing them to engage with the post; 3) relevance, such as when a university is involved in a timely issue like financial aid or racial reform; 4) nostalgia, meaning that an alumnus’s sense of identity is strengthened when they are able to reconnect with the memories he/she associates with the time they spent at that university.

Unifying Imagery
The unifying imagery theme is simply the shared recognition that a Facebook post including a visual element creates a mutual sense of focus, and also requires less cognitive energy to process than a lengthy paragraph of text. This, and the fact that photos may take up more screen real estate, makes a Facebook user less likely to reject and gloss over. This imagery is useful for enhancing a sense of collective identity because followers are all viewing the same image. While it is easy for words to be misinterpreted and misconstrued, this is much more difficult to do with an image. With this in mind, it follows that a post which serves no other purpose than to present an image (as opposed to driving click-throughs to an article, etc.) would generate the highest levels of engagement, as they require the least cognitive energy and allow little opportunity for confrontational reception.

Pride Points
In many interviews, when asked why specific posts were successful, almost every participant mentioned something about its ability to inspire pride in those associated with the university. Interviewee Richard Nimmons (public university) explains the first of these: “We look to share things that are going to make our community proud and excited about the university and where we’re going.” Interviewee Linda Theresa (liberal arts) shares this view: “What I’m finding is focusing on the positive like I call it the rah-rah stuff like the cheerleader… Awesome stuff is what reaches across the audiences.” Things that achieve such effects and inspire pride in fans are things such as impressive research news, sports wins, and university achievements. When asked about a negative example—what posts tended to be most unsuccessful—participants almost always supplied an answer along the lines of ‘university news’ because those posts are irrelevant to anyone outside of the university at the time of posting. Additionally, Interviewee Linda Theresa (liberal arts) explains that some posts are unsuccessful because: “This may come across kind of cheesy. I’m just going to say it. They don’t tug at the heartstrings. They don’t tie into that campus pride.”

Relevance
Mark Jamestein (liberal arts) touches on a similar, yet slightly different point: “Our alums are proud of things like when we’re relevant. ‘We were in Time Magazine. We were in Time Magazine.’ That’s what alumni said. They don’t say, [The University] was in Time Magazine,’ they say ‘we.’” Relevance is something which generates a great sense of pride within a university’s fan-base. Things such as school rankings and being featured in top tier news publications increase the importance of a university in the eyes of someone associated with it—it adds validity to it and users seek to associate that validity in order to make themselves feel good. Interviewees believe that when a school proves that it is relevant and involved in timely topics, then people feel the need to engage—they are more likely to engage with content that addresses an issue that actually matters, and is not something that could
be considered of relatively little importance.

Nostalgia
Interviewee Sarah Collarman (private university) brings up yet another aspect which causes posts to be successful in terms of engagement: “Reminiscence is a big factor, that down the road gets them [alumni] to give.” Without touching on the memories that tie alumni to their institutions, they begin to feel disconnected, seeing the university as a different place than from when went there—a different place from another, distant time. By touching upon those nostalgic memories, universities provide a way for alumni to continue to feel connected, and to provide their own input. In doing so, these alumni are reminded of the reasons why they loved that university, and are perhaps more motivated to give to their alma mater.

Based on the experiences of our subjects, many believed that having clear social media strategies to follow would increase engagement and in turn heighten the audience’s sense of identification to the institution. This is something which is desirable to all social media page administrators, as more engagement means that their content will reach a higher percentage of users’ newsfeeds. Yet the success of these content themes is something which has only been anecdotally reported by these social media managers.

Discussion and Conclusion
This paper has sought to look at the current landscape and issues at play in the use of social media by colleges and universities and apply this knowledge to how identification is created in a digital setting. Facebook was selected as the focus of research because of its representative qualities as a social medium. Almost all universities, forced by the Facebook algorithm, must now work to increase engagement on posts in order to generate a larger reach to their fan base. The emphasis these universities place on this desire to communicate with their fans demonstrates the fact that they understand, though perhaps not necessarily on a conscious level, that communication is what increases identification amongst users and builds a sense community. The descriptions they provided as to how they construct their Facebook posts points to this understanding.

The first finding of this study was the important difference between strategic and non-strategic universities. These differences were revealed by responses provided by participants indicating how they approached populating their Facebook page. Strategic participants clearly demonstrated very defined strategies, strategies that had undergone an enormous amount of thought and fine-tuning. Non-strategic universities usually had more general goals, and were more concerned with representing the university in a positive way. The distinction between these two categories is significant in that it indicates that universities realize the importance of Facebook as a communication tool with those outside of their university, and that some are more evolved than others in capitalizing on that potential.

In addition to these two categories, four new themes for creating collective identities on university Facebook pages are explained: unifying imagery, pride points, relevance, and nostalgia. The responses of participants indicated that they believed that the use of any of these four elements is what creates a higher amount of engagement with a post. These elements work to increase engagement on social media, which in turn signifies an increase in identification and works to build a sense of community, as well as allowing the universities to reach a higher percentage of their intended audiences.

America’s higher educational system, a mixed system of thousands of public and private institutions, is envied for its competitiveness, and the excellence that is bred by this competition. Schools compete for a number of things: undergraduate, graduate, and professional students; faculty; research dollars; state and federal appropriations; private philanthropy; and more. For aspiring students, the decision as to where to apply, and ultimately attend, is shaped largely by the reputation of that institution—they must choose which university will give them not only the best education but the one that will earn them the greatest level of recognition beyond graduation as alumni. To keep these alumni engaged, universities are paying more attention to their branding and marketing efforts across multiple media channels, most recently — social media. These institutions are using this form of marketing communication to inspire higher levels of identification in their alumni, ultimately seeking to create a sense of community within their audience.

Future Research and Limitations
The next step in this research is to test this model of the four content themes. We will perform a content analysis on a sample of Facebook posts collected from top-ranked school Facebook pages to test whether or not these new content themes are 1) present and 2) if in fact they are effective in generating higher levels of engagement versus posts that do not include these content themes. Since the fan base of each school varies, it will be important to look not only overall engagement, but also engagement as a proportion of their fan base. We also plan to test whether or not there are differences in the use of content themes and engagement between each school type (liberal arts, public university, private university), and other attributes including enrollment, number of alumni, and athletics division.

This study is limited in a number ways. First, the sample size is relatively small, and restricted to top-tier universities. Future research would benefit from exploring other categories of higher educational institutions, such as schools with lower rankings, community colleges, or specifically purposed colleges (such as culinary schools). Analysis of the ways that these institutions approach Facebook presences, and whether or not those approaches differ greatly from those used by higher ranked institutions,
would contribute to a more holistic understanding of the issue. Another limitation of this study is that participants may not be entirely willing to be frank in their responses. For instance, a social media strategist may not want to divulge all of their strategic posting secrets. Or, as another example, they might not want to admit that they pursue one specific audience, such as alumni, in order to appear more wholesome and less scheming. Additionally, in the interest of appearing more professional, participants may fabricate goals and strategies where in reality there are none. In this way, results are filtered through the image the participant may wish to communicate. Lastly, time was another important limitation. Arranging and coordinating lengthy interviews with participants from across the country often proved to be difficult, as these participants had extremely busy schedules, and were sometimes forced to cancel.

References
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How Hearing Impaired People View Closed Captions of TV Commercials
Measured By Eye-Tracking Device

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Abstract
We conduct experiments to measure effects of various types of closed captions for Japanese TV commercials using eye-tracking device. The experiment materials are real TV commercials, and 92 hearing impaired people participate in the experiments. We prepare six TV commercials, each of them captioned in four different ways: no closed captions and three types of captions, which are fully captioned (horizontal), partially captioned (horizontal), and fully captioned vertically. The participants watch them in silence using eye-tracking device, accompanied by a questionnaire asking about caption readability for two CMs. We define Areas of Interest (AOIs) as the caption lines and record fixation counts in AOIs and visit counts to AOIs. The results show that there are no statistically significant differences among the three types of captions on both fixation and visit counts, which means the participants watch the CMs similarly. However, further analyses of the data suggest some characteristics of the way the hearing impaired participants view the CM captions. The questionnaire reveals that there are significant differences among the three types of captions for a detergent CM, where partially captioned CM scores higher than the others in readability.

Introduction
There are two kinds of captions for TV programs and commercial messages (CMs). One is open captions, characters or texts are a part of video and thus open to all the viewers. The other is closed captions which are hidden and the viewers can watch them with operations of TV remote control, usually by pressing CC button of the remote. Closed captions are one of the important sources of information for hearing impaired and hard-of-hearing people. Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC) in Japan has been promoting closed-captioning TV programs, and as a result, most of TV programs, 84.8% for NHK (the public TV station) and 95.5% for main five private TV stations, were closed captioned, according to the latest survey conducted by MIC (MIC statistics, 2014).

However, although about 20% of the TV programs by the key five private stations are commercial messages, they are not closed captioned at all, except a few commercials. Thus in order to increase captioned CMs, MIC recently started to investigate how to produce and promote captioning of CMs with cooperation of major TV stations, advertising agencies, and commercial sponsors in Japan. There have been just a few studies on closed captioned CMs in Japan (Fukushima & Inoue, 2012; Inoue, 2012) but they did clearly show the need and importance of closed-captioned CMs not only for hearing impaired, hard-of-hearing people but also senior citizens in the society. However the studies did not specify how it should be done. As a first step, we conducted a research experiment to measure effects of several types of closed-captioned Japanese TV commercials using eye-tracking device for hearing impaired people. Below, we explain the details of the experiment, experiment results as well as our observations and analyses of the results.

Experiment Methods and Experiment Materials
We describe below the details of the experiments, the materials, and the participants, and the procedures. We used six real TV commercials (CMs) provided by Kao Corporation. They include two for laundry detergent and four for cosmetics. All of them are 15 second CMs. The details of the CMs are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product name</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM 1 Attack Neo Reset Power</td>
<td>Laundry detergent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM 2 Attack Neo Ex Bio Power</td>
<td>Laundry detergent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM 3 AUBE couture</td>
<td>Cosmetics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM 4 SOFINA whitening</td>
<td>Cosmetics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM 5 SOFINA Beaute (milky lotion)</td>
<td>Cosmetics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CM 6 | SOFINA Beaute (milky lotion UV protection) | Cosmetics
---|---|---

Table 1 Details of TV commercials

We selected a variety of CMs in terms of the following characteristics:
- Load level of the viewers
- Number of scenes
- Degree of scenes changes while captions are shown
- Degree of movements
- Number of scenes in which human face or faces are shown
- Number of open captions

Table 2 shows the characteristics of the six CMs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CM 1</th>
<th>CM 2</th>
<th>CM 3</th>
<th>CM 4</th>
<th>CM 5</th>
<th>CM 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Load level</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of Scenes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of Changes of Scenes</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of Movements</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face appearance (No. of Scenes)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of Open Captions</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Characteristics of CMs

We have prepared four different types of captions for each CMs. First, CMs are NOT captioned at all, i.e. such CMs have only open captions (type 0). Second, CMs are closed-captioned according to conventional standard (type 1). Third, CMs are closed captioned but some captions are omitted where open captions are shown (type 2). In some CMs, open captions are provided for speech in the CMs, thus we do not need closed captions for such scenes. If we add closed captions in such CMs, the viewers will see the same characters or texts twice as both open and closed captions. The last type is vertical captions. As the fourth type, CMs are closed captioned vertically (type 3).

We divided the participants into four groups (A to D) each having 21 to 24 of them. The assignment of the CMs for each group is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CM 1</th>
<th>CM 2</th>
<th>CM 3</th>
<th>CM 4</th>
<th>CM 5</th>
<th>CM 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type 0 (open caption only)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 1 (closed caption, conventional)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2 (closed caption, some omitted)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 3 (closed caption, vertical)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Assignment of CMs for four participant groups

Images from captioned CMs are shown below.
These CM images are taken from the experiment material. Please note that CM type2 (Figure 2) has no captions because open caption (text in the CM video) is provided, and also note that the dots in the images correspond to eye gaze points, pink is those of women and blue stands for men.

**Experiment Participants**

The participants of the experiments are all hearing impaired and the total number is 92. In terms of gender, 48 of them, 52.2% are male and 44 or 47.8% are female. The breakdown in terms of age is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 Ages of Participants

We also asked them how they communicate with hearing people, and 88 of them answered. Out of 88, 51 (58%) use lip reading and gestures, 62 (70.5%) need written information, and 69 (74.8%) rely on sign language.

**Experiment Producers**

First, a participant watched a short video to adjust the eye-tracking device, which located between the participant and TV screen. Then each of the participants watched six CMs, variously captioned, once per CM. This was done silently without any sound. Lastly, they were asked to recall what they remembered about the CMs. The types and order of CMs were decided according to the assignment (Table 3). We used written texts on paper board for experiment instructions, and asked them questions with help of sign language interpreters. We conducted the experiments at five different places in Japan, on five different dates in August and September 2014.

Figure 4 shows the experiment setting. The CMs were shown on a 32 inch high definition TV monitor (1920x1080), and there were an operator of the equipment (left in the figure) and a sign language interpreter (right in the figure).
The eye tracking equipment was Tobii X120 Tobii Technology AB, Firmware: 2.0.7 Studio 3.2.3.336 (Enterprise edition), with sampling rate of 60 Hz. The Tobii system uses the Velocity-Threshold Identification (I-VT) fixation classification algorithm (Slavucci & Goldberg 2000) to filter and determine fixations among eye movements.

After the eye-tracking evaluation, we asked the following three questions for two CMs, one is CM1 (a detergent CM) and the other is CM3 (a cosmetics CM).

Question 1: whether you finishes reading all the captions or not
Question 2: which one is the easiest to read
Question 3: which one is the easiest to view both captions and videos (non-caption portion)
The participants were asked to choose one or more for question 1, and the only one answer for question 2 and 3.

Results
We defined Areas of Interest (AOI) as the caption lines, where the closed captions are shown on the screen, and recorded fixation counts on AOI and visit counts to AOI. Fixation count is the total number of fixations on AOI (caption area) and visit count is the total number of visits to AOI. Thus if a participant visited AOI, and the gaze moved three times within AOI, its fixation count is three and visit count is one.

Overall Results of Fixation and Visit Counts
The following two tables show the basic statistics of the results for fixation and visit counts. “Mean” signifies average counts per caption, and “SD” stands for standard deviation. Following the tables, graphs of both counts (mean values) are shown.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CM No</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CM No</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM1</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>CM4</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM2</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>CM5</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM3</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>CM6</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>2.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 Basic statistics of fixation counts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CM No</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CM No</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM1</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>CM4</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 6: Basic statistics of visit counts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CM</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Visit Count</th>
<th>Fixation Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM2</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM5</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM3</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM6</td>
<td>type1</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type2</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type3</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Figure 5: Fixation counts for 6 CMs

#### Figure 6: Visit counts for 6 CMs

**Statistical Significance among the Fixation and Visit Counts**

We looked into if there are some statistically significant differences among the fixation counts and among visit counts for all the CMs. We used analyses of variance (ANOVA) and we found out no significant difference among the three sets of scores for type1 to type3, for both fixation and visit counts at both 0.05 and 0.01 level.
Further Analyses of Fixation and Visit Count Data
We further analyzed the fixation and visit count data, we found the following:
One closed caption is read with 3 to 4 fixations
About half of the participants watch the caption only once.
Fixation counts per second are about between 1 and 2.
The number of characters (in the caption) which are read with one fixation is about 5 or 6, excluding special symbols such as period, exclamation mark, question mark, and parentheses.

Questionnaire Evaluation Results
The next two figures show the results of questionnaire evaluation for three types of captions.

Figure 7 Result of questionnaire evaluation for CM1

Figure 8 Result of questionnaire evaluation for CM3

We compared the scores for the three types of captions for CM1 and CM3 with ANOVA analyses, and found that there was at least one significant difference among the scores for CM1 for all the three questions at 0.05 level, however we found no significant difference for CM3 data. Please note that although the all participants (N=92) were asked to choose the best one for question 2 and 3, some of them could not choose the best, thus no answer, or a few of them chose two best ones, which led to different total numbers for question 2 and 3 in figure 7 and 8.

Observations
As the results of the experiment and their statistical analyses show, we did not discover statistically significant differences among the fixation and visit counts. This means that the participants viewed the three differently captioned CMs similarly even though there are visible differences between horizontal and vertical captions. Further analyses suggest that since the number of characters which are read per fixation in general for Japanese captions is about 3.2, the result this time, 5 to 6 characters per fixation, is almost twice as many, and thus the hearing impaired participants read more characters at a fixation.
The number of fixation per second is said to be 3 to 4 in general and our data showed the number is 1 to 2, thus we can say that about a half of the fixations are used for reading captions and the other half is used to read or view non-AOI area. The results of the questionnaire evaluation showed that type 2 caption was evaluated better than the other one or two types for all the questions and thus we can say that type 2 caption where captions are partially done had better readability and easiness to view. In order for us to find out relation between eye tracking data and characteristics of six CMs shown in table 2, we computed correlational values between them. We computed correlational scores between fixation counts and the number of scenes and number of face appearances for the six CMs, and we did the same for visit counts. The correlational result showed there were no statistically meaningful relations among them. Canadian researchers reported that hearing impaired people tended to pay more attention to human faces than hearing people (Chapdelain, Gouiller, Beaulieu and Gagnon 2007). Thus we expected appearance of human faces may influence the fixation or visit counts, but we did not find such influence this time.

Conclusions
We have conducted experiments in order to find the effects of various types of caption for real TV commercial. The results show that there was no clear difference among the fixation and visit count data, however they also suggest that the hearing impaired participants read more characters with one fixation and about half of the fixations are spent for viewing non-AOI, i.e. other areas than the closed captions. The questionnaire result clearly shows that the participants prefer one type of caption, partially captioned CM to the other types. We would like to continue to research on CM captions in order to find what captions make good caption for TV commercial, and what type of captions help viewers to understand CMs better. Finally, we would like to thank Kao Corporation for providing us with their TV commercials as experiment materials. This research has been supported in part by Hoso Bunka Foundation grant (Hoso Bunka Foundation).

References
Chapdelaine C., Gouaillier V., Beaulieu M., Gagnon L. (2007). Improving Video Captioning for Deaf and Hearing-impaired People Based on Eye Movement and Attention Overload, Human Vision & Electronic Imaging (SPIE #6492), San Jose.


Impact of Social Media on Public Discourse in Nigeria

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Abstract
Social media has been particularly valuable in countries where state control of the media is inflexible and unwilling to cater to dissenting voices. Social media networks such as Facebook, Twitter and the various blogging facilities have since 2004 slowly been lifting the veil on societies once accustomed to conservatism and silence. It was through their disseminative power, they started to inform societies of the malaise they were suffering. As the government retains the loyalties of the security apparatus and safeguards national broadcast media services to distribute its messages, oppositions have been fighting back through the Facebook, Twitter, blogs and You Tube to post images and videos which contradict state propaganda. Nigeria as a democratic nation still does not allow dissenting views to thrive but the social media could be said to offer such an opportunity to the citizens. Therefore, this study aims to examine the Impact of Social Media on Public Discourse in Nigeria. Survey methodology was adopted; purposive sampling was used, while questionnaire was used as instrument of data collection. The findings revealed that over 60% of the respondents’ access the social media, while over 70% of the respondents contribute more on political and social issues thereby signifying a correlation between the social media and public discourse in Nigeria. Therefore, this study recommends among others that government should be utilizing social media discussions and research findings in mapping out policies for effective democratic governance in Nigeria.

Keywords: Social Media, Public, Discourse

Introduction
Public discourse is rapidly evolving through the use of social media platforms including Facebook, Twitter and others. Though, often discussed in terms like “social media”, or even more general terms like “web 2.0”, social media platforms are not homogeneous. The reflexive relationship between social media and culture will be different for each combination of culture and social media platform. Governments all over the world are discovering and taking advantage of social media in new and interesting ways (Nowlin, 2013). Social media, with its widespread adoption and network effect, are enabling real-time, two way communications between the government and the public. For the first time in history, a one-to-one relationship can be established between people and their local, regional and national governments using innovative social media methods.

Those governments who are the most innovative, have analyzed understood the main considerations a social media strategy should include, and with a solid foundation in place, we see tremendous leaps forward in governmental transparency, communication and effectiveness. Traditional media has always had its limitations; it was a broadcast technology – a one-to-many dissemination of information. Print, radio, film and television (in that order) have been used by governments to distribute a message. Up until recently, if one wanted to communicate with any government body, they would have a few options: Show up in person, telephone or mail (of the snail variety). And there was never a guarantee that your voice would be heard, or if you would get a response. Social media has given everyone a voice and now governments around the world are leveraging this new medium. In the beginning, they were in “listen only” mode. Quietly sitting in front of computer monitors, listening to what people were saying about (fill in the blank). Now, many have evolved from listen-only modes to actually engaging with the public (Flanigin and Metzger, 2007).

According to Motti, Oren and Eyal (2011) responding to a Tweet or a post on a variety of social media sites is considerably easier and less expensive. There is also an added benefit; by responding to one person in a public setting, one is now reaching a wider audience beyond the person asking the question. More and more, people are shifting from traditional media (print, radio, television) to social media technologies to get their information. People use mobile devices all over the world to get news and information. They are not tied to print, which can be days old, or radio and television that require them to be at the right place at the right time. People can now use their phones to get the latest news on any topic, from any news source worldwide. This means that not only one can get the latest information from the news sources in his area, but one can access the same “stories” from international media as well, enabling you to be more informed by information from a number of sources.

Purpose of the Study
This study is aimed at examining the Impact of Social Media on Public Discourse in Nigeria through the following objectives: To identify whether people use social media more than the mainstream media; To identify aspects of public discourse on social media that people contribute more; To ascertain the implication of social media on public discourse in Nigeria.

Research Questions
This study intends to answer the following research questions:
Do people use social media more than the mainstream media?
Which aspect of public discourse on social media do people contribute?
What is the implication of social media on public discourse in Nigeria?

Significance of the Study
This study is significant to policy formulators who ought to consider people’s view normally generated through public discourse as provided for by democracy. Hence, social media now serve as a platform for people to express their views on matters of national interest. It also contributes to the existing literature especially on social media and public discourse as research areas. It is significant to the researcher by exposing him to trends in social media access and uses among people as well as its implication on public discourse in Nigeria.

Scope of the Study
Although, the topic for this study has wider scope i.e. applies to Nigeria, it is limited to Katsina State for easy coverage. This is significant to the researcher by exposing him to trends in social media access and uses among people as well as its implication on national interest. It also contributes to the existing literature especially on social media and public discourse as research areas. It is as provided for by democracy. Hence, social media now serve as a platform for people to express their views on matters of national interest. It also contributes to the existing literature especially on social media and public discourse as research areas. It is significant to the researcher by exposing him to trends in social media access and uses among people as well as its implication on public discourse in Nigeria.

Literature Review
Prior studies of discourse in social media relate to the expression of political, issue based topics (Gonzalez-Bailon, Kaltenbrunner, & Banchs, 2010; Hill, Hughes, 1997; Kelly, Fisher, & Smith, 2005). The a priori existence of shared contexts of individuals based on demographics contributes to a shared set of information between individuals, both virtual and offline. Individuals do not rely on political views as a basis for relationship formation, but shift their political attitudes towards those of their social contacts after a group of individuals with one set of viewpoints and a periphery of individuals with opposing viewpoints that withdraw from the core. These findings build upon previous research that illustrates the importance of social relationships in political information exchange and discourse (Huckfeldt & Sprague, 1987).

Social networking sites enable technologically mediated engagement to occur in multiple ways. Participants can post to the larger group or utilize a mechanism of direct addressable, including the @ symbol, to single out another individual in their social media communication. This singling out occurs in the public forum and is seen by everyone. In addition to these formal direct addressable mechanisms, individuals utilize more informal mechanisms like a user’s name. Failure to use the provided affordances for singling out another individual through technological means creates noise that the analyst of social media, whether focused on culture, communications, political science or other domain of interest, must address. Messages where individuals are singled out form a subset of interactions within a particular social media group that, when analyzed together, form a network of conversation. These networks of conversation are more explicitly identified than previous research on conversations within larger scale forums and allow for a much richer analysis of the networks of discourse that emerge (Fisher, Smith, & Welser, 2006).

The leadership that exists in the forum often shapes these outcomes. Leaders in an online space dictate the initial flow of conversation and shape the dialogue over time as more individuals become involved. (Cassell, Huffaker, Tversky, & Ferriman, 2006). As the group grows individuals can also take on leadership positions and shift the dialogue to areas of interest to them (Hersey, Blanchard, &. 1992). These differences indicate that a social media platform and the culture of a particular group within that platform lead to distinct discourse cultures in each case. For example, one person may join a group to find others that they agree with and another may join a group to find individuals they disagree with. Depending on the user motivation they will experience very different outcomes. In Facebook Groups, the posting of a parent post is an exercise of leadership, whereas in Twitter the creation of a hashtag to discuss a new topic may be seen as a similar, but more diffuse expression of leadership around a topic of discourse.

Many attempts to develop visualization technologies to help make sense of large, unstructured conversations online in online forums are available (Viegas and Smith, 2004). The resulting visualizations allow individuals who are information consumers to better understand the type of information they are reading and who the important actors are. This information, coupled with other behavioral aspects of individuals in social networking sites, and the specific communication technologies enable the identification of discourse roles (Ibid).

Theoretical Framework
This study adopts Habermas’s Theory of Communicative Action (TCA), which rests on the idea that social order ultimately depends on the capacity of actors to recognize the intersubjective validity of the different claims on which social cooperation depends. In conceiving cooperation in relation to validity claims, Habermas highlights its rational and cognitive character: to recognize the validity of such claims is to presume that good reasons could be given to justify them in the face of criticism. $TCA$ thus points to and depends on an account of such justification—that is, on a theory of argumentation or discourse, which Habermas calls the “reflective form” of communicative action.

As mentioned above, Habermas proposes a multi-dimensional conception of reason that expresses itself in different forms of cognitive validity: not only in truth claims about the empirical world, but also in rightness claims about the kind of treatment we owe each other as persons, authenticity claims about the good life, technical-pragmatic claims about the means suitable to
different goals, and so on. As he acknowledges, the surface grammar of speech acts does not suffice to establish this range of validity types. Rather, to ground the multi-dimensional system of validity claims, one must supplement semantic analysis with a pragmatic analysis of the different sorts of argumentative discourse—the different “logics of argumentation”—through which each type can be intersubjectively justified (McCarthy, 1998). Thus, a type of validity claim counts as distinct from other types only if one can establish that its discursive justification involves features that distinguish it from other types of justification. Whether or not his pragmatic theory of meaning succeeds, the discursive analysis of validity illuminates important differences in the argumentative demands that come with different types of justifiable claims. As such, social media has now been used as a tool for public discourse especially within the context of Nigeria’s democracy.

Research Methodology
This study employed Survey Methodology being an important methodology in social science research. Questionnaire was used as instrument for data collection from sampled respondents. Purposive sampling was used to draw a sample from the population to get respondents who use social media such as students of tertiary institutions, staff of primary, secondary and tertiary institutions as well as civil servants in Katsina State of Nigeria. A sample of 250 respondents was drawn and equal number of questionnaires were produced and administered on respondents randomly.

Data Analysis and Interpretation
As this study administered 250 questionnaires on respondents, 243 were returned making a non response rate of:

\[
\frac{7}{250} \times 100 = 2.8\%
\]

Media Use
Data gathered showed that 154 respondents (63.37%) use social media, while 89 respondents (36.63%) use mainstream media. This indicates that majority of respondents use social media.

Social Network Sites
The social network sites patronized by the respondents are facebook 146 (60.08%), twitter 52 (21.40%), YouTube accounts for 27 respondents (11.11%) and other forms of social media 18 (7.41%). This implies that facebook is the most commonly social network sites patronized by the respondents.

Frequency of Access to Social Media
On frequency of accessing the social media, 96 respondents (39.51%) access them more frequently, 118 respondents (48.56%) access the media frequently, while 29 respondents (11.93%) frequently access the media. This shows that social media are frequently accessed in Nigeria.

Aspects of Public Discourse
The political aspect of public discourse accounts for 93 respondents (36.27%), economic has 57 respondents (23.46%), social has 88 respondents (36.21%), and 5 respondents (2.06%) indicated other aspects of public discourse.

Implication of Social Media on Public Discourse
Data revealed that 209 respondents (86.01%) agreed that social media have implication on public discourse in Nigeria, while 34 respondents (13.99%) were of the view that those media have no implication on public discourse in Nigeria.

Aspects of Implication
On aspect of implication of social media on public discourse in Nigeria, the 2015 general elections has 84 respondents (34.57%), corruption has 61 respondents (25.10%), security has 75 respondents (30.86%), while 23 respondents (9.47%) indicated religion.

Results
It is now believed that social media have revolutionized communication and access to media in particular. This can viewed from many-to-many pattern of information flow courtesy of new media. This study found out that 63.37% of respondents use the social media more than the mainstream media possibly because they own mobile phones that allow access to social media wherever they are as well as enable them receive and respond to messages instantly as against the mainstream media that exert too much control on contents and access. The social network site mostly patronized by the respondents is facebook that accounts for 60.08% of respondents. This is possibly because of its dynamism in providing various avenues of information sharing such as posting, sharing, commenting e.t.c. on issues of public importance.

On frequency of accessing the social media majority of respondents (48.56%) access them frequently. This also has to do with the ubiquity of communication gadgets among Nigerians like handsets, I phone, I pad, lap tops and tablets among others. Also,
the aspects of public discourse that respondents pay much attention to are political and social that have 36.27% and 36.21% respectively. In a democratic nation like Nigeria, certainly, issues that constitute public opinion ought to stem from socio-political concerns. By so doing, the citizens would be able air their views and make informed decisions on issues affecting them.

A whooping percentage of the respondents 86.01% showed that social media have implications on public discourse in Nigeria. This is further supported by 34.57% and 30.86% of the respondents that 2015 general elections and security issues respectively were the main aspects of implication of social media on public discourse in Nigeria. This could be as a result of high level of political awareness in Nigeria this time around and the support garnered by the opposition party – All Peoples’ Congress (APC) as well as the Boko Haram insurgency in the North-Eastern region of the country. These two issues have subjects of debates and discussions at any given time in the social media, where platforms were created with a view to inform and enlighten the public and as well hear their views on any happening.

Conclusion
The world of communication has been revolutionized by the social media. Many-to-many form of communication is now facilitated by the new media. So, social media have implication on public discourse in Nigeria taking into account the level of participation of people on issues bordering their lives i.e. political, social and economic.

Recommendations
The following recommendations are proffered for effective utilization of social media in public discourse in Nigeria:
Democratic values should be adequately entrenched in the country for effective public participation in governance.
Legal provision of freedom of expression should guide the government in giving more chances for public discourse.
Government should be utilizing social media discussions and research findings in mapping out policies for effective democratic governance in Nigeria.
Citizens should avail themselves of the opportunities provided by the social media in contributing to debates and discussions for effective democratic governance in Nigeria.

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Information Society and Knowledge Gap in The Third World
- A Conceptual Approach –

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Introduction

Information Society, the term spread in the West and USA, primarily it served as a continuation of the theories that spawned the terms of the industrial society and post-industrial, as is evident from the “title” At the basis of the label technological optimism of capacity to resolve many social problems which are intractable by using the information, other than the descriptive, which codifies and inaugurates the objective spread of “computing” and “media” that interspersed with the social fabric as a whole. And often draws attention to focus on the Japanese experience, which provides an example of the information society in Japan, an ambitious program that aims to create and develop the social structure - Computers distinct include production, distribution and transportation services and management, education and livelihoods, and this social structure - Computer permeate networks télé-computing (télé in Greek meaning away and dimension) so that people can through them to solve their own professional problems by direct contact, and there is a national policy in Japan for the creation and establishment of “industry knowledge” as well as projects to reform the country’s social development, including the systems of rehabilitation workforce and of re-distribution, so that the community becomes in its Supreme stages “j - Masuda,” who is one of the leaders of that program - to a consumer society and prosperous of high class, and then going to solve all personal problems - according to this belief - and its requirement of creativity and self-realization through the global use of planetary information, so they attaches a great hopes on the “globalization” and “internationalization” of the trends of new information - that is for “computing” the society and its global planetary “medias”.

As Mr. Maan Nakkari (2) seen that the careful total evaluation of the revolution of new science and technology and the different dimensions of the revolution of computer and technology of information and their effects on human society as a whole and its diverse communities (means the information gap), especially the developing societies, including the Arab countries - all that need a private and reflective attention, As can see researcher at Media fields AWATIF Abdel Rahman that the problem of developing countries is in the mis-choose of appropriate technology for their needs, resources and background of its civilization, the fact that impel us to discover an other important truth is that the responsibility lies primarily on the scientific institutions that contribute to making the decision to import technology (3) It is through these ideas manifested problem at hand: what extent the efficacy of new technologies of information and communication in addressing the problem of knowledge gap in the third world?

Conceptual Network:
The Phenomenon of Explosion of Information

The more evolved human life, and complicated information accumulated, with an expanded use, and thus increasing our need for more information that helps us make good decisions. The information resource is not inexhaustible, and an indispensable element of any society and any individual.

From the early time the volume of information was increased, flowing from many sources, accompanied by a growing need to organize this information, and stored in ways that provide maximum speed of retrieval in any time and from anywhere. This chapter presents the importance of the information, and the problem of explosion of information, information society and its dominant in the second half of the twentieth century.

Information Society

The society of information have exited before the concept of information society was appeared, but some authors have different definitions, including the definition of Branscomb, where he knew that «the society that relates to the manufacture, collection, processing, storage and retrieval of information». Roenfeld indicated that «society which deals mostly with computers and satellite communications systems and global information networks» (4).

The Concept of the Information Society

The information society comes after several stages in the human history, and each stage marked its characteristics and advantages, from fishing technology, and agricultural technology, to the information technology, which painted the first features of the information society that distinct by, «focusing on processes that address the information, and the basic raw material it is information, which is being invested to generate knowledge, a new knowledge.

That basic materials are different in an other communities, where depleted due to consumption, whereas in the Information Society The information generated information, which makes the sources of the information society, renewable and inexhaustible, “which explains the importance of the information, and its status as the most important raw material at all, that what makes the new society depends on this resource, communication networks and computers, that societies are characterized by the presence of goods and information services were not present before, as well as it depends mainly on the “intellectual” technology, by giving more importance to the thought, the human mind with computers, communication, artificial intelligence and expert
systems. Another definition given to the information society: If we want to know the information society, we must study several topics that will facilitate access to the nature of the information society must come from a universality introduction in order to generate some universal concepts and terms. Now information is the prime mover of all activities and operations which is the basis of reference upon which the decision-made and all the institutions focused on the acquisition of information sources, its conservation and retrieval it in time, the information revolution led the updated procedures for the spread of modern means of communication that has made an open society (5).

Arab Information Society

The Arab perspective Information give us a picture about the information and technology and their relationship with culture in the Arab community and we present briefly the perspective of the Arab Information, and the challenges of the Arab intellectual in the preparation of him self, so he can walk in the maze of the third millennium that soon after a brief period that the seekers of axioms and the forgotten, and so forth in the accumulation of information and updated, as it doubles every eighteen months. in order to faced this flood, it must overcoming the following challenges:

- Identify the current map of the Arab Thought and its main orientations
- As Turki al-Hamad recommends to get out from its mental conceptual isolation in time and every where it is the isolation that reflected politically on its position toward events and its evaluation.
- Accommodate the cultural and social aspects of the informational variable, which is the main goal of our research now, and should beat the intellectual of government, who usually the government use the technical experts to form him, and that what makes his weakness.
- I promised to renew the knowledge, theory of literature to the theory of information, from a macro economy to a micro-biology, and from philosophy of science to artificial intelligence and Internet.
- The acquisition of communication skills and proficiency in “etiquette” of online dialogue (6).

The Importance of Information

Information has a vital role in individuals life and communities, it consists an indispensable element in any activity that we practice, it is such a raw materials in Scientific Research, and the key to make a the right decisions, and he who has the right information, at the right time, has the elements of power and control in that changing world based on science in all, with any improvisation or randomness.

Some go in its evaluation of the fundamental pillars of national output which are: material, energy, and information the last one occupy the first place in term of importance, but he went further, announcing the rates of growth of national economy linked directly proportional to the amount of information that are familiar, and many scientists of economy confirm that the situation is bad for the economies of most developing countries may get worse if they continued to neglect the information sector and if we realized that information is indispensable now in all aspects of activity, the task of follow-up information, and managed its production, has become almost impossible, and then the explosion of information became a real problem menacing humanity (7).

The Problem of Information Explosion

The term information explosion refer to the breadth of the field in which information is operated to include all areas of human activity, so the production of information was transformed to industry now with a large market such the oil markets and gold, what is spent on the production of information - at the international level - has more than what is spent on a lot of strategic commodities in the world (8). The problem of information explosion has been manifested such:

The Huge Growth in the Volume of Intellectual Production

Some believe that the annual growth rate of intellectual production ranges between 4% -8%, so that we can offer an image of the root of this crisis by setting an example of a periodic on important Scientific journals in the field of chemistry in U S A, has issued this topic session in 1908, and completed a million search first after the thirty-one years old. and then spotted one million search the second of eighteen years, and made the third million search in seven years, and in general the amount of information is doubling every twelve years, the production volume has increased, published in the intellectual journals - the only one of many forms of publication - of about a hundred journal in 1800 to more than 70 thousand a patrol in the eighties (9).

Dispersion of Intellectual Production

The excessive specialization in the scientific topics has an evident impact on the emergence of new branches based on different sections, such a biomedical engineering, and biochemistry. There is another observation show that the researchers tend to study very narrow subjects, and the more researchers specialized, more the size of the production of intellectual publication become large, thus be difficult for the researcher to follow all this intellectual and knowledge production from its primary resources.

Statistics indicate that the annual production of information estimated the number of documents published up between 12-14 million documents, and that the number of people contributing to this production, by one way or another, ranges between 30-35 million periodicals, in addition to each year approximately 15 thousand new periodicals, The international production of books
have reached about 600 thousand, an average of 1650 books a day, or 70 books per hour (10).

**Diversity of Information Resources and the Multiplicity of its Forms**

There are many resources of information, including periodicals, books, research reports, data, and the papers presented at seminars, conferences, theses, patents, and uniform standards, and standards, as well as the mini publishing, which means either re-registration of written texts in the form of books and periodicals in the miniature form, or recordings of new information in the form of a mini directly, such as micro film, microfiche, films, slides, tapes, disks, and others. The use of microfilm alone in the centers of media information reached between 95 -99.5% of the space required to save the information, boom in the production of information led also to the boom similar in the field of information storage and retrieval, and the computer was used in order to standardize the sizes of the documents copies after a period of suffering because of its varying in sizes, and forms, the cost of information storage has reduced by nearly 20% during the last fifteen years, and speed of retrieval information has increased by 10% per year.

Furthermore, there is a tremendous amount of information transmitted by means of mass media, the UNESCO statistics indicate that between 200-250 people per thousand of the working population receive the distribution of daily newspapers, as well as reception services, radio and television, and there are 30 countries in the world reached the saturation point in the field of newspapers, 38 countries have reached saturation point in the field of radio services, and 22 countries reached the saturation point in the field of television services. On the other hand there are in different world countries 116 nation libraries have about 160 million volumes, and there are nearly 120 agency news national and international working in the field of information and news, broadcast daily over a half million news and information, a quarter of at least video and audio recorded.

Satellites provide also as large and diverse information that investigate into the development directly, without it no country could plan effectively for their programs of development. The danger of this problem is in the treatment of information as a commodity to sale and purchase, subject to the law of supply and demand, and this information is easily accessible to companies of the developed countries, and obscure the important information for the under developing countries, and is no doubt that the information is not a commodity like other material goods, but it is a good non-material, with a high value estimated on the basis of social and cultural standard norms of development, not based on the standards of profitability (11).

**The Nature, Characteristics and Goals of The Information Society**

The concepts varied actually, cultures and interests, which led the World Summit on the Information Society agreed to unified the concept of what the information society and the development of approaches to political and regulatory networks and services in various countries in the world. As the communicative culture is the most important pillars of the international community, the adoption of some important principles and necessary to address the substantive question of the establishment and development of communication and information society in the Arab world is becoming a necessity. You can find out the most important principles of this topic below.

* The need to provide a uniform awareness level all over the world countries, that was as a result of the new concepts associated with the globalization of the economy.
* The need to adopt new strategies that are consistent in their directions and programmes with the development of communication and information society at the international level.
* The inevitability of integration and complexity of the different formula - structural, technological, and cultural, economic and social - in the development of community of communication and information, which requires a broad consultation in various fields among all the actors from the public and private sectors and from all components of civil society in general.
* The third world need to shift from just a consumer of globalization to actor in the information society in order to achieve comprehensive and the integrated a sustainable development.
* The need to invest this abundance of information which abounds in the third world in the global budget (12).

**Information Society and There Dominants**

Emerged as a result of what some call - information society – with a new facilities and specialized networks, during the last century a computer entered in a research centers and universities, and then spread in the areas of trade and industry, and became an effective tool to resolve a complex calculations. During the decade of that century an increased reliance on electronic computer in order to perform a business functions, and there is a need for action - windows - central and exchange of information, and possible transfer of signal data communication. As a result of all this evolution in the data connection is the better use of telephone networks realize the transfer from analog signal to digital signals.

Through the seventies years, the progress continued in the field of Computer, and means of communication, has resulted the emergence of services, semiconductor, and technology, semiconductor materials to heat many of the transfer of information such as e-mail, and television services that allow retrieval of information such as telex, and video data, audio, video, and teleconferencing, this topic developments, houses related to the wired network (13). New concepts such as offices with a self-administered automated. All of this made us live in the information age, a child born in the house of Wired households with a computer is a child of the information society, while a child growing up in a house without a computer is a poor child in the information (14).
This indicates why the government insist on the important of information tools in the advanced industrial countries in order to dominate and managed the world, but only in a few of these countries due to its control over the information, and the means of production, processing, storage, retrieval, and this is done rapidly and on a grand scale, leading to make a few producers against many consumers, the elite control and the majority are oppressed, one group getting more and more richer and control the other, and all the rest of groups were becoming more and more poorer and be in dependence all the time (15).

**Information Society and Digital Gap**

**Digital Gap**
The danger of the digital gap is in the possession of information and communication technologies form the modern and possessing the skills required to deal with, it can give a social and economic priority to those who possessed than those who are not, even they are states or organizations or citizens, may that preference mean for members the difference between poverty and prosperity and for States or communities the success to join in the new global economy or there isolation from it.

In the years 1970-1980, the major industrialized countries have legitimacy to help countries of the South in the evolution of communication in order to be exploited in the first place to strengthen management authoritarian in the South and to allow the machine propaganda and ideological political work, and in the early third millennium, this assistance before being given to individuals and women to deal with the information and knowledge, the size of the digital gap is that it requires a huge effort to reduce the art of the industrial countries has exceeded expectations, also calls for a new partnership around a common purpose, in the political, economic and social development in the north and south. by this way we can avoid the margin in a distinct minority "."is rich in information, or to put millions of people excluded from the cyber world to a society hungry for information (16).

**The Information Society through the Digital Gap**
The first of the foundations that will enable the third-world to use communication technologies and information technologies of communication and information an optimally used is by determining what the Third World want in this point, and what are its objectives in this area, in order to develop policies and plans and enact legislation to ensure the maintenance and the implementation of strategies. It is useful perhaps to stop at the potential future prospects of the Arab communities through the establishment of a society of communication and information. Information technologies was shattered the artificial barriers and it is the possible exchange of goods, services, and counseling among third world countries without the need for the real move, and most importantly, that develop a sense of being global citizens contributing to the enrichment of human civilization.

The terms of that lies in knowledge of the reality of that age and its intellectual, technical, cultural aspect, and problems, and to develop the policies resulting from conscious knowledge about international and Arab citizens reality to cope with the technological development and contributes to the enrichment of human culture. Although there are no specific perceptions about what will happen in the third world and in the world around: Results of rapid development and amazing communication technologies, but it could, based on the past and present experiences, to say that there are several options will be available to the citizen as part of human being as the ways of earning, living, investment, the sale, purchase, family life, workplace, methods of teaching and learning will change (17).

**The Era of Knowledge**
If the process of knowledge production depends on the large existence of information, and if the interpolation means of experimentation and the concrete more than anything else, the important observation is that social phenomena can not be summarized, as a natural phenomena, political activity for example is based on human being and how he can manage his affairs, so the intellectuals are asking the concept of management of knowledge for Humanitarian affairs, which depends on the cultural aspects and its effects on the human behavior, in other words it deals with social intelligence, which consists of a humanitarian deal with each other and participate in the management of its affairs by means of a humanitarian decent (18).

**Challenges of the Information Society**

**Knowledge Society**
A report of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization in 2005 entitled (from the information society to knowledge society), and it is stated under the title (could not reduce the knowledge societies into an information society) should not be for the emergence of a global information society, as a result of a new revolution technologies, to make us forget that it is only suitable way to realize a real community of knowledge, Thriving networks can not alone assess the knowledge bases. Because if the information is really a way to knowledge, that doesn’t mean that information is the knowledge (19).

**The Characteristics of the Knowledge Society**
The knowledge societies characterized by the fact that knowledge is the most important components included in any work or activity, especially in relation to the economy, society and culture, and all other human activities that depended on the availability of a large amount of knowledge and information, in a knowledge society or a knowledge economy, the knowledge consists the most important products or raw materials. And the knowledge society is not a newly, it was, for example, fishermen share the knowledge for a long time on weather forecasting in the context of the communities in which they live, and are constantly adding
more to this knowledge, which is part of the capital of these communities. What is very recently is that:

- with the modern technologies, it is no longer necessary to be in the same geographical location.
- The technology available currently has more possibilities to sharing knowledge, its conservation and its restoration.
- Knowledge has become the most important components of capital in this century, and the progress of any society has become primarily associated with the ability to use it.

The Important Growing of The Knowledge Society and its Association with Society in Whole

Every society is formed by a set of common concepts, globalization and information and communication technology has led to form a global community characterized by the common knowledge about all the world issues and its possibilities. The material resources and its own manufacturing processes (i.e., economic resources) were the basis of the economic development, while there were things as music, art, and mixing of cultures (i.e., cultural resources) are the factors that drove development in to the whole of community , and with the access of community to the stage of maturity the knowledge became available in the documents , the laws ,written and unwritten rules, people’s opinions, their beliefs, words they use in each language, and so on, as is the case of the absence of equitable distribution of material and economic resources, which created a sort of inequality within the society, that what hampered the sharing of knowledge and the development. And knowledge societies are aware of the importance of knowledge building, sharing and distribution of appropriate in the development of societies.

The Knowledge Gap

This theory was developed after observing the results of numerous researches indicated that the different public sectors have the same balanced access to information flowing from the modern means of communication .this theory based on the following hypothesis : “The fluency of information from the media within the social system to make category with the high socio-economic level, acquire this information faster than categories with the low socio-economic level, , and thus moving the knowledge gap between the two categories increased rather than decreased (20) (Tichnor, Donohu & Olien1970 ). This hypothesis underlines that the groups with low socio-economic level do not remain poor in the information in general, but it is gaining relatively less information than in the groups with higher socio-economic level.

So many researches had confirmed the validity of such hypothesis in United States, Europe, Latin America, and the Middle East .... Noting that economic and social factors are the major determinant of the public acquisition of knowledge. It is also now apply (the theory of the knowledge gap) on the two main levels:

The Individual Micro Level:

The individual micro level and includes the acquisition of knowledge and the means of communication, which is depend on the following: individual differences, communication skills, cognitive ability, the level of interest, and other individual factors.

The Macro Social Level

Macro level includes the nature of the social structure and the variables associated with the society, such as: methods of diffusion and distribution of information, the available means of communication, the nature of social conflict, and the ownership of the media and means of financing and operation (. (Tichnor, Donohu & Olien1970 ). Also made by the researcher Salman Rashid Salman that he does no doubt that the technological gap and the economic have created the so-called the countries of the center, which are economically and technologically developed countries and dominate the other countries , that represent the poor world , including the Arab countries to scientific and technological infrastructure and heavily indebted, the dependency between the center and the periphery transformed from political to economic dependency, but now the poor countries depend on the center in knowledge what increases the economic and political dependency of under developing countries and . This dependency has been exacerbated, especially in the field of information, as it is created and sent on one-direction , which is from the center to the periphery (21).

The Principle of Freedom In Knowledge Society

1. The nature of knowledge, is free and free of charge.
2. Knowledge must remain free for the benefit of society.
3. Knowledge must remain free of in order to achieve further development of this knowledge and its elaboration.
4. Should discuss the point of view which says that the liberation of Knowledge or make them free will kill motivation.

Examples of groups that can grow to be among knowledge societies Individuals working in the same area

- Teachers who teach the same material.
- people loving the same band.
- Artists with convergent interests.

Individuals from different disciplines.
• Engineers who coordinate with the scientists worked on the same subject.
• Researchers from various fields who discuss the problem of scientific research.
• Mystics and clerics in their dialogue with scientists.

Infrastructure
Knowledge society requires an infrastructure that includes the following:
1. Physical infrastructure, such as meeting rooms and discussion boards.
2. Technological infrastructure, such as techniques of information-sharing, mailing lists, electronic gates cyber (Internet-based), awiki pages, chat rooms and video conferencing (video conferencing), meetings, virtual default, development environments through collaboration, and distance learning (22).

The Question of Individuality
“... The individual serves the group in the most case, what is always positive. To give source to a new hobby, associations, and groups against fans - culture, it is not against democracy --. One of the first results of the historical sociology of the media, prepared by the Robert Park, is that the minority groups that use different media, to defend both their identity and to help achieve their integration into the collective. Privacy partial that exhausted itself on countless microscopically sites that are not seen in the Internet and may not be utopia, but it realizes that it does not undermine the social changes in his speech after all, it is just mass media ...”(23).

Conclusion:
In less than two decades the world has lived a comprehensive technological change in the economic, political and cultural fields. The winds of change were described by the information revolution, or the Second revolution after Industrial Revolution. The slogan of this revolution is the computer or electronic brain as it was represented in science fiction movies. This device was able to rearrange the activities of the political institutions, social, cultural, factories, communications, media processing, storage and retrieval of information.

But with the advent of the information society and its manifestations on the Arab societies differences in individual and collective have emerged, and the change in Arab society from a behavioral standpoint, the behaviors of individuals and groups have changed, that was done in the communities of information and knowledge because there are communities which are still primitiv, what resulting in the world a digital and knowledge gap between major industrial countries and the countries of the Third World, including Arab countries, the major challenges of the information society reflected in individualism and e-democracy, there is a flexibility in the information access through the highways of information, the human being cyborgien, what means half human being deal with the machine in most of his time that reflected on his life and behaviors by adopting a new way of life, however, he lives in a society fueled by information, and his economy is based on the information, so will he profit from this style of living and use it in a good way and to his favor and to the favor of society and transforms information into knowledge and the ocean around it, or engaged in severe consequences and disadvantages as extravagance of his the effort, time and money?

The Moroccan researcher Yahya Yahyaoui has concluded that “the tensions between the enablers of information technology, communication, and to devote democrat access to knowledge can only be deepened and increased by the absence of democracy, the rejection of pluralism and the other opinions, and the dominance of the security obsession apprehended from the all-new, and the marginalization of scientific research, and to devote the values of elitism to take advantage of technological developments “(24).

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Innovation of a Smartphone App Design as Used in Face-To-Face Communication for the Deaf/Hard of Hearing

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Abstract
In recent years, our daily communication methods and behaviours have been transformed through new forms of communication media and technologies such as social media and smartphones. New communication technologies have opened new communication opportunities. On the other hand, communication is the main problem for Deaf/Hard of Hearing (D/HoH) people. Are new communication technologies able to address this problem? This study is a practice-based research project that aims to explore new communication opportunities for bridging the face-to-face communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people by developing a smartphone app. Creative practice (via interaction design) combined with ethnography (via interview) is the primary research method utilised in this study. The results of this study propose a solution, which is a smartphone application (app) that can be used to assist face-to-face communication between D/HoH and hearing people. This smartphone app provides an innovative way of using computer-mediated communication (CMC) in face-to-face communication; this allows conducting and incorporating physical interaction with nonverbal messages. In addition, it provides various ways of inputting messages that facilitate communication process and it provides a specific mode for the elderly.

Keywords: Computer-mediated Communication (CMC), Deaf/Hard of Hearing (D/HoH), Face-to-face Communication, Interaction Design, Smartphone Application (App)

Introduction
The smartphone has become a popular digital mobile device in our daily lives. People use their smartphones anytime and anywhere for different purposes. Communication is one of the most significant purposes of using a smartphone. Digital mobile communication has been acting an important role in our daily communication. People are spending increasing time communicating with others through their smartphones, leading to a reduction in face-to-face interaction. In the meantime, the smartphone communication technologies have opened new communication opportunities (Baym, Zhang and Lin 2004; Keating, Edwards and Mirus 2008; Pierce 2009; Turkle 2012). On the other hand, communication is a primary problem for D/HoH people due to their hearing loss. There is a communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people (Bouvet 1990). Digital mobile communication technology such as social media (e.g. Facebook) on smartphones has opened new communication opportunities and partly reduced the communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people (Chang 2014). However, most of digital mobile communication technologies (communication apps on smartphones) are mainly designed for non-face-to-face communication. There is still a further communication gap in face-to-face communication between D/HoH and hearing people even when they communicate via digital mobile communication technologies. The aim of this study is to explore a real solution through a creative practice of interaction design, the result is a smartphone app design that can be use to bridge the face-to-face communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people.

The primary research question in this study is:

How can digital mobile communication technology (a smartphone app) be used to bridge the face-to-face communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people?

Digital Mobile Communication
Digital mobile communication by definition is part of CMC but is specifically based on mobile devices. The rapid development of mobile technologies has brought new forms of communication. In recent years, a mobile phone is not just a communication device but is a multi-function device like a small computer. Goggin and Hjorth (2009, p.9) indicate that a ‘mobile phone increasingly becomes a platform for mobile media.’ Webb (2010, p.65) states, ‘The mobile becomes a portal and the networks become data pipes that enable the basic connectivity.’ Mobile devices include various digital devices, such as smartphones, tablets, laptops and so on. A smartphone is a type of mobile phone that offers more advanced functions than feature phones, usually with a bigger multi-touch screen, better camera, faster Internet connection and app support. An app is a programme specifically designed to be run on smartphones that offers a wide range of functions and services to smartphone users and is similar to software on desktop or laptop computers. Smartphone apps are gateways that people use to easily access online services (e.g. email and websites) without using a web browser.

Nowadays, people can convey information immediately available anytime and anywhere by using their smartphones (Dominick 2009). Digital mobile communication has advanced from a simple communication form to a variety of communication forms. Short message service (SMS) is a simple and basic text-based communication form specifically used on feature phones and
smartphones. Smartphones can not only run standard SMS but also run various social networking service (SNS) (e.g. Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn) and communication apps (e.g. WhatsApp, LINE and WeChat), these provide advanced communication features and supportive functions. In addition, voice and video calls are two important ways of using smartphones. However, this study will not focus on it because of the limited speech capability of D/HoH people.

Face-To-Face Communication

Face-to-face communication is a type of communication via which people transmit information directly by using oral speech and gestural language. CMC is a type of communication via which people transmit information indirectly through digital devices by using text and multimedia messages. The different communication methods are the essential differences between face-to-face communication and CMC. Both face-to-face communication and CMC are multimodal communication with various communication methods that can be divided into verbal and nonverbal messages. Verbal messages include text and speech, whilst nonverbal messages include facial expressions and body gestures. CMC generally allows people to communicate by using a single form, such as text-only communication. Face-to-face communication generally combines more than one form in a conversation, such as speech involving eye contact and facial expressions (Dohen, Schwartz and Bailly 2010). Whittaker and O’Conaill (1997) also indicate that the main difference between CMC and face-to-face communication is the physical information used in face-to-face communication.

Nonverbal messages consist of physical information that includes eye contact, facial expressions, handshakes, head nods and smiles. Eye contact is an essential component of face-to-face communication, it is a ‘special stimulus’ in visual sense affecting communication (Bailly, Raidt and Elisei 2010). Jiang et al (2012) highlight the two major differences between face-to-face communication and other types of communication. First, face-to-face communication involves the ‘integration of multimodal sensory information.’ Sensory information includes facial expression and body gestures that can activate information during communication. Second, face-to-face communication involves ‘more continuous turn-taking behaviors between partners.’ Turn-taking is communication behaviour in a conversation that helps people decide who will speak next. Turn-taking behaviours play a vital role in social interaction. Bailly, Raidt and Elisei (2010) indicate that eye contact plays a pivotal role in turn-taking behaviours.

Mehrabian (1972) explains that nonverbal communication is part of ‘nonverbal behavior’. Nonverbal messages in face-to-face communication can sometimes be more powerful than verbal messages. Morris (2002) notes that nonverbal messages, such as body language, can help people understand other people much better. Okdie et al (2011) suggest that nonverbal messages combine richer and more abundant emotional information than verbal messages. Dohen, Schwartz and Bailly (2010, p.477) indicate that people integrate information in face-to-face communication ‘not only from the speakers but also from the entire physical environment in which the interaction takes place.’

Speech in face-to-face communication is an easier and faster way to transmit information than text in CMC because typing messages takes much longer than spoken messages. The time issue is another significant difference between face-to-face communication and CMC. Face-to-face is real time communication via which speakers and listeners can immediately send and receive messages. CMC is not real time communication (except for video calls such as when using Skype), even though some CMCs provide near real time communication, such as IM, people still need to spend time typing messages and waiting for responses.

Research Methodology

This study is designed as practice-based research and aims to generate new knowledge through a creative practice of interaction design. The purpose of conducting the interaction design is to explore specific communication requirements in the target population and provide a possible solution to them. The target population (D/HoH people) will be involved in the designing process via ethnographic interviews, which includes user-centred design (UCD) and participatory design (PD) approaches in different design steps. UCD is a design approach of ‘designing for users’ and PD is an approach of ‘designing with users’ (Sanders 2002).

There are five design steps used in this creative practice to develop a smartphone app: a. Defining Requirements, b. Providing Alternatives, c. Alternatives, Testing and Deciding d. Prototype Development and e. Prototypes, Testing and Modification. See Figure 1 below.
a. Defining Requirements
The first design step is to define user requirements via a literature review and interviews. The literature review will help understand face-to-face communication and how communication occurs within the D/HoH community. The interviews will help explore the communication difficulties and requirements of the D/HoH that are specific in face-to-face communication.

b. Providing Alternatives
The second design step will provide potential alternatives via analyzing user requirements and analyzing potential approaches. Analyzing user requirements will help in the design of the potential features of these smartphone app. Analyzing potential approaches will help explore relevant technologies that can be used to implement the design features.

c. Alternatives, Testing and Deciding
The third design step is to test and decide on the alternative potential features via the interviews. The interviews will help to evaluate original design concept and find best design features for end-users.

d. Prototype Developments
The forth design step is to further develop prototype via the smartphone interface design and app design policy. The interface design process will help understand the specific requirements of interface on smartphones. The app design policy will help to understand basic design regulation of a smartphone app. Finally, the designed features will be presented via a visual-based prototype that will present a realistic impression of this interactive product to users for testing.

e. Prototypes, Testing and Modification
The fifth design step is to test and modify the visual-based prototype via interviews. The interviews will help evaluate the visual-based prototype for developing a high-fidelity prototype (with simulated interaction), which will be the final outcome of the creative practice in this study.
Basing on the design steps, there were 9 interviewees (end-users) involved in the developing process of this smartphone app, with a total of 27 interviews in three different design steps (9 interviews per each step). The 9 interviewees were recruited from three specific groups: a. Experts, b. D/HoH People and c. Hearing People. The experts are professionals in the D/HoH field. As an interview process is time consuming, the three interviewee groups allow for the precise and efficient collecting of data. Details of the 9 interviewees are shown in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>People</th>
<th>Background/Details</th>
<th>Interview forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experts</td>
<td>Person 1</td>
<td>· A sign language interpreter (hearing person)</td>
<td>Face-to-face &amp; Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· BSL degree awarded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· More than 14 years of experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Female / Age: 40-49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person 2</td>
<td>· A communication development officer (hearing person) in the Action on Hearing Loss (a Deaf organisation in the UK), also a sign language interpreter</td>
<td>Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Issues in Deafness degree awarded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· More than 17 years of experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Female / Age: 50-64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person 3</td>
<td>· A manager at the British Deaf Association (Deaf)</td>
<td>Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· More than 32 years of experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Male / Age: 50-64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D/HoH People</td>
<td>Person 4</td>
<td>· A university student</td>
<td>Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Male / Age: 18-29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person 5</td>
<td>· A university student</td>
<td>Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Female / Age: 18-29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person 6</td>
<td>· A college teacher</td>
<td>Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Male / Age: 30-39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing People</td>
<td>Person 7</td>
<td>· A deaf child’s mother</td>
<td>Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Female / Age: 40-49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person 8</td>
<td>· A designer who usually works with a Deaf/Hard of Hearing colleague</td>
<td>Face-to-face &amp; Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Male / Age: 30-39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person 9</td>
<td>· A Deaf person’s friend</td>
<td>Face-to-face &amp; Online Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>· Male / Age: 30-39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Interviewee Details

Specific Communication Requirements
Understanding user requirements is the first step when developing an interactive product. ‘A requirement is a statement about an intended product that specifies what it should do or how it should perform’ (Rogers, Sharp and Preece 2011, p.355). Defining the target user and target activity are two necessary parts of understanding user requirements when developing this smartphone app. D/HoH people are the primary target users and hearing people the secondary users; and face-to-face communication between D/HoH and hearing people is the target activity.

According to the first design step, there is a main user requirement for developing this smartphone app:

To provide a communication tool that can be used to assist face-to-face communication between the D/HoH and hearing people, particularly in common (informal) one-to-one conversations

The main user requirement contains the following two sub-requirements:

A solution to integrate and support different communication methods in an accessible communication channel that can be used in face-to-face communication between D/HoH and hearing people.
A solution to conduct and incorporate physical interaction with nonverbal messages into communication when using this smartphone app.

Design Features of This Smartphone App
According to the second to fifth design step for concept testing, feature evaluating and prototype modifying (via sketching, visual-based, web-based and app-simulated prototypes), there are three significant features designed in this smartphone app for achieving the above user requirements: a. Various Ways of Inputting Messages, b. Rotating to Show Messages and c. Large Text Mode for the Elderly.

a. Various Ways of Inputting Messages
This feature is the basic feature designed in this smartphone app for users to input messages. It aims to facilitate the communication process (increasing the speed of inputting messages) when using this smartphone app by providing effective ways of inputting messages for both D/HoH and hearing users. It includes four ways of inputting messages.

Text Typing (with predictive support)
Test typing is a basic way of inputting messages in this smartphone app, which includes predictive text support that aims to increase text typing speed by giving suggestive words and sentences during the typing process.

Emoticon
Emoticon provides a quicker and easier way to input contextual emotional information, as well as enriching the content of messages by using various pictures.

Stored Message (with categorising support)
Stored message is an innovative way of inputting messages. This feature aims to increase speed of inputting messages by selecting existing messages from an archive (user creates archives in advance).

Voice Recognition (with correcting support)
Voice recognition provides a way in this smartphone app that hearing users can use speech to input messages and the messages will be translated to text for D/HoH users.

Table 2 below shows interfaces of these four ways of inputting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Typing</th>
<th>Emoticon</th>
<th>Stored Message</th>
<th>Voice Recognition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The ways of text typing, emotion and stored message are designed to be mainly used by the D/HoH because of their limited speech capabilities. The way of voice recognition is designed to be mainly used by hearing people. Voice recognition includes basic text typing and emotions but does not include predictive and stored messages due to privacy issues.

b. Rotating to Show Messages
This is the most significant feature in this smartphone app, it prompts users to conduct and incorporate physical interaction with nonverbal messages when using this smartphone app during face-to-face communication. It integrates CMC and face-to-face communication in an innovative way during communication between D/HoH and hearing people. Rotating to show messages is
activated via the accelerometer sensor. Users are restricted to inputting messages in the portrait orientation and shown messages in the landscape orientation. See Figure 2 below.

Figure 2. Rotation for Showing Messages 1

Showing messages via a single phone without connection technologies (e.g. GSM, 3G, Wifi & Bluetooth) is designed to be used between D/HoH and hearing people. It is the primary purpose for designing this smartphone app. A scenario showing messages via a single phone is presented in Table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th>Step 4</th>
<th>Step 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A D/HoH person inputs messages via text.</td>
<td>The D/HoH person shows messages to a hearing person.</td>
<td>The hearing person reads messages and takes the phone.</td>
<td>The hearing person inputs messages via voice recognition.</td>
<td>The hearing person shows messages back to the D/HoH person.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Scenario for Showing Messages via a Single Phone

Showing messages via two phones is designed to be used between Deaf and Hard of Hearing people. It is the secondary purpose for designing this smartphone app. A scenario showing messages via two phones is shown in Table 4 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th>Step 4</th>
<th>Step 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image7.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image8.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image9.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image10.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Deaf person inputs messages via text.</td>
<td>The Deaf person shows messages to a Hard of Hearing person.</td>
<td>Both the Deaf and Hard of Hearing people use their own phones.</td>
<td>The Hard of Hearing person inputs messages via text.</td>
<td>The Hard of Hearing person shows messages back to the Deaf person.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Scenario for Showing Messages via Two Phones
In addition, the text-to-voice (speaker) and flexible text size features are two further supports to increase the usability of showing messages. See Figure 3 below.

c. Large Text Mode for the Elderly
This feature is a further assistance designed in this smartphone app specifically for older users. The large text mode aims to reduce difficulties faced by older users when using a smartphone app by providing bigger text size and interfaces. The large text mode specifically focuses on increasing the size of message text and key feature buttons. See Figure 4 below.

The standard mode (text size 17 pt and button size 68x68 px) is designed by following the Apple iOS Human Interface Guidelines. The large text mode (text size 25.5 pt and button size 130x130 px) is designed by following the design guideline for older users proposed by Jin, Plocher and Kiff (2007).
A Scenario of This Smartphone App
This section presents a typical scenario for using this smartphone app in face-to-face communication between a D/HoH person and a hearing person. See the Table 5 & 6 below.

Table 5. Scenario of Using this Smartphone App: Step 1-2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The D/HoH person (right side) inputs a message via this smartphone app (in portrait orientation).</td>
<td>The D/HoH person (right side) shows the message to the hearing person (left side) via this smartphone app (in landscape orientation).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Scenario of Using this Smartphone App: Step 3-4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th>Step 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The hearing person (left side) inputs a message (voice recognition) via this smartphone app (in portrait orientation).</td>
<td>The hearing person (left side) shows the message to the D/HoH person (right side) via this smartphone app (in landscape orientation).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, a video description of this smartphone app is available online at [http://youtu.be/KJ1klK5aORM](http://youtu.be/KJ1klK5aORM)

Conclusion
This practice-based research has resulted in a real solution, which is a smartphone app that can be used to bridge the face-to-face communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people. This study contributes a new understanding in the integration of CMC and face-to-face communication and provides an innovative way of using CMC in face-to-face communication that combines physical interaction with nonverbal messages during communication.

There were three comments by the D/HoH interviewees that provided significant positive feedback on three specific features designed as part of this smartphone app: a. Various Ways of Inputting Messages b. Large Text Mode for Older Users and c. Rotating to Show Messages.
‘The various inputting ways on this app are good, especially the text typing with predictive words/sentences and the stored messages.’

‘The large text mode is a very useful feature. I always feel text size is too small to read on my phone and the buttons are also too small for my stupid fingers sometimes.’

‘I am really looking forward to using it. The rotating to show messages is a great idea and the messages shown using bigger text size with full screen display is very useful. Go for it!’

This smartphone app obtains very positive feedback from the end-users. This study has provided a solution to bridge the face-to-face communication gap between D/HoH and hearing people and a specific interface design for the elderly. However, there is a limitation in this study as a standard smartphone virtual keyboard brings difficulties for older users (Harad et al 2013). This issue would be a significant direction for future research.

References


Instamarketing - A Content Analysis of a Famous Turkish Cosmetic Brand’s Marketing on Instagram

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Abstract
The social media became more popular to build relationships with the customers. The study examines the three famous Turkish cosmetic brands’ use of Instagram for their marketing strategies. The aim of the study is to understand the use of social media and marketing strategies towards women as the target market for cosmetic brands in Turkey. Content analysis was used to understand the social media marketing strategies and creative appeal efforts of the brands with brand typology on Instagram. The research findings are valuable for the marketing communication practitioners academically and professionally with the photograph and video based applications on Instagram.

Introduction
Social Media has been the rapidly enlarging social networking as a means of business and informal communication around the world. Also, the cosmetic industry is one of the most important industries in this competitive world especially for women centric goods and services. The competition among the cosmetic industry rivals forces them to focus on the customers on using social media as well. Especially, the technological improvements with smart phones create a pathway for the cosmetic brands to transfer their business activities on to social media.

Literature Review
Social Media has become one of the major ways to reach customers through Internet in recent years. The companies facing, competitions and customer satisfaction requirements use technological advancements to establish interactive communication with their customers as a means of computer mediated communication. Social media has been used by companies to reach their customers via Internet connection. Social media has become an influential interactive communication method which is used by the companies. Kaplan & Haenlein (2010) point out that Social media is “virtual worlds” which is an important slogan for many companies. Social media tool, social networking site (SNS) has been considered as a popular tool for reacting consumers. Boyd & Ellison (2008) point out that SNS, which are used by millions of people around the world, creates a public or partially public reach. Through SNS, people share information virtually.

Social media is the combination of new technology with social networking. In current days, Instagram is a good example for social networking in the virtual world. “Instagram is a free social network based photo-sharing program that enables users with a valid account to immediately take, apply on a digital hashtag or filter, and instantly share a photo or video on their profile page in Facebook or Twitter” (iContact.com, 2015). Instagram was launched in 2010 and bought by Facebook in 2012. Since the year of 2010 more than one billion photos have been added to the Instagram. The use of Instagram helps to create impression on ideas, goods and services with virtual presentation of the photo and video sharing of company’s products. Instagram helps to increase the popularity and fashionability of brands and create the impression of new launches of companies with reduction on company’s advertising expenses.

Cosmetics Industry
Cosmetics industry with 135 billion dollars volume in the global marketplace is ranked as second after the automobile industry. The cosmetic industry is a very profitable, innovative, and competitive industry where new innovation is the key to success for the companies. The cosmetic companies use various marketing strategies in the market place. However, the use of social media of companies is similar while using new media to have interactive communication with the customers. The foreign, well-known and global cosmetic brands have high level of awareness and brand loyalty among the consumers. Turkish consumers like new and current products of global brands in the Turkish market like other women in the world (Ergin, Özdemir & Parlı, 2005). Recently, Turkish brands have gained popularity with their product innovations and marketing strategies. They start to become more competitive towards their foreign rivals.

Brand Typology
Franzen’s (2009) brand typology covers product representation, symbolic, trust and relationship. It can be seen as a new method for finding out the brand strategies of the companies with the use of four brand types in Instagram.

Product representation brands: These brands have easy identification of the product category or its attribute. The consumers can easily choose the brand.

Trust brands: These brands focus on quality to minimize risk for the consumers on their consumption.

Symbolic brands: These brands focus on the personalities, lifestyles and values of consumers with brands. These brands attach symbolic meanings to the brands for the consumers.
Relationship brands: These kinds of brands focus on the customers’ needs and try to create personal relationship with customers. Also, the relationship brands may carry symbolic meanings as well. Relationship brands are considered predominant on Instagram as a means of communication, connection and interaction with consumers directly (Goor, 2012).

**Social Media marketing Strategies**

The companies use social media marketing strategies to reach their consumers through social media. The social media strategies considered new marketing strategies on social media as user-generated strategy (contests, campaigns, and promotions), viral marketing (hash tag #brand name), exclusive content (unique content), brand interactivity (interactivity with customer personalization) and brand identity (a unique set of brand associations).

**Creative Appeals**

Creative appeals are important strategies for companies for business survival as a means of advertising appeals in the business world. There are some creative appeals that focus on rational and emotional manner to keep the consumers’ eyes of the brand as shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Rational and Emotional Appeals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rational</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factual message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testimonial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Popularity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dramatization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex Appeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fantasy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slice of Life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Reid & Belch, 2004) (Fill, 1999)

The creative appeals explanations give an idea of the type of appeals as shown below.

**Rational Appeals**

Factual message covers straightforward presentation of information.

Scientific/Technical evidence is the kind of information displayed in the ad.

Demonstration covers explaining the benefits of the product through the use of it in the ad.

Testimonial means the person explains the advantages of product use based on his/her experiences in the ad.

News appeals cover the news and announcements about the product in the ad.

Product Popularity appeals explain how many people uses that product or its market leadership at the industry in the ad.

Comparison covers comparison between the products and brands.

**Emotional Appeals**

Fear appeals focus on negative aspects or social rejection of the people according to the non-usage of the product.

Humor appeal is considered as an emotional appeal because it focuses on the interest and positive mood of the people.

Dramatization is the creation of a scenario in a short story and dramatizes the situation.

Sex Appeal

Animation is used to get attention of consumers with animated characters in the ad.

Fantasy appeal focuses on imagery situation or illusion about the product

Slice of Life is used by the advertisers to give a real-life situation as a means of slice of life for the consumers.

**Research Methodology**

The content analysis as a qualitative research was used to analyze the data. In the content analysis, 3 brands with one month photo/ advertisement sharings for a total, 85 advertisements were analyzed according to Brand Typology, Social Media Marketing Strategies and Creative Appeals category, which were for the period 1 April 2015 till 30 April 2015. Brand typology is used a determination of product ad typology. Brands typology for each photo and brand is defined according to the visual and verbal content of every single photo. The results of descriptive statistics and cross tabulation were analyzed by used of SPSS program.

**Analysis and Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Instagram Followers by Turkish Cosmetic Brands (by date 7/5/2015)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brands</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flormar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golden Rose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 1, Flormar brand was more popular on Instagram. Table 2 gave information about brand typology, creative appeals and social media marketing strategies. It can be easily seen that, Flormar brand shared more photos than other brands. 85% of creative appeals on ads and photos shared by Flormar were rational appeals and 51.2% of them were factual messages and
32.5% of them were demonstrations which appeared on the ads as combinations of color, product and product use on the ads.

### Table 2. Brands Analysis on Instagram

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>Flormar</th>
<th>Golden Rose</th>
<th>Pastel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instagram Followers</td>
<td>62.5 k</td>
<td>17.2 k</td>
<td>7.9 k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Typology</td>
<td>47.1%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product rep.</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Creative Appeals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rational</th>
<th>Emotional</th>
<th>Rational</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factual Message</td>
<td>51.2%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific Evidence</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex Appeals</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fantasy</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slice of life</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. Analysis of Brands’ Social Media Marketing Strategies on Instagram

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>User-generated st.</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusive content</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand interactivity</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand identity</td>
<td>83.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to social media marketing strategies, 83.5% of the strategies were brand identity. Turkish brands were not fully using the social media marketing strategies. They had some ads that look like magazine ads. Without the use of any strategy, they simply use logo or brand name on each ad and photo. Also, user-generated, exclusive content and brand interactivity strategies were used by the brands with the use of brand identity strategy item as logo or brand name.

### Table 4. Crosstabulation between Social Media Marketing Strategies and Brand Typology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Product Representation</th>
<th>Symbolic</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>user-generated</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strategy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viral marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclusive content</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brand interactivity</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brand identity</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, 37.5% of user-generated strategies were product representation, 62.5% of them were relationship type. All of the exclusive content and brand interactivity strategies were symbolic type. 52% of brand identity strategies were product representation, 36% of them were symbolic, 5.6% of them were trust and 5.6% of them were relationship.
### Table 5. Crosstabulation between Social Media Marketing Strategies and Creative Appeals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Product Representation</th>
<th>Symbolic</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factual Message</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td>48.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific Evidence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>1,2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demonstration</strong></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>47.4%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>News</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex Appeals</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>8,2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fantasy</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slice of life</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.1%</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
<td>4,7%</td>
<td>10,6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

 According to table 5, crosstabulation between Social Media Marketing Strategies and Creative Appeals were explained. Mainly, 75% product representation were factual messages, 17.5% of them were demonstrations. For symbolic types demonstrations, sex appeals and fantasy were used. Rarely, trust was used as a brand type. 78% of the relationship type was factual message strategy.

The below figures were some of the examples from the cosmetic brands of the study.
Figure 1. Product Representation

Figure 2. Trust

Figure 3. Symbolic

Figure 4. Symbolic
Conclusion
As a conclusion, three cosmetic brands have used Instagram for their marketing strategy efforts. Flormar, Golden Rose and Pastel were the most popular and well-known Turkish cosmetic brands. According to the Instagram accounts of 3 brands; Flormar has the highest number of followers and the second one is, Golden Rose. The third one is, Pastel. They have more tendencies to use factual message and demonstrations as creative appeals. Also, the product representation and symbolic strategies are analyzed as brand typology. All three brands highly use brand identity on their Instagram accounts. However, their social media marketing strategies need further studies and require extended creative strategies. To become more effective as global brands, they have to be more professional to integrate social media marketing strategies with the marketing communication efforts.

References


Is CSR Defending the Business in Times of Crisis? Critical Analysis of the Body Shop Company as a Pilot Study

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Abstract
This paper aims at finding out if the representation of the brand during the reputational crisis actually comprises the defense strategy based on the reputation obtained from the CSR activities implemented earlier. The significance of this study is to investigate how the reputation earned by CSR activities affects the reputational crisis shown on print media (online version). During the research, whether the defense strategies sufficiently and effectively manage to respond the accusations towards the organizations or not are examined. It was intended to investigate the negative representation of The Body Shop Company in the newspapers, in terms of visual and discursive contexts. For this purpose, a critical investigation of the pictures and/or figures in addition to the discourses within the defense strategies has been conducted. According to the findings, it is possible to state that The Body Shop Company spokespeople use defense strategy in order to manage crises and regain the reputation, by using the reputation obtained earlier.

Keywords: Marketing, corporate social responsibility (CSR), crisis management, reputation, The Body Shop, press

Introduction
It is an incontrovertible fact that, the significance and dimensions of marketing has been constantly changing and advancing in the developing and globalizing world. It can be assumed that the technological infrastructure and superstructure, and new markets are enabling the increase of competition which influences marketing and marketing strategies as a result of these advances. The role of mass media which is used by audiences in order to access information have not changed, rather gained significance. Accordingly, as it is well known, the sanction and influence of media on the society is undeniable.

On the other hand, corporate social responsibility (CSR) is being observed to be used by businesses as a powerful management strategy. Other than their operational marketing activities, the businesses have adopted the concept of CSR to increase the efficiency. According to numerous studies, CSR does not only have a positive influence on the purchase decisions of the customers but also helps them to build a positive perception towards the brand. In this sense, this study focuses on explaining the effects of CSR with halo effect theories, pointing it out as a reaction to the reputational crises. The news reports published every day informs us about the current and newsworthy events happened all over the world. The contents of these news reports sometimes include news of crises. The Body Shop is a well-known brand; some perceive the brand as famous with all the CSR implementations and others as infamous because of the crises. The subject of this paper has come forward as a need to question how the news reports on The Body Shop company crises are covered on print media and if the defense strategy is also included within the coverage.

Within this context, this study intends to find out if the representation of the brand during the reputational crisis actually includes a part aiming a defense strategy using the reputation acquired from previous CSR activities. This study is particularly significant as it is to investigate how the reputation earned by CSR affects the reputational crisis shown on print media (online version).

Literature Review: Is CSR Defending the Business in Times of Crisis?

Crisis Management
Cited from Carley & Lin (1995), Perrow (1984), Arpan & Pompper (2003), “a crisis is a critical situation which, if mishandled, can inflict serious damage on the organization” (Vassilikopoulou, Stiomkos, Chatzipanagiotou, & Pantouvakis, 2009). The company can come up against a crisis, a temporary predicament which enables the company to recognize that there are aspects or functions that should be changed (Tipuric, Skoko, Jugo, & Mesin, 2013). According to Coombs (2012), an organizational crisis can be seen as an unexpected situation which causes the stakeholders to lose trust in the organization and its operations, resulting in a loss of profit and reputation, and various strategies are applied by organizations as a reaction to the crises (Verhoeven, Tench, Zerfass, Moreno, & Vercic, 2014). Sometimes the crises cannot be avoided even if the company applies protection strategies. In this case, the executives should always stay organized for unpreventable situations (Coombs, Frandsen, Holladay, & Johansen, 2010). The definitions and explanations show that a crisis can be a dangerous threat towards the company’s reputational and financial assets, and require management procedures.

Crisis management is a department where the crisis is spotted, and the solutions are determined and communicated with the stakeholders in order to provide assurance. In such cases when the company encounters accusations or serious issues such as opposing opinions, the executives perform a reaction. (Tipuric, Skoko, Jugo, & Mesin, 2013). The company’s reaction towards the crisis should include communication strategies and this reaction can make a positive influence if applied properly which leads to the reconstruction of the reputation, however the opposite is also likely to occur with a misused strategy (Coombs,
Fransdten, Holladay, & Johansen, 2010). Van der Meer & Verhoeven (2013) have found that conventional media communications play a significant role in decreasing the negative influence of crises (Verhoeven, Tench, Zerfass, Moreno, & Vercic, 2014). It is remarkably important to shape the way that the news are spreading after a crisis (Wigley & Fontenot, 2010). The importance and power of crisis management is undeniable for the company to regain its reputation (Wolf & Mejri, 2013). In this sense, there are several strategies and approaches to be applied during the crisis management. According to Smith (2009), the companies try to gain empathy from the customers, regain the reputation, and reconstruct the credence they have earned before. There are three different approaches applied in such cases in order to organize a communication plan. Apologia is one these approaches and it is a way of defending the company by clarifying the reasons of the criticized behavior (Tipuric, Skoko, Jugo, & Mesin, 2013). From the viewpoint of Coombs, Fransden, Holladay, & Johansen (2010), apologia can be defined as a self-defense and an apologia performed by the company is a communication strategy to repair the damaged reputation as a defense mechanism would be necessary to overcome the crisis. Smith also cites by Jugo (2012, p. 186) that apologia should not be mistaken with apology as the latter refers to regret. The concept of apologia does involve the action of apology; however it is a wider term (Tipuric, Skoko, Jugo, & Mesin, 2013).

Reputation and Reputational Crisis
Stated by Booth (2000), reputation is usually noticed by media or the stakeholders. The reputation of the business makes it more desirable and worth keeping for a target audience (Feldman, Bahamonde, & Bellido, 2014). According to Fombrun and van Riel (2004), reputation is an undeniable virtue owned by a company and also cited from Barton (2001) and Benoit (1995), When the company encounters crisis, the reputation is most likely to be damaged and the right communication strategy can save the damaged reputation, in other words, its virtue (Coombs, Fransden, Holladay, & Johansen, 2010). Reputational crisis can be defined as the detriment in the intangible values of a business and it generally occurs in the aftermath of another crisis which is called a ‘knock-on’ crisis but in some cases it can take place as a result of a specific event, even when there was no other crisis. One of the communications strategies which can be used to respond after a reputational crisis is the defense strategy where the business is using the previously acquired reputation in order to defend itself (Booth, 2000).

Corporate Social Responsibility
According to Sen, Bhattacharya, & Korschun (2008), a vast number of competitors are actively operating within the market and they all try to communicate with their stakeholders, in some cases with the entire society they operate in. The same study indicates that this current situation which is a result of the era we live in requires more than the traditional marketing mix tools. As a part of their agenda, the businesses are striving to focus on their asset and equity building activities by creating a value of their own, and these efforts include corporate social responsibility operations as well.

CSR is a management strategy implemented when the businesses undertake a responsibility of a social issue to make improvements, not as a legal necessity and this part of strategies chosen to be conducted enables a brand to possess a unique character (Siegel & Vitaliano, 2007). The function of CSR was stated to act as a bridge between the company and the greater community than its stakeholders (Snider, Hill, & Martin, 2003). Before analyzing CSR activities in different contexts, it is essential to understand the concept with its definitions. Pinkston and Archie (1996) have emphasized that a clear explanation is almost impossible to be provided for the concept of CSR as the agenda of the practices and the perceptions created in the aftermath are constantly varying (Snider, Hill, & Martin, 2003). Cited by Dahlsrud (2008), Jackson and Hawker (2001) pointed out their opinion that they have sought and yet could not find a proper definition of the concept however, the same study in 2008 have contradicted this point of view, indicating that there are numerous definitions.

A collection of CSR definitions were given by Dahlsrud (2008). Commission of European Communities (2001) has defined CSR as “a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis”. According to Marsden (2001) “Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is about the core behavior of companies and the responsibility for their total impact on the societies in which they operate. CSR is not an optional add-on nor is it an act of philanthropy. A socially responsible corporation is one that runs a profitable business that takes account of all the positive and negative environmental, social and economic effects it has on society”. World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2000) gives the definition of CSR as “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as the local community and society at large”. According to Jones (1980) CSR is “the notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups in society other than stakeholders and beyond that prescribed by law or union contract, indicating that a stake may go beyond mere ownership”.

Some of these definitions imply an idea that the reason a business conducts CSR activities is to improve the functions which would lead to an increased profitability, and some of them tries to express a more voluntarily intention. Baron (2001), McWilliams & Siegel (2001), and Bagnoli & Watts (2003) have claimed that the businesses carry out CSR activities in order to maximize profits and this intention leads to the point that the managers act socially responsible with the expectation of profits however, it is not only the financial benefits that the businesses are aiming for when they act socially responsible and they also expect an increase in reputation, offering higher prices for their products and services or recruiting well-qualified employees (Siegel & Vitaliano, 2007). On the other hand, a contrary point of view by Pinkston and Carrol (1996) cited by Snider, Hill, and Martin
(2003) claims that offering higher prices would mean a disadvantage which may lead to a decrease in the profits.

Cited in Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, and Hill (2006), businesses conduct social responsibility activities with the expectation that the customers will show positive perceptions followed by actions (Levy, 1999) however, in fact, the customers would question the goodwill in these implementations before making the decision to show these positive perceptions and actions (Barone et al., 2000; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Creyer & Ross, 1997; Ellen et al., 2000; Sen & Chattacharya, 2001), even showing highly negative attitudes in the contrary case (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2004). A very similar point of view to this common finding is asserted by Klein and Dawar (2004) that CSR creates a halo effect and influences the perceptions and attitudes of the target audience in a positive way only if the social responsibility issue is considered as significant by the target audience. In this sense, a process of selective perception takes place when the CSR activity is highly related with the operations of the business. Another study reinforcing these remarks suggests that CSR implementations should always be supported by actual responsible brand values, principles and actions (Mark-Herbert & Schantz, 2007).

CSR has a positive impact on managing crisis (Hsu, 2006). CSR practices are also found to be inoculating the company for potential upcoming crises which shows that CSR does not only serve as a reactive tool to diminish the negative effects of a crisis (Munilla & Miles, 2005). According to Coombs (2000), cited by Haigh and Dardis (2012), acting responsibly would help a company survive and save its reputation after a crisis.

The Body Shop: the company, its founder and its values
The Body Shop Company was established on 26th March 1976 in the city of Brighton, UK. The first international kiosk was opened up in 1978 in Brussels. The company started The Body Shop Foundation to raise funds for human rights and environmentally friendly organizations in 1990. The Body Shop Company started protesting Animal Testing and this campaign enabled the UK to declare that testing on animals was banned in 1998. The same campaign also collected four million signatures for the European Commission. The company organized campaigns against domestic violence, cruelty to animals, safe cosmetics and breast cancer. In 2006, The Body Shop was taken over by L’oreal. This decision had also become a crisis as reported in The Guardian newspaper on 10th April 2006, however the company had declared that The Body Shop Company would bear its values exactly as they were (Our History, 2015).

Anita Roddick was born in 1942 and established The Body Shop Company with her husband Gordon Roddick. She was a traveler, and activist, and a philanthropist. She run her business parallel with her environmentally friendly actions and defended human rights. In 2003 she had received the title ‘Dame Commander of the British Empire’. In 2007 she passed away because of Hepatitis C (Dame Anita Roddick, 2015).

The Body Shop Company has set its values as Against Animal Testing, Support Community Fair Trade, Activate Self Esteem, Defend Human Rights, Protect the Planet (Our Values, 2015).

Methodology
The present study is a critical analysis and tries to investigate the negative representation of The Body Shop Company in the newspapers in terms of visual and discursive contexts. It also strives to determine what the possible problems about the company would be on the readers’ minds and scrutinize to what extent the company responds to these possible problems in the light of its strategies. In parallel with these findings, the possible corporate image that could be perceived by the prospective customers is tried to be revealed. In order to do this, a critical investigation of the pictures and/or figures in addition to the discourses within the defense strategies has been conducted.

Hypothesis:
During this study whether the defense strategies sufficiently and effectively manages to respond the accusations towards the organizations or not will be examined.

Assumptions
It is assumed that the spokespeople of the company express discourses pointing out the values of the company in the face of the reflected crises.
These expressions are expected to include defense strategies.
The explanations by the spokespeople serve as answers to questions emerging on the readers’ minds as a result of the news reports including crises.

Pilot study
This pilot study was conducted as a critical analysis of two British newspapers, The Guardian and The Daily Mail. The news reports used out of these newspapers were obtained online. Four reports were posted in 2013 and 2014 and are all reports on The Body Shop crises.

Limitations
The study was limited to only two randomly selected British newspapers and only the reports posted in the years 2013 and 2014.
was determined to be included. The keywords used to browse the reports were “The Body Shop”. The four reports were selected randomly among all of the other posts including advertisements.

Findings and Discussion: Critical Analysis of The Body Shop Company as a Pilot Study

Representation of “The Body Shop Company” in The Guardian (online)

**Report 1**

Heading: Body Shop products in Chinese airports at risk of animal testing, says Choice

Subheading: Ethical cosmetic company’s products are on sale in at least two Chinese airports, exposing them to animal testing

Posted online on 11th March 2014 at 00:04 GMT by Helen Davidson

The news report begins with a photograph (by Alamy) of one of The Body Shop signboards showing the logo. The caption says “The Body Shop has said it does not operate in mainland China but a representative confirmed the company does now sell in Chinese airports”.

In the subheading it is stated that “the products are” being “exposed” “to the animal testing”. This statement is reinforced by the phrase “leaving them open to the risk”. The word “risk” was also used in the heading and in the 11th paragraph of the report. Also the phrase “subject to” in the 4th paragraph, “no way… to be guaranteed to be exempt from” in the 6th paragraph and the word “allowed” in the 2nd paragraph implies the risk mentioned. These statements reflect the notion that there is a possibility that The Body Shop products can encounter animal testing in one way or another and the reputation of the company is vulnerable. In this case, even this possibility establishes a danger and this danger creates a crisis.

In the 3rd paragraph, the phrase “it (The Body Shop) does not operate in mainland China” is underlined to emphasize the statement by the company to confirm its responsible actions avoiding cruelty. The same confirmation exists in the 12th paragraph with “marketed itself heavily on its ethical stance against animal testing”, and “said it would never sell in mainland China because of the animal testing requirement”. The last sentence of the 3rd paragraph validates the accusation directed to the organization which acts as a reinforcement on the crisis. Paragraph 16 includes the positioning of The Body Shop by Cruelty Free International which had awarded the business by being a “leaping bunny”. The phrase “against animal testing” was used within the report four times, reminding the readers that the company positions itself as cruelty-free. These repetitions and the emphasizing statements on the responsible actions of the company may serve in two opposite directions: first, with the intention of getting the readers focused on the contradiction of the organization’s behaviors and second, with the intention of reminding the readers that the organization is responsible with its previous decisions and actions to protect it from the ongoing crisis. This dilemma given throughout the entire news report results in an ambiguous notion in the readers’ minds and do not serve as a defense strategy.

In the 14th paragraph the statement by the executive chairman of The Body Shop Australia, Graeme Wise was given to indicate the excuse of the company’s decision to sell at the China airports. However the next paragraph contains a point by Alan Kirkland, Choice’s chief executive as “The Body Shop is being shifty… because its statements are contradictory” which is an extremely strong accusation put on the reputation of the organization.

Paragraph 17 gives the statement by Paul McGreevey, International Values and R&D director of The Body Shop: “The Body Shop believes passionately that no animal should be harmed because of the cosmetics industry and we have a long commitment to this cause”. The underlined phrase in this statement refers to the long time which implies a ‘previous’ decision of acting responsibly. This paragraph serves as a defense strategy to protect or manage a crisis by using/mentioning the previous CSR actions.

**Report 2**

Heading: Body Shop removes all its products from Chinese duty-free stores

Subheading: Watchdog Choice says products are liable to testing on animals, which would breach company’s cruelty-free stance

Posted online on 12th March 2014 at 03:32 GMT by Helen Davidson

The news report begins with a photograph (by Lisa Davies/AAP) of one of The Body Shop storefronts. The caption says “The Body Shop removes all its products from all Chinese duty-free shops”.

This report covers the news from the previous day and indicates the decision of The Body Shop to remove its products from the duty-free stores in China airports after it was clear that the products were at risk of being exposed to animal testing. The text in general includes a summary of the report posted the previous day.

In the 5th paragraph, the statement by a spokeswoman for The Body Shop claims that “all products had been removed from shelves at the two airport stores while it worked with Chinese authorities to determine the full-nature of the post-market testing”. This implies the decision by the organization that the products will not be sold until a reassurance from China arrives. The statement continues as “we still maintain that we’re very much committed to our cruelty-free values”. Here, in this part of the statement, it is clear that the organization is using its existing reputation to manage the crisis therefore it is possible to name this as a defense strategy.
However, the next paragraphs continue with accusations with the statements such as “the company had not done its homework before entering the… market” and “we would expect of a brand like The Body Shop that it would do its homework and have clear commitments that there is no animal testing”. These statements by Alan Kirkland question the responsible positioning of the brand very harshly which serves to strengthen the reputational crisis.

Reflections of “The Body Shop Company” in The Daily Mail (online)

Report 3

Heading: Rap for Body Shop and Lush over ethics claims: Shops criticized for implying some cosmetics are still tested on animals despite ban introduced last year

Subheading: --- Body Shop and Lush market their products as ‘non animal tested’
--- However, so are all other cosmetic products on the British market
--- Criticized for making it look like other stores sell animal-tested products
--- Since last year, it is illegal to sell animal-tested cosmetics in the EU

Posted online on 13th May 2014 at 09:19 GMT by Fiona Macrae

The news report begins with a photograph (by PA) of one of The Body Shop storefronts. The caption says “False marketing ploy: The Body Shop and Lush both market their products as ‘non animal tested’, however this is no different to any other cosmetic brand in the UK as animal testing is forbidden in the EU”. The next paragraph (by Mark Large) within the text is of a man in the costume of a laboratory worker, holding a red rope tied around a woman’s neck inside a Lush store and the third one (by Alamy) is of a white mouse in a laboratory, with a syringe next to it. These photographs are the visuals showing the cruelty of animal testing. The 1st paragraph of the text clearly explains the cause of this crisis with the sentence “The Body Shop and Lush have been criticized for implying some cosmetics are still tested on animals”. The 2nd paragraph gives the claim by Understanding Animal Research which is a group of medical scientists as “…the high street shops still use ethical claims to market cosmetics – despite the fact all make-up sold in Britain is now cruelty-free”. A stronger statement was given in the 7th paragraph by Wendy Jarrett, the chief executive of Understanding Animal Research: “I think the fact that there are still cosmetics being sold in this country under the cruelty-free banner is appalling because that allows people to think that there are other products out there that have been tested on animals”. The word “appalling” in this sentence is a very harsh statement and reinforces the accusation. When the general perspective is considered among these statements, it is clear to see that the claim is based on the grounds of unfair competition that the company is seeking to achieve.

Beside these harsh accusations, in paragraph 12, it is stated that Wendy Jarrett has “…applauded the likes of … The Body Shop … in driving through the sales ban – but asked why the slogans and emblems are still being used more than a year later”. In the next paragraph, she also questioned the two companies’ behavior, stating the possibility that they are afraid of losing sales in case of not emphasizing their responsible actions and look like they are no different than the other brands. In the 15th paragraph, she continued to remark her point of view: “I take my hat off to … The Body Shop for doing the work to get the ban in … but the time has come to be open with the public about the fact that cosmetic testing on animals doesn’t happen anymore”. These statements include respecting remarks for the company by being a responsible organization from the beginning of its operations, however she does not find it fair to act like it is the only brand being responsible about this issue. In this sense, it is possible to indicate that the company is experiencing a reputational crisis by not being transparent enough but striving to show itself as transparent in social and environmental issues.

As a reaction to these allegations, in the last two paragraphs of the text, the statement by a spokesman for The Body Shop was given space: “Whilst the ban in Europe is a great milestone, animal testing on cosmetics products and ingredients continues to take place in other countries around the world. As an international brand, we support our partner organization Cruelty Free International in calling for a complete international ban and continue to feature Against Animal Testing on all our products as part of our long standing commitment to this issue.” Here in this remark, the phrase “our long standing commitment” refers to a responsible attitude by the organization that is ongoing for a long time, which also refers to the decisions made previously. The reputation was earned by the brand previously and this is intentionally reflected within this statement so it is possible to say that this is a defense strategy used by the organization in order to manage the reputational crisis it is facing.

Report 4

Heading: Teenager turned down for job at The Body Shop in Cambridge because she ‘did not speak Chinese’

Subheading: --- Zoe Churchman, 18, claimed manager said ‘all our customers are Chinese’
--- The Body Shop apologized, saying manager didn’t follow procedure

Posted online on 9th June 2013 at 21:24 GMT by Luke Salked

The news report begins with two photographs (by James Linsell-Clark). The caption of these two photographs is given as: “Zoe Churchman (pictured right and left, with her father), 18, who was stunned to be told that she needed to be able to speak Chinese when she went for a job in Cambridge.” There are three more photographs within the text. The first of these three is a photograph of The Body Shop store where Zoe Churchman was applied for a job, and the other two are her own images. All of the photographs aim to picture her life and create a feeling of empathy among the readers.
This news report, in general, explains how the rejection of Zoe Churchman has occurred and gives statements from her and her father. She said “I never thought I would have to learn Mandarin to get a job selling beauty products in England.” Her father said “When Zoe told me, I thought she must have misunderstood, but it kept grating on me and I had to go and check it out. The manager himself said he thought the language requirement was odd, but said he had checked it out with head office. He said to me, ‘That seems to be the norm.'” He also stated that he has found this event “ridiculous” and the word was repeated three times within the text, reinforcing the awkwardness of the situation. Another word used was “unfair” in paragraph 13 referring to the values represented by the company which are protecting human rights. In the same paragraph, the father was also indicated to be a medical clerk where this remark was used as a status indicator. His position would be a sign to increase the credibility of the event happened and the notions of the injured parties. This credibility reflected serves as a support on the accusation put on the organization.

As a response to these claims, a spokesman for The Body Shop has made a statement given in the paragraphs 16 and 17: “The Body Shop believes in equality and seeks to find the right person for the job based on skills, regardless of age, sex, race and nationality. Language skills are an advantage for candidates applying for retail sales positions as we have multicultural customer appeal. However, we would not exclude applications on the basis of language alone.” This statement points out the responsible values of The Body Shop Company which serves as the defense strategy.

Conclusion and Further Suggestions

Conclusion
The four news reports based on The Body Shop reputational crisis included very harshly reflected statements. The accusations were made by the authorities and this increased the level of crises. However, the spokespeople who gave the responses have all turned to the previously earned reputations to defend the organization and support their claims. In this sense, it is possible to indicate that The Body Shop Company spokespeople use defense strategy in order to manage crises and regain the previously earned reputation, by using the previously earned reputation via CSR.

Further Suggestions
Even though it is possible to indicate that the defense strategy is used within the news reports of crises in order to support the reputation, however the influences of these implications and strategies are very difficult to observe by the newspapers. Further studies can be conducted on this basis pilot study and the relationship between CSR implementations and crisis management can be investigated with a more in-depth approach.

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Is film noir a genre, or a style?

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Abstract
Most of the authors in film studies agree on the sources of film noir. It is based on German Expressionism, pre-code Hollywood movies, French poetic realism, and the pulp fictions of Dashiell Hammett, Raymond Chandler, James M. Cain, Cornell Woolrich. In addition to those, who seem to know what film noir movies mean. According to Nathaniel Rich, film noir, which is a genre, tells someone who is pushed to be anti-hero with the distinctive filming techniques (light-shadow contrast) and narrative features in a degenerated world.

The authors, studying film noir, do not come to consensus whether film noir is a genre or not. Most of them bring different approaches to the issue, and it is hard to define film noir notion in this perspective. This study is based on the arguments of the views of Foster Hirsch, James Damico, Raymond Durgnat, Paul Schrader and James Naremore. Some of those authors argue that film noir a genre is; some argues film noir is a style. The aim of this study is to analyze what the genre or the style of film noir is through the films.

Keywords: film noir, genre, style

Introduction
This is the age of film noir. Though the genre dates from the late 1930s and early 1940s, its concerns of hopelessness, failure, deceit and betrayal are in many ways more prescient in the twenty-first century than they were at their inception. Then, too, most definitions of noir films are, it seems to me, excessively narrow. The classic archetypes of the lone protagonist in a dark, rainy alley, accompanied by an omnipresent voiceover on the soundtrack, of doomed lovers on the run from the police, or hard-boiled detectives unravelling labyrinthine mysteries with cynical assurance represent only one manifestation of this pervasive film genre. Film noir is the cinema of paranoia, of doubt and fear and uncertainty, which blossomed in the wake of World War II, as the Allies’ victory was purchased at the cost of the spectre of instant annihilation by forces seemingly beyond our comprehension (Dixon, 2009).

What is film noir? Most of the authors, studying films, agree on the sources of film noir. It is based on German Expressionism, pre-code Hollywood movies, French poetic realism, and the pulp fictions of Dashiell Hammett, Raymond Chandler, James M. Cain, Cornell Woolrich. The reasons of this are related to the results of the World War II: the gloom of war, discount products, entrance of women into professional life, extreme anxiety which caused by war, increasing suburbanization in the post-war era, the threats of new war, reactions about communism, discomfort stage with the constraint of production code and declining film production of studio system in cinema, seventh art, are the basic elements behind the emergence of film noir.

In addition to those, many people seem to know what film noir movies mean. According to Nathaniel Rich, film noir, which is a kind of film genre, tells about someone who is pushed to be an anti-hero with distinctive filming techniques (light-shadow contrast) and narrative features in a degenerated world.

1 Pre-code Hollywood films refer to the era of American films introducing to the voice by the end of 1920s.

2 The production code is a kind of censorship between 1930 and 1967 in the American film industry. The American Motion Picture Association (MPAA) put it into rule mandatory in 1937, and canceled in 1967. According to the code which aims to protect film quality of the audiences in the American films (Hayes, The Production Code of the Motion Picture Industry (1930-1967);

Ø Ferocious murder is forbidden.
Ø Alcoholism, and drug trafficking scenes should be avoided as much as possible.
Ø Sex scenes do not have to be used. Kissing and having sex with desire are not shown in the films.
Ø Tempting, raping and seducing are not shown in the films.
Ø Representing the birth scenes are forbidden. Sexual organs of children are forbidden.
Ø Impolite, abusive dialog are forbidden.
Ø Unrespectful images to the God and the Prophet are forbidden. The facts of religious are forbidden as shown as comic.
Ø Nudity is forbidden.
Ø Dancing as calling sexual desire is forbidden.
Ø American flag has to be used in the films. The people, who are dedicated to the nation, must be shown good and impartial.
Huston’s adaptation of Dashiell Hammett’s novel, starting with starring Maltese Falcon, ending with Orson Welles’ Touch of Evil in a golden age of film noir (Ozdemir, 2011: 23) differs from time to time. The critics do not agree whether film noir is genre, or not. Many critics offer different ideas, and this makes it difficult to make a definition of film noir.

**Film noir: Genre or style?**

This study is based on arguments of Foster Hirsch, James Damico, Raymond Durgnat, Paul Schrader and James Naremore. Foster Hirsch states that film noir is a genre. Hirsch (cited Conard, 2006: 10) emphasizes that the genre has the similar narrative structure, issues, character and visual features. According to this definition, the borders of film noir seem to be crossed out. There are many film noir movies which have a narrative with flashbacks, an alienated anti-hero, femme fatale, light-shadow contrast. *Double Indemnity* (dir. Billy Wilder, 1944), *Murder, my Sweet* (dir. Edward Dmytryk, 1944), *Out of the Past* (dir. Jacques Tourneur, 1947) are the films which have a narrative with flashbacks, alienated anti-hero, femme fatale, light-shadow contrast.

James Damico is another reviewer arguing that film noir is a genre. Damico states that film noirs have a particular narrative template, and this is why film noir has to be characterized as a genre. According to the narrative template of Damico, protagonist finds himself in violence, and is ridden for a fall by femme fatale (2006: 103-105). The difference of Damico from Hirsh is that he does not mention unity in the visuality of film noirs. There are many film noirs confirming the definition of Damico. The Postman Rings Always Twice (dir. Tay Garnett, 1946) is the best example of his definition. The protagonist (Frank) is fooled by Cora, and he kills her husband. There are many film noir movies which do not fit to the definition of Damico. *Brute Force* (dir. Jules Dassin, 1947) has only flashback, but does not include a woman character. It tells about the story of the prisoners and the sadistic manager of the jail. D.O.A. (dir. Rudolph Mate, 1950) is another film that does not fit to the definition of Damico.

On the other hand, femme fatale character is not intrinsic to film noir. There are movies which are not film noir, but have these characters. Martha Wolfstein and Nathan Leites state in their work *Movies: A Psychological Study* that women characters that are namely femme fatale, are “fancy woman”. As they use this label for Kitty in *Scarlett Street* (dir. Fritz Lang, 1945), they also use “fancy woman” for Miss Macomber in *Macomber Affair* (dir. Zoltan Korda, 1947) which is not categorized as film noir (Neale 2000: 163). Michael Renov separates women characters in Hollywood films in his Hollywood’s Wartime Women study. The first type is mysterious woman. The past, the aims, and the struggles of this type of woman are understood by men. Another type is devil woman. The women of this type are completely evil minded. Renov emphasizes the women characters in film noir movies such as *Laurea* (dir. Otto Preminger, 1944) and *Gilda* (dir. Charles Vidor, 1946) as mysterious women. He also analyses that women characters in comedy and western movies, such as *Balls of Fire* (dir. Howard Hawks, 1941) and The Ox-Bow Incident (dir. William A. Wellman, 1943), as devil woman (Neale, 2000: 163). With those examples, femme fatale characters are not intrinsic to film noir. Therefore, it is not enough to theorize film noir as a genre through femme fatale.

British critics Raymond Durgnat states in his *Paint It Black: The Family Tree of the Film Noir* work, that film noir is not a genre such as western or gangster movies. According to Durgnat, film noir can be classified with the subject and psychology. Durgnat determines 11 titles of film noir: These are gangster, escape, private detective, middle-class murder, double personality, sexual pathology, psychopath, hostage taking, Nazi, horror and fantasy, crime as social criticism (2006: 37-52). The model of Durgnat enlarges the borders of film noir. This also causes new problems (Selby, 1984: 2). Gangster movies in 1930s,* King Kong* (dir. Merian C. Cooper, Ernest B. Schoedsack, 1933), and 2001: A Space Odyssey (dir. Stanley Kubrick, 1968) and many crime movies and other different movies of different genres of movies can be included into the classification of Durgnat.

In his *Notes on Film Noir* study (1972), Paul Schrader claims that, film noir is not a genre. According to Schrader, it is hard to say what film noir is, but it is easy to say what film noir is not (2006: 53). Herein, Schrader underlines that Raymond Durgnat’s *The Family Tree of Film Noir* work assists for film noir and genre discussions. He states that it is not defined, as are the western and gangster genres, by the conventions of setting and conflict, but rather by the more subtle qualities of tone and mood. It is a film “noir”, as opposed to the possible variants of film grey or film off-white (2006: 53-63). Film noir can be described with its dark atmosphere and psychology. Paul Schrader says that film noir is also a specific period of film history, like German Expressionism or the French New Wave. In general, film noir refers to those Hollywood films of the Forties and early Fifties which portrayed the world of dark, slick city streets, crime and corruption (2006: 53-54).

Robert Porfirio supports, in his *No Way Out: Existential Motifs in the Film Noir* (1976), Paul Schrader’s ideas. In his opinion, it is true that Schrader minds psychology and visually of film (Porfirio, 2006: 78-83).

As another critic, James Naremore, claims that film noir is not a genre. According to Naremore, film noir is intergenre. Naremore places film noir metaphor, metonomy and similarity in time (1998: 5-6). He also argues that even though film noir is evaluated in cinema, dark tone, jazz music, hard-boiled literature in film noir and in many different fields can show oneself (1998).
Foster Hirsch says: “A genre . . . is determined by the conventions of narrative structure, characterization, theme, and visual
design.” And, as one of those who argues that film noir is indeed a genre, he finds that film noir has these elements “in
abundance”:

_Noir_ deals with criminal activity, from a variety of perspectives, in a general mood of dislocation and bleakness which earned the
style its name. Unified by a dominant tone and sensibility, the _noir_ canon constitutes a distinct style of film-making; but it also
conforms to genre requirements since it operates within a set of narrative and visual conventions. . . . _Noir_ tells its stories in a
particular way, and in a particular visual style. The repeated use of narrative and visual structures . . . certainly qualifies _noir_ as a
genre, one that is in fact as heavily coded as the western (Conard, 2006)

So film noir is a genre, according to Hirsch, because of its consistent tone and storytelling and the visual conventions running
through the films of the classic noir period. We see all these features, for example, in _The Postman Always Rings Twice_, as
mentioned above: the tone of dark cynicism and alienation, the narrative conventions like the femme fatale and the flashback
voice-overs, and the shadowy black-and-white look of the movie. James Damico likewise believes that noir is a film genre—and
precisely because of a certain narrative pattern. He describes this pattern as the typical noir plot, in which the main character is
lured into violence, and usually to his own destruction, by the femme fatale. Again, this is exactly the pattern of Postman: Frank is
coaxed into killing Cora’s husband and is ultimately destroyed by his choices and actions. Damico, unlike Hirsch, however, denies
that there is a consistent visual style to the films: “I can see no conclusive evidence that anything as cohesive and determined as a
visual style exists in [film noir].” (Conard, 2006).

Those who deny that film noir is a genre define it in a number of different ways. In the earliest work on film noir (1955), for
example, Raymond Borde and Étienne Chaumeton define noir as a series or cycle of films aiming to create alienation in the
viewer: “All the films of this cycle create a similar emotional effect: that state of tension instilled in the spectator when the
psychological reference points are removed. The aim of film noir was to create a specific alienation.” Andrew Spicer also identifies
noir as a cycle of films that “share a similar iconography, visual style, narrative strategies, subject matter and characterisation.”
This sounds a good deal like Hirsch’s characterization, but Spicer denies that noir can be defined as a genre (or in most other
ways, for that matter) since the expression film noir is “a discursive critical construction that has evolved over time.” In other
words, far from being a fixed and unchanging universal category, like one of Plato’s forms, film noir is a concept that evolved
as critics and theorists wrote and talked about these movies and was applied retroactively. Further, in arguing against Damico’s
version of noir’s essential narrative, Spicer points out that “there are many other, quite dissimilar, noir plots” than the one Damico
describes. Classic examples might include those of _High Sierra_ (Raoul Walsh, 1941) and Pickup on South Street (Samuel Fuller,
1953), neither of which includes a femme fatale who coaxes the protagonist to commit a violent act against a third man. In
Pickup, for example, the pickpocket _Skip McCoy_ (Richard Widmark) steals classified microfilm from a woman, _Candy_ (Jean
Peters), on the subway. She’s carrying it for her boyfriend, who is—unbeknownst to her—passing government secrets along to the
Communists. The story, then, concerns the efforts of the police to get McCoy to turn the film over to them, which would mean
admitting that he’s still picking pockets, thereby putting him in danger of becoming a three-time loser; and it concerns the efforts
of the conspirators to retrieve the film from McCoy by any means necessary, including killing his friend and information dealer
_Moe_ (Thelma Ritter). This is a classic example of a film noir, but it doesn’t follow Damico’s narrative pattern. Spicer goes on to
say: “Any attempt at defining film noir solely through its ‘essential’ formal components proves to be reductive and unsatisfactory
because film noir, as the French critics asserted from the beginning, also involves a sensibility, a particular way of looking at the
world.” So noir is not simply a certain plot line or a visual style achieved by camera angles and unusual lighting. It also involves a
“way of looking at the world,” an outlook on life and human existence (Conard, 2006).

In addition to its character as a series or cycle of movies, film noir is often identified by, or defined as, the particular visual style,
mood, tone, or set of motifs characteristic of the form. Raymond Durgnat, for example, says: “The film noir is not a genre, as
the western and gangster film, and takes us into the realm of classification by motif and tone.” The tone is one of bleak cynicism,
according to Durgnat, and the dominant motifs include crime as social criticism, gangsters, private eyes and adventurers,
middleclass murder, portraits and doubles, sexual pathology, and psychopaths. Paul Schrader likewise denies that noir is a genre.
He says: “[Film noir] is not defined, as are the western and gangster genres, by conventions of setting and conflict, but rather
by the more subtle qualities of tone and mood.” He thus rejects Durgnat’s classification by motif and focuses his definition on the
important element of mood, specifically that of “cynicism, pessimism and darkness.” He continues: “Film noir’s techniques
emphasize loss, nostalgia, lack of clear priorities, insecurity; then submerge these self-doubts in mannerism and style. In such a
world style becomes paramount; it is all that separates one from meaninglessness.” In a classic essay, Robert Porfirio says that
“Schrader was right in insisting upon both visual style and mood as criteria.” The mood at the heart of noir, according to Porfirio,
is pessimism, “which makes the black film black for us.” The “black vision” of film noir is one of “despair, loneliness and dread,”
he claims, and “is nothing less than an existential attitude towards life.” This existentialist outlook on life infusing noir didn’t
come from the European existentialists (like Sartre and Camus), who were roughly contemporaneous with the classic American
noir period. Rather: “It is more likely that this existential bias was drawn from a source much nearer at hand—the hard-boiled
school of fiction without which quite possibly there would have been no film noir.” The mood of pessimism, loneliness, dread, and
despair is to be found in the works of, for example, Raymond Chandler, Dashiell Hammett, James M. Cain, and David Goodis,
whose writings were a resource for and had a direct influence on those who created noir films in the classic period, as I mentioned above. I’ll have more to say about Porfirio and the existentialist outlook of noir films below. Finally, R. Barton Palmer likewise rejects the definition of noir as a genre, calling it instead a “transgeneric phenomenon,” since it existed “through a number of related genres whose most important common threads were a concern with criminality . . . and with social breakdown.” The genres associated with noir include “the crime melodrama, the detective film, the thriller, and the woman’s picture.” In other words, whatever the noir element in a film noir is, it can be expressed through a number of genres—melodrama, thriller, etc.—and so film noir is not itself a genre. It’s “transgeneric.” (Conard, 2006).

Almost every critic has her/his own definition of film noir, and a personal list of film titles and dates to back it up. Personal and descriptive definitions, however, can get a bit sticky. A film of urban night life is not necessarily a film noir, and a film noir need not necessarily concern crime and corruption. Since film noir is defined by tone rather than genre, it is almost impossible to argue one critic’s descriptive definition against another’s. How many noir elements does it take to make a film noir?

Genre, at its most narrow, can include setting, costumes and even types of musical cues but at its deepest, genre is about how a story is told and the atmosphere, or feeling, of that method. Film noir, which includes many features of genres, has not been named with the aim of marketing by the studio system. Genre is a notion which attracts the audiences to the movie houses. For instance, one who watched a horror movie and liked it, may want to watch other horror movies. Popular films are categorized into the genre with the aim of attracting the audience. Genre in cinema refers to having the similar topics, characters and narratives (Abisel, 1995).

The features of cinema genre are popular and commercial; having the similar themes, social and psychological conflicts and narratives; having the basis and stable characters; telling the particular historical era in the particular places in the way of time and place; having shorthand and décor, costume and accessories particular to the genre in the way of visual description (Oluk, 2008).

Film noir covers all of these features above except popular and commercial. Indeed, film noir was accepted a genre later, and analysed. Film noir was used by French critic Nino Franks. Film noir is the only one genre which was named by the critics. Film noir was constructed with the similar features in the ways of themes and visual in the American films by the French cinema critics. On the other hand, the cinema industry did not contribute whether film noir is genre, or not (Uzel, 2004).

Conclusion
The movements in arts firstly arises in the painting and literature, and then are related to the cinema. A movement may be directly arisen in cinema. Filmmakers need to produce the similar films for the movement to be able to be born. These features are not seen in film noir. Film noir belongs to America, however the examples of it are seen in many other countries such as in France, England, Japan, Italy. The language of film noir was formed according to both social and artistic factors. Thus, we can not claim that film noir is not a movement. Paul Schrader accepts that film noir is a style and he says; “Almost every critic has her/his own film noir definition. However, personal and descriptive definitions are a little biased. A film, which is about a city, can not be considered as a film noir; it is also not about crime and corruption”. Film noir is described as a style rather than a genre. How many do ‘black’ features become film noirs as film noir? Thus, it is important to degrade cultural and stylistic features to describe film noir. Indeed, film noir has all genre, movement and style. Every critic urges some assertions. It seems that the problem of categorizing film noir can continue for a long time. Film noir can not accord with the other artistic events because of its complex features.

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Latest Product Placement Positions on Late Turkish TV Serials –A Longitudinal Study

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Abstract  
Day by day it is seen that, companies understand the influence of product placement power as one of the marketing communication tools to reach their customers for creating maximum exposure. As North Cyprus local channels generally use discussion based programs rather than entertainment programs Turkish Cypriots highly prefer to watch Turkish television channels instead of local channels. The purpose of the study is to compare latest product placement positions by comparing the results to three year earlier data, for understanding what sort of changes can be seen with the application of this strategy. The Content Analysis methodology was used to analyze the most watched series that have high rating scores, on Turkish TV serials. In this research, Turkish TV serials were selected and content analysis was conducted to profile the product placements on TV serials in one month period (1st April-1st May 2015). The Turkish TV serials analyzed were; Paramparça, Aşk Yeniden, Poyraz Karayel, Kocamın Ailesi, Karagül. Hence after these analyses, what sort of changes has been seen regarding the product placement strategy could easily be discussed.

Introduction  
As consumer profiles & their expectations are changing, the competition in the marketing environments also extremely changes. Since most of the business is doing market research in their companies, they are already aware of these changes and adopt them in their company to survive in the market in order not to lose their competitive advantage. Thus the marketing communication mix techniques that uses to reach efficiently and effectively to their consumers is also changed. 5 years ago most of the companies used only traditional advertising techniques in the mass media as, advertising their product/companies/services during the program break but now they place the product in their programs for influencing their consumers.

Traditional advertising loses it persuasion ability; the product placement starts as a new trend in this field especially in TV as a mass medium. This does not mean advertising is losing its power but it means the techniques to advertise the product/ service is changing.

Product Placement Application in Turkish TV Channels Analysis  
According to Balasubramanian (1994), the product placement “as a hybrid message – a paid message aimed at influencing movie (or television) audiences via the planned and unobtrusive entry of a branded product into a movie.” The “hybrid message” was seen as concealed message in advertising and publicity of the brands.

Gupta & Gould points out that, the new media technologies has changed the way of product placement availability and try to reach plus create gross impression for people. They enlighten that; product placement is not only take place in movies on TV but also in internet, games and other media as well. (Gupta & Gould, 1997).

Product placement can be applied in different audiovisual media such as; in movies, TV series and programs, novels and dramas, songs and in branded videogames. (Kramoliš & Kopečková, 2013) There was a great examples as we can see that global brands place in movies such as James Bond and FIFA as video games. Kramoliš & Kopečková, claimed that, “if product placement is used properly, the viewer’s eye contact with the product is combined with a product information flow towards the viewer. Due to interactivity of this process, the aim of attracting the customers’ attention to the product is fulfilled very effectively”. (Kramoliš & Kopečková, 2013)

Product placement is a kind of advertising technique which is lately popular in Turkey TV channels that tries to influence audience to create cognitive-affective-connotative attitude on consumers’ minds. In Turkey, RTÜK is a control commission, thus all Turkish TV channels and radio channels have to obey its laws. According to RTÜK law there are some restrictions in product placement application strategies related with the frequency and duration of appearance on the screen but it allows the brands to take place in TV programs and serials to reach their audience perception.

In Turkey no matter whether brand has strong or weak brand images, if they want to take some place in some series, the first step is to go and propose film producer companies and negotiate the price that will pay to the film producer. Secondly, if both parties agree on the proposal, channel place the brand within the series for short appearance. http://www.connectedvivaki.com/her-10-dizi-izlevicisinden-9u-urun-verlestirmenin-farkinda-2/

As mentioned earlier in Turkey product placement is a new trend and especially some visual product placements in TV series
seem unnatural and inefficient; however advertising has to be creative to influence the perception of the audience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product placement % in Turkish TV out of 1349 unit</th>
<th>TV channels</th>
<th>Types of product placement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31% TV serials.</td>
<td>Kanal D 63%</td>
<td>43% visual product placement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11% women programs</td>
<td>Show TV 12%</td>
<td>17% hands-on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58% others</td>
<td>ATV 10% and</td>
<td>3% verbal product placement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other TV channels 15%</td>
<td>37% product promotions &amp; scenario integrations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


According to Kaya and Ayman research in 2012, considering highest rating points on TV series; the best product placement oriented serials' channels were Kanal D, ATV and Show TV. During that period Kanal D has 3 highest rating point serials as Öyle bir Geçer Zaman ki, Yalan Dünya and Kuzey Güney. On the other hand, Çocuklar Duymasın showed on ATV and Adını Feriha Koydum on Show TV. As seen in the below table

Top 5 Turkish series Product placement application

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TV channels</th>
<th>Types of product placement</th>
<th>Brands</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanal D 42% (56 item)</td>
<td>55% visual product placement (73 item)</td>
<td>automobile (17 visual &amp; 15 hands-on total 32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATV 40% (53 item)</td>
<td>18% hands-on (24 item)</td>
<td>textile (2 visual, 1 verbal &amp; 6 hands-on total 9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show TV 18% (24 item)</td>
<td>27% verbal product placement (36 item)</td>
<td>FMCG (18 visual, 1 verbal &amp; 2 hands on total 21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 133 unit Product placement</td>
<td></td>
<td>Communication (5 visual, 2 verbal total 7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Kaya & Ayman, 2012)

Thus these data showed that within 2011-2012, Kanal D was the channel that has got highest number of product placements in their TV series. Also brands mostly appeal to reach consumer perception by using visual product placement type.

Since most of the serial movies get short breaks during summer session, the channels that get most product placement ratio shift to other TV programs. According to product placement report August 2014, it was seen that STV got the highest rank as 48% in product placement then NTV 32%, Star TV11% and Kanal D 9% were followed. During that period FMCG especially food industry got 34 units of product placements. Secondly, electronic home appliances got 14, then furniture & home textile 9 and automotive 5 units. http://www.connectedvivaki.com/urun-verlestirme-raporu-agustos-2014-infografik/

On the other hand, after short break of serials and movies when October report for 2014 was considered; It was seen that because Medcezir serial movie was commencement of shown in Star TV, channel got the highest rank as 41% in product placement. Kiraz Mevşimi which was shown in Fox TV got the second highest rank as 15% and with Yalan Dünya, Kanal D had 11% product placement applied unit. During that period communication sector with 54 units, electronic home appliances get 48, and food industry used 38 unit product placement strategies. http://www.connectedvivaki.com/urun-verlestirme-raporu-ekim-2014-infografik/

Consistent with January report for 2015; It was seen that Fox TV with 32 % has the highest product placement units, then Star TV and Show TV followed each other. During that period communication sector with 179 units, electronic home appliances got 90, and food industry used 51 unit product placement strategies. However these data did not only considered the serials but it also focused on other type of entertainment program such as “O SES TÜRKİYE”, “EVLENENCEKSEN GEL” and some other programs that focus on how to cook some special meals. http://www.connectedvivaki.com/urun-verlestirme-raporu-oak-2015-infografik/

Research Methodology
The best 5 TV serials that have highly used the product placement in their serials were selected. The content analysis was used to analyze the type and the frequency of the brands which have focused on the product placement. The duration of the analysis was one month (1 April 2015- 1 May 2015) and the researchers watched each serial for 4 weeks week days. The number of the goods
and services were counted for each serial time on TV for each serial at each week for one month. Each product placement was counted as a frequency however was tabulated with a onetime entry for each serial in a week day. The analysis and categorization of product placements were based on visual placement, verbal placement and hands-on placement.

Analysis and Findings
The best product placement oriented serials’ channels were selected as Kanal D, Star TV and Fox TV during April 2015. Three of the serials as Aşk Yeniden, Kocamın Ailesi and Karagül showed on Fox TV. On the other hand, Poyraz Karayel showed on Kanal D and Paramparça on Star TV. According to descriptive analysis, 39% of product placements were appeared on Fox TV within three serials, 39% of product placements appeared on Kanal D with only one serial (within social life contents) and 22% of them appeared on Star TV within one serial. Considering with 123 units of product placement, 37% of them were hands-on placement, 35% of the product placements were visual placement and 28% of them were verbal placements emphasis of product placement. Besides, with 28% verbal product placements, Poyraz Karayel serial was the one which has focused highly on social life contents as respect to women, protecting and caring of animals, alcohol and drugs as bad habits, rehabilitation center dependance on donations and voluntary workers, cheap labor forces, child workers.

According to the type of product placement and the TV serial ratios; 58% of product placements on Poyraz Karayel were verbal placements, 25% of the product placements were visual placements and 17% of them were hands-on placements. In addition, 50% of product placements on Aşk Yeniden were visual placements and 50% were verbal. Furthermore, 50% of the product placements on Kocamın ailesi serial were visual placements (in some parts, for a few seconds they showes recycle box for paper, plastic and glass next to their outer door. Integrating such content in scenario is another type of social content that creates attention to air pollution), 50% of them were hands-on placements. 100% of product placements on Karagül were visual placements. Lastly, 22% of product placements were verbal on Paramparça, 14% of the product placements were visual placements, and 63% of them were hands-on placement.

### TV channels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>Types of product placement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanal D- Poyraz Karayel (48 item; 58% verbal, 25% visual and 17% hands on use)</td>
<td>37% hands-on (45 item)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOX- Aşk Yeniden (24 items; 50% visual and 50% verbal)</td>
<td>35% visual product placement (44 item)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Kocamın Ailesi (16 items 50% visual, 50% hands on)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Karagül (8 item all uses visual)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star TV- Paramparça (27 item; 22% verbal, 14% visual, 63% hands on)</td>
<td>28% verbal product placement (34 item)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram ) | |

According to daily rating points (Monday-Friday), it was seen that Fox TV was the leader with their three TV serials during week days. The theme of each serial is different than each other and the theme of serials focuses on different audiences. Since audience is the target market of the companies, according to audience profile companies decides which TV serials is appropriate for their advertising. When we compare the past three year’s data and current data, we can declare that, the hands on type of product placements were increased. This means that, the characters in series use some brands while they are playing their roles and show that these brands are the brands that such people also prefer to use.

### Conclusion

As a conclusion, the companies were aware of the importance of product placement as a hidden advertising message and practice it in most famous TV series within marketing communication campaigns. They use both advertising and product placement together in TV channels to duplicate the exposure and to have more impression. As rating point is one of the important indicator that shows how many people watch that program during that period, companies consider these data while they are doing their media planning. When programs or serials have some short breaks like 3 minutes one cannot be sure whether the audience will sit and watch the advertising in that short break but when programs or serials have either visual, verbal or hands on product placement applications in their scenario there is more chance to reach because audience will definitely sit and watch it.

In the future It is obvious that in Turkey. Product placement will gain more importance and brands will be more professionally integrated into programs. Brand advertisings are integrated more naturally and the display of the brands on TV are more clearly
understandable than 3 years ago. Audience can easily understand the brand that is used in the scenario from now on when compared to 4 years ago. This cause an increase of efficiency and effectiveness of advertising.

References


The Top Five product placement oriented Turkish TV Serials http://ref5.net/tv-dunyasi-forum222/urun-yerlestirek-gizli-reklam-yapan-ilk-5-dizi-belli-oldu-konu66059/#ixzz1Rc1Rgah


Love and Jealousy in Woman-Man Communication

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Anadolu University, Turkey

Abstract
Jealousy is the emotion of being threatened by a rival in a romantic relationship or losing something of value to another person which happens to be yours already. Jealousy has been researched with its many different dimensions such as normal and abnormal states, how it changes from one culture to another, its effects on couples, and the ways of how to tackle it. There are different views about the reasons of jealousy. While some scientists explain the subject with instinctive reasons; others put forward the cultural values. And another group of scientist emphasize the ego-perception which develops with the relationships within the family. The purpose of this study is to reveal the reasons of the love-jealousy that university students have been experienced, its indications, and effects and how to overcome it. This research conducted on 246 university students from three faculties of Anadolu University.

Keywords: Jealousy, Jaundice, jealousy approaches

Introduction
Love and jealousy has been one of the themes the most commonly depicted in stories, novels and tales. History is full of examples of self-devotion, bravery and altruism as well as tragedy drama and unpleasant experience resulted from love and jealousy. Jealousy has led to the events of killing, aggressiveness, depression, hatred, suicide and etc. In addition to these, it has also caused many domestic communication problems leading to domestic violence and conflicts. The strong effect of jealousy on the relationships among people has made it an issue of investigation for different disciplines.

Nowadays, jealousy is investigated in different dimensions ranging from its being normal and abnormal forms, how it changes from one culture to another culture, its effects and the skills used for overcoming its effects. Various factors have been suggested to cause jealousy. The fact that some people are more or less jealous than some others is explained in some studies referring some instinctive factors; on the other hand, it is also explained suggesting that the cultural values in which individuals live, are the major determinant on people’s jealousy. There are some approaches defining jealousy as a communication problem among couples. The sense of self which develops depending on the quality of the communication built with families and the social environment, is determinant in exhibiting jealousy behaviors and controlling such behaviors. Freud relates jealousy to Oedipus and Electra chaos fatefully experienced by children in their childhood. Similarly, the experiences in childhood imbedded to their subconscious are very determinant on individuals’ jealousy. This study is related to the romantism and jealousy of some university students. In other words, the jealousy of university students which they live as consequences of a love affair is investigated in this study. The investigation of jealousy behaviors of university students is very significant as it reveals the quality of the relationship with their families, as it reveals how the culture in which they live treats love and jealousy. This study primarily explains what romantism jealousy is. Then the claims of different studies which aim to explain what jealousy is.

Jealousy
Jealousy in this study is the one not in general term but because of love affair. If we define it clearly, “jealousy is a complex reaction given when a threat is perceived to a relationship and its nature” (Pines, 2003). Jealousy is a complex feeling with internal and external components.

The internal components of jealousy include various feelings (bitter, anger, hatred, jealousy, sadness, fear, abasement). Resentment, self-recrimination, self-comparing, feeling excite about personal social images are considered to be among the internal factors. In addition to that, blushing, hands’ sweating, shivering, stomach cramps, feeling of faint and sleep disorders are considered under this category.

The external components of jealousy have the characteristics which can be observed to be the opposite of the internal components. For example, speaking about the feelings experienced, crying or dismissive behaviors, making fun, moreover resorting to violence are all among the external components of this feeling. Being aware of the internal and external components of jealousy is very significant to overcome it. Naturally, the control of internal reactions, especially on emotional and physical reactions, is limited; however, the control on the external factors is more successful.

Jealousy and Jaundice
The terms of jealousy and jaundice which are commonly encountered in daily life, are used for different situations. Jaundice happens between two people. The person who envies the other, wants what the other person has to be his or hers, or he does not want that person to have that. The object of the jaundice which is envied may be another people’s wives, jobs, relationships or skills that that person possesses. Jealousy concerns three people.

Chronic and Acute Jealousy.
Chronic and acute jealousy changes from one to another depending on the reason for the jealousy reaction and its duration whereas the external signals look the same. Acute jealousy is observed on the people who do not consider that they are jealous, but who feel that when they are deceived by their lovers. They exhibit their reactions in an extreme or normal way. It is very similar to the case of how those feel after being physically or sexually harassed. Posttraumatic stress disorder is divided into three as unwanted repetition, abdicative and overexcitement. Acute jealousy is exhibited against a certain event, and it is short and temporary. Chronic jealousy tends to happen depending on the individuals’ childhood experiences. If individual has weak self-confidence, s/he feels jealous even for the cases for which most people do not feel jealous.

In summary, the threat of losing a loved one who gave a meaning to that person’s life is very destructive. The people who give a life sustaining meaning to love, are more sensitive to the possibility of losing their loved ones. Many people have more or less unsolved contradictions from their childhood years. These contradictions are more severe for some people but less severe for some others, and they face with these contradictions in the forms of sensibility, fear, lacking of confidence. When they fall in love and when they are responded positively, these fears reduce. However, the danger for love, the fear and distrust which had been thought to have disappeared, emerge again.

**The Approaches Explaining Jealousy**

Five approaches explaining romanticism jealousy are briefly summed up under this heading. As can be seen in the further parts, each of these approaches handles with a different dimension of jealousy.

**Psychodynamic Approach.** According to the psychodynamic approach, jealousy is a universal feeling. The reason why it is universal is that jealousy is inevitable for people rather than the nature of human being. Freud who put forward psychodynamic approach suggests that the bitter experiences every person experience fatefully form a basis for jealousy. The universal traumas experienced in childhood years, are re-experienced depending on the events causing jealousy on adults.

Psychodynamic approach focuses on unconscious powers triggering the feeling of jealousy. Freud suggests that Oedipus and Electra chaos leave unconscious stimulation, desire, fear and traumatic memories which people are unaware about. Sons are in love with their mothers and daughter are in love with their fathers. However, both genders have inevitable competitors. Son has an eye on his mother; but he is afraid that his father will get angry once he learns about that. He tries to get rid of that fear by trying to be a man like his father (by identifying himself with his father). Similar feelings are experienced by daughters as sons do. The feelings of sadness, bitter and helplessness caused by the defeat of son against his father and of the girl against her mother, have effects on their psychologies and emerge again when they have similar feelings in their adulthoods (oneself, beloved one and competitor).

Freud explains the possible causes of jealousy as follows (Pines, 2003).
- The pain given by the thought of losing the loved one.
- The pain given by the fact that, no matter how much we desire for something and how much we deserve it, we cannot obtain all of them.
- The hostility feeling against a successful competitor.
- We should blame ourselves more or less for our loss.

According to Freud, jealousy is not entirely rational whereas we consider it to be “normal”. In other words, it is not related to real events, not proportional, and it is not under the control of our ego. “There are some irrational items we all experience in normal jealousy conditions. The reason for that is that jealousy is buried in the depths of unconsciousness and the events which affected us in our childhood help it reemerge” (Freud, 1922/1955).

People form their image of love at early ages depending on their childhood experiences which had effects on them. The positive and negative characteristics of those people who brought us up are the building stones of our love images. However, the negative characteristics of those who brought up us are more effective in the formation of these building stones. In other words, if the father of a girl had not been loyal to her mother in the past, “unfaithfulness” will be a significant item in the romanticism image of that girl in the future. Similarly, if the mother of a boy often grows jealous, that will have a great effect on her love image.

People look for the individuals who match with the images forming in their childhood in adulthood. When they meet with such a person, they reflect the images that they have interiorized on that person. That is the reason for the expressions such as “I feel that I have known you for a long time”. The person who matches with the love image of a person is the person who will offer the most help work that person on her/his childhood trauma. For example, whereas a daughter who had an unfaithful father looks for a loyal man seems to be rational, that is not what happens, that is not what takes place in real live. Such girls generally fall in love with those womanizers as their fathers were. The reason for that is that the girl expects to give him what she had not received from her father. The dilemma here is that; the girl gets married with such a man as he reminds her of her father; what she expects and what she wants is that he does not do what her father had done. What she wants him to do is to be loyal to her and to give her the trust she could not have in her childhood.
Systematic Approach. This approach investigates the jealousy which emerges from the dynamics of a certain relationship. This approach presupposes that what increases or decreases the jealousy tendencies of couples are the repeated behaviors of the couples. Differently from the psychodynamic approach which points out how determinant the events that individuals experienced in their childhoods are, systematic approach is not interested in individuals’ past lives as jealousy is handled. What is important is the structure which the individual is in. This structure is primarily related to the couple; however, the jealousy triangle includes the parents of the couples as well as the culture and the society which they live in.

According to the systematic approach, upper systems (a couple, for example) take hold of sub-systems (the feelings, behaviors and thoughts of a jealous individual, for example) and they are also under their influence. This mutual interaction causes negative feedback which sustains the problem of jealousy and positive feedback which causes the change. Such behaviors transform into either rules to be stick to or permanent behaviors which are hard to change by time, and the relationships of couples function depending on this principle.

The therapists who internalize systematic approach asks “what” questions rather than directing “why” question (why does that person feel jealous?). What causes the problem of jealousy? More importantly, what can be done to remove the feeling of jealousy? The treatment related attempts focus on the behaviors of both couples which sustain jealousy. When couples consider their relationships and partners in a more positive and realistic way, they start to feel much better.

Cognitive-Behavioral Approach. This approach considers jealousy as a learned behavior. Hyde (1993) suggests in his study investigating psychological differences between men and women that the differences in the understanding on sex is the most significant one compared to the others. According to that, women relate sex to compassion and intimacy. Besides, they suggest that the value that women give themselves is based on affiliation. Men relate sex to success, excitement, control and pure physical relief.

Another study carried out by (DeSteno and Salovey, 1996.) suggests how affiliation is effective on women’s jealousy. According to the data obtained through that study, women feel jealous for the opponents who have the characteristics that their partners/lovers look for. On the other hand, men feel jealous for men who are more powerful in some shared fields of life considering them as opponents. Human bear romantic feelings and go with them most because of the characteristics and behaviors they find to be attractive. They feel jealous for the same characteristics. White (1980) suggested five stimulations leading jealousy.

These are arising attention, measuring the strength of the affair, increasing self-confidence and punishing partner. The most popular method of arising jealousy is mentioning how attractive somebody else is on purpose and exaggerating how attractive s/he is, flirting, fabricating opponents and mentioning about exlovers. White suggests that women feel jealous in male-dominated societies as they are weaker in such societies compared to men.

Cultural Approach
This is the approach suggesting that the way of expressing and exercising jealousy is determined by culture. It is also suggested in that approach that the customs that individuals were born in shape individuals’ experiences and behaviors. When such individuals start speaking, they become already transformed into little creatures of their culture.

According to Hupka (1981), culture affects jealousy reaction in two ways. The first of them is that culture describes if a certain event is a treat or not. What makes us jealous, the situations preparing us for jealousy and when a certain situation will be perceived as a treat, are all described by the culture in which we live. The second of them is that it offers choices for the situations which we perceive as treat and for which we show reactions. With this regard, the events which may be treats for a marriage will change from one culture to another.

There are interesting examples for how determinant a culture is on people’s jealousy (Pinesi 2003). For example, there are some cultures in which a man feels jealous when another man asks his wife for a glass of water, considering that that man has an eye on his wife. However, an Inuit man does not consider not presenting his wife to a guest as meanness and hospitality switching of the lamps. Many cultures nowadays never accept partners’ having sexual relationship with another person. A Zuni woman does not consider her husband’s fornicating as a problem unless it starts tongues wagging in the village they live in. In polygamist societies, for a husband to have another wife means for the first wife having an assistant in housework, for the husband, it means prestige.

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Theory of Evolution and Socio-biological Approach. This approach considers jealousy as a consequence of evolution which inherently makes difference between men and women. An organism which can sustain its life and reproduces is more superior for evolutionists. It means that that organism could obtain the female which is the strongest, the most aggressive and the most intelligent and could transfer its genetic characteristics to the following generations. Because of similar reasons, the survival rate of the offspring of the mother feeding and bringing up is the highest and the female’s characteristics can pass on the following generations.

Darvin relates jealousy to an evolutionary reason, and considers jealousy as an instinct saving the couples’ attachments.
The emotions and behaviours related to jealousy contribute to couples’ remaining together, bringing up their offspring and reproduction of their genes. The fact that the case also true for some animals is suggested to be the proof for that jealousy is an innate characteristic. Modern socio-biologists consider that such genetic jealousy is significant for sustaining genetic life.

In a word, the differences between women and men feeling jealous result from asymmetry of the trust related to women and men’s gene conditions as suggested by biological point of view. Women cannot deny their offspring easily, but men can feel secure if they are the only sexual partners of their women. The risk of a man’s deception means to waste sources for women, but for men, the risk of a woman’s deception means to have a sperm of a foreigner. Those who criticize evolutionary point of view and the social psychologists explains the fact that men and women differ from one another with regards to exhibiting jealousy behaviours suggesting that it is because of the social powers and the social conditions. The condition for jealousy is the difference in power between men and women. Power is a function of mutual dependency between couples. The partner who is less dependent is more powerful than the other partner. Dependency may be emotional, financial and social. Either woman or man who is more powerful in a relationship may react in a more masculine way to the events causing jealousy (burst of anger, abandoning and etc.). The weak ones typically behave in a feminine way. Crying, pulling a face, trying to look attractive, making his/her partner jealous and etc. The parties who give less value to their partners and who have more alternative partners have more power in a relationship. The reason why most women behave in a feminine way when they feel jealous is not because they are women, but they are less powerful in the relationship.

The general purpose of this study to find out the views of university students related to the causes of the jealousy they feel, symptoms of jealousy, its effects and solutions to it. Love and jealousy are investigated to reach that general purpose considering the dimensions below:

- How do they evaluate the relationship which they are in or the relationship which they have recently lived?
- What are their attitudes and emotions about jealousy?
- How do they define themselves with regards to jealousy?
- What type of jealousy reactions do they exhibit?
- What are their coping skills with jealousy?
- What are the effects of jealousy?
- Significant amount of violence in Turkey which generally aims at women is generally a consequence of jealousy related to love. The findings which will be presented through this study can give basic knowledge about the causes of violence. Periodically the same study will offer knowledge about if the case has changed, if it has changed, is it for negative or positive.

Method
This study is a descriptive one. It was the purpose of the study to reveal the general views of the university students about jealousy, how they evaluate themselves with regards to jealousy, their views about the effects of jealousy and how they cope with jealousy.

The study was carried out on 246 participants. They are students at Education Faculty, Chemistry Faculty, Faculty of Communication Sciences and Physical Education and Sport Faculty at Anadolu University. The researcher collected the data in the study through the questionnaire “Romantic Jealousy questions” attached to the book translated into Turkish as “Aşk ve kıskançlık” by Pines (2003). The researcher briefed the students that were taught by the researcher at schools about the content of the research and those who volunteered to participate in the study were submitted the relevant questionnaire. The students returned the filled questionnaire in the following two weeks.

There are more than 80 questions in the questionnaire of “Romantic Jealousy questions” under 11 headings. In this study, 6 of the 11 headings in the questionnaire were chosen. Besides, some of the questions under these headings were also chosen. These questions were about childhood and puberty. The questions were designed in fill in the blank types, multiple choice and likert type. In the evaluation of the responses, arithmetic means were used for some of them, and numbers and percentages were used for some other.

In this study, in-depth interviews were also conducted for the chosen 6 headings. In line with this purpose, 18 females and 12 males were determined and individual interviews were conducted by an expert psychologist within the frame of these 6 headings. The findings of these interviews were used in the evaluation of the responses given to items in the questionnaire.

Findings and Discussion
The findings obtained in the study were regulated in a way to respond to the questions given under the heading of the purposes of the study. 61.8% of 246 participants were female, 38.2% of them were male. All of the participants are undergraduate students and their ages vary between 18 and 24. 131 participants (55%) responded “yes” to the question of “are you in an affair now?”. Those who are not in a close relationship (45%) are either those who do not have any relationship or whose relationships are not long-lasting and who often switch their partners. In the relevant literature, the ages between 18 and 24 are known to be the puberty ages. At these ages, relationships among males and females have not settled down yet. The concerns of graduating from university,
finding a job and getting on well in marriages, make young people anxious and depressive. Depending on that, socio-economic concerns hinder regular relationships.

The responses received for the questions of “how long have you been together with your partner?” are given in Table 1. According to the Table 1, more than 2/3 suggested that they have been dating for 6 months or more.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 months and less</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>36,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 months</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>35,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9 months</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 months and more</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 +</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates the responses given by the participants to the question of how they evaluate their relationship with their partners. The average score for this group of questions is 4. The mean score suggests that students evaluate their relationship with their partner as “normal” (average=4.33, standard deviation=1.371). They find their partners quite attractive (average=5.57, standard deviation=1.461). They suggest that they will not leave their partners for another one (average=3.09, standard deviation=2.216).

| Table 2. How long have you been together with your partner? |
|---|---|---|
| 3 months and less | 48 | 36,6 |
| 4-6 months | 46 | 35,1 |
| 7-9 months | 23 | 17,6 |
| 10 months and more | 4 | 3,1 |
| 10 + | 10 | 7,6 |
| TOTAL | 131 | 100 |

Table 2 indicates the responses given by the participants to the question of how they evaluate their relationship with their partners.

When we look at the Table 2, we see that finding their partners fascinating and not abandoning their partners for someone else reflect the young people’s value related to love, compassion and culture in Turkey. Loyalty and intense feelings in a relationship is one of the criteria given importance by those aged between 18 and 24. In the study carried out by Pines and Aronson (1983), the mean of emotional closeness (6.2%) was found to be higher when compared with the mean of this study carried out by the researcher. The mean of the responses related to the duration of the relations (5.3) was found to be higher than the value that we found in this study (4.5). In other words, they trust their relationship less. On the other hand, young people in Turkey are more loyal to their partners.

The State of Jealousy and Jealousy Reactions.
64% of the participants describe themselves as “jealous” whereas 36% of them suggest they are not. The responses received to the question of what physical, emotional and cognitive reactions they gave to the most intense jealousy circumstances that they
remember they felt are indicated in Table 3, 4 and 5. In the questionnaire, 20 options are provided under the heading of “physical reactions”. Table 3 displays the highest and lowest physical reactions.

Table 3. The highest and the lowest physical reactions given when intense jealousy is felt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest physical reactions</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Tachycardia</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>49,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Heat</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>45,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Blushing</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>41,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Headache</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>39,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lowest physical reactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Fainting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sexual drive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Nightmare</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 3, almost half of the participants experienced tachycardia as physical reaction. Then heat, blushing and headache come in turn. The lowest physical reaction is fainting (15.8%). Then “sexual drive” and “nightmare” come.

Table 4. The highest and the lowest emotional reactions given when intense jealousy is felt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest emotional reactions</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Indignation</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>63,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Anger</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>54,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 frustration</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>48,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 confusion</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lowest emotional reactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 aggression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest reaction given when intense jealousy is felt is “indignation” and “anger”; the lowest reaction is “understanding” and “passion” in turn.

Table 5. The highest and the lowest cognitive reactions given when intense jealousy is felt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest cognitive reactions</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 “How can s/he do that to me?”</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>61,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 “You cannot love me as you are doing that to me”</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>49,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 “You told me lie”</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>47,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 “This is the end of this relationship”</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>46,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 “Where did I do wrong”</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>43,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lowest cognitive reactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 “I wish I could be as sexy and charming as she was”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 “I die if you abandon me”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 “I wish I had been death”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most intense reaction given by the participants when they felt intense jealousy is “how can s/he do that to me?” the lowest cognitive reaction is “I wish I could be as sexy and charming as she was” and “I die if you abandon me” The fact that university students in Turkey are jealous matches with Turkish cultural. Male-dominated cultural values in Turkey teach female and male to be jealous. The fact that dominated cultural values consider women in the background and as male’s property and that men’s relationship with women are considered normal is one of the most basic values of jealousy. In the in-depth interviews conducted in this study, it was found that men and women are similar to one another with regards to the emotional,
physical and cognitive reactions given as a consequence of jealousy. However, both sides in the relationships try to save their relationships and suffer from depression as a consequence of jealousy. These findings match with those of (Gary and Hansen, 1985; McIntosh, 1989; White 1981a and Mullen, 1989). They have also found out that men and women exhibit similar reaction in case of jealousy.

**Coping with Jealousy**

There are 17 options under the question of “how did you cope with jealousy?” The responses with the highest scores out of the “the least used one”, “moderately used” and always used” are given in Table 6.

Table 6. How did they cope with jealousy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always used</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>through rational discussions</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>17,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abandoning my partner</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironizing</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moderately used</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>through rational discussions</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>34,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironizing</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>29,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shouting</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>26,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never Used</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>through physical reactions</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>44,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denying</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>41,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironizing</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>39,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 6, the choices always used in coping with jealousy vary. The highest score out of these is “through rational discussions” by 17%. Then “abandoning my partner” and “ironizing” come.

The highest score out of the ones moderately used is “through rational discussions” by 34.1%. According to that, more than half of the participants prefer the choice of “through rational discussion” in coping with jealousy. According to Table 6, 44.3% of the participants chose the choice of “through physical reaction”, 41.8% of them chose denying and 39% of them chose the choice of “ironizing”.

According to the Table 6, the behaviour which is “always” or “moderately” exhibited when jealousy is felt, is “through rational discussion”. In the face-to-face interviews conducted in the study, it was found that “rational discussions” are generally demanded and started by women. Their purpose here is to let the opposite party understand and know how much they have hurt them. On the other hand, shouting at partners and abandoning their partner are the behaviours which are most frequently exhibited by women. Men tend to exhibit the following behaviours such as ironizing, verbal aggression and abandoning more than women. The finding that men tend to be more aggressive than women seem to be in parallel with those of States and Pirog-Good’s (1987) and Bunk’s (1984).

**The Effects of Jealousy**

Almost 1/3 of the participants responded to the question if jealousy was a problem for them or not as “never” by 30.6%. More than half of them (51.5%) replied as “some”, 17% of them replied as “a lot”. On the other hand, whereas more than half of the participants (52.8) replied the question “are you happy with being jealous” as “some”, 26.4 of them replied that it is not a problem. More than half of them (51.5%) suggested as “some”, and 17.9% of them suggested as “a lot”. The responses given to the other questions related to the effects of jealousy are given in Table 7.

Table 7. The effects of jealousy for the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Are you happy with being jealous?</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1=Never</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>26,4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2=Some</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>58,5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3= A lot</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>11,3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Do you want to completely get rid of your jealousy problem?
1 = Definitely no  2 = Not sure  3 = Definitely yes
67  27,2  131  53,2  35  14,3

Do you want your partner to be jealous?
1 = Definitely yes  2 = Not sure  3 = Definitely no
48  19,5  137  55,6  53  21,5

Do you think that jealousy is normal under some conditions?
1 = Definitely yes  2 = Some  3 = Definitely no
16  6,5  117  48,5  102  41,5

Do you think that jealousy is an appropriate reaction under some conditions?
1 = Definitely no  2 = Not sure  3 = Definitely yes
31  12,6  124  44,3  73  29,7

Would you believe that someone told you that s/he was not jealous even in some extreme conditions?
1 = Definitely no  2 = Not sure  3 = Definitely yes
80  32,6  133  54,0  22  8,9

Almost 70% of the participants responding these questions are happy with being jealous to some degree, or completely happy. Thus, the percentage of those who wants to get rid of this feeling is 14.3%. On the other hand, 21.5% of the participants do not want their partners to be jealous. However, 41% of them suggested that jealousy reactions are normal under some conditions.

Table 7. The effects of jealousy for the participants (continuing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you find jealousy as a desired characteristic?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = cannot be  2 = Complex  3 = Desired</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20,3</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you stop your jealousy?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = Definitely no  2 = To some extent  3 = Definitely yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>11,4</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever become a target of another people’s jealousy?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = Never  2 = A few times  3 = Continuously</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you like it?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = Never liked  2 = Some  3 = Liked it a lot</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>38,2</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How jealous do you think you are when you consider your own jealousy description?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = Never  2 = average  3 = extremely</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11,8</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Almost 2/3 of the participants responding the delivered questions (62.2%) suggest that jealousy is a complex feeling, and 79.4% of them suggest that they can stop their jealousy feeling to some degree, or they cannot stop it at all. Actually, 78.9% of the participants were found to be jealous at moderate level or they are extremely jealous.

References


Yayin.


Media and Privacy: Case Studies In Turkey Over Hidden Camera Utilization

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Summary
During the capitalist system progress, changes and transformations, that came along with the reasoning of “dominant ideology”, increasingly began to extend the thought of take the communities under regulation and supervision. As a result of globalization, which is considered as a process of taking the entire World under regulation and colonization, surveillance turned out to be a stronger power with new communication devices. Panapticon, that came along with the “taking numerous individuals under surveillance and supervision in order to achieve ideal perfection” thought of Bentham, makes the legitimization of the system essential. The same apprehension is also actualized in Orwell’s Big Brother as an apprehension of standardization which is constituted by a divine authority observing everybody.

In today’s World, satellite systems, telephone wiretapping, taking the entire communication within the context of social media under inspection, police cameras function as members of surveillance society. Purpose of this research will be to examine the borders of private life and term of privacy in media over case incidents. Against all prohibitions, rules and ethical values, issues that frequently confronts us in media are the violations of private life. During historical process of hidden camera utilization, which is one of the indispensible occupational devices of newsmakers, there are many successful studies but also there are negative results. In this context, one of the basic debates that confronts us as being discussed in the news sector, is the issue of what is included in private space and what is not. In this research, the validity of protected area in different situations will be discussed and evaluated in the framework of occupational ethics, public personalities, public welfare, prohibitions, rules and occupational principles related with private life and within the context of hidden camera utilization.

Keywords: Privacy, media-private life, panapticon, public welfare

Introduction
Ethical problems of journalism is one of the major debate questions of modern-day. News, journalism and ethical values are considered as a whole according to liberal pluralistic hypothesis. Rights of information is under protection by our Constitution. In democratic societies, journalists are entrusted with the task of informing and reporting news to the society with a accurate, impartial and objective journalism approach in the framework of press freedom and social responsibility. However, at this point, it is beneficial to pay attention to terms such as private living space of individuals and society benefits-profits. In today’s societies, surveillance and supervision through surveillance are the leading methods of legitimization of the dominant ideology. Hidden cameras can be used in several situations as a surveillance method in order to bring freedom of press, which is one of the indispensible milestones of democracy in journalism, into force. The important thing is to know in which situations it is required to use this method.

The purpose of the study is to present the requirement of when and how to use the hidden cameras in which situations of researching – questioning journalism. Herein, freedom of press and democracy should be put emphasis on, and case studies are evaluated within the scope of public benefit and private life occupational ethics. During the research, after the completion of literature review, sample cases and comments are compiled from internet sites of newspapers and then observed.

Privacy and Private Life
In the dictionary of Turkish Linguistics Society, private stands for the thing which is not told to others, secret and privacy means the conditions of being secret, secrecy. The word “mahram(private)” that comes from the Arabic word of “haram(illicit)” has a determiner characteristic as a religious discourse in terms of application area, not because of the word being Arabic but as it defines the “violation of the borders drawn by holy orders”. (Bağlı, 2011: 185). As there isn’t a clear difference between the words privacy and secrecy in dictionaries, the word privacy legitimate the prevention of access, while the word secrecy evaluates the prevention of access as an extracanonical behavior in general terms. Privacy sees the behavior which seems like that doesn’t threaten the others and a socially legitimate behavior as suitable, on the other hand, secrecy is a behavior that targets to hide the curiosities which doesn’t have a mutual agreement grounds with the other members of the group and which is not legitimate (Yörükhan, 2008: 131).

Victorian Law Reform Commission states that privacy is used as a meaningful and valuable word by many and the rights for protection of privacy are listed as below in their declaration titled as ’Privacy in Workplace’. - Not to turn into an object or property; this means not being treated like anything other than an autonomous person. - Be deprived of capacity of making relations and developing these. In this context, privacy is considered to be a right supported by autonomy and dignity. As it can be understood from the explanations and statements, although privacy has many definitions, the essence of the term is: protection of the information about one’s self from others. It is the condition of being separate and unknown from others (İçel, 2007: 94-96).
Private life predicates on the definition of “autonomous individual” term. Autonomous individual emphasize on various immunities of the individual. Assault on physical form, protection of reputation and self-esteem and various information are among these issues. In this context, the individual can prefer share or not to share any information with the media, any time they want. That issue causes serious debates in an ethical perspective nowadays. In journalism, it can’t be clarified which issues are turned into news in terms of sensationalism for rating, and which issues are turned into news in the true meaning of public welfare because of the fact that “public attention” is not precisely tangible. This issue is left for good intentions and ethical values of journalists.

In today’s world, “the idea for violation of private life rights for situation in which the public welfare requires it clearly” is defended. According to this approach, firstly within the democratic perspective, the right of knowing various information of public officers is given to their directors, and another issue is, the private space of several identities, who prefers to be public property with their own intentions, such as celebrities can be publicly accessible. At this point, it would be wrong to assume that the entire private space of these individuals are given up and it is open to intervention by the media. It is wrong to think that several sections of the private life is open to public just because it is not secret (Çaplı, 2002: 107-109). As a matter of fact, Video news, which are achieved by hidden cameras, which are located in hotel rooms, toilets, changing rooms of fashion models, “the secrecy of private life principle” is being violated.

Private Life – Public Welfare in Laws and Occupational Principles

“Freedom of Communication” is one of the basic conditions of democratic system. Journalists, who validates the freedom of communication and accepts it as a tool for right of the society in order to learn the truth, is assigned with reflection of these realities to public opinion after finding them without obliteration and exaggeration (Girgin, 2013: 445). Press Council was founded in Turkey in order to maintain a system that is based on the principles of Western democracies and to provide an auto-inspection for a respectable press with freedom. Journalists, whose ultimate purpose is to work for spreading and realization of freedom of press, are obliged to follow the Press Occupational Principles by signing Press Council Agreement (Girgin, 2008: 290). Occupational principles are principles that shows which acts are good and correct, and which are wrong to commit in order to create a respectable and trustworthy press.

Clauses of Press Occupational Principles, which are accepted by Press Council, that regards private life, states that the private lives of individuals can’t be the subject of a broadcast other than the situations that is required by public benefits. In this context, Press Council doesn’t discriminate celebrities who become a public property with ordinary people, it just pays attention to if there is a public benefit or not in the incident that becomes the subject of the news (http://eski.bianet.org/diger/egitim888.htm, 24.08.2013). In this way, various information of the individual is put under protection. The decision of with whom, how, when and in which way the information will be shared is left to the individual. Individuals may prefer not to share the information. From the perspective of the journalist, who takes place on the other hand of the issue, press has freedom and society has the right for obtaining information. The ultimate duty of the journalist is to convey the correct news with the society (Şahin, 2012: 133-134). The basic problem in here is where the borders of private life starts and ends, because from time to time media members may intervene into private life space in order to use the information rights of the individuals.

It is an obligation to use the rights, which consist of the contents for freedom of communication – press, within limited borders in order to consider these rights suitable with law and to prevent the contradiction of the activity against laws. In this context, reality, public benefit and public interest, actuality, intellectual dependence and temperance between the subject and the expression is important.

Authenticity, which is one of the major principles of journalism, means that the news is veridical. The authenticity in here should be evaluated as not a tangible and substantial reality but as the suitability with the release approach at the moment the news is released. Even the heaviest of criticisms made must reflect the truth. Another border for journalism rights is public benefit and public interest. In the case that texts, which don’t have any public interest or public benefit and don’t have the news qualifications because of these reasons, harm the personal rights of a person, it should be deduced as the act is illegitimate. When a news report, which is directed to public benefit, reflects the real life incidents objectively, it becomes suitable with laws. For evaluations related with the subject, these measurements have importance. When public benefit is paid attention to, the purpose of bringing up any corruptions that occurred in any public service, is to provide carrying out the public service in best conditions. Whereas, news reports, which are released to insult public officers personally, don’t match with public benefits. As there is a public interest for politicians, actors, famous sportsmen, etc., they have to meet the news reports about their private lives with tolerance. In here, especially there has to be an idea connections between authenticity, incident and the expression. An insulting report consisting of wrong discourse including offense can’t be broadcast in the name of public interest (İçel : 280-281).

Suleyman Irvan put emphasis on the provisions of European Council and England Press Complaints Commission related with private life on his article titled as “Medya ve Etik (Media and Ethics)”. 23rd clause of press occupational principles accepted by Europe Council Parliamentarian Council goes on like that: “The right of people for concealing private life should be respected. People, who are assigned with duties related with government, have the right of concealing their private lives as long as this doesn’t affect their work within the government. For such duties, officials can’t devoid of their private lives just for this reason.”
At this point, it is even possible to mention the private life of people who become public properties. In England, Press Complaints Commission also stated that the private life space can only be invaded if there is an issue related with the public benefit and so the borders of private life space is limited. In the framework of the decisions taken by the council, an individual’s house, and parts of the house such as garden and additional buildings is considered to be within the borders of private life space, nearby areas or parks are excluded outside these borders. Also, hotel rooms and hospital rooms are included within the borders of private space (http://eski.bianet.org/diger/egitim888.htm, 24.08.2013). According to 20th clause of the Constitution, the secrecy of private life has immunity.

The Secrecy of Private Life
Everybody has the right for demand of respect towards their private life and family life. The secrecy of private life and family life have immunity. “As long as there isn’t a judicial decision given in due form of one or several reasons such as national security, public safety, prevention of perpetration, protection of general health and general ethical values or protection of freedom and rights of others; as long as there isn’t a written order by judicial authorities in situations in which a delay would have reservations due to these reasons; nobody can be body searched, a search can’t be made on their private papers and properties and none of these can’t be impounded. The decision of the authorized agency is presented to approval of judge on duty within twenty four hours. Judge pronounces the decision within forty-eight hours after confiscation; otherwise, confiscation will be lifted by itself.” (http://www.tbmm.gov.tr/develop/owa/anayasa.maddeListeler?p3=20, 23.06.2013).

As it is also stated clearly with this clause, this provision protects private life and secrets related with that from violations that may come from government or individuals. What is important in here is the assault by the government on an individual’s private life and secrets related with this life, and the limitations related with these assaults.

According to 195th clause of Turkish Criminal Law and the following clauses; under the title of “Offenses Against Privacy”, the followings is punished; disclosure of contents of communication devices by person who procures these with illegitimate methods (c.195); issuing of contents of a letter or telegraph received without the approval of the sender (c.197) revealing of a secret that can cause damage with it reveal and learnt due to a requirement of official position, title, occupation or art (c.198). (Alemdar et al. 1999: 65).

In this respect, it is stated that in case of such a revelation or declaration of such secrets occurs through press, it is not possible to take refuge in announcement rights of the press. Turkish Newspapers Rights and Liabilities Declaration, which is observed within the scope of this study, has this statements related with rights of journalists “journalist has the right of access to all information sources and follow any incidents that defines the public life and that interests the society”. However, there is also another clause about the basic principles and duties of a journalist: “Even for individuals that become public properties, the right for secrecy of the private life can’t be violated without a permission for any purposes which is not directly related with the notification and intelligence rights of the society”. In the attachments of Rights and Liabilities Declaration, it is clearly stated that what is essential for private life about the rightful behavior of a journalist is the public benefits. The conditions, in which the secrecy of the private life will be invalid, are listed below.
A research or publication about a great crime or corruption
A research or publication about an attitude affecting the society negatively
Protection of security and health of society
Prevention of delusion, misapprehension, making a mistake of the society as a result of the words or activities of the relevant person
Even in these conditions, the section of the private life, which becomes accessible by the society, must absolutely be directly related with the issue or it should be paid attention to if the private life of the relevant person has an effect or not on his public activities (Türkiye Gazeteciler Hak ve Sorumluluk Bildirgesi - Turkish Newspapers Rights and Liabilities Declaration, 1998: 32).

New Media Tool and Surveillance
With the surveillance concept, globalism, new media technologies and similar concepts which started with socialization, while individuals started to record their personal data, they also started to serve as voluntary distribution body of this surveillance and inspection mechanism. Nowadays, while Martin approves surveillance which usually carries a negative meaning with meanings such as health follow-ups, keep an eye on children to keep them away from harm, Staples underlines power relations, the dominant ideology in surveillance. (Güven 2008: 173-175). In “Surveillance Society”, Lyon evaluates the themes such as why surveillance becomes more common this quick is a risk, privacy, power and coordination. Privacy serves the stir of the thoughts which consider surveillance risks. And private space scope is a subject which is always open to discussion. Emerging new surveillance mechanisms are en route to disrupt the boundary balance between private-public space. (Lyon, 2006: 18-22).

Centralized surveillance devices (panoptic spectacles) in the works of Michel Foucault aims to create individuals who look like each other that legitimates the existence of the government and constitutes a discipline system. (Maigret, 2012: 94). A mechanism which has been constituted at the point of technologies of the period that aims to get society under control, renders the society to a point where individuals are embodied in the scope of the rules designated by the dominant ideology. In this context, with inspection and surveillance, societies turn into stack of masses which do not think or produce. As it goes in Big Brother, there’s
an effort to make society believe to a divine power which observes everyone. This way, the mechanism is legitimated and its continuity is preserved. (Bentham and others, 2008: 118-119).

As one of the efficient surveillance mechanisms, hidden cameras are minimized and took forms which are not able to be seen in line with the developments in new media. Therefore this almost eliminates the risk of notice. Surveillance period is constantly renewing itself as a concept which exists with the socialization process, in accordance with the changes and transformations in society. Traditional surveillance techniques reveal discrepancies in time with the new surveillance technologies. As Lyon underlines, cameras and bugging devices take the place of the eye which is the main tool of the direct surveillance. The new surveillance perception provided the mechanization of many sense organs including the eyes. Akbulut points out that surveillance build is different from hidden camera usage for surveillance of inmates in panopticon with the purpose of obedience. At this point, you can make alterations, additions or removals in the recorded images and this could rule out the normalization regime. The goal in panopticon is to make the inmates who can be seen but cannot observe and make them useful. It’s possible to mention a normalization regime here. In the surveillance carried out with hidden camera, “after the camera is placed, the person in question could be provoked, this way the desired footage is provided but the viewer only gets to watch the edited part”. In this context, to take the private footage of the person is evaluated as an activity to record abnormal. (Akça ve Başer, 2011: 19-20)

Usage of Hidden Camera in Journalism in the Frame of Exemplary Events

With the article “Everyone has the right to ask respect to their private lives” in the Inherent Rights and Tasks part of Turkish Republic Constitution dated 1982, it is underlined in previous chapters that the private life of people is secured and freedom of communication takes place in our Constitution. Mass communication devices are also obliged to transmit the data to society in accordance with social responsibility in the context of freedom of communication of individuals (Cereci, 2003: 14). At this point mass communication devices are able to act in accordance with right to know of the society in the events which are socially important and can affect the lives of the individuals directly. The usage of hidden camera is able to get into the private life spaces with methods like listening and recording telephone calls, taking photos from distance and obtaining private data and documents. At this point, to publish mistakes and corruptions in society and to inform the public is the ultimate duty of the media. Media members need to analyze well which spaces are included in the private life space of the people in question and the measure of the private space. (Çaplı: 110)

As a way to view people without their knowledge, hidden camera is first used in 1928 by journalist to record an execution. In our day, hidden camera is used by intelligence officers, polices, private detectives, blackmailers and journalists. When you take a look at many true to life examples in the World and Turkey, it can be seen that hidden camera usage is one of the indispensable profession tools. The most important point that we need to lay weight on is when, where and how it is used. Unfortunately it’s not possible to address all these examples as positive ones. There are also examples originating from poor hidden camera usage beside many successful examples (http://cim.anadolu.edu.tr/pdf/2004/1130844721.pdf, 18.09.2013).

In some cases, revealing the truth is only possible by using hidden camera. The general accepted view in journalism, misleading methods shouldn’t be used to gather images, sound and news. There is a obligation of an apparent public interest, public benefit in usage of these methods. On this subject, Savaş Ay - A Takimi (A Team) television programme underlines that “health of children and people” are the two most important subjects, considers using hidden camera as a shame and wants to reserve the right to use hidden camera. (Şahin, 2012 : 150-151). After the torture and violence footage which is recorded in the hidden filming carried out in Malatya 0-6 Years Kindergarten, aired on a television channel on October 26th 2005, an investigation is commenced and as a result 3 of the 15 caretakers on trial faced different penalties. (http://www.dunyabulteni.net/?aType=haber&ArticleID=277103,05.09.2013)

After the events in Malatya Kindergarten, in his statement about the subject, President of press council, mentioned that it’s inevitable to use hidden camera in circumstances which have public interest. President of Association of Journalists mentioned Rights and Responsibility Manifesto of Turkish Journalists and it’s expressed in the article titled “Private Life” that “the essential is public benefit” (http://www.radikal.com.tr/turkiye/gizli_kameraya_medya_destegi-762011, 21.07.2013.). The betterments made in Malatya Kindergarten example is a clear example of the service for public interest. But when you consider the sensitivity of the reports on health and children, it doesn’t justify the automatic hidden camera usage in many related subjects(Şahin, 2012: 150-151).

Chris Rogers, the producer of the program which aired on English television Itv and showed the footage from the mentally challenged children’s home, defends that it’s necessary to use hidden camera. Authorities of that time, who made a declaration after reports, expressed that these dorms are not places where healthy children stay, but foster homes where mentally challenged children stay and taking footage via using hidden camera is the violation of the rights of these children. Other statement is also criticized taking footage with hidden camera and is expressed it is not possible to know that created scene is a work of the broadcasting corporation through editing. Rogers mentions that if there’s illegal action or public interest are in question; and if there’s no other way to record the evidence and indicators, they have to use this method. (http://www.haberler.com/itv-yapincisi-gizli-kamera-gerekliydi-2-haberi/, 12.08.2013).
By courtesy of Arena Programme of investigative journalist Uğur Dündar, places which do not value the health of the public are located and this food and health terror is tried to be prevented. After his hidden camera footage is aired on Arena programme, Şerafettin Yardımcı who was making an immoral offer to a woman who visited his office, killed himself. In newscast program Söz Fatoda, it is confirmed with hidden camera footage that Neurosurgery Department Head and Neurosurgery Expert Prof. Dr. Medical Colonel Korkut Alkan of Istanbul Gulhane Military Medicine Academy (GATA) is abusing his women patients and Alkan is arrested by court-martial and sent to Selimiye Prison. (http://arsiv.sabah.com.tr/1997/03/18/f01.html,15.08.2013 ). After this two exemplary reports, the subject about the usage of hidden camera and in which cases it should be used were on agenda of Turkey for a long period. Dündar and Sahin also defended that hidden camera should be used in these events since there’s no other method to reveal this kind of corruptions in investigative journalism and the public interest side of these events outweighs here.

Mark Effron says in his article Hidden Cameras: A News Executives Perspective’, ‘Many self appointed defenders of the public interest (most of whom work for newspapers) whould have you believe that using hidden cameras violates all journalistic principles’ (http://dlib.nyu.edu/ 20.12. 2014). In his article which is published in the September 1997 issue of Communicator Magazine, Bob Steele emphasizes that hidden camera usage have high risk and it is hard. Indeed, as long as it doesn’t serve a higher purpose (such as a critical matter related to society or interference in private life…) hidden camera usage is a violation of confidentiality and protection of private life. On this subject:-Hidden camera should be used as a last resort. (After trying other methods such as other ways of interviews, observation, document and data research)-Hidden camera must be used by experience investigative journalists.-An in-depth investigation should be carried about the subject. Because, while using hidden camera, unrelated people may get into picture during filming and innocent people may suffer to reveal truth in name of society.- Hidden camera is a good technique to gather information if it’s used right and carefully. (http://www.dorduncukuvvetmedya.com/arsiv/lgam.html, 14.07.2013).

When these methods preferred, the reporter should include the reasons in his report. The footage gathered by placing hidden cameras to private spaces such as dressing rooms, toilets, etc just to obtain ratings, does not tally with media ethics. In this case, freedom of information for media and preserving the private life of the individual would clash since there could be a breach of privacy(Uzun, 2007: 100-101).

Suggestions and Assessment

In many reports on media today, we see the breach of codes of conduct. We see the subject of breach of private life and privacy in many reports, especially on tabloid press. In the scope of freedom of press, the main principle of the reporter is to convey information to the society by considering truth and realism concepts. Foucault considers the surveillance universe as one of the legitimating methods of the dominant ideology. In this context, governments apply policies to form the society according to their desires through many surveillance mechanisms and they use many surveillance methods. Wiretapping and hidden camera usage is one of these methods. Here, the reporter is responsible to maintain balance between freedom of press, the right of the public to get accurate information and public interests, private life concept. Every latent image that violates the immunity of private life or sound recordings violate the communication freedom can’t be used except the events requires public interest even if they are acquired through legal ways.

When the hidden camera is used carefully and with an in-depth study by experienced reporters, as a powerful weapon of reporters, it helps to reveal many events which would provide public interest. It’s possible to see many successful examples of this in the World and Turkey but you can run across adverse cases which may even result with the suicide of people who are not even related to the event. The common ground of many experienced reporter of the media world is, use of hidden camera should be the last resort.

The hidden camera should be used in cases where the immunity of the private life and public interest is clear and required and in cases where all methods are tried and ended up with no results. The right of the public to learn truth should be carried out truthfully and the identity of the person and the social results of the case should be evaluated thoroughly. Otherwise hidden camera would not be a tool which is used to gather information in journalism, it would be a tool to serve the perception of rating and sensation of media corporations. As a journalist, emphasized, these methods should be used as “not a tool of extrajudicial execution, as a tool of self defense”. But this way, the media freedom which provides functionality to democracy will happen with hidden camera usage.

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Multicultural Education for Positive Social Change in Nigeria: The Decision Making and Social Action Approach in the Classroom

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Abstract
Nigeria is a multicultural society with over 250 ethnic groups and cultures with variations in socio-economic backgrounds, abilities and unequal opportunities. These differences also exist amongst students in the Colleges of Education in Nigeria. These made teaching and learning challenging. Meanwhile, the school system must ensure an all inclusive teaching and learning experiences which would enable the graduates function successfully in society and also in a rapidly changing world. Taking the assumption that “there is beauty and strength in diversity”, The Decision Making and Social Action Approach was adopted and used in a multicultural class of 350 students over a period of three semesters. Prior this approach, the class was a socially disjointed one. Part of the result of this division was reflected in their poor academic performance. At the end of the 3rd semester, a strong, united and highly inspired and equipped to be agents of positive change, was the result.

Keywords: Multicultural Education, decision making and social action approach

Introduction
One peculiar nature of the Nigeria of the Nigerian society of a population of about 178 million people (Worldometers, 2015), is its multiple ethnicity despite the fact that is dominantly populated by just one race. Although there are some foreign nationals such as Britons, Americans, Germans, Indians and Africans from other African countries. The country has over 250 ethnic groups with their different cultures (Nairaland, 2015). In addition, there are also wide variations in socio-economic backgrounds, abilities and unequal opportunities. These differences are reflected amongst students admitted into higher institutions in the country. Amongst the different types of higher institutions in the country is the College of Education system which is charged with producing teachers for the basic education system. In the country, basic education consists of 6 years elementary education through junior secondary education of 3 years (NPE, 2004).

The multiculture nature of the nation is not only a challenge to governance; it is also a challenge to both the teachers and students in the school system which is represented by the classrooms. Meanwhile schools are charged with the responsibility of developing the potentials of students in order to equip them with the knowledge and skills essential for self and national development. The avenue for the achievement of these, is through effective teaching and learning in the classrooms. However, this is a daunting task for the teacher as the classroom is composed of students of varied cultures, potentials as well as differences in personal experiences. These variations could be a barrier to a united classroom or a source of division leading to ineffective teaching and learning under an incapable teacher. This is contrary to the principles embedded in multicultural, education which emphasizes beauty and strength in diversity in that differences in terms of race, culture, personal abilities and experiences, are very great assets to be harnessed and utilized by the capable teacher for social, economic and political development not only of individual students but also for the positive transformation of any nation and by extension, of the world as a global nation. The classroom teacher who is able to utilize the differences and disparities amongst students so that they can actually acquire the skills with which they can live and interact effectively in a diverse society is referred to as “an excellent’ teacher by Abdullah and Ghaffer (2015). According to them, the excellent teacher is the one who can inspire the intellectual, social and personal developments of all their students to their highest potential”. If the classroom teacher is to succeed in this important duty, then it is imperative that the teacher infuse multicultural education in the teaching and learning activities in the classrooms.

What is Multicultural Education?
Giving a concise and an all embracing definition of multicultural education is not an easy one due to the fact that many educators who have done so have different perceptions of the term (Gary, 1994; Cumming – McCann, 2007). Having examined the many and varied definitions of the term, Levinson (2010), says there are three different groups presenting three perceptions of the term, particularly as it takes many and varied forms as it is being practiced in the United States where it originates from.

The three groups are:
Political and Educational Philosophers
Education Theorists and
Educational Practitioners
Underlying the definitions given by Political and Educational Philosophers is the principle of equity for all students irrespective of culture as well as striving to remove all barriers to educational opportunities to any or groups of students and ensuring success for all students from different cultural backgrounds. Hence their definitions are content-oriented or content focused because of the observation in a highly multicultural or multi-raced society with its attendance disparities in all facets of social life. The curriculum is perceived to be exclusive of same minority individuals or groups. An example of the definition from this perspective is the definition given by Valdezh, (1999). He defines multicultural education as that education purposely intended to decrease race,
Amongst the Educational Theorists definitions of the term the underlying principle is ‘transformation’ of and this can only be brought about by restructuring and regrounding of the curriculum so as to completely turn around the schools existing orientation as a whole and replace by instilling and promoting social justice and equality. Banks and Banks (1995) definition illustrate this. They define multicultural education as a field of study whose main concern is creating equal educational opportunities for students from diverse racial ethnic, social class and cultural groups with the goal of helping students to acquire the knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to function effectively in a pluralistic and democratic society and interact, negotiate and communicate with peoples from diverse groups in order to create a civic and moral community that works for the common good of all”.

The definitions of multicultural education by educational practitioners as noted by Levison (2007), emphasize teachers increasing students interest in what they are learning by emphasizing how it relates to their lives, helping students see themselves and their attitudes and skills needed to function effectively in a pluralistic and democratic society and interact, negotiate and communicate with peoples from diverse groups in order to create a civic and moral community that works for the common good of all”.

“Multicultural education makes sure that all students have access to inclusive teaching and learning experiences. These experiences will allow students to successfully take part in a rapidly changing world where cross-cultural understanding and intercultural communication skills are essential In line with this is the definition by Oregon Department of Education (2015). According to this source multicultural education is a life-long learning process designed to empower all students to become participants in their communities. Education that is multicultural is inclusive and respectful of all ethnic, racial and cultural backgrounds and engages staff, families, students, community.

A critical examination of the above definitions highlights the fact that multicultural education is more than just the inclusion of diverse cultures in the curriculum. Being in minority or non-minority, male or female, lower-or no-lower social background, disable or non-disable, the reality is that students vary in their learning and physical abilities, as such, all of them have potentials to be tapped for the benefit of all of them, the school and the society at large. It is integrating multicultural education into the education system that ensures that students acquire the right kind of knowledge and skills that are essential for effective functioning of the individual in a rapidly changing and pluralistic world. Hence all facets of education must be permeated by multicultural education from the teaching of the various subjects in the school to assessing the students academic competence in any and all of the subjects in the school system across all levels of education. In other words multicultural education is to be infused into the teaching and learning activities in the school system. The teacher does this by making explicit connection between multicultural education, subject- and skill-based curriculum as well as the instruction process. The ultimate goals being to produce students who are thinkers and problem solvers (Gray, 2003/2004). Societies all over the world certainly need such individuals. However, the reality is that this is an enormous task for the teacher to produce such individuals in the school system. Hence it is imperative that the practicing teacher be exposed to the knowledge of the approach or the strategy through which multicultural education can be infused into all the teaching and learning activities that take place in the school.

**Approaches to Infusing Multicultural Education**

Four different approaches have been identified through which multicultural education could be infused into the education system. These are

- The contributory Approach
- The Additive Approach
- The Transformation Approach and
- The Decision making and Social Action Approach

(\text{IN \ TIME, 2002; \ Cumming –McCann, 2003 & 2007})

Whereas the first three approaches would be relevant to multicultural educational philosophers and theorists, the fourth approach is of utmost relevance to the educational practitioner. This is so because, for example, the contributory and additive approaches focus on the inclusion in the curriculum contents about marginalized minorities. This includes incorporating into the curriculum, heroes, books and activities about such marginalized groups. The transformation approach requires the complete restructuring of the curriculum so that students view concepts or issues from a broader perspective. This is sometimes done intentionally so as to deconstruct what students have been taught to think, believe and teach (Cumming-McCann, 2003).

**The Decision Making and Social Action Approach**

This borrowed from the transformational approach of teaching students to view concepts from a wider and varied perspectives. This is then combined with activities that challenge students to strive for social change. This will come about because as teacher uses this approach the students are helped to value diversity and equity, acquire more comprehensive knowledge of the course content and also prepare all students to work in a global economy (Stanley, 2015)

The underlying principles of this strategy are:
All students have different learning styles so the class is composed of students with diverse learning styles. Incorporating multicultural education into the classroom, students will be more successful in and outside the school. Students can successfully be taught and acquire the ability to live comfortably in a diverse workforce. Students can be equipped with the skills with which they can integrate into a global economic Every child is capable of learning complex materials and performing at high level of skill. Each student has a personal unique learning style that teachers can discover and build on when teaching (Levinson, 2009.;; Banks, 2013)

Implementation in the Classroom
Multicultural education can be implemented at the micro level-the classroom. Miller (2011) offers many suggestions that the classroom teacher can find useful. Amongst these are that the teacher should:-
Get to know the students by building relationship or bonding with them.
help, students to create classroom slang dictionaries/motto/mission statement(s)
Find places in the current curriculum so as to embed multicultural lessons, ideas and materials
Allow for controversy. The classroom should be open to respectful discussions about diversities
Find allies in administration who will support the work.

Ford, (2000), identifies the steps which the classroom teacher could follow so as to infuse multicultural education in any topic, in any of the subjects being taught in the class. Even though the classroom teacher is not the designer of the curriculum, these steps will be of help in infusing multicultural education. The acquisition of broad knowledge through sourcing for information from diverse sources. This should be a collective decision by the class with assistance from the teacher. For example, acquisition of more knowledge leads to a richer reservoir of knowledge. As students make this decision on their own, they will be more committed to search for information from many and varied sources. This eliminates indecisiveness.
Assisting students in their level of comprehensive. This involves teaching them to understand concepts and themes from different perspectives.
Application of knowledge: At this stage, students are asked to and can apply their understanding of important concepts and views from different perspectives.
Analyzing Concepts: This involves teaching students to examine concepts and themes from more than one concept and then predict the possible outcome.
Synthesis: Students are taught to create a plan of action to bring about new social situations.
Evaluation: Students critique important social and cultural issues and seek to make changes either at micro or macro levels.

As the teacher infuses multicultural education through these steps, the students are equipped with the ability to analyze their own values and beliefs, apply new knowledge identify alternative courses of action and decide what, if any actions they will take to address issues in their school, work-place or community. Students thinking ability and decision making skills are sharpened, in addition to helping them acquire a sense of political awareness and efficiency thereby becoming agents of positive social change.

What is Social Change
Positive social change is a transformation that results in positive outcomes at any level-be it individual, family systems, neighborhoods, organization, nationally and globally, and which can occur at different rates; slow and gradual or fast and radical (WALDEN EDUC 8035, 2015). For transformation to occur at the higher levels, it must start from the individual level. The school becomes the primary course of this. This is where the teacher’s effectiveness in multicultural education becomes indispensable.

Methodology and Procedure
Purpose of Study
The purpose of this research is to find out the impact the Decision Making and Social Action Teaching Techniques in multicultural education will have on the classroom climate, and academic performance of students.

Research Questions
So as to guide the direction of this research in relation to the decision making and social action pedagogical technique in multicultural education, the following questions are raised.

When the teacher uses this technique, will it result to a more united class despite the diversities in cultures, abilities and personal experiences of students in the classroom?
Is it possible to involve all the students in the teaching and learning activities, if the class teacher uses the decision making and social action approach?
Can this technique be used to integrate multicultural education in the curriculum
Will using these techniques foster stronger bonds with the class teacher and by extension the school community?
Will this technique improve students social outlook as well as perform better, academically?

Setting
The setting for this research is the College of Education, Agbor in Delta State, Nigeria. It is an institution charges with producing
professional teachers. The institution has three major programmes the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE); The Bachelor of Education (B. Ed) and the post graduate professional Diploma in Education (PDE) programmes.

The institution is state – owned (established and funded by the state).

Admission into the NCE and B.Ed programmes of the school is based on intending students passing the prescribed examination conducted by the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board (JAMB). It is this agency that handles examinations for admission into tertiary institutions in the country.

Delta state where the institution is situated is a multi-ethnic state. The major language groups are: Aniocha, Ika, Ijaw, Isoko, Itsekiri and Urhobo. The school is cited in Ika land. However admission into the school is not in any way restricted to Deltans only. Any candidate from anywhere who meets the admission requirement is admitted if his choice is the College of Education, Agbor.

Participants/Population for Study
The population for this study consists of 350 NCE students in Group A1 of the institution. In the institution different subject combinations are grouped into larger ones for the purpose of lectures in Education and General Studies (GS). These two subjects are common and compulsory to students. Mondays and Wednesdays are set aside for the teaching of these subjects. On these days students from the different subject combinations meet in larger halls for instructions this makes the class population to be even more diversified.

The NCE programme is a three-year programme and so each level has its own groupings. The groupings are: A1, A2, B1, B2,, C1, C2, D1, and D2 (8 groups).

Research Instruments
(a) Simple questionnaire to get information on students’ language groups
(b) Rendering of the English language greeting “Good day Class” to students in their own language

2. Courses used for integrating Multicultural Education

The courses below are used for this research. The table below shows the course codes, titles and semesters they are taught.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s/n</th>
<th>Course Code</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Level/Semester</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>EDU 111</td>
<td>History of Education</td>
<td>Year 1 (1st semester)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>EDU 124</td>
<td>Theory and Practice of Child Friendly Schools</td>
<td>Year 1 (semester)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>EDU 211</td>
<td>Practicum in school Organization and Classroom Management</td>
<td>Year 2 (1st Semester)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2012 Minimum Standards in Education: NCCE

In-depth examination of the courses being taught by the researcher and with the assistance of the students, all 350 students were randomly grouped into 14 groups of 25 each. Each group randomly picked topics. The topics are to be mimed, dramatized and presented orally, in class.

The students results for 1st and 2nd semester during the 2013/2014 academic semester results.

Students Academic Performance During the Three Semesters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grading points
A - 5 points
B - 4 points
C - 3 points
D - 2 points
E - 1 point
F - 0 point
Discussion

So as to identify with all the cultural groups in the class, even though the language of instruction is the English Language, the researcher stimulates students interest and get them ready for the teaching and learning activities by greeting in any of the languages as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Groups</th>
<th>Greetings: the equivalence of Goodday Class”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aniocha/Ibo</td>
<td>Nnoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edo</td>
<td>Wakoyo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esan</td>
<td>Vbawele or vbaoto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibibio</td>
<td>Ndito-abidie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ika</td>
<td>Ndoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ijaw</td>
<td>A’do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itskiri</td>
<td>Aghan do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isoko</td>
<td>Wado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabongida Ora</td>
<td>Wasse oh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukwani</td>
<td>Mbeneni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urhobo</td>
<td>Wadoh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoruba</td>
<td>Epele oh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>Sanu nku yara</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(In Nigerian languages, words are pronounced as spelt.)

This is done at each lecture period. The greetings in the Nigerian languages are rotated. In expectation of the language of greeting, the class is always full and calm before lectures. This method aroused students interest.

Seeing the effect of this multicultural approach, all members of the class have formed a class motto or vision statement which is “Unity, strength and Beauty in Diversity”. This six lettered vision is written boldly on the board by six students who volunteered based on their flare for graphical arts even though that is not their area of specialization.

Using drama and group discussion, the topics are discussed extensively during lecture hours. This involvement of students in the teaching and learning activities is a technique in the Decision Making and Social Action Techniques in Multicultural Education.

From the analysis of the academic performance of students over the three semesters, it will be seen that there is very rapid improvement in their performance so much so that by the third semester only 10 students have the D grade pass no failure at all. The multicultural approach has contributed in giving the students the needed psychological and emotional balancing to enable them adjust sufficiently to the learning tasks.
At the end of the third semester, the class was to show cased to the school authority (see pictures). This is to prove that the success of the teacher is not only a collaborative efforts with the students but also with school officials.

**Conclusion**

As propounded by educators such as Gorski (2010),

All students have the potentials to learn

Through multicultural education, there will be a united class where students are ready to use their diversities to assist one another socially and academically

Through infusing multicultural education students interest in learning is stimulated and they are ready to be committed learners and searchers for knowledge.

Multicultural education does not need to be a separate subject but could be integrated into just any topic in any of the subjects in the school at all levels of education.

**References**


APPENDIX – PICTURE TALK

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THE SIX VOLUNTEERI0S

STUDENTS DRAMATISING A TOPIC

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT VISITING THE CLASS
SCHOOL MANAGEMENT VISITING THE CLASS

TEACHER BONDING WITH STUDENTS

RESEARCHER WITH HAPPY AND INSPIRED STUDENTS
My Parents are My Facebook Friends’ Friends 2

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Eastern Mediterranean University, TRNC

Abstract
In the last decade, among the Turkish society, Facebook has established itself as the prominent Social Network Sites (SNS). Research in the area mainly focuses on tertiary students and their use of SNS. In the research, there is a dearth of research into the Facebook use of teenagers particularly in the area of having their parents as their Facebook friends. Furthermore, when parents become friends with their children’s Facebook friends’ friends, as one of us mentioned in the last year’s conference (Özad & Gümüş, 2014), becomes a problematic issue. The present study seeks to explore young adults’ attitudes towards having their parents as their friends on Facebook. For the study, a questionnaire is prepared and administered to 200 young adults. Data obtained suggests that there are statistically significant differences in the responses with respect to age and gender of the participants.

Keywords: Facebook, young adults, parents (mother, father)

Facebook
Social Network Sites provide a virtual platform where people meet and interact. Facebook is an SNS. After its launch as a student project in Harvard University by Mark Zuckerberg in the year 2004, Facebook, in a short time has become one of the most popular, if not the most popular, SNS all over the world. In the Turkish society, currently it is the most popular SNS. Currently in Turkey, 45% of population have access and use the Internet. It is estimated that over 35 million people use the WWW. Parallel to this, there are 36 million active Facebook accounts. This includes fake accounts as well. Turkish society, in general spend around 4.9 hours through personal computers and 1.9 hours through mobile devices on the Web. On SNS, Turkish people spend around 2 hours and 32 minutes. Among the most popular SNS, 93% use Facebook, 72% use Twitter, 70% use Google plus, and 33% use LinkedIn (Önerli 2014).

Parents, Children and Facebook Use
Nowadays, in addition to young people, children and adults also started to have Facebook pages. Research in the area is more related to the privacy settings of parents when their children have a Facebook page (Stutzman & Kramer-Duffield 2010). Yet, being digital natives, children know the rules of the game, using the SNS, much better than their parents. Aratani (2008) claims that most mothers and fathers attempt to be friend of their sons and daughters as well as being friends of their friends on Facebook. In addition to this, when parents started becoming friends with them on Facebook, they need to find a new place to go where their parents are not (Wiederhold 2012). Research in the area suggests that when parents are accepted as Facebook friends, children may feel it as an intrusion into their privacy. Kanter et al (2012) report the findings of the experimental research they conducted with young adults and their parents. In the experiment group, parents were asked to create a Facebook account and become Facebook friend of their children for two months. On the other hand, the parents and children of the control group continued their lives as it was. The results of their study maintain that having a parent on Facebook led to the reduction of conflict in the parent-child relationship rather than living considered as privacy invasions. Furthermore, provided that parent-child relationship was in a conflict before the parent joined Facebook, the relationship got better as the parent joined to Facebook. The qualitative research conducted on the topic by Özad & Gümüş (2014) suggests that teenagers prefer to have their mothers on Facebook. However, data reveals that male teenagers do not prefer to have their father as their Facebook friends. Teenagers’ responses point out that they would rather have their parents as quiet participants not as the ones who post on their children’s friends’ pages. Also, Communication Privacy Management theory can be assumed as a framework in regulating relationship between young adults and parents distance on Facebook (Petronio 2002). Because, CPM theory has a function to regulating metaphorical boundaries their private information and these regulating can be available on Facebook setting. CPM theory has three main that are, privacy ownership, privacy control and privacy turbulence (Child, Haridakis & Petronio 2012). Yet, Kanter et al (2012) point out that, on the contrary, their experimental research point out that becoming friend on Facebook leads to better relationship between the parents and children. The present study seeks to pursue the research in the area with young adults.

Methodology
‘My parents are my Facebook friends’ friends’ was explored through qualitative methodology with teenagers and the findings were presented in the last years’ ICCMTD Conference (Özad & Gümüş, 2014). The present paper is developed on the suggestion made by the audience to pursue this interesting topic in a piece of research conducted according to quantitative methodology. For this study an in-house questionnaire was developed and administered in Spring 2014, in Famagusta city of North Cyprus. In the study 200 young adults participated. All the participants live in Famagusta city of North Cyprus either as a citizen or because they study at the Eastern Mediterranean University located in Famagusta city of North Cyprus. The reliability analysis conducted for the study (N=200) for 10 items of the survey alpha is found .7935 which indicates good reliability of the measuring instrument.
The questionnaire administered consisted of mainly three parts: the first part included questions that sought to collect demographic characteristics of the participants. The second part posed questions with respect to the Internet and Facebook use of the participants. The third part covered 10 questions prepared according to 5-point Likert scale. This part included questions that sought to explore young adults’ attitudes towards having their parents on Facebook. Forth is part to ascertain the critical value of agreements for propositions, the score range was divided according to the scale division of Balcı (2004). 1.00 - 1.79 Strongly Disagree, 1.80 - 2.59 Disagree, 2.60 - 3.39 Undecided, 3.40 - 4.19 Agree, 4.20 - 5.00 Strongly Agree.

Findings
The participants of the present study consist of 200 young adults. In this part, firstly, descriptive statistical analysis is presented. Then, result of questions posed according to 5-point Likert scale is given. Thirdly, chi-square analyses are presented in order to show the relationship between gender and attitudes of participants on participants' mothers’ and/or fathers’ becoming Facebook friends of their children

Demographic Information
The demographic information of the participants is presented in terms of their gender, age group, occupation, income from the family. Out of the 200 participants who contributed in the present study, 99 (47.8%) of them are male and 101 (49.5%) of them are female. 100 (48.3%) participants are in 18-24 age groups. 85 (41.1%) of them are in 25-30 age group and 15 (7.25%) of them are in 30-40 age group. 75 (48.3%) of them are married and 125 (41.1%) of them are single. Occupation of participants is divided in two groups. 98 (47.3%) of them are students and 84 (40.6%) of them are working and studying at the same time. The rest (12%) did not answer this question with respect to the monthly stipend of the students. 29 of them indicated that they get 500 TL; 89 of them get 1000 TL. 49 of them get 1500 TL in each month from family. 33 of the participants did not answer this question.

Internet and Facebook Use
Participants’ daily Internet use was also explored. 73 participants mention that they use internet between 1-3 hours. 70 participants use internet between 4-6 hours. 26 participants use internet between 6-9 hours. 31 participants use internet between 10-14 hours. In the survey, numbers of Facebook friends of the participants were asked. 38 participants point out that the number of Facebook friends they have is between 50-99 friends. 52 participants have between 100-199 Facebook friends. 46 participants have over 400 Facebook friends. Another question asked sought to explore whether participants have Facebook application on their mobile devices. 177 (85.5%) participants have Facebook application in their mobile phones. 10 (4.8%) participants do not have Facebook application on their mobile phone. The rest 3 of them did not answer this question.

Attitude-Scale Items
Table 1 Attitude-Scale Items Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my father becomes my Facebook friend</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my mother becomes my Facebook friend</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my father shares his political ideas on Facebook</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my mother shares her political ideas on Facebook</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my father becomes my Facebook friends’ friend on Facebook</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my mother becomes my Facebook friends’ friend on Facebook</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>2.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my father blocks me on Facebook</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel annoyed when my mother blocks me on Facebook</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like it when my father makes comment on my posts</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like it when my mother makes comment on my posts</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The attitudes of young adults who responded to the survey are mostly undecided on the survey items. They disagree with the statements “I feel annoyed when my father/mother becomes my Facebook friend” and “I feel annoyed when my mother shares her political ideas on Facebook”. Since most of the university students live away from home, they do not feel annoyed when their parents become their Facebook friends. It is worth nothing that although there is a little difference in terms of means (Mean: 2.67 for fathers ‘undecided’ and Mean: 2.53 ‘disagree’ for mothers), they disagree with feeling annoyed when their mothers share their political views on Facebook. It is worth nothing that they are undecided on the issues like: “I feel annoyed when my mother/father becomes my Facebook friends’ friends;”, “I feel annoyed when my mother/father blocks me”, and “I like it when my mother
makes comments on my posts”. Since the age range of the participants is wide (18-40) the range of responses is also wide and they meet in the mean of undecided. This result confirms the previous research that suggests that most of the university students live away from home and Facebook is one of the ways of communicating with their parents.

Chi-Square test results

Chi-Square tests were run for gender, age and all 5-point Likert scale items. The statistically significant findings are presented below.

Table 2 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed from mother’s becoming friends with their Facebook friends’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>13,667(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>14,442</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,89.

In Table 2, the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘mothers becoming friends of their daughter or son’s Facebook’s friend’ is examined. It is found out that $\chi^2 (4) = 13,667, p<.008$. There is a statistically significant relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘being annoyed from their mother’s becoming friends with their child’s Facebook friends’ friend’ at $p \leq 0.05$ level.

Table 3 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed from father’s becoming friends with their Facebook friends’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>19,155(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>20,075</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>4,078</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,39.

In Table 3, the relationships between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed from their father’s becoming friends with their Facebook friends’ is examined. It is found out $\chi^2 (4) = 19,155, p<.001$. The result suggest that there is a statistically significant difference at $p \leq 0.01$ level.

Table 4 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed from father’s sharing their political views on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>12,279(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>12,597</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>3,197</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,90.

In Table 4 the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed from father’s sharing their political views on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that $\chi^2 (4) = 12,279, p<.015$. There is a statistically significant difference between feeling annoyed from fathers’ sharing his political views on Facebook with respect to gender at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
Table 5 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed from being blocked by mother on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>40,640(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>53,067</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Assoc</td>
<td>1,626</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* a 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.47.

Table 5 presents the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed by being blocked by their mother on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 40.640, p<.000 \). This result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘feeling annoyed by being blocked their mother on Facebook’.

Table 6 Chi-square test result on the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>40,640(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>53,067</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Assoc</td>
<td>1,626</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* a 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.47.

Table 6 presents the relationship between ‘gender’ and participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their post on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 40.640, p<.000 \). This result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’.

Table 7 Chi-square test result on the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their fathers make comments on their posts on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>35,001(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>42,090</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Assoc</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* a 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.94.

Table 7 presents the relationship between ‘gender’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their fathers make comments on their posts on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 35,001, p<.000 \). This result indicate that there is a significant relationship between gender and participants are annoyed when their mothers make comments on their post on Facebook.

Table 8 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when my father becomes my Facebook friend’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>71,781(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>80,548</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Assoc</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.745</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 presents the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when my father becomes my Facebook friend’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 71,781, p<.000 \). This result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between age and participants feel annoyed when their fathers make comments on their Facebook friend.
In table 8, the relationship between age and participants between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when my father becomes my Facebook friend’ is examined. The Chi-Square test result is found as $[\chi^2(8) = 71.781, p<.000]$. This result suggests that there is a statistically significant relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when my father becomes my Facebook friend’.

In table 9, the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when my mother becomes my Facebook friend’ is examined. Pearson Chi-Square result is calculated as $[\chi^2(8) = 63.990, p<.000]$. This result suggests that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two.

In table 10, presents result of person Chi-Square test result for relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their fathers share political views on Facebook’. The results are $[\chi^2(8) = 39.858, p<.000]$. The findings suggest that there is a statistically significant relationship at $p\leq0.01$ level.

In Table 11, the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers share political views on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that $[\chi^2(8) = 66.814, p<.000]$. This result indicates that there is a statistically significant difference at $p\leq0.01$ level.
Table 12 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers become friends with their Facebook friends’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>63,924(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>63,920</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>8,895</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a 4 cells (26.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.65.

In Table 12, the relationships between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers become friends with their Facebook friends’ is examined. It is found out that: \[ x^2_{(8)} = 63,924, p < .000 \]. There is a statistically significant relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers become friends with their Facebook friends’ at p≤0.01 level.

Table 13 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘age’ and participants feel annoyed when their fathers become friends with their Facebook friends’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>63,002(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>62,176</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>4,810</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a 4 cells (26.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.73.

In table 13, the relationships between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their fathers become friends with their Facebook friends’ is examined. It is found out that \[ x^2_{(8)} = 63,002, p < .000 \]. There is a statistically significant difference between the two at p≤0.01 level.

Table 14 Chi-Square Test Result on the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed by being blocked by their fathers on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>51,899(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>48,890</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>5,588</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a 4 cells (26.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .75.

In table 14, the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed by being blocked by their fathers on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \[ x^2_{(8)} = 51,899, p < .000 \]. There is a statistically significant relationship between age and participants are annoyed by blocked by their fathers on Facebook.

Table 15 Chi-Square test result on the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed by being blocked by their mother on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>52,245(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>62,234</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>8,659</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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In Table 15, the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed by being blocked by their mother on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 52,245, p < .000 \). This result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two at \( p \leq 0.01 \) level.

Table 16 Chi-square test result on the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>29,901(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>35,699</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>17,549</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( a 6 \) cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 53.

In Table 16, presents the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 29,901, p < .000 \). This result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’.

Table 17 Chi-square test result on the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>52,245(a)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>62,234</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>8,659</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( a 5 \) cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .90.

In Table 17, presents the relationship between ‘age’ and ‘participants feel annoyed when their mothers make comments on their posts on Facebook’ is examined. It is found out that \( \chi^2 = 29,901, p < .000 \). This result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between them.

**Conclusion**

The present study focuses on the relationship between young adults’ use of Facebook and their parents’ becoming their Facebook friends. Among ten items, participants express their views with respect to their attitudes about their parents being their Facebook friends. The attitudes of young adults include their thoughts, emotions and behaviors and in the study young adults are generally undecided about the impact of their parents’ becoming their Facebook friends. Unquestionably Facebook established itself as the dominant virtual meeting place for all. Besides, accepting parental friend requests makes a few restrictive privacy rules to adjust as contemplating the request (Child & Westermann 2013). Young people, being digital natives (Prensky 2001), use Facebook more effective than other age groups. It is popularity led children and adults participant in Facebook. This, in a way, led to conflict in the family communication. Young adults feel as if their parents are intruding into their privacy. Parent are also following a trend and the most rapidly growing demographic around 35 years old and older (Smith, 2009) and also according to Facebook (2010) official website, the fast growing demographic are those 30 years old and older (Facebook 2010). Also, West, Lewis, & Currie (2009) mention that there is a perception among young adults in light of being a member of SNS, nevertheless, SNS ought to serve in way of looking with parental eyes. Facebook is no longer only for college students (Karl & Peluchette 2011). Therefore, in the future, researchers are planning to conduct another study on parents’ views about having their children on Facebook as their friends.

**References**


Organizational Campaigning

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Abstract
This conference paper will explore the difference between communicating changes and changing communication. Based on a case study in which a manager applies two quite different approaches to organizational communication in order to change the organization he is leading. The first and failing approach will in be named: organizational campaigning and means (e.g. Kotter, 2012, p. 9 and Clegg, Kornberger & Pittis, 2009) that the manager takes control with communication and communication channels in order to ensure successful organizational changes. Since the changes were not succeeding the approach is replaced with a new approach which will be named organizing communication. During the case analysis we will see that this change in approach not only change the managers perception of communication but also his perception of the organization he is leading.

Keywords: change communication, organizational changes, organizational development and case study.

Introduction to the Case
This conference paper is based on a case study conducted in a public organisation. The manager of the organization will obviously be anonymous in this article, but for convenience we will here use the pseudonym Thomas. The former manager, known for his conservative style of management, was forced to resign after a number of unfortunate events that influenced the performance of the organization in a negative way. All these events established a burning platform forcing the board to modernise the organization, the style of management and the internal interpersonal relations. At his appointment Thomas is neither offered instructions on how to start or manage the organizational changes demanded by the board. The only instruction offered is: ensure the success of the changes. In order to fulfil the demands of the board Thomas starts initiating changes by taking control of the communication channels in the company in order to ensure that the staff and middle managers share his perception of the renewed organization. This is done by a long seminar involving middle managers, temporary and permanent staffs. During this part of the process Thomas decides to introduce the employees to the visions, norms, values and goals of the organization. During interviews Thomas states that he makes these decisions to avoid open discussions as this might lead the members of the organization into false or wrong interpretations of the organizations visions, norms, values and goals. False interpretations might, states Thomas, be difficult to change afterwards. This obviously produces a top-down process in which the staff and middle managers are only introduced to the new visions, norms, relations, values and goals of the organization through Thomas.

In connection to organizational changes it is important to distinguish between first-order and second-order changes (cf. Bartunek, 1984, p.356). In this case the changes initiated by Thomas appear to be first-order changes since they do no change the employees and middle managers basic world-view. If it ought to be a second-order changes we would need to identify deeper, more fundamental and radical changes in the interpretive schemes of those involved. Interpretive schemes are being used in the organizational everyday life whenever human beings are producing and exchanging meaning (see Hertel & Fast, 2009). Our approach towards changes is in contrast to the approach of Eisenberg, Andrews, Murphy & Laine-Timmerman (1999) perceiving first-order changes as minor changes such as quality assurance, structural changes, ISO etc. and second-order changes as changes in the aim of the organization. In some cases change in the aim of the organization creates change in the organizational members’ interpretive schemes, but changing the aim of the organization does not necessarily effect or change the mental schemes. The reason for highlighting the importance of the mental schemes is our conception of organizations as social constructions (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). Mental schemes are also connected with perceiving human being as “...an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun...” (cf. Geertz, 2000, p. 5). It is therefore important to focus on how members of the organization produce and exchange meaning with others inside and outside the organization. The consequence of this approach is to maintain a focus on the interpretative scheme of the staff; middle managers and managers. But since the concept of interpretative schemes often are connected with cognitive psychology it is important to introduce the concept (cf. Peirce, 1998, p. 478) interpretant known from the peircean semiotics.

Interpretants could be explained as the coding system used by e.g. employees while producing and exchanging meaning in everyday organizational life. The employees will obviously not have identical codes – since it require cf. Lotman (1990) being ramifications of the same personality. Organizational members understand each other since they have comparable codes developed (cf. Berger & Luckmann, 1990) though processes of secondary socialization. The organizational context is basically a vehicle for the institutionalization of (cf. Mead, 2005) social acts involving a typified production and exchange of meaning.

After the 2nd seminar Thomas notices a low employee involvement and concludes the seminars have to change. Thomas decides to use a new type of seminar involving a short presentation of the objectives, visions and values of the organization. Afterwards the staffs are divided in subgroups to discuss their perception of the organization and its values. After this session Thomas pairs the groups into new groups, which start a discussion about the values of the organisation. The groups are composed of people not working closely in the everyday organizational life. In plenum, composed by staff members and management, each group present
their suggestions, comments etc. and afterwards plenum decides the values, visions etc. being applicable for the following year. During the following year staff meetings are held regularly in order to discuss the common interpretation of values, visions etc. of the organization. According to Thomas the seminars are an essential discussion about the values and their eligibility. Values have been changes or abolished as a consequence of the seminars.

Organizations are changed when the interpretants of the actor involved are changed. Actors cannot be understood as passive subjects just awaiting adjustments of their interpretants. They are on the contrary active subjects influencing their own and co-worker’s interpretants. Whenever interpretants are changed new meaning is produced and that might create a change or adjustment of the existing (cf. Mead, 2005) social acts. The interplay between production of meaning and the social acts is not determined by changes in social acts established before or after changes in the interpretants. Beside from that variations in existing social acts are not clear evidence of the interpretants being changed. The mutual interplay between interpretants and social acts either maintains or changes meaning produced and exchanged in the organization.

We notice variations in how the staffs actually perceive the seminars. Members of the permanent staff describe the seminars as trivial but also an opportunity to influence the organization and its decision-making. Members of both the permanent and the temporary staff experience the seminar being a place for introducing new employees to the organization and its core values. The temporary staff do not consider the seminar as an arena for influence. Based on our observations we can conclude that the seminars has changed from low involvement of the employee to a situation with some involvement of temporary staffs and high involvement of permanent staffs.

There are probably multiple reasons for organizational changes and some managers seem to have a basic belief in “shaking” organizations in order to change, what they perceive as, hard core power positions. Organizational changes are (cf. Benson, 1979) mainly a result of dialectic contradictions within an organization. Members of an organization will seemingly have comparable interests but it is actually their conflicting interests, which work as vehicles for organizational changes. In some situations one cannot determine a crystal clear aim with organizational changes – since the aim start to exist (cf. Weick, 1995) as a retrospective post reflection. One reason for this might be meaning (cf. Weick, 1995) coupled to organizational changes retrospectively. But it is also a result of organizational changes being established as a consequence of employees experiencing (cf. Schultz, 2005) the chock of noting that their existing interpretants being unable to comprehend reality as experienced. Such a chock offers an impression that something need to be changed but it seldom provide a deeper understand of the scope, character, or depth of such changes. A rational explanation of organizational changes will (cf. Weick, 1995) always be something constructed though a retrospective cognitive process.

The case study described above describes two quite opposite paradigms of organizational changes and change communication. In the following sections we will develop a theoretical frame for the two paradigms (the campaigning and the organize paradigm) in change communication.

Organizational Campaigning
In organization studies (cf. Kotter, 2012) change communication is understood as the presentation techniques or methods most suitable for influencing members of the organization, in order to make them accept changes initiated by the powerful guiding coalition. Change communication becomes the doctrine of, how campaigning can make employees and middle managers excited about changes, or at least make them realize the pointlessness of resistance. The impact of this approach will mainly be gaining the “positive” staffs and middle leaders for the changes, and make the “negative” voluntarily or not find another job. Such an approach towards change communication will in this article be named organizational campaigning, and it is understood as an approach based on the belief that changes must be transmitted or communicated to “positive” staff members.

Organizing Communication
The oppositional approach will here be named organizing communication and it is based on the belief that nothing can be changed, before communication itself has being changed. The expression change communication is obviously composed by two words: change and communication. One thereby gets the opportunity to emphasize either changes or communication. In some cases appreciation is placed on changes, and then one notice the silhouette of the campaigning paradigm. Consequently will appreciation placed on communication be a vehicle for the organize paradigm. An example of the campaigning paradigm is Petersen (2005, p. 43) stating that change communication ought to be defined as the strategic communication produced in purpose of implementing the managements change requirements among employees, in order to ensure the distribution of the right organizational culture. Petersen’s (2005) statement seems to replace a dialogical communication (e.g. Madsen, 1997, p. 9) with a one-way communication distributing the right organizational culture.

Petersen’s use of the expression strategic communication can be seen as an indication of the campaigning paradigm’s ideal of change communication as a well-planned and rational activity (e.g. Kotter, 2012). But despite of that, change communication will always somehow relate to the general communication strategy regardless whether the communication strategy is perceived as an intended plan or as emergent process (cf. Mintzberg, Ahlstrand & Lampel, 1998) in the everyday communication activities or communication culture (Frandsen, 2007). Here we should probably state, that in our perception communication strategy must be a
Planning is one of the distinctive features of the campaigning paradigm, and it is a consequence of the belief that management by using campaigning activities can implement the changes among staffs and middle managers. Corporation communicational experts will produce communication products or activities at a strategic level, monitored and sanctioned by management. The connection between the company’s communication strategy, and the campaigning paradigm can also be understood as an attempt to create coherences between the communication activities in the company. Communication literature offers different attempts to define the strategy concept. Sepstrup (2007, p. 174) and others use the concept to describe the action plan or part of such an action plan but such a use of the concept might create disturbance. Organizational studies, as well as in communication studies, offers a distinction between the strategic, the tactic and the operational level (Rasmussen in Gelsing, Gjerding, Nielsen, Rasmussen & Vinding 2007, p. 18 and Sepstrup, 2007, p. 176). The strategic level is perceived as the overall, long-term goals while the tactic level is perceived as the road to these goals, and the operational level is the stand-alone communication campaigns, activities or initiatives. This division might be challenging to handle in real life, and the Communication Department in Danish Defence, for example prefer a two-part strategy (Buntzen & Mathiesen in Kirk, 2008Sepstrup, 2007). The first and overall strategic level is the communication policy (Jørgensen & Windfeld, 2005), while the second tactic/operational level is perceived as the communicative focus areas of the organization. The communication policy describes mission, vision, objectives, and values of the organizational communication, and it ends by pinpointing the communicative focus areas of the following period. The expiration date, evaluation criteria and methods are described at both a strategic level and a tactic/operational level. At the strategic level the strategic aims and the communication activities of each of these focus areas are described.

Change communication is basically equivalent to other communication activities executed by the organization. Coherence between change communication and mission, vision, objectives, and values as part of a company’s communication strategy is quite important. In case of a mismatch one ought to adjust either the communication strategy, or the change communication in order to create coherence. Obviously this can only work as a starting point since change communication is not only a question about planning but also includes emergent strategy processes with an interplay between members of the organization and the change communication. Such interplays seem neglected by the campaigning paradigm’s belief in planning. Apparently the campaigning paradigm is based on the assumption of communication planning and knowledge of the target group ensuring the dissimilation of the managements change messages.

Senders and Receivers
In literature criticism Umberto Eco, among others, describes a concept named the implied reader (Eco in Olesen & Kelstrup, 1981) quite valuable while evaluating change communication. The implied reader is the expectations facing the reader, while reading the text. It is a combination of competences, skills, experiences, knowledge, norms, cultural values etc. required for reading the text. This include e.g. grammaticality for understanding the text, as well as reading skills required by the readability index. It is obviously also a question about a lexical, or cultural knowledge required for understand the reality experienced by the protagonist. The implied reader is to some extent comparable with the concept of the model reader. The model reader is applied in literature of communication planning (e.g. Ingemann in Ingemann & Kjørup, 2002), and it is considered useful while dealing with the characteristics of a target group. Communication planning (cf. Mostov, Sondergaard & Østergaard, 2005) replaces a model reader with perception matrices (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2004, p. 104) and classification patterns (Bourdieu, 1995, 37). Perception matrices focus on the subject and its creation of a worldview and perception of the world. It is influencing the subject’s action including the communicational acts. They are interconnected with the habitus of the subject, which is here understood as the disposition of the subject being a result of primary socialization processes in childhood, and the secondary socialization processes in adulthood (Bourdieu, 2005, p. 220). Despite perception matrices and the implied reader might appear to be different concepts, they are both applied by the communication industry, while predicting the reader in order to include this knowledge in the production of (media) texts.

Since we are dealing with change communication, we will transform the implied reader to the implied employee (understood as staff and middle managers). Change communication will always contain an implied employee (receiver), and thereby also an implied sender, the managers. These concepts are useful while planning, executing or analysing change communication produced in an organizational context. But the concept might also be applied for analysing the ontological and epistemological approach included in the paradigms of change communication. An example could e.g. be analysing Kotter (2012), in order to show how the ontological approach included in the campaigning paradigm, and while doing so one might notice employees being reduced to objects. The implied employee is not only a reflection of a change communication; obviously the change communication is also producing its own implied employee. This is quite comparable to literature criticism, where the competences of the reader is being described as something evolving during the process of reading – e.g. by introducing the reader to the universe of the text and the vocabulary of the author. The development of reader competences is integrated in the reading process, and the reader is mainly unaware of the process. The implied expectations of a text are mainly unknown until the mismatch between the implied and the empirical reader becomes impossible to deny. In line of this will change communication not only reflect, but also be a co-producer of its own implied employee. Change communication will nearly unnoticeable introduce the expectations directed to and in some cases internalized by the employee. In some cases the mismatch between the implied employee of the change communication and the empirical employee becomes insurmountable. The result might make the empirical employee feel offended, and therefore
either rejecting or misunderstanding the change communication.

The organizing paradigm is built on the assumption that the communication must be changed in order to perceive the aims of the change communication. A new form of communication must be developed, and it is likely to be based on dialogue, and to some extend reciprocity between employees, middle managers and managers. Communication therefore becomes a matter of sharing something, and having something in common. This is turning away from the monologue (one-way communication) of the campaigning paradigm to a renewed form of communication. While analysing change communication one therefore ought to include the communication approach present in actual change communication. Since the campaigning paradigm focuses on efficacy the sender and the message (a certain organizational change) is the essential aspect. We can therefore describe such a change communication as sender-oriented communication. The counter position is a receiver-oriented communication developed in the tradition of media research (e.g. Jensen, 2008). Receiver-oriented communication focuses on the receiver’s production and exchange of meaning. Here we probably need to exclude the most radical receiver-oriented approach (e.g. Fish, 2000, p. 305 ff.).

The campaigning paradigm must be seen as part of the traditional communication paradigm, where communication is a matter of a sender transforming a message to a receiver. It is a sender acting strategic, in order to make the receiver react in a certain way. The desirable reaction is basically: changing the attitudes, values and behaviour of the receiver, and it is the needs or desires of the sender being the key point during the communication process.

**Communicative Acts**

The speech acts (Searle, 2005) of a management applying the campaigning paradigm will obviously reflect a sender-oriented communication. Important aspects of speech acts – is obviously that we act while talking, and this means we e.g. threaten, promise and rebuke one another. Such a discourse (cf. Ricoeur, 2002, p. 52) will involve (cf. Searle, 2005) three levels of acts: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary level. Analysing speech acts helps us to understand the relation, and mutual understanding of the communicators involved. Such analysing might offer a supplement to analysis of the implied employee. In the following section we will turn to the universal pragmatics, developed by Habermas (1997) with inspiration from e.g. Wittgenstein, Austin and Searle. Others (e.g. Eriksen, 1999) have already involved Habermas in organizational studies. Habermas’ universal pragmatics offers a distinction between communicative actions of importance, while dealing with change communication. Habermas’ distinctions might provide a point of departure for ethical discussions e.g. about conscious or unconscious manipulation in change communication.

Habermas constructs a main distinction between communicative actions and the strategic actions. The communicative action is basically an ideal situation, where people involved interact in a power-free space in order to obtain a common understanding about the content discussed. This requires four basic conditions:

Comprehensibility – the speaker must produce cohesive and understandable sentences.

Propositional truth – the sentence produced must offer something to be understand

Validity – communicators recognize each other in order to maintain mutual confidence and they must comply the norms and rules of conversations.

Sincerity – the speaker must be sincere and mean what he says (Habermas, 1997, p. 142 & Thyssen, 1999, p. 64).

During the communicative action communicators corporate sincerely, in order to obtain a common perception of the subject discussed. The communicative action must therefore take place in a power-free space, and it must involve equal communicators. Conversations that do not qualify can be described as strategic actions (Habermas, 1997, p. 264). Such actions are pursuing a certain aim, and they are involving communicators enrolled in a hierarchy of power. Strategic actions can be divided between open and hidden/closed strategic actions.

In open strategic actions the ends and means is either known or can be clarified though meta-communication. During closed strategic actions the ends and means will be unknown for some communicators, and they are actually becoming objects of others will. In such a case meta-communication about the ends and means will make the communication collapse. Closed strategic actions can be conscious attempt to manipulate or unconscious results of pathology.

Change communication cannot follow the ideal of the communicative actions since an organizational context involves different positions/roles, formal power and hierarchy. Change communication is therefore forced to include strategic actions. But the communicative action might be applied as a vehicle for discussing the degree of dialogue and mutuality, necessary for obtaining the ends and means of a change communication. The difference between open and closed strategic actions might work as a tool for discussing whether conscious or unconscious manipulation is part of a certain change communication. This pinpoints the importance of having ethical and moral discussions connected with change communication. In the following section we will deal with the conception of communication involved in the two paradigms of change communication.

**The Communicative Approach to Campaigning**

Advocates (e.g. Kotter, 2012) of the campaigning paradigm experience the change communication as mistaken or failed, if receiver and sender do not obtain identical messages. Just like ordinary textbooks in organizational studies (e.g. Jakobsen & Thorsvik, 2008, p. 241 ff.) the campaigning paradigm seems to follows the principles of the transmission model of
communication. Here communication is perceived as a matter of a sender encoding and sending information/messages to a receiver decoding the information/messages. The transmission school were founded by the engineers Shannon & Weaver during WW2 and published in 1949 (Fiske, 1990). They focused on the redundancy and predictability of the message, and its entropic and unpredictability. Shannon and Weaver assumed that all kind of noise means information is disappearing, and the message is therefore is being difficult to receive. The problem is critical for messages with high level of entropic or unpredictability, while it is less critical for messages with a high level of predictability and redundancy. Shannon and Weaver suggested either reducing or avoiding entropic e.g. by transmitting messages with high level of redundancy and predictability.

Some critics have stated that the problems seem to be communicators shifting from being senders and receivers. Several solutions have been suggested in order to solve the problem running from the linear model of communication. Some suggest transforming the receiver and the sender to communicators (e.g. Alrø & Kristiansen, 1988) while e.g. books of organization studies (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2008, p. 241) introduce a certain feedback system. None of these attempts seems to deal with more serious ontological and epistemological problems of the assumption of a message being the same for both sender and receiver. The transmission school produce a “thing metaphor” (Luhmann, 2005, p. 180) assuming that the sender is giving the receiver something. The thing metaphor and the assumption of the message being identical for sender and receiver must be rejected (Luhmann, 2005). The time dimension involved means the message cannot be identical for sender and receiver. The contextual understanding and the interpretation of the context depend on the position people take during the communication. Since the transmission school is not paying attention to the time dimension, it is also neglecting different positions and roles taking by the communicators. The communicators coding systems must vary, since they are developed as a result of their linguistic experiences memory, norms, values, culture and cultural background etc. If sender and receiver had identical coding system, they would (cf. Lotman, 2000, p. 13) be reduced to ramifications of the same personality. Since communicators take different positions and roles, messages do not exist as ‘das-ding-an-sich’ (Kant, 2003, p. 32) absorbable for the receiver. Messages appear as ‘das-ding-für-uns’ (Kant, 2003, p. 76), and interpretation is therefore an essential part of the communication.

The Communicative Approach in Organizing

The organizing paradigm is connected to the semiotic school. Semiotic here understood as the doctrine of the sign and it’s meaning, developed in both a European and an American tradition. Ferdinand De Saussure founded the European tradition, i.e. semiology, while C. S. Peirce founded the American tradition, i.e. semiotic. As a consequence of Umberto Eco’s work the two traditions have (cf. Jensen, 1990, p. 10) merged to one tradition named semiotic. Semiotic is interesting here since the concept of semiosis (Perice, 1998, p. 411) describes the endless production of meaning in a human being. The production of semiosis involves three elements: a sign (immediate sign), its meaning (the object) and the mental process (the interpretant) creating the connection between sign and its meaning. Semiosis is an endless process, since the sign is always part of changing sign-relations. By researching the productions of meaning one gets the opportunity of discovering the habits (Peirce, 1998, p. 479) or conventions governing semiosis, and one will thereby notice the phenomenological concept: intentionality (Gadamer, 2004, p. 215 and Rosensohn, 1974, p. 26) being essential. Intentionality shows that consciousness is always a consciousness about something, it is directed towards something (Clark & Fast, 2008, p. 91) and it is thereby coproducing the communicator’s understanding. Intentionality might be understood as underlying the conversation contributing to the creativity of the communicator’s interests, intentions and motives. Self-perception and the perception of the other involve intentionality. The intentionality of the communicator cannot be divided from the communicator’s background or interests, and it is therefore useless as a tool for face-to-face interaction analysis. It is not possible to operationalize internaturality and it is therefor useless in relation to interaction analysis, the intentionality concept is still essential for understanding human interactions.

In semiotics communication (Peirce, 1998, p. 477) is perceived as communicators cooperating about producing and exchanging meaning. If communicators produce different meanings, the interaction is neither perceived as mistaken or failing. The purpose is not optimization of the communication, and the ontological/epistemological approach is therefore being quite different from the one known noticed in the transformation school. The rejection of anything given a priori (Rosensohn, 1974, p. 92) as something unmediated and independent, shows the inspiration from Kant. Since the sign cannot appear a priori it appears as “das-ding-für-uns”, and that is actually another reason for our previous rejection of signs and their meanings being identical for the communicators involved in an interaction.

The reason why communicators understand each other is basically the context (f.eks. Eco, 2000, p. 241) playing a significant role in interpretations, and thereby semiosis. The context ought to be perceived in its broadest meaning, making even the communicators part of each other’s context. The position or role taking in the organization will have an influence on the communicator’s interactions, e.g. by influencing the interpretation process during interactions. Members of the same organization regularly develop, adjust and change the context dependent patterns of interactions in this article described as social acts (Mead, 2005). Social acts are widely recognized, since the members of the organization intuitively understand the mutual expectations addressed to their own and others actions in the organizational context. This intuition is the result of a continuing process of secondary socialization (Berger & Luckmann, 1990, p. 162) taking place in the everyday organizational life. In the following section we will focus on the organizational approach present in the two paradigms introduced above.
The Perception of Organizations

There seems to be a close coupling between one’s perception of organizations and one’s approach to change communication. Petersen (2005) states that change communication is basically about implementing the “right culture” in the organization and thereby she obviously establishes a strong connection to Schein’s functionalistic approach to organizational culture. The connection to Schein’s perception of culture indicates the campaigning paradigm belonging to a functionalistic (Clark & Fast, 2008) tradition of organization studies. John P. Kotter (Kotter, 2012) who is another central figure in the campaigning paradigm considers communication being an instrument or a tool for implementing the change plan of the management or coalition. The campaigning paradigm consists of a combination between a strong management perspective, and a tool-oriented perception of change communication.

The campaigning paradigm is not necessarily linked to the technical-rational tradition of organizational changes (Borum, 2001) it might as well be linked to the tradition of organizational development (French & Bell, 1999) build on a systemic approach to organizations. Anyone experiencing both a technical-rational and an organizational development (OD) process will most likely notice the major differences in the values of the two different approaches to organizational changes. One difference is a higher and deeper involvement of employees in the tradition of OD. In some part of organization literature (e.g. Arbnor & Bjerke, 1995) it is uncommon to establish a connection between a systemic and analytic approach to organizational studies, despite they (cf. Clark & Fast, 2008, p. 56) run from same the philosophy of science here named: functionalism. The systemic approach perceives an organization as a system of interplaying sub-elements. Change communication partly becomes a tool for the change agents attempt to change the system, and a part of the new system arising during the change process. Communication becomes an element interacting with other elements and thereby developing, maintaining or changing the organizational system. Communication and change communication is thereby being evaluated in terms of utility, which here must be understood as its ability to implement the change wishes of management.

The campaigning paradigm contains both elements of a technical-rational change tradition and elements of OD tradition. If the organizing paradigm ought to break away from the campaigning paradigm, it must run from a philosophy of science being distinct from the functionalistic approach to organizational studies. Such an approach is sometimes (cf. Arbnor & Bjerke, 1995) named actors approach, or (cf. Clark & Fast, 2008) the life-world tradition or a hermeneutic phenomenological tradition of science (Gadamer, 2004) showing clear inspiration from phenomenology and hermeneutics. In this perspective change communication becomes a description of how employees are actively involved in the development and changes of the social actions (Mead, 2005), or in other words: the context dependent patterns of interactions. Change communication means involving the members of the organization in changing their own mutual patterns of interactions. This will include a change of the mutual expectations to own and others actions in context dependent patterns of interactions. Such change processes could probably be described as a learning process or a new secondary process of socialization (Berger & Luckmann, 1990, p. 162). In the following section we will describe, how one can analyse change communication.

Analysing Change Communication

Change communication must be perceived as a discourse interplaying with other types of discourses and it is therefore a part of the (cf. Fairclough, 2001, p. 24) discursive order of the organization. The change communication cannot be perceived isolated, but must be considered in relation to its interplay with other organizational discourses. Such discourses could e.g. be daily coordinating and collaborating meetings, job interviews, performance and development meetings, salary negotiations etc. Analysing the different discourses and the communication strategy enables us to make a description of the communication policy or communication culture of the organization. The discourse located in an organization depends obviously on the organizational context, and it cannot be described without empirical studies. The discursive order produces and interplays with the social order (Fairclough, 2001, Bernstein, 2001, p. 80). The social order is produced by (Fairclough, 2001, p. 31) the subject-positions or roles (Mead, 1977) taking by employees, middle managers and managers. Analysing the discursive and social order offers: an opportunity to understand the context of the change discourse, and the subject-position or roles at play and the aims of the change process.

The social order is a consequence of (cf. Cooley, 1998, p. 131) the interactions between members of the organization, and it must therefore be perceived in relation to the mutual role expectations (Mead, 2005) present in the organization. Despite of being dynamic and evolving, the social order is rarely changed radically. Analysing the mutual role expectations evolved during the process of change communication offers an opportunity to uncover the implied employee, receiver, and the implied leader, sender. The change discourse can be uncovered by analysing the interaction between employees and managers. In some cases this might result in an alternation between sender- and receiver-oriented communications.

Change communication is part of the discursive space required for changing organizations. Analysing the change communication as a discursive space enables us to uncover the staffs’ and managements’ perception of organizations and changes. Since change communications, and e.g. the roles included, are social constructions they must be established and accepted by members of the organization. Acceptance of the change communication is based on the legitimation established by implicit and explicit arguments. Burning platforms (Kotter, 2012) might be an example of implicit and explicit arguments used for legitimating organizational
changes as well as change communication. As a result of this the legitimization of change communication can contain both open and closed strategic actions (agendas), not necessarily known by all involved. Analysing the change communication seems to show the relevance of discussing Habermas’ distinction between open and closed or hidden strategic actions. Analysing the legitimization of change discourses should probably include the combination between text analyses of documents (e.g. invitations to meetings, minutes, strategy notes etc.), participant observations and qualitative interviews with staff, middle managers and managers.

Conclusion
This conference paper introduces concepts useful while analysing the two paradigms of change communication. Whenever change communication is perceived as a tool (e.g. Petersen, 2005), applied by the management, to communicate changes to the staff/ middle managers it will become an essential part of organizational changes. In such cases we will most likely notice the skeleton of the campaigning paradigm. But change communication cannot be reduced to a relation between sender, management, and receiver/target group, employees and middle managers. Instead employees and middle managers must be seen as co-producers of meaning produced in connection to change communication. The meaning produced and exchanged during change communication must be seen as a result of the interactions between managers, middle managers and employees. Thereby we notice the softly silhouette of the organize paradigm.

Change communication might be clear examples of the two paradigms introduced above but other examples will probably show either a mixture of or switch between the two paradigms.

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Overt vs. Covert Social Messages in a TV Serial: Çocuklar Duymasın

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Abstract
Currently, the television has become the main storyteller of our time. Parallel to this development, the numbers of Turkish TV serials have proliferated and become very popular. In order to make best use of this popularity, Radio and Television Supreme Council in Turkey passed a law on the 3rd of March December 2013. According to this law, television and radio programs are considered to be responsible for providing information, joy and education through their production for the television and the radio. This law suggests that the media should take education function more seriously. It also advises that the serials should inform people and raise their awareness on significant social issues. It has been observed that Turkish TV serials take up this suggestion.

Among the Turkish television serials, Çocuklar Duymasın (Don’t Let Children Hear) is one of the Turkish TV serials that has been broadcasted in a variety of TV channels for years. Usually, TV serials tell stories and thus give covert messages from which the audience is expected to form an opinion on the topics. Unlike others, this particular TV serial gives both overt and covert social messages. In 2013, this serial was broadcasted three times a week. There were 160 episodes. The theoretical background of the study takes upon the Cultivation Theory by George Gerbner in 1998. Cultivation Theory is used to show how television cultivates culture and how television informs the audience on important social issues. Throughout the study, content analysis is used as the data collection method in order to analyze 100 sections of Çocuklar Duymasın broadcasted in 2013. This serial was broadcasted three times a week in 2013, there were 160 episodes. Content analysis is preferred as a means for systematic, objective and quantitative analysis of TV serial’s characteristics. While doing the content analysis, a checklist is prepared in order to code in the data collected for the study. For the coding sheet, all characters are examined whether they give overt or covert social messages and the topic of the messages were recorded in order to show in which areas social messages are given.

Keywords: Turkish TV Serials, Cultivation Theory, Content Analysis, Çocuklar Duymasın

Turkish television serials flourished in the new millennium due to the increase in the private Turkish television channels, developments in television production and other related areas of technology and the urge for marketing the domestic products expedited the TV serial production, giving the room for advertisements and investing some of the money from the promotions into serials’ production. Indeed, television producers take their roles to have financial control. They produce a program under their intellectual income to earn much more money through the program that they produce (Mayer, 2011).

The New Law for the TV Serials
The increased number of TV serials stood as an indicator of high number of audience. Taking this advantage on the 3rd of March in 2011, the law which is called 6112 618 was enacted by Radio and Television Supreme Council for the TV Serials in Turkey. According to this law, the media are responsible for providing information, joy and education through their products such as the activities in radios and on television (Aziz, 2013). In other words, this law suggests that the media should take education function more carefully and also advises that the serials inform people on significant social issues (Aziz, 2013).

This law has had an influence on the Turkish TV serials. Çocuklar Duymasın (Don’t Let Children Hear) is one of the TV serials that took this suggestion very seriously. In the serial, in addition to the covert messages, which is natural for TV serials, from time to time, overt messages are given. This gives the audience a taste of public announcement rather than a relaxing sitcom. Based on this, the present study draws upon the Cultivation Theory of Gerbner (1998) as the theoretical framework.

Cultivation Theory
Cultivation Theory by Gerbner (1998) explains how television cultivates culture and how the television becomes the ultimate storyteller of our time. According to Gerbner (1998) “Television neither simply creates nor reflects images, opinions and beliefs. Rather it is an integral aspect of a dynamic process. Institutional needs and objectives influence the creation and distribution of mass-produced messages which create, fit into, exploit and sustain the needs, values and ideologies of mass publics.” (p. 180). Thus, cultivation research looks at the mass media as a socializing agent and investigates the approaches of audience to the real facts. According to this theory, people are classified into two broad groups as: heavy viewers and light viewers. Those people who watch the television less than 4 hours are classified as light viewers and people who watch the television more than 4 hours are categorized as heavy viewers. The heavy viewers are exposed to more violence. Thus, Gerbner (1998) points out that the Mean World Syndrome shown on the television affects heavy viewers more than light viewers.

On the other hand, Barthes (1957) maintains that all texts such as films, photographs, fashion, advertising, etc are myths. Everything means something. Meaning is based on every concept rather than on any reason or system. Barthes (1957) develops a common vocabulary for the critical analysis of mass culture. He takes into consideration Saussere’s concept of signifier and
signified as the second order semiological system to analyze myths. For Barthes (1957), a myth is distortion and regression from meaning to form. A myth leads to a change. This change exists as a result of the transmission of the meaning from linguistic sign to the mythical signifier. Thus, Barthes puts for the concept of the “writerly reader”. According to Barthes, the readers should be active to criticize the messages given by the authors (Barthes, 1957). In other words, the author should take upon a rather passive role while the readers are evaluating the messages in the text.

Barrett (2003) uses Barthes’ concepts of denotation and connotation to show how advertisements articulate the images of visual culture through the messages in advertisements. Images and objects in advertisements show ideas as if they are real. They encourage beliefs for either strengthening or refusing opinions and values. Barrett (2003) also states that in a television program, many messages are successfully articulated to make the audience under the effects of the characters. Çocuklar Duymasın is one of the series that articulates the ideas and beliefs, as if they are true through denotative and connotative meanings. Therefore, the audience gets overt and covert messages as the messages, which are their own truths.

The role of television serials as the storyteller of our time is assumed to be telling stories in a relaxed atmosphere. Yet, the new law in Turkey leads the scenarists to give open messages in order to adhere with the law and obtain some benefits from it.

Bednarek (2012) states in her book *Language of Fictional Television: Drama and Identity* that the audience evaluate how characterization and identity works and how ideologies in any serial are accepted as truth because she supports that the characters in any serial declare their attitudes about anything or anybody. Consequently, the audience accept the ideas and messages of the characters in the serial when the audience watch the characters in the serial. In Çocuklar Duymasın, when the characters like Meltem, Idil or Haluk give overt or covert messages, the audience are under the influence of these messages. The audience take the messages directly and start behaving like the characters in Çocuklar Duymasın. For example, Haluk who is one of the popular characters represents a less emotional father whereas Meltem represents a rather emotional mother. Meltem uses an emotional language and facial expressions but Haluk is a very traditional man who would like to control his family through his wishes and obligations. Thus, in Turkey, the audience takes characterization, identity and messages of characters by naturalizing their ideas and messages in the serial. The audience starts imitating the characters in the serial through the messages that are given by the characters. Hence, the characters are used to give the ideas to the audience. The producers shape the audience’s identities and worldview through the characters’ sayings and messages.

When Çocuklar Duymasın started to be produced in 2004, the serial focused more on telling stories and thus giving covert messages like all other TV serials. When it started to be broadcasted again after 5 years, it started to focus more on overt messages. This provides an opportunity to the audience to hear the message directly, leaving no room for imagination or comments.

The present study seeks to draw attention on the two types of messages TV serials convey: overt and covert messages. It is assumed that TV serials convey covert social messages. In other words, the audience draws the meaning they like from the episodes. Yet, although Çocuklar Duymasın conveys covert messages a lot, from time to time, the serial presents overt social messages. Indeed, at times, the serial sounds like a lecture. The present study seeks to find out the frequency of overt and covert messages in 100 episodes of the sitcom with their themes.

**History of Çocuklar Duymasın**

For the present study, Çocuklar Duymasın, which is a popular sitcom produced in Turkey, is preferred. Actually, this sitcom is one of the not only the most popular, but also the one with the longest duration. It has been around for more than a decade. Initially, Birol Güven produced Çocuklar Duymasın in 2002 for the TV channel TGRT. In this channel, 14 episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın was shown. Later, from January 2002 to 16 May 2002, it was transferred to another channel: from TGRT to Atv. During these days, 50 episodes were produced. Then, Çocuklar Duymasın was shown in Star channel for 32 episodes. During these years, Çocuklar Duymasın, was shown in 3 different channels at different times. After 2004, the name of this sitcom changed into “What will happen to children?” due to the problems of the main characters: Meltem (mother and wife) and Haluk (father and husband). This serial started again in August 8, 2004 by Birol Güven and it finished in March 2005 (Özsoy, 2005). Morever, ÇocuklarDuymasın started be reproduced in Atv in 2010. Lastly, Fox TV produced this sitcom during the period between 2013 and 2014. It finished in 160 episodes (Facebook.com/Cocuklar Duymasın, 2015). This sitcom presents important roles of individuals in the lives of a modern Turkish family. Güven contends that even if there are different types of families in Turkey, they have similar social roles, life-styles, traditions and cultures. Therefore, he analyzes these roles taken in and the life-styles of the Turkish families to enlighten audience about the Turkish culture (Özsoy, 2005).

**Scenario**

Initially, the story of this sitcom was related to a specific modern, nuclear Turkish family, a working mother, a working father, a teenager daughter and a young son) and revolved on family issues. The mother represents western and the father represents the orientalist values of Turkish people. This distinction constantly leads to a conflict in the family. When the parents did not want their young kids to hear their discussions, they went to kitchen from the living room in order to carry out a discussion on the matters, they did not want their children to hear. So that, they hoped their children would not hear their arguments and would not
see their tough behaviors towards each other. In a nutshell, they would like to protect their children by keeping these children out of the tension between the parents. Thus, the name of the serial is “Don’t Let the Children Hear”.

When it started to be reproduced, this time the children grew up and became young adults. Indeed, soon, their daughter became a lawyer and married the boy she chose. The son of the family started to go to the university and stays in a flat with his friends. Later on the father got retired and started a business with his wife’s the best friend. Then, they moved to a house from their flat and started to live in a house and there their neighbors started to be involved in the story. Basically, the sitcom is on to the family related issues, such as gender roles, difficulties of being a parent, managing the income of the family, etc.

In addition to the long lasting characteristic of the sitcom, which indicates its popularity among the Turkish audience, particularly the episodes of the sitcom, which were broadcasted after 2013, stand out with overt messages given to the audience. This, in a way makes the serial unique and the provider of overt social messages. It is suspected that this change is due to the change in law.

Characters in the Serial
Meltem is the leading character in the serial. She is an ideal mother. She is the Human Resource Director of the company she works for. She is a well-groomed wife, a good daughter, a faithful friend and a good neighbor. Meltem has good relationships with her family members and people around her. Meltem always solves the problems with people through interaction. Haluk is the father of the family. Even if he sounds like a stronger man, he is married to a woman with a strong character and as Haluk considers himself as a macho Turkish man he is consciously involved in discussions with his wife. Meltem constantly puts her point through and convinces him through discussion. Most of the stories in the serial are on the tension between wife and husband.

Duygu, their daughter has grown up, got married and has become a lawyer. She takes her mother as her role model and now she is a mother herself. Emre, the son of the family, is a university student. He is relaxed child. Emre has a close friend whose name is Teo. They fall in love with two sisters who are Emre’s neighbors. These are Melis and Ece. They are university students. Idil, the next-door neighbor is a psychologist. She is a very calm person. When she faces the problems in her life, she is always calm and reasonable. She always gives suggestions to people to make them solve their problems. She is the sound of the reason in the serial. Idil also has a good relationship with her next-door neighbor Meltem. When Meltem has a problem, Idil gives some suggestions to Meltem. Tansel is Idil’s husband. He is a gourmet. Tansel and Haluk do not have a good relationship but their wives make them meet for the special occasions. Both Meltem and Idil have a lady to help them with the housework at home. Emine and Hatice are cleaners in their homes. Emine and Hatice help Meltem and Idil with housework.

Hüseyin is Emine’s husband. Şükrü is Hatice’s husband. Both Hüseyin and Şükrü work in the café of Gönül and Haluk. Both of them do not want to take any responsibilities. Gönül is Meltem’s closest friend. She is married to Tuna. She has a son from his first marriage. The name of the son is Orçun. His nickname is Cement (Beton). He takes Haluk as his role model as Haluk is his fathers’ best friend and is a macho man. His stepfather is rather gentle when compared to Haluk. Beton is a very intelligent boy who analyzes all events around him. Gönül is a very dominant woman who earns her own life. Tuna is a very passive husband who follows all directions and wishes of his wife. Both of them have close relationships with Idil and Tansel.

Moreover, there is a character called Adem. Adem is added to the serial later after the law. Adem is an intellectual philosopher and expresses idioms to enlighten Turkish people about popular culture and well-known people. In the serial, he is like a teacher. Ismail who is the former patron of Haluk represents Turkish Casanova men. He always tries to have girl friends to have love. All these important characters are created to represent life styles of a variety of families in Istanbul.

Though this sitcom, both overt and covert messages are given. The present study is significant for it is the first study that is based on the content analysis of serials’ messages in term of its nature: overt or covert with respect to the Turkish television serials.

Methodology
Content analysis is preferred as the data collection method for the present study. This is a case study of the TV sitcom ‘Çocuklar Duymasmış’. For the study, out of 160 episodes 100 episodes of the new production (2013) are observed for recording overt and covert messages and a checklist is developed where data is entered on. In the checklist, number of the overt and covert messages, their contents and the characters who utter the message is noted. In doing this, it is hoped to explore the topics the sitcom seeks to provide messages and the nature of the topics and the gender who gives the message. Two codes separately watched and recorded the data to obtain inter-rater reliability.

As it has been mentioned earlier, mainly the serial revolves around a nuclear family consisting of a father, mother, daughter and brother and other families that are their close friends, neighbors, workers, colleagues and all these people’s relatives and other personae like the policeman. All the overt and covert messages are calculated and entered into SPSS programe.

Findings
The messages gives in the 100 episodes of the serial are categorized as overt or covert messages. The Table 1 below indicates the names of the characters and how many times they give overt messages.
### Table 1. Characters and The Number of Overt Messages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Characters</th>
<th>Number of overt messages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meltem</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haluk</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duygu</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emre</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teo</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kemal</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emine</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hüseyin</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hatice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sükrü</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yakup</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gönül</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuna</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ismail</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İdil</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tansel</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melis</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ece</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adem</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yamac</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İdris</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didem</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tayyar</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alp</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nezaket hoca</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bertug</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all, there are 487 overt messages. Women utter 233 overt messages whereas men utter 254 overt messages. These overt messages are categorized into five categories as educated women, barely-literate women, educated men, barely-literate men and philosophers.

It is shown in Table 1, that the educated women who are Meltem, Gönül and İdil give more overt messages than the barely-literate women. İdil gives 106 overt messages and this is the highest number of the educated women. Meltem gives 57 overt messages. In addition, Gönül gives 27 overt messages.

On the other hand, barely-literate women such as Emine and Hatice give 14 overt messages as a total. Emine gives 13 overt messages whereas Hatice gives 1 overt message. Since there are distinctions between the educated women and barely-literate women regarding the socio-economic differences in social and cultural life, their way of giving overt messages and the numbers of into the audience are completely different. When the educated men who are Haluk, Tuna and Emre are taken into account, it seems that their overt messages are more than the barely-literate men who are Hüseyin, Şükrü, Tayyar and Yakup. Haluk gives 49 overt messages to the audience whereas Tuna gives 31 overt messages. Additionally, Emre gives 20 overt messages throughout the 100 sections. When barely-literate men are taken into consideration, Hüseyin gives 5 overt messages, Şükrü gives 4 overt messages and Tayyar gives 12 overt messages. In addition, the philosopher who is Adem gives 60 overt messages to inform the audience. To sum up, the overt messages in Çocuklar Duymasın was mostly said by men. Moreover, some of the overt messages in Çocuklar Duymasın are presented as public announcements. For example, in episode 21, Haluk says that a person who drives a bicycle should drive this vehicle under the speed of 50 km in all cities of Turkey. In episode 23, İdil talks about the supreme punishment in Turkey. She states that this punishment firstly abolished in 2002. In episode 38, Meltem contends that fastening the seat belt...
is so safe for drivers. She also declares that 2013 is chosen as “the year of security” by the government of Turkey. Moreover, through the character of Meltem, the scenarist introduces the information technology crimes in episode 39. In some episodes, the characters provide solutions to people’s problems. For example, in episode 52, Idil states that a person can protect himself/herself from dangerous people with the help of the courts in their countries. Furthermore, in episode 56, Haluk states that individuals can easily give a call to a police by dialing 155 in Turkey. In episode 71, Şükrü introduces the procedures of voting in the elections of Turkey. Lastly, in episode 81, Tuna informs the audience about the rules and regulations of food industry in Turkey. These public announcements are offered by the scenarist to make the audience aware of the facts surrounding themselves.

The Table 2 given below presents the characters’ names and number of covert messages they give throughout the 100 episodes of the serial.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of characters</th>
<th>Number of covert messages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meltem</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haluk</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duygu</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emre</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kemal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hüseyin</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hatice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gönül</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuna</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merve</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ismail</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idil</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tansel</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didem</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tayyar</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nezaket Hoca</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Characters and The Number of Overt Messages

There are 78 covert messages in total. Women give 38 of the covert messages. When the educated women are considered, Table 2 shows that Meltem gives 15 covert messages and Gönül gives 4 covert messages, respectively. One of the barely-literate women who is Hatice gives only 1 covert message. On the other hand, men give 40 of the covert messages. The educated men who are Haluk and Tuna are giving 16 and 5 covert messages to the audience respectively. However, Hüseyin who is a barely-literate man only gives one covert message. These results confirm that the characters that are Meltem, Idil and Haluk give most of the covert messages to the audience.

Table 3 below illustrates the numbers of the topics for the overt and covert messages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Overt messages</th>
<th>Covert messages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beauty, Ageing, Health</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal development</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idioms</td>
<td>46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Famous people’s sayings</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information giving</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Topics and The Number of Overt and Covert Messages
The findings of the study point out that the number of overt messages is four times more than covert messages. When the number of information is checked, it is seen that 285 of the overt messages are giving explicit information to the audience. On the other hand, 44 of the covert messages are also named as information giving. These findings show that Çocuklar Duymasın has been produced by Birol Güven in order to enlighten the audience about Turkish culture, idioms, famous people’s sayings, trends in the world, important events such as globalization, etc.

Discussion and Conclusions
In the Cultivation Theory, Gerbner (1998) points out that the media; particularly the television cultivates the culture in the audience. This is done through telling the stories and letting the audience to deduce meaning from these. In this particular serial, the number of overt messages is far more than the covert ones. This distorts the relaxing nature of watching television. Instead of being the entertainer, the television becomes the instructor. This can be one of the reasons why the serial came to a halt.

In addition, Çocuklar Duymasın provides an opportunity for the audience to hear the messages directly, leaving no room for comments. Throughout the study, Barthes’ concepts of “the readerly writer” and “the writerly reader” are compared to evaluate the impact of the overt and covert messages on audiences. When the overt messages are analyzed, Barthes’ concept of the “writerly reader” becomes invalid for overt messages leave no room for comments. As Barthes (1957) states that “writerly reader” helps audience have different types of interpretations through their arguments. When the messages are given directly, the audience is limited in his/her boundaries for commenting. Thus, throughout the analysis, this serial distorts the genre of the television sitcom by giving direct messages to the audience. Shortly, these overt messages prevent the audience from thinking about the situation. This can create some nervousness in the audience. It is suspected that the serial is brought to a holt due to overcrowded by overt messages through the characters, particularly, the intellectual: Adem in the serial.

The majority of episodes focus on the topics that arise from the conflict between Meltem (mother, wife) and Haluk (father and husband). These two main characters provide role models not only for the audience but also for the other characters in the serial. Naturally, their children (Duygu and Emre) take their parents as role models. Also, people that demonstrate lower socio-economical status (like Emine, Hatice, Hüseyin and Şükrü) take Meltem and Haluk as their role models. In the serial, Meltem represents the modern western side of Turkish people and Haluk represents rather more oriental sides of the Turkish society. In the serial, there is a constant tension between the wife and husband based on their worldviews.

In relation to adding a philosopher, namely “Adem”, to the serial, it could be concluded that this character is added to give covert information to the audience. Since “each text is a myth” as Roland Barthes (1957) mentions, texts are identified with humans who utter them. Adem constantly mention famous philosophers such as Galileo, Einstein, Mevlana. etc. Referring to these internationally known and timeless people, Adem wants to cultivate international culture. This brings the audience to “desire of contemplation” (İnatçı, 2015), the scenarist would like to bring the public.

In the future, an audience research should/could be conducted in order to explore whether numerous overt messages is one of the reason why they stopped producing the serial. Also, a suggestion could be made for conducting an investigation through the web on the like page of the serial. Furthermore, overt and covert messages could be explored in other serials and comparative studies can be conducted.

References
Facebook.com/CocuklarDuymasin.
Political Advertising in the Crossroad of Political Pragmatism and Political Ideology

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The study of political advertising so far could be an exemplar of the schism that permeates the whole study of political communication nowadays; the schism between the politics of pragmatism and the politics of ideology. This paper comes to counter-argue that the study of political advertising can become an exemplar of the reconciliation of these two different areas of concern in so far as we do justice to the ontological status of discourse in political communication. This means that we should not take discourse to be a derivative of electoral design, as the legacy of modernization has taught us, but to be the primary locus where all strategies of political communication are meaningfully articulated. It is not, however, the articulation on the basis of political philosophy (ideology in liberal political theory) and for the reproduction of the social order (ideology in critical cultural studies) that grasp the ideological potential of contemporary, aestheticized and managerialized, political communication. It is rather, as I will argue, drawing on post-structuralist discourse theory, the re-contextualization of symbolisms from the past, interwoven with the precarious institutional interests and asymmetries of the present, which lies at the heart of the ideological potential of political advertising. It is, therefore, a discourse-based analytics of ads that we need so as to grasp the conditions of possibility for this potential.

Introduction

Televised political advertising has a history of more than fifty years in political communication and, so far, has massively attracted empirical research, primarily in terms of its efficacy in conveying messages to the electorate and in causing certain effects on political behaviour, attitudes and knowledge. Presidential spots in the US, for instance, have been found to constitute an even more successful source of issue learning about candidates and parties than television news coverage or televised debates (see Kaid et al, 2007, Kaid, Fernandes and Painter, 2011). Political ads have been, repeatedly, argued (rather ambiguously though) to have direct effects on voting, either by changing or by reinforcing electoral preferences, and more importantly, indirect and much more pervasive effects on the perceptions of the political process in general, especially on the merits by which candidates are judged (e.g. name recognition, stances on issues, image attributes, etc.) (Ansolabehere and Iyengar, 1995, Cwalina, Falkowski and Kaid, 2000, Kahn and Geer, 1994, Kaid and Sanders, 1978, Kaid, Chanslor and Hovind, 1992, Atkin and Heald, 1976, Kaid, 2002). The quantitative-ridden character (experiments, surveys, content analysis) of this great deal of empirical research is more interested, however, in the establishment of epiphenomenal associations between the generic aspects of ads and the observed shifting or unchanging trends (of opinion, behaviour, etc.) in the electorate rather than in the in-depth and systematic analysis of genres (Scammell and Langer, 2006), especially, in terms of the discursive and, potentially, ideological features the latter may carry with them.

Of course, someone may, reasonably, ask: is it possible and of any practical value to learn about such things as ideology through TV – and electronically mediated in general – ads the major role of which is just to foster party electability by all means and at any cost? As Manuel Castells has posed it: “regardless of ideology and rhetoric in political discourse, only one thing matters for political parties and candidates in campaigning – winning. Everything else is a derivative” (2009, 228). As I wish to argue, however, behind this aphoristic approach to political pragmatism, lies a, widely shared, speculative account, crucially influenced by modernization theories, which, in fact, takes modern political communication to amount to a managerial activity that extensively conscripts aesthetic and emotional garnitures rather than ideologically bounded discourse so to re-attract disaffected voters from a wide range of socio-cultural backgrounds (Swanson and Mancini, 1996, Blumler and Gurevitch, 1995). It is necessary, therefore, before proceeding with any conceptual and analytical particularities in the study of ads, which will allow us to address the ideological potential of the latter, to critically revisit this popular interpretation of political pragmatism. The loosely called modernization thesis cannot be, actually, attributed to any specific writer but it is rather broadly re-constructible through the works of several thinkers, such as Dahl (1971), Luhmann (1975), Giddens (1990), Beck (1992) and others. What binds these, temporally distanced and, sometimes, epistemologically incongruent, accounts together is their common finding that the transition from pre-modern, feudal societies to the modern, industrial to the late-modern, post-industrial ones is a process of incessant secularization, rationalization and managerialized (see Thompson, 1990). For what I am interested in this paper, modernization thesis claims that the twentieth century, and more particularly the postwar period, signals the gradual decline of the highly divisive ‘grand narratives’ of liberalism, conservatism, socialism and communism as the major enclaves of political identification and mobilization. Political parties from the Right and Left considerably moved towards the center by agreeing with each other on fundamental issues about the structural arrangement of government; what has been loosely called ‘welfare consensus’ (or later, after the collapse of ‘neoliberal consensus’) (Blumler and Gurevitch, 1995, Swanson and Mancini, 1996, Hallin and Mancini, 2004, Dahlgren and Gurevitch, 2005). In a nutshell, political process has been ‘disenchanted’ by collapsing from the imaginary of passionate and zealous combat among well-established, rigid and coherent belief systems (politics of ideology) to the real experience of a complex bureaucratic and managerial activity (politics of pragmatism).

As I wish to argue, modernization thesis is crucially underpinned by an evolutionist interpretation of the development of modern
societies which overemphasizes both the fanatic polarity of the past and the rationalist moderation of the present, without considering potential continuities and resurgent dynamics. Among with the continuities which modernization has underestimated is the recent re-polarization and re-radicalization of the political landscape as a result of the resurgence of radical Right (e.g. neo-fascist parties, see the case of Golden Down in Greece or ultra-nationalist parties, such as the National Front in France), radical Left (e.g. neo-populist parties, such as the Podemos in Spain and the UKIP in Britain) and religious neo-fundamentalisms (e.g. the Islamic State). Consequently, even if political pragmatism is immersed in the managerial demands of political communication, the latter cannot be said to be completely disassociated from the historical debates around political organization and mobilization. The question is how exactly these benchmarks of the past are inserted into and realigned with the vehement flow of political competition and institutional destabilization of the present and with what consequences for political communication.

As several works, directly or indirectly concerned with the study of political ideology in modern politics and society, from political science (see Brock et al, 2005) to cultural studies (see Hall, 1982) to discourse theory (see Laclau and Mouffe, 1985) and analysis (see Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999), have pointed out, history penetrates political pragmatism primarily through language (discourse), what, later on, I will refer as intertextuality and interdiscursivity. As I will show in the next part of this paper, the relevant paradigms from both political theory/science and cultural studies try to do justice to the quintessential role of ideology in the politics of pragmatism by relating discourse to the effective exercise of power. They do so, however, in an essentialist/consensual (rational attainment of political consensus through discursive adherence on coherent philosophical currents) and a totalizing (reproduction of a dominant order though discursive dissimulation and normalization) way respectively. As I will try to argue, drawing on post-structuralist discourse theory, it is the multi-accentually power-imbribated discursive practice of re-contextualization of symbolisms from the past, and not the consensus-oriented or domination-sustaining discursive coherence and rationality, which constitutes the par excellence ideological work of the otherwise managerially-driven political communication. Taking the example of (electronic) political advertising, in the last part of this paper, I shall focus on the analytics of practices of political communication as the only means via which we can illustrate the ideological potential of the latter. As I will try to show, we need to carefully examine the generic aspects of ads so as to understand how the latter insert (re-contextualize) history, in the forms of symbolisms, into the alleged ephemerality of media politics and how the discursive formations that derive from this re-contextualization seek to reinforce the relational position of political parties in the broader political field.

The Discursive Rearticulation of Pragmatism and Ideology in Political Science, Critical Theory and Post-Structuralist Discourse Theory

Ideology as the Philosophically-grounded Discourse that serves the establishment of Political Consensus

Quite a lot of studies from within political science have grappled with the conceptual bifurcations and the place and role of ideology in political practice (Roucek, 1944, Mullins, 1972, Seliger, 1976, Hamilton, 1987, Lewins, 1989, Foley, 1994, Hoffman and Graham, 2006, Heywood, 2003, Freedon, 2003). The ‘least common denominator of these studies’ could be said to be the following: an ideology is, broadly, a belief system that organizes political thought and cements political practice, by justifying and legitimizing particular policy frames, on the basis of some common, historically consolidated, values. This ordering capacity of ideology needs to be credited to the rhetorical work of political language, Brock et al (2005) argue. Taking as their point of departure Burke’s understanding of language as communicative act, Brock et al echo other scholars from outside political science, such as Halliday (1994) and Fairclough (2003), in focusing on the specific functions or aspects of language that allow the meaningful articulation and, thereby, realization of a specific political act. In broad terms, language orders political practice by articulating a specific understanding of the situation in which we need to act – a definition of the reality –, by identifying specific subjects as a collectivity that share goals and pursuits – identity-making– and by charting specific forms of action as necessary and legitimate for the attainment of these goals – legitimation or justification.

Brock et al, however, deplore contemporary platforms of political communication, which exhaust their rhetorical aptitude to the simplification and personalization, as being deprived of a genuine ideological orientation. “They are devoid of historical content and offer little to predict how one group or the other will respond to changing circumstances. This lack of coherence, context, and predictability has a debilitating effect on political decision-making. […]” (2005, 2); it leads to the betrayal of trust, since political actors often fail to deliver promises based on ephemeral issue-oriented sloganized statements, and to the unviability of broader coalitions among political factions that are necessary for the effective exercise of power; it assures short-term winning of votes rather than long-term secured majorities. Consequently, the remedy to this ‘political gridlock’, according to the authors, is the systematic re-grounding of political motives and frames on broader, coherent and historically enduring, vernacular philosophies, such as the liberal, conservative, radical and reactionary position in American politics (ibid).

By relating ideology to the effective access to, securing and exercise of power through language, Brock et al have offered a very clear and powerful statement of the constitutive role ideology plays in political pragmatism. However, as I wish to argue, their analysis suffers from an essentialist conception of ‘proper political discourse’ as rational, coherent and primarily verbalized, deeply rooted in the still influential in political science legacy of Enlightenment. According to this conception, the distracting, disorienting and irrational nature of visuals and emotions, which are now argued to dominate platforms of political communication, such as the political ads (see Qualter, 1991, Franklin, 2004), are excluded from the sphere of the, alleged, pure
political thought. Such an ‘exclusion’, however, regrettably obfuscates the, always constitutive of the political, role of aesthetics, such as images, personality attributes, symbolisms and popular culture artefacts, in familiarizing the public with the, otherwise, abstract and distant institutional procedures of politics (see Pfeffer, 1981, March and Olsen, 1984, Cohen, 1974, Street, 1997, van Zoonen, 2004, Balmes and Sheafer, 2013) and of emotions as heuristic mechanisms of thought which can prioritize several political attitudes over others (see Damasio, 1994, Oatley and Jenkins, 1996, Berezin, 2002).

By this token, I do not want to imply that aestheticized politics necessarily serves substantive goals in any case. I rather want to stress that there is nothing, a priori, essentially denigrating, destructive or anti-rational (albeit it might be irrational or non-rational) in the visually articulated and emotionally motivated use of language, inasmuch as there is nothing essentially valuable, productive or pro-rational in the verbally articulated and ‘reason’-oriented use of language. Of course, the supporters of the idea of ‘proper political discourse’ are right in arguing that the trivializing and sensational aesthetic and emotional aspects of political discourse cannot articulate a coherent narrative grounded on political philosophy. The notion of coherence is highlighted here since it is considered to be a necessary condition for the effective exercise of power in terms of securing long term coalitions (Brock et al, 2005). This is, however, an assumption crucially predicated on a superficially consensual understanding of the effective exercise of political power (see Hall, 1982, Lukes, 2005). As several critiques have pointed out, and to which I shall now turn my attention, language cannot establish and serve political consensus since it is inextricably intertwined with the structural asymmetries, originated from class, gender, ethnicity, income level, inter-state competition, etc., that underlie its production and use in specific contexts.

**Ideology as the Discursive Dissimulation and Normalization of Asymmetries that secures Domination**

For the critical students, instead of the rational attainment of consensus, political language is oriented at constructing the consent of the subordinates in ways that the aforementioned asymmetries are concealed or normalized and, thereby, the dominant groups will continue to rule. As Gramsci has succinctly pointed out, for the hegemony of the dominant classes to be effectively sustained and reproduced, the interests of the latter should not be perceived by subordinates as being imposed on them but as converging the ‘common sense’ (1971), what Marx has also described as the universalization of interests of the ruling class (1970). From this point of view, dominant classes rule only in so far as they are capable of renewing the consent of the ruled. Stuart Hall, following Gramsci and Volosinov, has inevitably illustrated the inherently discursive nature of hegemony by stressing that social struggles around the construction of consent are conducted through several semiotic forms; the ‘sign becomes an arena of class struggle’ (1982, 77). Hall calls this semiotic struggle “the politics of signification” through which “different social interests or forces might conduct an ideological struggle to disarticulate a signifier from one, preferred or dominant meaning-system, and rearticulate it within another, different chain of connotations” (1982, 80).

This practice of disarticulation and re-articulation, which I shall call re-contextualization, is the par excellence mechanism of meaning-making in media platforms. Political ads, for example, which are the primary point of reference in this paper, extensively use signs which have been attached a symbolic meaning within a specific political culture (e.g. the red rose or the British bulldog in Labours’ ads of 1997), re-articulating them, through the aesthetics of the representational techniques of the medium, with conventional patterns from popular culture (e.g. horror/thriller or comedy patterns) (see Scammell and Langer, 2006, McNair, 2007). Critical cultural studies do not see this mediated ‘politainment’ with a good eye not because it defiles the sanctity of rational political discourse as such but because it gives rise to a political culture in which citizens-consumers are learned to valorize the superficial, episodic and personal aspects of the political spectacle at the expense of the underlying structural problems and inequalities. Aestheticized political discourse prevents people from questioning the social order, in other words, and, thereby, it secures the hegemony of the latter (Hall, 1977, Curran, Douglas and Whannel, 1980, Edelman, 1988, Iyengar, 1991).

Arguably, the insight we get from the critical paradigm in the study of ideology, that pragmatism in contemporary political communication, experienced through the managerially-driven use of the aesthetic features of mediated discourse, seeks to disseminate and/or normalize the widely conflictual and asymmetric nature of the social so as to serve the hegemony of a specific dominant order, is invaluable helpful in challenging the naïve consensusalism as underpinning the effective exercise of power. The question, however, is if in a context of radical antagonism and conflict among the numerous and permeable networks of power, we can still talk, first, about the – even temporary – existence of a single, unified and solid ‘social order’, ‘domination’ or ‘hegemony’ and, second, about the orchestrated dissimulation or normalization of social asymmetries as the only, necessary, discursive means of exercising power (Mouffe, 1999, Lash, 2007, Castells, 2009). As Thompson has acutely put it ”social theory can relinquish the need to find a conductor for the concert of social reproduction, not so much because this concert is performed without a conductor […] but because social reproduction is not a concert than a cacophony of discordant and divergent notes” (1984, 62). In such a fragile network of inextricably interrelated, and sometimes, mutually exclusive interests and permeable relations of domination, the exercise of power cannot be confined to the dissimulative and unifying function of language; it needs to be widened including all the potential ways, e.g. uncovering and fragmentation, via which the multimodal semiotic patterns of electronic ads and of other platforms of political communication seek to sustain some relations of domination and challenge some others.

**Ideology as a Discursive Practice of Re-contextualization of Symbolisms**

The critiques against both political science and cultural studies approaches to the ideological potential of language, I have articulated so far, are, crucially, moving within the framework of post-structuralist theory of discourse and power (see Laclau and
In both cases, what is underway is a practice of re-contextualization of symbolisms from the past in such a way so as a specific institutional setting to reinforce its relational position in the broader political field. If, however, fascism achieved to reinforce the relational position of the German ethno-socialist party in an extreme and totalitarian hegemonic way this should not be taken as the par excellence way via which re-contextualization serves the exercise of power. It is the particular social and historical conditions in the interwar period (e.g. politico-military competition, the economic slump and the nature of Hitlerian rule) that allowed this phenomenon and it is again the social and historical conditions in 90s (e.g. growing international uncertainty and instability, legitimacy crisis of institutions, disaffection) that did not allow the ‘Third Way’ project to amount to a form of total ideological domination, although this project led the British Labour party to three consecutive electoral victories and a full rebound in its governmental path.

The association of re-contextualization, however, with the relational reinforcement and not the hegemony of an institutional setting does not mean that the power potential of re-contextualization is exhausted at the level of electoral impact. The re-contextualization of symbolisms may be strategically planned by politicians, consultants, media-savvy persons, etc. as a weapon in the electoral fight but it also always, regardless of actors’ specific intentions, carries with it the social asymmetries and interests that are interweaved with the institutional setting within which this practice is situated (Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999). The re-articulation of the ‘British bulldog’, for example, a traditional symbol of British nationalism normally used by the Conservative party, with humanitarian and philanthropic connotations in Labours’ ads before the 1997 general election (see McNair, 2007), was surely contrived as a strategy to re-attract voters that had been disappointed by Labour’s stances on national issues without, however, ‘surprising’ them with a, rather alien for party history, hard-core nationalism. At the same time, this particular re-contextualisation of the symbolism of patriotism, seeks to legitimize international asymmetries deriving from the implied ‘British superiority’ on a new basis; superiority in ‘philanthropic, humanist and universalist’ rather than on ethnically essentialist terms. Consequently, re-contextualization must be conceived as discursive practice that always intersects with a multiple set of relations of domination by sustaining some of them and/or challenging some others at the benefit of the institutional setting within which it is situated.

Based on these remarks, I wish to argue that to study ideology is not to study the grand ideas and belief systems of the past as such but the socially and institutionally situated discursive practices though which symbolic fragments from these ideas and belief systems are re-contextualized giving rise to new discursive formations. Moreover, to study ideology is not to study these discursive formations in terms of their role in the establishment of consensus or hegemonic order but the different ways via which they intersect with the numerous and permeable relations of domination. Consequently, to the extent that platforms of contemporary, managerially-driven and aesthetically-ridden, political communication can operate as discursive practices of re-contextualization of symbolisms which seek to reinforce the relational position of an institutional setting within the broader political field (by sustaining some and/or challenging some other relations of domination), we can talk about the potential of political communication to constitute the substratum for the construction of political ideology and of the potential of political ideology to constitute the means via which the objectives of pragmatism may be pursued in political communication. In what follows, I shall delineate an analytical framework through which political ads as practices of political communication can be studied in terms of this potential, that is, in terms of a) how their systematized features and conventional patterns of signification may facilitate the re-contextualization of symbolisms and b) how re-contextualization and its discursive products intersect with relations of domination, thereby, enabling the institutional setting to make greater impact on the political field.

Towards an Analytical Framework of Understanding the Ideological Potential of Televised Political Advertising

The compositional structure of political ads, as well as of all other mediated forms of political communication, follows some conventional patterns of representation, which “tell familiar stories with familiar characters in familiar situations” (Grant, in Scammell and Langer, 2006, 770), known as genres. In discourse analytic terms, genre is taken to effectively materialize, in
the technologically inscribed multimodal forms of semiosis (pictorial, visual, verbal, etc.), patterns of social action and self-presentation that develop within specific institutional settings (see Fairclough, 2003; Chouliaraki, 2006). For instance, the ‘man-in-the-street or testimonial’ genre by representing lay persons in the contexts of their everyday life, construes politics as a directly accessible and open-to-all activity (simplification or what Fairclough calls ‘conversationalization’ of politics [1995]) while the ‘talking head’ genre by highlighting the skills and charismatic personality of the leader construes politics as a strategic game that needs competent players (personalization) (see McNair, 2007). It is, therefore, through the analysis of genres that we can, analytically, get access to these patterns which exemplify the managerial and aestheticized nature of contemporary political communication, such as the personalist, the conversationalist, spectacularist, etc.; more particularly, to understand in what ways they serve the practice of re-contextualization of symbolisms (strategies of intertextuality) and how they seek to reinforce the relational position of the institutional setting through these ways (modes of social consequentiality of intertextuality).

Political ads are almost never confined to a single genre but they bring together and imbricate different genres and thereby, different patterns of self-presentation and social action (Scammell and Langer, 2006, McNair, 2007). This synthetic aspect of ads may be referred, in discourse analytic terms, as intertextuality; a concept borrowed by Kristeva (1986), whose inspiration, however, is indebted to the work of Michael Bakhtin. Intertextuality in its narrow sense is ‘manifest’ (Fairclough, 1992), that is, when specific phrases, images, sounds, etc. from other texts (‘text’ in the broad sense, as multimodal semiotic constructions) are explicitly quoted in the text under consideration. Here I am more interested, however, in the less manifest but more constitutive of texts form of intertextuality as the integration into the production of texts not only of directly attributable meanings but of conventionalized social constructions, symbols, cultural sedimentations, what Kristeva refers to as ‘insertion of history into text’ (1986, in Fairclough, 1992, 279) or what Fairclough calls ‘interdiscursivity’ (1992). Arguably, intertextuality can be treated as the analytical instantiation of re-contextualization which, as a fundamentally historicist concept, calls for our attention to the study of the past of specific institutional settings, and more particularly, to the identification in texts of the cultural-historical conventions that are embedded in the context under examination. Intertextual analysis can be, therefore, the key for spelling out the social and historical conditions of possibility of ideological construction in political ads.

**Strategies of Intertextuality/Interdiscursivity**

Strategies of intertextuality are conventional patterns of signification through which genres can re-contextualize symbolisms bringing, thereby, specific discourses into the text. Let me briefly refer here to some indicative strategies of intertextuality. Such a strategy could be what John Thompson (1990) calls narrativization, the recounting, through a storytelling pattern, of symbols from the past as values of a cherished tradition (see also Fairclough, 2003, Rose, 2007). One of the spots launched by the US Democratic Party before the 2008 presidential election, (‘the country I love’), extensively used the strategy of narrativization, both verbally, through the voiceover of Barak Obama (e.g. ‘I was raised by a single mum and my grandparents’) and visually, through real pictures of him as baby in his mother’s bosom, later as a student, young professional and a man engaging with commons (Museum of the Moving Image, 2012). On the one hand, this strategy is inextricably bounded here with a generic version of the talking head spot which by highlighting the various intimate aspects of the leader’s personality and its potentially charismatic attributes exemplifies the highly individualized style of American political communication (Norris, 2004). On the other hand, however, the narrative of Obama’s personal life in this spot recounts several symbols (referred as ‘values’) that have their own distinctive historical significance in the US context, such as the symbol of constitutional and rational-legal authority, that is enclosed in the word ‘accountability’ and the reigning symbol of patriotism, connoted in the phrase ‘love of country’ and in the picture that captures Mr. Obama’s gesture of solidarity to an American serviceman (Museum of the Moving Image, 2012).

Another relevant strategy is that of displacement, via which the symbolic meaning (positive or negative) that is customarily attached to a specific object (term, image or a sound) is transferred to another symbol that is now related to that object (Thompson, 1990). In one of its electoral broadcasts for the 2010 general election, (‘A new kind of government for Britain’), the British Conservative Party tried to summarize its renewed manifesto through the stories of three lay persons, a single-mother with two children, a homeless charity volunteer and a hydraulics business owner, obviously employing the so-called ‘testimonial or man-in-the-street’ genre. Albeit simplified, the representation, through this rubric, of politics as a quotidian practice is not necessarily simplistic. In the story of the single-mother, for instance, we can notice that a core symbol of conservatism, that of strong family, is visually and verbally recounted but not within its traditionalist patriarchal connotations; the notion of ‘strength’ is attached here some ‘libertarian’ signifieds, I would say, such as the signified of the independent, self-reliant, woman which can be derived from the images which represent a single working mother that have to act, daily, in several settings – in her home doing the domestics, in the playground spending time with her children and in her workplace being devoted to her job (BBC, 2010).

Several tropes, such as synecdoche, metonymy and metaphor may also serve the re-contextualizing principle. Metaphor, for instance, which is widely used in advertising, is a trope that aims at familiarizing a group of people with an object, idea or situation that is alien to it, by referring to the latter in terms and ideas already familiar to the collective memory (Fiske, 1982, Thompson, 1990, Thwates, Lloyd and Warwick, 1994). In the run-up to the general election of 2009, the Greek socialist party, PASOK, released a spot titled ‘Go’, which represents the party leader to head to the arena of a weightlifting stadium, probably to give a speech, being hailed and applauded by the gathered crowd (greekbox, 2009). This ‘cinema-verite generic rubric’ (see McNair, 2007) uses the metaphor of an awaited race (the leader as gladiator in the arena) to point to the forthcoming election or/ and to the post-election period in which the ‘winner’ would have to fight against the economic crisis. Arguably, the metaphor
of race and gladiator encourages a dramatic/spectacular style of representing politics but, the same time, it allows symbols of adaptation and austerity, such as struggle and hard work – tremendously unpopular and marginalized in, the dominated by the populist and carefree ‘Discourse of Hope’, Greek political culture (Voulgaris, 2008) – to re-enter the public debate. In contrast to previous electoral battles, in which the Discourse of Hope was recalled almost intact, as far as its populist and polarising elements are concerned (Vamvakas, 2006), in that election both these characteristics were substantially ameliorated in the favour of a new discursive formation which re-articulates hope in the context of struggle and adaptation.

Narrativization, displacement and tropes are by no means the only strategies of intertextuality and, therefore, this list should be seen rather as an indicative one and open to future enrichment and/or refinement by the empirical work.

Modes of the Social Consequentiality of Intertextuality
Re-contextualization is a socially consequential practice, in terms that it discoursaly organizes and orders other social practices (Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999). As it has been stressed in the previous section, this organizing and ordering capacity of re-contextualization, and of social practices in general, is not determined to secure a rationally attained political consensus or a dissimulative consent-based hegemony but it is not also arbitrary and unconditioned. Re-contextualization carries with it the multidimensional institutional interests and pursuits as well as the multivalent social asymmetries of the context with which it is situated (ibid). Re-contextualization, therefore, as a discursive practice may perform its ordering role by legitimizing a specific sort of social asymmetries (Thompson, 1990) and, potentially, de-legitimizing others (see Eagleton, 1991). It may also works to dissipulate or mystify and reify or normalize specific pursuits and social asymmetries (Hall, 1982, Thompson, 1990, Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999) as well as to uncover and de-reify the opposing ones (see Terdiman, 1985). Finally, it may unify and/or fragment social groups (Thompson, 1990) with which political parties are affiliated.

Under specific circumstances, some of the strategies of intertextuality examined earlier may be mobilized to bring to the fore discourses that seek to intervene in the network of power in particular ways, thereby, being associated with particular modes of the social consequentiality of intertextuality – e.g. the strategy of narrativation may give rise to a discourse that is oriented at legitimizing social asymmetries (see Thompson, 1990). However, albeit inextricably intertwined, strategies of intertextuality and modes of social consequentiality of re-contextualization are by no means causally linked (ibid). It is a matter of critical interpretation of the discursive products of re-contextualization to establish links per se, based on the contextual conditions that underlie the production of particular ads, such as the electoral competition, the challenges the party faces and the pursuits and interests it prioritizes in respect with a specific electoral campaign.

The ‘Discourse of social values’, for instance, which is articulated in the spot by the US Democratic party, through the strategy of narrativization, is crucially related to several challenges Barack Obama faced during his presidential campaign. For instance, the middle-of-the-road plan for government, which is considered to be the sine qua non for successful electioneering in the US (Zaller, 2001), was disputed by allegations about Obama’s affiliation with the radical views of his pastor Jeramiah Wright (Dilanian, 2008) and about his early influence from Frank Marshal Davis who had been suspected of being member of the Soviet communist party (Harnden, 2008). The recounting of ‘sacred’ values from the history of the nation was necessary (especially as far as undecided but conservative-minded voters are concerned) for legitimizing Obama’s positions on national (e.g. retreat of American troops from Iraq) and social (e.g. explicit and strong defense of gay rights) issues as deeply grounded on political moderation and as non-threatening for existing entitlements. The challenge for the British Conservative party in the run-up to the 2010 general election can be said to be almost the opposite. Tories did not need to emphasize their conservative inheritance but rather to ameliorate it so as to deal with the substantial empowerment of Liberal Democrats under the leadership of the quite popular Nick Clegg. The ‘Discourse of strong family’ by displacing the patriarchal signifieds of ‘strength’ with more liberal and libertarian ones crucially uncovers and the same time exorcize the existence of gender inequalities, seeking, primarily, to prevent disappointed Labour voters with strong liberal views from heading to the Lib Dems.

The amelioration of the populist and polarizing aspects of the Discourse of Hope through the metaphor of the race in PASOK’s spot had also its own contextual explanation and intentionality. PASOK was aware of the dramatically deteriorated state of the Greek economy and, therefore, of the need to urgently employ measures to cope with it. At the same time, PASOK did not need to polarize the electorate since its traditional electoral basis appeared to have been already highly mobilized and it did not also need to resort to populist campaigning since according to all polls its victory was much more than certain (eklogika, 2011). Consequently, the ‘Discourse of Hopeful Struggle’ found a fertile ground to demystify the no longer sustainable unconditional hope (no adaptations, no efforts, no cuts, etc.) without, however, specifying the conditions under which hope may be responsibly reconceived. The general and abstract reference to ‘hopeful struggle’ can be said, therefore, to dissipulate potential sacrifices that specific social groups would be (as they were finally) required to do after the election. In this way, PASOK avoided broaching issues which might cause significant rupture to the block of social relations that would bring it back to power.

Conclusion
If I had to summarize the whole paper in one sentence this would be the following: By drawing analytical attention to genres of political communication, beyond monolithic essentialisms and reductionisms, we can get subtler insights into how aetheticized political discourse is engaged with the re-contextualization of symbolisms and the reinforcement of the relational position of
a political party. In a nutshell, we can get a clearer idea about how political ideology is constructed in practices of political communication bearing distinct effects across contexts. As I tried to argue, ideology is constructed not necessarily on the basis of historically consolidated antinomies, expressed in ‘grand philosophical’ narratives, but on the basis of the harmonic integration of free-floating symbols from the past into the personalized, conversationialized and dramatized political communication of the present. Irrespective, therefore, of the temporal dimension of each research project, the study of the past in terms of the historicity of a specific context is a necessary ingredient in the understanding of the present, not in an abstract philosophical sense but from the angle of political pragmatism. If ideological construction as the re-contextualization of political symbolisms through aestheticized platforms of political communication, such as the political ads examined here, seeks to reinforce the relational position of a party by sustaining and/or challenging the relations of domination with which this party is interwoven, then political ideology is definitely a prerequisite of managing institutional uncertainty and instability and strengthening electability, not a derivative of them. Finally, if a quantitative analysis of political communication can be informative about the direct and linear effects of representational techniques and messages, a qualitative critical analysis, as the one presented in this paper, can be informative about indirect, underlying and more pervasive impacts of ads, that is, about the discursive means via which political power may be negotiated, contested, reaffirmed, broadly speaking, exercised.

References


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Abstract
Older Adults are a growing population segment more likely to have a chronic disease thus increasing their reliance on and cost to the healthcare system. With the increased availability of online health and medical information, the question arises whether ehealth literacy can promote health. Ehealth literacy is the ability to use information technology to search, locate, process and understand health information to improve health and healthcare.

We analyzed data from a nationally representative Health Information National Trends Survey HINTS 2012. Ehealth literacy tapped six components -- basic literacy, information literacy, science literacy, media literacy, computer literacy and health literacy. Statistical analyses showed that individuals 65+ with higher ehealth literacy had better health outcomes ranging from healthy BMIs to fewer clinic visits than those with lower ehealth literacy. Ehealth literacy empowers individuals to take better care of their health and can be enhanced through training.

Introduction
In a utopian world, everyone has healthcare coverage, proficient health literacy and excellent health. Ironically, the US which is a world leader in medical and healthcare services and technology (SelectUSA, 2013) does not have universal health care coverage (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2013). More than a third of its population (36%) has limited health literacy compared to 12% with proficient health literacy and 54% with intermediate health literacy (Kutner, Greenberg, Jin, Paulsen, & White, 2006). The health of America lags behind that of our peer high-income country counterparts in nine areas ranging from infant mortality and obesity to heart disease and disability (Institute of Medicine, 2013).

With the increased availability of online health and medical information, more users have availed themselves of these sources of information. More than from other media or interpersonal sources, a majority (59%) of all adults in the U.S. looked for health information online in the “past year” (Fox & Duggan, 2013a). This was an increase from 50% in 2010 (Tu, 2011) and comprised the third most popular online activity after email and search engine use (Fox & Duggan, 2013a). Recently, Google Search Trends reported the search volume index for “health” at 89 (out of 100) compared to 75 for “celebrity” in the U.S. geographic region (Google Search Trends, 2015). Given that eight out of ten Internet users looked online for health information (Fox & Duggan, 2013a), the question arises whether ehealth literacy could narrow health disparities. Ehealth literacy is the ability to use information technology to search, locate, process and understand health information to improve health and health care (Eng, 2001). It begins with health literacy.

Health literacy is “the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process, and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions.” (Ratzan & Parker, 2000). Low health literacy has been shown to correlate with poor health outcomes, less knowledge of health and illness management, lower compliance with therapies, lower understanding of prescriptions and health messages, more health care services use, more emergency room visits and hospitalizations, and a higher risk of death (Berkman, Sheridan, Donahue, Halpern, Crotty, 2011a; Berkman, Sheridan, Donahue et al, 2011b). Recent research found that e-health literacy extended a health information digital divide so that younger and more educated users were more active information consumers (Neter & Brainin, 2012). Older Americans are a growing population segment which is more likely to have a chronic disease, consequently limiting their physical activity, exacerbating their health decline and increasing their reliance on the healthcare system. Therefore, this study examined whether ehealth literacy can promote health among persons 65+. Specifically we analyzed the relationship between ehealth literacy and health outcomes among older adults 65+ and identified specific literacy components that would benefit from enhancement training.

We will first review the components of ehealth literacy which will lead to identifying ways to improve health outcomes. Next, we will discuss current studies demonstrating the effects of online searches on personal health management. Finally, we will profile older adults and their health status as well as their use of technology.

Ehealth Literacy
Ehealth literacy comprises six components conceptualized by Norman and Skinner (2006a & 2006b) – basic or traditional literacy, information literacy, science literacy, media literacy, computer literacy, and health literacy. Specific descriptions for these components were delineated as follows: basic literacy was “the ability to read text, understand written passages, and speak and write a language coherently” while information literacy comprised knowing “how knowledge is organized, how to find information, and how to use information in such a way that others can learn from them.” (Norman & Skinner, 2006b). Science literacy referred to an understanding of the nature, aims, methods, application, limitations, and politics of creating knowledge.
in a systematic manner (Norman & Skinner, 2006b). Media literacy involved critically thinking about media content so that the individual could place information in a social and political context and consider issues such as the marketplace, audience relations, and how media forms in themselves shape the message that gets conveyed (Norman & Skinner, 2006b). Computer literacy was the ability to use computers to solve problems and required access and the ability to fully utilize it for health (Norman & Skinner, 2006b). Finally, health literacy comprised skills required to interact with the health system and engage in appropriate self-care (Norman & Skinner 2006b).

To date, health literacy has been defined cumulatively by scholars and health professionals as the extent to which individuals are able to make optimal health decisions on the basis of their ability to “obtain, process, and understand basic health information and services” (Ratzan & Parker, 2000). This definition has been used by the National Library of Medicine (National Network of Libraries of Medicine, 2012) and has been referenced in the National Action Plan to Improve Health Literacy (US HHS, 2010a). Health literacy is considered critical in attaining the objectives proposed in Healthy People 2020 (US HSS, 2010b). “Communicate” was added to the definition by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and is now part of the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act of 2010 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012). According to the American Medical Association, a health-literate person has “a constellation of skills, including the ability to perform basic reading and numerical tasks required to function in the health care environment. Patients with adequate health literacy can read, understand, and act on health care information.” (American Medical Association, 1999). The focus of these health literacy definitions from the leading U.S. healthcare policy, health research, healthcare and health promotion entities, is on the application of comprehension and numeracy skills to make health decisions or act on healthcare information.

**Healthcare Information on the Internet**

Research studies have shown that individuals used healthcare information on the Internet for making decisions and taking steps to improve their health. In a survey of 3,014 U.S. adults, although 70% obtained medical advice and information from a doctor or other healthcare professional, 35% have used the Internet and self diagnosed their medical condition with 46% of this group determining that they needed the attention of a medical professional based on the information they found online (Fox & Duggan, 2013a). In addition, 41% of the online diagnosters had their condition confirmed by their clinician (Fox & Duggan, 2013a). An earlier study of 6,413 US adults found that 55% reported making decisions about doctor visits and treatment after an online information search (Rainie & Fox, 2000). Half of these health seekers (48%) indicated that the online advice improved their health management and more than half (55%) acknowledged that using the Internet has improved their access to health and medical information (Rainie & Fox, 2000).

Among U.S. adults, 45% report living with one of more chronic conditions such as high blood pressure, lung issues, diabetes, heart disease or cancer (Fox & Duggan, 2013b). They tend to be older, have a lower education level, have faced a medical emergency in the past year and contribute to the increasing U.S. healthcare costs (Fox & Duggan, 2013b). Thirty-one percent of adults with a chronic disease have gone online to diagnose their condition and this group tended to be less likely to use the Internet compared to adults without any chronic disease (72% vs 89%). (Fox & Duggan, 2013b). However, they are more likely to talk to their medical professional about the Internet health information compared to those without a chronic condition (60% vs 48%) and are serious about searching and sharing information (Fox & Duggan, 2013b).

**Older Adults and Health**

As Baby Boomers born just after World War II, turned 65 in 2011, they started to swell the ranks of this demographic segment enumerated at 40 million in 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012a). The U.S. population will age rapidly as the older adults are estimated to reach 55 million in 2020 and 72 million in 2030, accounting for 21% and 25% respectively of the total adult population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012b).

Chronic diseases are the leading causes of death and disability in the country (Centers for Disease Control & Prevention, 2014a).

National statistics showed that older adults are at a higher risk for chronic diseases, particularly heart disease and cancer. Between 2007 and 2010, 52.8% of males aged 60 to 79, and 70.9% of their female counterparts, had cardiovascular disease (National Institutes of Health, 2015). The morbidity rate among the 80+ age group at 83% for males and 87.1% for females is even higher (National Institutes of Health, 2015).

Cancer incidence is age-related, with the disease disproportionately affecting men and women aged 65 and older. In 2011 (the most recent year for which statistics are available) incidence rates per 100,000 among men, increased from about 115 to 882 to 2,546 cases for age groups 20 to 49, 50 to 64, and 65+ respectively. Incidence rates per 100,000 among women increased from 199 to 756 to 1,654 cases across the respective three age groups (National Cancer Institute, 2015).

Overall, older adults 65+ are vulnerable to chronic diseases and other medical conditions. Between 2007 and 2010, 34.6% were obese (Fakhouri, Ogden, Carroll, Kit & Flegal, 2012). In 2011, individuals aged 65 to 74 had a rate of diagnosed diabetes (21.8%) more than 13 times that of younger persons aged under 45 (1.6%) (CDC, 2014b) while in the period 2010 to 2012, nearly half of older adults aged 65+ (49.7%) indicated an arthritis diagnosis (CDC, 2014c).
As the nation’s most common cause of disability and occurring more often among seniors, arthritis may severely limit activities such as climbing stairs or walking short distances (Fakhouri et al., 2012). It also inhibits health promoting physical activity which can have many benefits including reduced pain and better physical function (Fakhouri et al., 2012). The total health cost associated with arthritis and other rheumatic conditions in 2003 was $128 billion compared to $86.2 billion in 1997 (CDC, 2014c).

Older adults are heavier users of the healthcare system because of their chronic disease(s) and higher health risks, and their healthcare costs are correspondingly larger. In 2008, adults 75+ visited the emergency room one and a half times more frequently than their younger counterparts aged 25 to 44 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012d). In 2009, 34.6% of adults aged 65 to 74, and 38.0% of adults aged 75+ visited healthcare professionals 4 to 9 times compared to 19.3% of adults aged 18 to 44 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012c). In the same year, adults aged 65+ spent 34.9% of their healthcare expense on inpatient services compared to 25.8% by the 18 to 64 age group (West, Cole, Goodkind & He, 2014). Between 2007 and 2009, the average annual healthcare expenditure by the 65 to 74 and 75+ age groups were $4,906 and $4,779 per individual, respectively, which represented 11.4% and 15.1% of their total annual expenditure (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012e). The comparable figure for the overall U.S. citizen’s annual healthcare expenditure was $2,985 per individual comprising 6% of their total annual expenditure (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012e).

The Internet provides access to a wealth of health and medical information and has enabled users to obtain health information and make appropriate decisions about health and healthcare. Ehealth literacy includes computer literacy and older adults 65+ are generally late adopters of technology (Smith, 2014). Could this barrier be surmounted?

**Older Adults and Technology**

Technology adoption among adults aged 65+ has been increasing with 59% using the Internet in 2013 (Smith, 2014) compared to 22% in 2004 and 14% in 2000 (Fox, 2004). In 2013, 27% of the total senior group used social media such as Facebook (Smith, 2014). However, senior adults’ technology usage trails behind the total adult population where 86% go online and 73% used social media in 2013 (Smith, 2014). Additionally, senior adults’ smartphone adoption remained low at 18% in 2013, compared with the national adoption level of 55% (Smith, 2014). Overall, seniors seemed more likely to use tablets or e-readers than smartphones as 27% seniors owned tablets or e-readers in 2013 (Smith, 2014).

A few barriers can account for the lag in technology adoption among older adults 65+. First, seniors’ technology usage can be limited by deteriorated physical and mental functions, including chronic disease pain (Gatto & Tak, 2008), “visual and auditory deficits”, as well as memory decline (Parker, Jessel, Richardson & Reid, 2013). Senior adults are also found to encounter frustrations during the process of learning technology (Parker et al, 2013) such as getting upset about the length of time it takes them to learn, and the lack of time to practice at home (Gatto & Tak, 2008). Privacy and security concerns, such as worry about online identity theft, are also keeping senior adults from using technologies (Gatto & Tak, 2008). Some other barriers include concern about online source credibility (Gatto & Tak, 2008), additional cost of adopting new technologies (Parker et al, 2013) and the difficulty of keeping updated with the fast changing technologies (Maloney, 2014).

In spite of these challenges, prior studies have pointed out that senior adults are willing to use new technologies if they obtain proper instruction (Gatto & Tak, 2008; Parker et al, 2013). Tailored interface designs which consider senior adults’ deteriorated functional abilities, can also facilitate their adoption of technologies (Parker et al, 2013). Additionally, family and friends’ encouragement can be another facilitator as one prior study indicated that 45% participants (aged 60 and above) reported that their starting of using computers and internet were motivated by adult children while 28% said to be motivated by friends (Gatto & Tak, 2008). Therefore, the question arises whether ehealth literacy which includes computer literacy can narrow health disparities to build a bridge to improve health among older adults. Can ehealth literacy promote better health behaviors among older adults?

The specific hypotheses guiding the study focused on adults 65+ were as follows:

- **H1**: A higher e-health literacy is related to better health status.
- **H2**: A higher e-health literacy is related to fewer visits to the health professional.
- **H3**: A higher e-health literacy is related to consumption of more fruit.
- **H4**: A higher e-health literacy is related to a healthier body mass index.
- **H5**: A higher e-health literacy is related to consuming more vegetables.
- **H6**: A higher e-health literacy is related to exercising more frequently.
- **H7**: A higher e-health literacy is related to better mental health.

**Method**

We analyzed data from a national representative survey conducted by the National Cancer Institute – 2012 Health Information National Trends Surveys – HINTS4. Data were obtained from 3,935 adults in 2012. Beginning in 2003, the Health Information National Trends Survey collected nationally representative data about the American public’s access to and use of cancer-related information. HINTS data are collected by the National Institutes of Health, National Cancer Institute. Each survey assesses the impact of the health information environment and provides updates on changing patterns, needs, and information opportunities in health. In addition, it identifies evolving trends and practices in communications, assesses cancer information access, usage and perceptions of cancer risks, and finally, it presents opportunities for testing new health communication theories (HINTS, 2008). The overall response rate was 36.67% for the 2012 survey. HINTS data are freely available to scholars from the National Cancer
Institute for further analysis. Table 1 summarizes the respondent demographics.

Variables

We looked for items that occurred in both surveys and identified conceptually equivalent measures. For basic literacy, two 4-point Likert-scaled questions (1=strongly agree to 4=strongly disagree) best reflected the ability to read and understand written materials. They were, “Based on your recent search for information about health and medical topics, how much do you agree or disagree: 1) The information you found was hard to understand. 2) You felt frustrated during your search for the information.” The two measures were highly correlated (r=0.637, p=.001) and were summed and averaged so that a higher score represented higher basic literacy.

Information literacy was measured with one 5-point confidence measure about getting advice or information about health or medical topics. Scores ranged from 1= not at all to 4= very confident. Higher scores indicated higher information literacy.

Science literacy was measured with a single 4-point Likert-scaled item regarding the statement: “There are so many different recommendations about preventing cancer, it’s hard to know which ones to follow.” Strongly agree was coded 1 while strongly disagree was coded 4. A higher score indicated higher science literacy.

Computer literacy comprised two questions. 1) Selecting “internet” as the response to the question where the respondent went to first in the most recent search for information about health or medical topics, and 2) Indicating “yes” to going online to access the internet or world wide web or to send/receive email. The appropriate response was coded 1 and all other answers coded 0. Scores to the two questions were summed so that the higher the score a person obtained, the more computer literate s/he was considered. The two items had a correlation of 0.492, p=.001. Likewise, a conceptually approximate health literacy measure focused on making good decisions about health and comprised a single 5-point degree of confidence item, “Overall, how confident are you about your ability to take good care of your health?” Scores were coded 1= not confident at all, 2= a little confident, 3= somewhat confident, 4= very confident, and 5= completely confident. Higher scores reflected higher health literacy.

Health literacy, as defined in this analysis, represented the degree of confidence in the subject’s ability to take care of his/her health and was predicated on two assumptions: the presence of 1) basic literacy i.e., the ease in understanding information about health and medical topics and the ease in searching for this information, and 2) information literacy, i.e., confidence in the subject’s ability to obtain health/medical advice or information when it was needed. Logically, it would be challenging to make good healthcare decisions without having and understanding the requisite health or medical information. The assumptions were supported in the correlation results between health literacy and basic literacy (r=.24, p=.001), and between health literacy and information literacy (r=.37, p=.001). The two measures were highly correlated (r=.637, p=.001) and were summed and averaged so that a higher score represented higher health literacy.

The health literacy measure consisted of summing the six literacy components. Cronbach’s alpha for ehealth literacy was .643 which reflected some multidimensionality. Higher scores represented higher ehealth literacy with a range of 7 to 23. High and low categories of ehealth literacy were created by dividing the scores into two groups with 17 the median as the dividing point. Health behaviors comprised six measures: health status, frequency of visiting a health care provider, body mass index, fruit consumption, vegetable consumption, and mental health issues. Health status was a self reported measure with five levels of health coded 5= excellent, 4= very good, 3= good, 2= fair and 1= poor. Frequency of health provider visit was the number of times in the past 12 months that respondents visited a health professional. Healthy individuals would be less likely to have illnesses and therefore correspondingly less likely to visit their healthcare provider. Body mass index (BMI) scores were based on the following function calculated from a person’s respondent weight and height (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2013). 

\[ \text{BMI} = \frac{\text{weight (lb)}}{\left(\text{height (in)}\right)^2} \times 703 \]

The scores were interpreted as underweight (<18.5), normal (18.5 to 24.9), overweight (25.0 to 29.9), and obese (>30.0). Since the proportion of underweight was small (0.7%), this was coded as missing data.

Both fruit and vegetable consumption was measured by the number of cups consumed each day from 0=none to 6=four or more cups of vegetable or fruit. US dietary guidelines for Americans issued by the US Department of Health and Human Services
encourage increasing vegetable and fruit consumption (US HHS, 2010a). Specific recommended amounts are daily intake of two to 4 cups of vegetables and 1.5 to 2.5 cups of fruit (US DHHS, 2010b). Exercise referred to the number of days in a typical week during which physical activity or exercise occurred with responses ranging from 0="none" to 7="7 days a week." Americans are recommended to engage in the equivalent of 150 minutes of moderate–intensity activity each week or exercise 30 minutes, five days a week (US DHHS, 2010a). Mental health issues comprised the average of four variables: being bothered in the past two weeks by 1) little interest or pleasure in doing things, 2) feeling down/depressed/hopeless, 3) feeling anxious or on edge, and 4) not being able to stop or control worrying. These were assessed on a scale of 1 to 4 with 1= "nearly every day," 2= "more than half the days," 3= "several days" and 4= "not at all." Therefore, a high score would represent good mental health while a low score would represent poor mental health. Cronbach’s alpha for the mental health composite measure was 0.90.

**Statistics**

Frequency distributions were examined for the health behaviors and t-tests were used to test the differences between high and low ehealth literacy groups in the health behaviors -- health status, frequency of visiting a health care provider, body mass index, fruit consumption, vegetable consumption, exercise frequency and mental health. Probability levels were set at p=.05.

**Results**

Figures 1 to 7 report the health behaviors of the older adults (see Figures 1 to 7). A majority (80.9%) reported “good to excellent” health while nearly one fifth (19.1%) had “fair to poor health.” (Figure 1). Nearly half (47.8%) visited his/her healthcare provider four or more times a year. About a third (33.1%) went two or three times a year and less than ten percent (8.5%) went once. Nearly ten percent (9.6%) did not go at all. (Figure 2). Because doctor visits invariably cost money in the US, this factor may have inhibited individuals from seeing a healthcare professional and not because they were ill. For this reason, we excluded the respondents who did not go the doctor at all from further analysis.

Less than a third had a healthy weight. (Figure 3) Two thirds (66.5%) were overweight or were obese and a tiny group was underweight. Again in view of good to excellent health among 4 out of five individuals, health status may be perceived subjectively. It certainly has social desirability.

The good news is about half (52%) of older adults were consuming the recommended USDHHS amount of 1.5 to 2.5 cups of fruit a day. The bad news is that the other half (48%) was not. The average was 2.5 or about one cup of fruit per day. (Figure 4).

When it comes to vegetables, the good news is about a quarter (26.6%) of older adults consumed the recommended USDHHS amount of 2 to 4 cups of vegetables a day. However, a majority, about three-quarters (73.4%) were not eating enough vegetables. The mean of 2.8 was about one cup a day. (Figure 5). Combined, older Americans were eating about two cups of fruits and vegetables a day when they needed to consume 3.5 to 6.5 a day.

Older Americans were not getting the recommended amount of weekly exercise. Nearly a quarter (23.5%) met the recommended level of 5 days a week and (hopefully) 30 minutes of moderate activity to meet the 150 minutes a week. A third (32.3%) did not exercise at all and this could be because of limitations on physical mobility or other reasons. The mean was 2.5 days which was half the recommended frequency. (Figure 6)

Mental health issues comprised being bothered by apathy, depression, anxiety and constant worrying. About half (52.3%) did not experience any of these problems. More than a third had these experiences several days over the past two weeks and a little over 10% (11.6%) experienced this more than half the days or every day in the past two weeks. The average of 3.57 was between “several days” and “not at all.” (Figure 7).

T-test results showed that all the hypotheses except for one were supported. The exception was the frequency of eating fruit. Both groups ate an equivalent amount of fruit (2.5 vs 2.7 mean or about 1 cup a day). Older adults with higher ehealth literacy levels reported having better health-related behaviors than those with lower e-health literacy. These included better health status (M=3.7, SD 0.89; M=3.76, SD=0.79) t(7.04, p=0.01, d=.32), lower frequency of health professional visits (M=3.40, SD 1.59; M=3.74, SD=1.53, t=2.23, p=.03, d=.11), healthier BMI M=27.17, SD 4.99; M=28.32, SD=05.69, t=2.28, p=.03, d=.11), eating more cups of vegetables daily (M=3.08, SD 1.11; M=2.76, SD=1.22, t=2.99, p=.01, d=.35), exercising more days a week (M=3.16, SD 2.26; M=2.49, SD=2.31, t=3.09, p=.01, d=.15), and experiencing better mental health (M=3.75, SD 0.44; M=3.46, SD=0.72) t=5.64, p=001, d=.24). See Figure 8.

**Discussion**

The present study found that a majority of older adults (four out of five) reported good to excellent health and that those with lower ehealth literacy were more likely to have visited their healthcare provider in the past year. Nearly half of the older adults visited his/her healthcare provider four or more times a year; another a third went two or three times a year; and less than 1 in 5 reported one visit or none. This suggested that other factors could account for visiting/not visiting the health professional such as access, convenience or possession/lack of insurance coverage, age, income or ethnicity and cost because in the US, every visit to the doctor’s clinic costs money.
In view of the result that less than a third of seniors had normal healthy body mass index scores, two-thirds were overweight and obese, “good to excellent,” health status seemed to be perceived subjectively, possess social desirability and was reported by those who are overweight or obese.

As hypothesized, older adults with higher ehealth literacy levels had better health behaviors than those with lower ehealth literacy scores. The behaviors were general health status, frequency of going to the healthcare provider, BMI, vegetable consumption, exercise frequency and mental health. Both groups had a similar fruit consumption pattern of eating one cup of fruit a day. Overall, older Americans did not meet the recommended US HHS levels of fruit (1.5 to 2.5 cups a day) and vegetable (2.5 to 4 cups a day) consumption or exercise frequency (5 days a week). Instead, they are averaging 1 cup of fruit, 1 cup of vegetables and 2 days of exercise. Much more can be improved.

These findings underscored the benefit of promoting ehealth literacy. Presumably, persons with higher ehealth literacy scores would be more knowledgeable in using the computer to search the internet for specific and relevant health information, understand the science and logic of the material obtained, use the content to make decisions about his/her health and ultimately be more likely to have a normal healthy weight/BMI, visit their health professional, demonstrate a healthier lifestyle in vegetable consumption and exercise frequency and have better mental health. Using information technology to search for health and medical information helps individuals to be more ehealth literate. Therefore, there is a need to provide appropriate technological education and training programs in searching for health and medical information among older adults as they comprise a population with a high incidence of chronic disease, limited physical mobility and higher healthcare costs. Ehealth literacy can be a means to promote health among this group and other population segments.

Limitations And Future Research
The present study utilized the 2012 HINTS data to develop, test and apply the ehealth literacy measure and its six components. It identified survey measures that were conceptually equivalent to the ones proposed by Norman and Skinner (2006a, 2006b). As a result, ehealth literacy was measured and found to be related to improved health behaviors. Since the results are from a cross-sectional study, further study is needed to ascertain the extent to which ehealth literacy can be enhanced through training and indeed will result in a higher frequency of healthy behaviors.

Future research should examine the impact of ehealth literacy training programs among older adults as this group stands to reap the most benefits from using information technology to obtain health and medical information from the Internet to improve health and healthcare. In addition, the relationship of ehealth literacy with other health outcome measures should be explored to confirm the former’s impact. These health outcomes include other wellness behaviors and disease prevention behaviors. Further comparative analyses of persons with high vs low ehealth literacy would yield specific profiles of population segments that may benefit from ehealth literacy promotion/training efforts. In 2011, 59% of the US population searched for online health information compared to 24% in 2000 (Pew Research Center, 2009; 2011). More individuals will continue to use the Internet as a source for health information. Therefore, promoting and training ehealth literacy can only serve to enhance the quality of the health of the nation.

References


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### TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1. Older adults sociodemographic characteristics (HINTS 2012)

<table>
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<th>Sociodemographic characteristics</th>
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---|---
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African American | 12.5  
Hispanic | 7.8  
Other | 5.6  
Education | 
Less than high school | 15.3  
High school | 34.5  
Some college | 20.7  
College | 29.5  
Household income | 
Less than $20,000 | 28.3  
$20,000 to $49,999 | 39.6  
More than $50,000 | 32.0  


Figure 1. Profile of Health Status

Figure 2. Visits to Health Professional

Figure 3. Body Mass Index Profile

Figure 4. Fruit Consumption
Relationship between Internet Use and Health Orientation:  
A Study among University Students  

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Abstract  
People have three ways to learn about the world, through direct personal experiences, interpersonal interactions and the media.  
Today through Internet, all three methods are experienced at the same time. Young adults are reluctant to share physical and emotional health queries through interpersonal communication and turn to the Internet as it is seen as a fast and confidential way of getting health information.

This study investigates the role Internet on its users health information seeking behaviour in the Indian context. Given that youth in India are the largest segment of Internet users, the study aims to find out if young adults search for health information online and for those who do, does the medium play any role in their health satisfaction. The findings of this research reveal that young adults occasionally search for health information on the Internet and have benefitted from it. The study also reveals that the young adults recognise the importance of health but are not very satisfied with their current health.

Introduction and Literature Review  
People from different walks of life debate the utility of the media and its role in the modern world.  
Media’s role in defining sociological and cultural changes is an ever green research area. While the Quality of Life of individuals has undoubtedly been influenced by the mass media, particularly the Youth, its impact study has been largely restricted to the lifestyles and cultural influences of its audience.

The Internet has emerged as an invaluable tool for health information, access and dissemination. Past research (Todd H. Wagner, 2005) reported that those who used Internet for health information generally reported that they benefited from its use. They added that approximately a quarter of the people, if given free Internet access will search for health information. As Internet has become pervasive in the lives of young people, their online activities and interactions are a focus for research. Evidently, Internet has the ability to prevent risks and also provides opportunities for the user to develop.

Uniqueness of Internet  
Internet is the specific name of the communication network that is comprised of millions of interconnected computers that freely exchange information with each other worldwide. (Marshall, 2003). Among many important features provided by the medium like interactivity, irrelevance of distance and time, low setting up cost, reaching out to the exact target audience, ease of reach and entry Internet has been unique.

Mobile devices with Internet connection has made it universally accessible across demography. Information on the Internet are also largely permanent and are searchable. With 24 hours availability, it has no boundaries. On the other hand, content is not private. Young adults, also known as the Net Gener are who have grown up with Internet, are familiar with its technology and use it for numerous reasons. Among other occasional uses like searching for health information, online shopping and other e-commerce transactions like e-banking, e-booking, keeping in touch with friends, using the Internet for entertainment and information are the main purpose of using the medium. Attachment to Internet has increased to a great extent. (CISCO, CISCO Connected World Technology Report, 2011) cites that one of every three college students and young employees believe that Internet is as important as air, water and shelter.

Social media is a phenomenon that people use to socialize. It is a web based technology that disseminates knowledge and information to a huge number of users quickly. Very active users of Social media are the adolescents’ and young adults. Some of the popular social networking sites are Facebook, Twitter, Hi5 and they are collectively called the social media. Social media is used to discuss, participate, share and create content online. These networks create entertainment as well as expand the horizon for people through sharing and collaboration. Addiction to Internet and online risks such as exposure to restricted content and cyber bullying are some of the popular negative aspects of Internet usage. Evidence for the positive aspects of Internet include improvement in test scores (Wainer J, 2008) and motivation to learn (Rau P., 2008).

The Internet has made a wealth of health and medical information readily available (Viswanath, 2005). Worldwide, people with Internet access are using it for seeking health information. Access to the Internet further expands the availability of health information and is likely to grow. This also reflects a change in the landscape of health information. Knowledge that was earlier limited to medical practitioners, and in certain cases, stretched to advice from elders and friends, even from the mass media is now easily available to the individual. The originality and credibility of the information is questionable and the trust worthiness of the information has also been debated, nevertheless the mere availability of the information directly for the individual is seen as an
They tend to be women (Atkinson, 2009), have higher income and educational attainment (Atkinson, 2009). It is estimated that one in four adolescents have used the Internet to search for health information (Ybarra ML, 2008). They are likely to turn to the Internet for health information, when they are unable to confide in others or when it is not available from personal face to face sources like family or friends. Online contexts are an open, free and safe space to express themselves and can be used to lead healthy habits.

The kind of health information that is available on the Internet may differ from the kind available from traditional sources and due to the interactive nature of the medium, information can be tailor made to suit the requirement and also provide anonymity to the user. A recent review of literature shows that adolescents are using Internet to reinforce offline relationships. They also look up Internet for information about health. It is said that young people seek information online if it is not available from personal face to face sources like friends or family. Not being able to confide in others are leads them to look for information online. It is suggested that online contexts are an open safe space in which youth can express themselves and promote healthy habits.

There are free websites, where users can create profiles that allow them to track their weight loss or smoking cessation progress (K. Subrahmanyam, 2011). A variety of other health related resources such as web sites, bulletin and discussion boards, physician blogs and sites that also allow users ask physicians a medical question. The topics too are varied, relevant to serious health issues to youth specific concerns such as mental health, sexual health and others. While, seeking health information online seems to be increasing, the types of information people are seeking is still unclear. Would it change with the demographic profile of the seeker or is it consistent with the type of information sought? Is there a trend in seeking disease specific information for a diagnosed health problem or are people generally using the Internet to be more health information aware? Are health information searches specific about seasonal outbreaks or celebrity diagnosis? Online health information has been directed toward consumers and is not tied to an individuals’ health care (Susan Koch-Weser, 2010). While tracking the young people’s use of Internet for accessing health information (Skinner, 2003) observed that 67 percent of Canadian adolescents looked for information on specific medical conditions, 63 percent sought information on body image and nutrition and 56 percent for information about sexual health.

Information about health is easily available to the public through the Internet. Its popularity as a resource for health information makes it an appealing vehicle for delivering interventions. It would be economical and effective means for health promotion and prevention. As risky health practices like smoking, unhealthy eating habits often start in adolescence; early intervention through the Internet may serve as a preventive measure. Free counselling for smoking prevention, obesity and eating disorder prevention, anger management and violence prevention and substance abuse prevention are some areas provided by the Internet. Past research reveals that young people search for information related to sexual health, pregnancy and body image among other topics. Various online applications such as web pages, bulletin boards and chat rooms are being used to access health information. Each of them offer different benefits ranging from getting information from trusted sources to having interactive formats where users can get answers to specific questions from experts and peers. Emerging adults and adolescents report that while looking for health information, they keep in mind the source of information and the opportunity to ask questions.

Studies of online search for health information by adolescents and young people reveal that their concern was sensitive and hence turned to the Internet because they were not comfortable asking their parents, teachers or doctors. Driving them to the Internet for sourcing such sensitive information, away from adults can be seen as a characteristic of youth. Not relying on their adult sources for information, not just about health, whom they were dependent on in their younger days directs the attention to their growing up status. They may even share the information they get on the Internet with their peers.

Young Adults
Youth in many situations may be based on ones’ social circumstances than their age or cultural position. While in some cultures, pre-adolescent individuals may be considered as youth while on the other hand, youth may even be 30 or 40 year olds’ when seen as a cultural stage.

The youth are the digital “natives” (having grown up with digital technology) and engage with technology for constructing and expressing their own identities. The digital media provides them with symbolic resources and also creates a divide between them and the digital “immigrants”(adults who have come to use the digital technology later in life), (Buckingham, 2008). Today there is scarcely an aspect of their life that is not being affected by the information available on the numerous sites crowding the Internet. This communication medium is now so fundamental to society that it has the capacity to reshape their work, leisure, lifestyle, and social relationships, even their national and cultural identities.

Young adults everyday interaction with the Internet lays importance to ‘informal learning’. Purposive or incidental information seeking situations are a result of this informal learning, which many times would be self directed, spontaneous and motivated in ways that are different from academic learning. In learning with and through these media, young people are also learning to learn (Buckingham, 2008). He added that they develop particular orientations toward information, find particular methods of acquiring new knowledge and skills among other things, as learners.
Young adults face numerous challenges that range from growing academic expectations, emotional and physical changes, the changing scenario of social relationships among many other issues. These growing up years mark a period of increased autonomy where in independent decision making could influence their health and healthy behaviour. Behaviours developed at this stage of life are likely to continue into adulthood that could influence their emotional well-being as well.

**Theoretical Framework**

Uses and Gratification theory mainly seeks to understand and explain the psychological needs that shape peoples reason for using the Media and the reasons which motivate them to engage in certain media use behaviours. Researcher’s (Stafford, 2004) observed three types of gratifications perceived by the audience which were content gratifications, process gratification and social gratifications. This theory assumes that mass media users are goal oriented in their behaviour and are active media users. They are aware of their needs and select appropriate media to gratify their needs. The rapid growth of the Internet has strengthened the potency of Uses and Gratification theory because the medium requires high interactivity from the users. Past studies reveal that Internet is used for seeking information, entertainment and also to escape.

Additionally, in over three decades since the digital media grew to become an integral part of daily life for people, the Media System Dependency Theory (Ball-Rokeach, 1976) assumes that individuals are active in the selection and use of media content and are goal oriented. They add that the degree of audience dependence on media information is a key variable in understanding when and why media messages alter audience belief, feeling and behaviour. Using Media System Dependency theory to explore how the Internet has integrated into individuals lives, to answer why the media could have varying cognitive, affective and behavioural effects on different people has been attempted in the past. Over time, it evolved as a complex theory that deals with the relationship between media and individuals.

Although the role of Internet in the life of modern young individual is evident, little is known of how this Internet connectedness affect the perceptions of how information literate they are about issues related to their well-being. Internet makes life more connected to it than how the other media like television, radio and newspapers did. Such connectedness to the Internet affects their literacy perceptions and helps them fulfil much of their communication needs; this in turn affects their perceived life quality.

With the available abundance of health information landscape on the Internet, it is still unclear how useful it is to Indian young adults. (Currie, 2012) observed that young people are often neglected as a population group in health statistics, they are either combined with younger children or associated with adults. In India, 75 percent of the online population is below the age of 35 (iCUBE 2014). 36% of India’s Internet users population belong to the age group of 15-24 years (Digital India 2014).

Although Internet has pervaded into the lives of Young adults and is an important resource for information and entertainment, little is known about the ways in which individuals use this technology for health information and support. This research aims to study in what way does Internet play a role in influencing ‘health related individual’ that in turn relates to a healthy individual?

**Methodology and Procedure**

The objectives of the research are to explore if young adults search for health information online to understand if Internet aids in making those young adults health conscious to identify if the young adults give importance to their health and know how satisfied they are with their health Since this study measures the Internet usage behaviours and the extent of influence of the medium on young adults, a survey was used for the study. Young adults here are university students who have crossed 18 years of age. The research was conducted during March-April of 2015 at the Manipal University.

Non-probability non-proportional sampling method was used for sampling. The subjects were Indian students enrolled in regular classes at Manipal university. 100 volunteering respondents enrolled in the first year of two faculties i.e., faculty of Engineering (n=50) and Faculty of Arts (n=50) participated in the study. The participants were selected by disciplines through snowball sampling.

**Results**

All the respondents belong to 18-22 age group. The proportion of female students was 62% and male students was 38%. The respondents belonged to different parts of India and 84% of them had moved out of their homes and resided in hostels due to academic necessity at the time of this study.

About their access to Internet, more than 90% of the respondents said they have access to Internet on their phones and when necessary they use it from their laptop through wireless connection. There was no difference in the access based on the gender of the respondent as well. This indicates that Internet is probably a necessity and almost all the young adults at Manipal University can afford a phone which enables Internet connection.

In response to a question about the importance of which of the listed health issues facing young adults today, the response was as follows:
The respondents related health issues like Drugs and Alcohol abuse, Smoking, Sexual assault and Depression or other mental issues to be very important. While 73% respondents indicated that Drugs and alcohol abuse was very important, 66% of the respondents also observed Smoking, Sexual Assault and Depression to be very important. Problems related to their personality and looks like acne and weight related issues don’t seem to be on their mind. The number of respondents who said Cancer, Sexual health such as Pregnancy/AIDS and Violence were very important was less when compared to the other issues.

When the data was checked if the response varied based on the gender, it was observed that there was not a significant difference in the importance of given health issues. When questioned if any of the respondents were affected by any significant health issues in the recent years, 23% of the respondents mentioned YES. When asked to identify the issue through an open ended question, the answers were Cancer, Chicken Pox, Allergy, Arthritis and Depression. When asked about the source of health information and its trustworthiness, the response was as follows:

The above data reveals that Family (at 59%) and Doctors (at 57%) are the most significant source and trust worthy of Health information for the young adult respondents. Among the mass media, Internet scored the highest with 45% of the respondents accepting that they use the Internet as a source of health information and trust it. Other sources like Friends, the Print Media, Television and Radio were not as popular as source for health information.

While observing the gender difference in the above, it was found that the results of Friends, Family, Doctor, Print Media, Television and Radio remained unaltered. When it came to Internet as a source of health information and trust, more than 50% of the male respondents said that they depend on the Internet for health information and trust it, whereas it was over 66% for the female respondents. This may indicate that more female users depend on the Internet for seeking health information than male users.
The popular daily online activities of the respondents included General information search, Emailing, Academic referencing, watching/downloading music/films and Social networking. Using the Internet for video-chat’s, shopping, booking tickets, playing games, doing online courses, watching forbidden content were occasional or rare activities for the respondents. When the two genders were compared for understanding the daily online activities, the result shows certain differences in the usage pattern. More female users (66%) admit to using the internet daily for academic work when compared to male users (37%). About 75% of both female and male users were social networking through the Internet daily. While 50% of male users were watching forbidden content occasionally, 20% of the female respondents were doing the same. The other online activities did not reflect any major differences.

When asked if they have intentionally sought information about a specific health topic online, the response was as follows:

![Fig 3: Stacked cylinder bar depicting the specific health information sought online by the respondents](image)

It can be seen that Depression, information about a particular disease and Acne skin care related issues are the popular health topics among the respondents. When the above data was seen for differences among male and female users, the findings reveal that Depression, Weight Loss, search about a specific disease, Acne & Skin disease, eating disorders, sexual assault, finding a local health clinic (in the descending order of popularity) were the popular search topics for the female users. The male users searched for information on specific disease, weight loss, drugs and alcohol problems (listed in the descending order of popularity).

When asked how often they search for health information online the response was:

![Fig 4: Pie chart showing the frequency of use of Internet for seeking Health Information](image)
About 60% of the respondents have sought health information online as frequently as at least once in a month, if not more frequently as once in a week, once in a day or several times in a day. This not only shows that seeking health information online is a popular online activity in addition to the other activities that they perform online. When the data was checked for disparity between genders, it was observed that while 37% of the male users admitted to look for health information online more frequently than once a week the percentage of female users doing the same was 63%. About the usefulness of the health information found online, the respondents did not seem very satisfied. While about 40% of the respondents said that the health information they found online was very useful about 60% of them say they are somewhat and slightly useful. So even though there seems to be dependency on the Internet for seeking health related information, its usefulness to them is not very evident.

The gender differences at this stage are interesting. While more (96%) of the female users say that the health information found online is very useful/somewhat useful, only 50% of the male users feel the same. This finding confirms the earlier cited research study that educated women users of health information online find it useful. About 60% of the respondents talk about the health information they found online with friends and family members. 26% of them visited a doctor after they found something about their health through the Internet. Here it was found that more female respondents (33%) visited the doctor when compared with 18% male respondents. 66% of the respondents have changed a particular behaviour/habit as per the advice found on the Internet.

Even though the percentage of respondents who visit a doctor for detailed check up for a symptom is less and many of the respondents say that they do not get useful health information online, the above finding notes that almost 2/3 of them willingly change their behaviour/habit as advised on the Internet to overcome a particular health issue. This adds to the next finding that almost 2/3 of the sample feel that they are more health conscious as they have read about the pro’s and con’s of health issues online and take more precautions. More male respondents 54% take precautions when compared to female (46%) respondents.

It is also observed that more male respondents (52%) recommend the use of Internet for information on health than female respondents (37%). Overall, about 86% of the respondents feel that their own health is very important/could not be more important. 23% of the respondents are very satisfied/could not be more satisfied with their current health status and a majority of over 52% feel that they are somewhat satisfied with their own health. The response to importance and satisfaction with their own health was almost similar among the male and female respondents.

Conclusion
Keeping pace with the range of young adults engagements with the Internet is a daunting task. There will be many gaps in our accounting of their engagements. The study found that almost all of them accessed Internet from their smart phone’s Internet connection and used their laptop when they have certain academic work. The health issues which they perceived as important to were issues like Drugs and Alcohol abuse, Smoking, Sexual assault and Depression or other mental illnesses and they have been searching for health topics related to these issues on the Internet. As noted in the literature review, it is at this age that they are exposed to new habits and lifestyle. It can be inferred that young adults see these issues around them and hence feel they are very important health issues.

The findings also reveal that Family and Doctors are significant source and trust worthy of Health information sources. Mass media, except for the Internet does not play a significant role in disseminating health information, especially for the young female adults, who happen to use the Internet more than their male counterparts for seeking health information. The Print Television and Radio as mass media have very little role in health communication. The Internet can mimic interpersonal communication and the theories of health behaviour applied on the Internet may lead to persuasive benefits, similar to the ones applied to conventional interventions. The health belief model for instance, noted that health behaviours are mediated by the perceived threat of a health outcome, the expected threat reduction caused by action, and the perceived benefits and barriers to taking action (Becker, 1974).

Internet activities like information seeking, sociability have been found to be positively related to various dimensions of social support. Past research (Louis, 2004) reveal that those who communicate their inner world with friends online and rely on the Internet for advice and information to understand their personal problems are those who often receive guidance and assistance in times of crisis. The young adults on the Internet indulge in General information search, Emailing, Academic referencing, watching/downloading music/films and Social networking.

Searching for health information may not be a daily activity for the young adults unless there is a serious health issue bothering them or their near ones. It is observed that, more young women than men, use the Internet online in a week to a month for seeking health information. Though the young adults do not say vehemently that the health information they find online is useful, it was found that more female respondents visited the doctor and 2/3 of them have changed a particular behaviour/habit as per the advice found on the Internet.

Additionally, almost 2/3 of the young adults admit to being more health conscious, more so the young men, because they have read about the pro’s and con’s of health issues online and take more precautions. The young men also recommend the use of Internet for information on health than women. Overall, a majority of young adults feel that their own health is very important/
could not be more important. Contrastingly, just about $\frac{1}{4}$th of them are very satisfied/could not be more satisfied with their current health status and over 52% feel that they are somewhat satisfied with their own health. Even though the normally disease free young adults know that health is a very important aspect of their well being, that health information is available widely at the click of a button and they also occasionally access the information for various health related information, they are not very satisfied with their own health condition.

The findings that young adults are goal oriented and depend on the Internet for health information and also admit to being health conscious relate well with the theoretical framework explained earlier. Caution has to be exercised when applying the results of this study for a few reasons. First, the data was collected at only one University and hence limited and the applicability to generalise the findings to all Indian young adults is not reasonable. Secondly, it would have been more useful to collect other socio demographic data beyond sex and age (family income, background, educational level of parents and others) to understand the background of the respondent which would help in inferring their present status.

Internet is an important medium and has changed the daily lives of people. Various research’s about the effects of Internet is still at the dawning. Not negating the ill effects of the medium on its users, the potential of the possible good the medium is capable of doing should inspire the users and the information providers. In conclusion, the findings of the research lead us to make definitive statements about the possibility of young adults using the Internet to be better health informed and health oriented individuals.

References


Representation of Women from Two Different Economical Statuses in Çocuklar Duymasın Serial

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Abstract  
Women have been struggling to get equal life standards as men in the last few centuries. Currently, women have the chance to get education and can get leadership positions. Yet, the responsibility of domestic work is still considered as a part of women’s duties making the women work both outside to earn their bread and inside to serve their husbands and children. In Turkey, women from higher socio-economical status get aid from lower socio-economic level. Most of these women have very little or no education. While educated women lead rather more comfortable lives, the uneducated women have the burden of working outside and in their own houses.

The present study is based on the Turkish television serial “Don’t Let Children Hear” (Çocuklar Duymasın) and explores the contents of the messages given by women from higher and lower socio-economical status.

Keywords: Women, Socio-Economical Status, Çocuklar Duymasın, TV Serials.

Introduction  
In the last decade, Turkish television serials have gained international popularity and are broadcasted in a variety of countries. TV serials present mediated realities from real life (Türkoğlu, 2012). Women in patriarchal societies mostly take upon jobs that are supplementary. Women are hardly given any administrative positions. Administrators are still mostly men. The serial chosen for the present study takes upon a contemporary look at the modern Turkish society. Within this frame, the present study seeks to explore the women represented in the popular Turkish TV sitcom Çocuklar Duymasın (Don’t Let Children Hear). According to Thumim (2005), television makes women appear in the public sphere. When they are shown on television, women can reject orders from others or obligations towards in their lives by rejecting ideas and messages of the characters. Women can also challenge the prevailing patriarchal hegemony through the characters; In the ‘Çocular Duymasın’ serial this is done through female characters such as Meltem, Idil and Gönül.

According to Çaha (2010), there has been positive attitude towards women’s nature as well as their social and political roles in Turkish culture. This attitude is defined as a support of equality for women. For Çaha (2010), the modernization project, which has been introduced since 1923 imposes western values for Turkish women. Therefore, in Çocuklar Duymasın, Meltem, Idil and Gönül are represented as modern women who have self-esteem and act towards self-realization. These women work professionally and represent themselves freely in public sphere. However, women from lower economical status in the serial, Hatice and Emine work to earn the breads of their families and have different and tougher life stands.

Scenario  
Çocuklar Duymasın is a sitcom about Turkish families. The scenarist aims at presenting Turkish family’s lifestyles, traditions and culture. The scenario revolves around Meltem and Haluk’s family in the serial, Western life standards are represented by Meltem and Eastern, rather oriental values are represented by Haluk. Despite their deep love towards each other, the difference in values creates a tension and conflict. Meltem is a very positive woman. She has a positive attitude towards and has good conflict resolution strategies. She faces the problems in her life. She trusts herself when she expresses her own ideas about any topic. Even though she is a working woman, she takes care of her children: Duygu and Emre. Duygu is Meltem’s daughter. She has a baby. Thus, she doesn’t work to take care of her baby. She acts like Meltem to be an ideal mother for her family. Emre, the son, is a university student. He doesn’t want to take any responsibility in his life. Haluk, the father of the family, looks like a strict partner but Meltem politely changes the way that Haluk wants to act according to her wishes. When Meltem and Haluk have problems in their lives; they would like to solve their problems through interactions between them. Meltem and Haluk live next to their neighbors, Idil and Tansel. Idil is the wife of Tansel who is a psychologist. Tansel is a gourmet. He is a very modern man and can speak fluently. Idil is the wife of Tansel who is a psychologist.

Both Idil and Tansel respect each other’s ideas when they discuss anything about life. They have two daughters who are Melis and Ece. They are university students. Teo who is the closest friend of Emre organizes the meetings with Ece and Melis. Idil and Tansel are modern family members who let their daughters meet outside with boys. Shortly, their daughters can express themselves freely. Gönül who represents strong dominant women is Meltem’s close friend. They always share their problems in their lives to resolve the problems they face. Tuna is Gönül’s husband. He is a very passive man who is under the control of his wife. He cannot reject Gönül’s wishes even if he doesn’t share the same ideas with Gönül. Orçun (with nickname, Cement) is
Gönül’s son, Tuna is his step-father. He imitates Haluk when he communicates with others. He has a brave heart and he says what he thinks explicitly.

In a nutshell, all these women who are Meltem, Idil, Gönül and Duygu are educated women. They satisfy their needs in their lives. Meltem and Idil have servants in their houses. These servants are Emine and Hatice. They are barely literate-women. They are restricted by their husbands in their social lives. These women give their income to their husbands called Hüseyin and Şükrü. Hüseyin is Emine’s husband. He generally uses Emine’s money for gambling. Hatice is a very calm woman. She never rejects her husband’s impositions. Hatice’s husband is Emine’s husband’s bestfriend.

Women’s participation in every public sphere of life creates suitable conditions for women’s development (Grygorovytch, 2002). Through the characters of Meltem, Idil and Gönül, the scenarist aims to demonstrate the importance of the empowerment of women’s social, economic and political status in modern Turkey. According to Grygorovytch (2002), women’s development is associated with the incorporation of them at all levels of decision-making in modern Turkey. Thus, these characters depict the freedom of speech and confidence in a modern Turkish lifestyle.

Kâhyaoğlu (2013) says that both men and women act through the social roles. They have to take their own responsibilities by accepting the social roles and orders in any society. For instance, men should be strict individuals to be respected by other men. On the other hand, women should be ideal women for their children. Women should also be sexy women to satisfy their husbands’ needs and desires. However, their social roles are created by society. These roles should not be accepted as they are given. For example, in Çocuklar Duymasın, Meltem, Idil and Gönül represent women who have their self-esteem. Therefore, these women are suitable examples to enlighten women about their own capacity and capability.

On the other hand, the scenarist of Çocuklar Duymasın uses the characters from lower economical status such as Emine and Hatice to demonstrate unjust conditions amongst women in Turkey. In other words, there are women in Turkey like Emine and Hatice who do suffer from working hard both in and out of the house and who do not lead the life they deserve. As it has been mentioned earlier, in this particular TV serial, there are ultimately two types of women coming from different socio-economical status: educated ones who work in challenging jobs; and the ones with little or no-education (at the level of basic literacy) who help the educated women in their housework. The present study seeks to explore how the scenarist creates comedy by the misunderstandings of these two types of workingwomen in their jobs, and family lives. To sum up, in the serial, three women, Meltem, Gönül and Idil represent the self-sufficient and well-educated women. On the other hand, Emine works for Meltem and Hatice works for Idil and they help these two professional women with higher socio-economical status with their housework. Emine and Hatice represent women from lower socio-economical status.

In the serial, one of the main characters Meltem is responsible for Human Resource Development manager. This is an administrative job carrying the responsibility of other workers. Gönül also holds a significant position in the same company. Later in the serial, she resigns and becomes the partner of Meltem’s husband in a restaurant. Idil is a free lance psychologist. In the serial, the scenarist creates humor by touching the social levels and difference in understanding social issues. Throughout the serial, these women who are Meltem, Idil and Gönül earn well, are well groomed, and need aid in housework. They live and dress like western women. They spend their time for their jobs and looking after themselves. They have ladies (Hatice and Emine) who help them with housework so they literally do nothing at home. On the other hand, Hatice and Emine wear traditional clothes. They earn money but the money the yearn is taken by their husbands. Since Hatice and Emine do not belong to higher socio-economical status, they cannot develop their skills and abilities in social life. In other words, they cannot fulfill their own potential because they always spend their time for taking care of housework in modern women’s houses.

When the environments of these women are compared, it is obvious that Emine and Hatice spend most of their time in their employers’ houses. They are only surrounded with social, cultural and economical events that have happened in their work places. They think that the reality that they observe only exist in these houses. However, Meltem and Idil who are having higher socio-economical status can easily analyze the facts and resolve the problems in social life.

Shortly, the two different socio-economical statuses presented in Çocuklar Duymasın demonstrate the lives of women from two socio-economical statuses. For example, there is a misunderstanding between Emine and Hatice for İdil and Tansel’s marriage status. These ladies misunderstand the speech of this couple while they are talking about getting married again. Emine and Hatice suppose that they would get married for the first time after they have spent 20 years together. Since they are not well educated and their background does not allow them to think comprehensively. This situation not only makes the audience laugh but also makes the audience aware of the social class distinctions in the society. At the same time, the producer of this serial earns money by including this type of funny stories in the scenario.

When the interfamily roles of the women are taken into consideration, the women from higher socio-economical status, such as Meltem, Gönül and Idil exhibit behaviors that are more powerful and confident than the women who are Emine and Hatice. For example, instead of doing housework, Meltem and Idil prefer to work in the office and present themselves as intelligent women. However, Emine and Hatice do housework not only for their employers’ houses but also for their own houses. Thus, these women...
are prevented from expressing themselves freely in social life due to the lack of economic dependence to modern women who are
Meltm and Idil in Çocuklar Duymasın.

Through the characters of Emine and Hatice, the scenarist aims to show that there is a population of women who work as a servant
in others’ houses in Turkey. Emine and Hatice give their income to their husbands, in one way or another. These two women
are relatives and they are belonging to lower socio-economical status. They work in the houses of women with higher socio-
economical status. They are both married to two men who are mostly unemployed and who are very good friends. In addition, the
scenarist creates two different economical statuses to criticize the system of society in Turkey in which men hold the power and
women are largely excluded from it. For example, Hatice and Emine are forced to marry Şükrü and Hüseyin. The characteristics
of these men are generally repulsive especially in appearance. Their behaviors are also rude and selfish. This situation shows
how patriarchy plays the key role for women who don’t have economic freedom in society. Since women are not able to consider
themselves equal to men in a patriarchal society, their rights and control over every social fact and lives are violated. In this
situation, women are not represented equally in patriarchal families because these families are based on the stable exercise of male
domination over women. On the other hand, Meltem and Idil who belong to higher socio-economical status get married to men
(Haluk and Tansel), who are handsome educated with different skills and abilities. Thus, it is implied that patriarchal impositions
do n’t work for the women who are independent in Turkish society.

Methodology
For the present study, messages given by five female characters have been collected for 100 episodes from 2013 to 2014. The
messages given by these women are divided into two broad categories (Tören and Özad 2015) and then classified under themes.

Findings
It is found that Idil gives 106, Meltm gives 57, and Gönül gives 27 overt messages. This makes a total of 190 direct messages.
On the other hand, parallel to their weak roles in the society, Emine gives 13 and Hatice gives 1 direct messages. This makes
a total of 14 direct messages. With respect to in-direct messages, Meltm gives 15, Gönül gives 4 and Idil gives 15 in-direct messages. On the other hand, Hatice gives 1 in-direct message whereas Emine does not give any in-direct message (Tören and Özad, 2015).

The messages given by the higher socio-economical status women can be classified under eightht themes. These themes are beauty,
aging and health, personal development, occupation, idioms, famous people’s sayings, women, men and information giving
(Tören and Özad, 2015). Meltem generally prefers to give overt messages to the audience based on beauty, aging and health. For example, in episode 9, she emphasizes that eating fruit is more beneficial for people instead of dirinking fruit juices. In episode 40, Meltem also says that a person cannot easily stop eating if his/her blood sugar falls. The scenarist gives this overt messages through the character of Meltem to raise consciousness of the audience about health and beauty. Meltem also gives information giving messages to the audience. For example, in episode 65, she informs the audience about the European Union (EU). She notices that the capital city of EU is Brussels. On the other hand, Idil who is belonging to higher socio-economical status discusses the overt messages based on personal development and idioms in Turkish Culture. For example, in episode 72, she says that an independent person is an individual who rejects the control of others on his/her life.

In addition to this, in episode 99, Idil suggests that an individual should face his/her own mistakes in order to prevent others from teasing him/her. Idil also uses one of the idioms in episode 80. For Idil, “even in the smallest of matters one neighbor can help another”. Through the use of idioms, the scenarist aims to reflect customs and values of Turkish people.

Another character which is Gönül provides overt messages based on women’s issues and information giving. For example, in
episode 19, Gönül defends that Turkish men never accept disapproval of someone or something. For Gönül, the characteristics
of Turkish men depend on patriarchal rules. Thus, they avoid the potential of Turkish women in real life. Gönül also uses covert
messages based on famous people’s sayings. For example, in episode 6, Gönül uses Einstein’s saying “insanity is doing the same
thing over and over again and expecting different results” in her speech. When the covert messages of Meltem, Idil and Gönül are
taken into consideration, their in-direct messages are based on information giving. These in-direct messages are about self-esteem,
self-realization, freedom of speech, success, discoveries, cultural interactions, peace, friendship, etc.

The messages given by lower socio-economical status women can be categorized under the title of role of domestic chores on
health. The direct messages of Emine and Hatice are not as various as the direct messages of Meltem, Idil and Gönül. Since Emine
is so traditional, her direct messages are generally about cooking, cleaning the house, taking care of sick people, looking after a
baby, etc. For example, in episode 98, Emine expresses that the chicken soup avoids getting cold in winter. In addition, Hatice’s
direct and indirect messages are not so much because she is portrayed as a woman who obeys the rules of her husband Çocuklar
Duymasın.

Conclusion
In Çocuklar Duymasın, the scenarist aims to provide an ideal life to the audience. Thus, the characters in the sitcom are created
to give direct or in-direct messages to the audience. The results confirm that Idil and Meltm are the women who give the most
direct and in-direct messages in the sitcom. For instance, Emel Müftüoğlu who plays İdil in this sitcom is a famous pop singer. She is admired by her fans for a long time in Turkey. Since the audience loves Emel Müftüoğlu in real life, the scenarist gives most of the direct and in-direct messages through this character. She sounds with a soft voice and sounds like the sensible sound of society. Thus, this character automatically influences the audience because they are also familiar with this character in their lives. Furthermore, the scenarist creates women characters to show how two different socio-economical statuses lead to variations in social life. Educated workingwomen are strong and do have a word to say. They stand on their own feet. They are confident. Barely-literate women earn their lives but they give all they earn to their husbands. Through the characters of Meltem, İdil and Gönül, the scenarist contends that women with higher socio-economical status not only cope with the problems they face in real life, but also can express freely whatever they want to declare. Women who are well educated are aware of their own potential. Thus, they represent themselves successfully in every sphere of their lives. However, some women are prevented from having opportunities because of the patriarchal system. In this system, men hold the power hence women are not allowed to do things that they like. In addition, women with higher socio-economical status also restrain the development of women with lower socio-economical status.

References


Resistance and Media: “Toma” As a Metaphor of Power Relations and Its Representation in Northern Cyprus Print Media

Tutku AKTER

Abstract

The Cyprus Island’s political issues, both internal and external, have a huge role at the predestination of the Island. Hence, there have been ongoing negotiations since 2003 about the reunification of the Island. In this regard, it is indispensable to consider the role of media punctiliously, and to understand how power relations work. This article examines discussions about bringing ‘TOMA’ (as ‘Riot Control Vehicle’) to the Northern Cyprus as a metaphor of power relations between Cyprus and Turkey. Whether or not newspapers from different ideologies would meet on a common ground in case of a situation that may threaten social structure and order, is identified as the research problem. The finding is that within particular circumstances, the media may function as a means of resistance and social struggle against external factors.

Keywords: Public opinion, resistance, TOMA, power relations, media, critical analysis

It is necessary to pose some questions to clarify the knowledge, which is given to the audiences or students as recipients, such as ‘who sets the agenda’ and ‘what are the external factors that influence the process of setting the agenda’ (Akter, 2012). Coleman, R., McCombs, M., Shaw, D. and Weaver, D. (2009) noted that the roots of agenda-setting theory have been credited to Lippmann who maintained that the news media construct our world view in his book Public Opinion in 1922. Soon after, 50 years later, McCombs and Shaw gave name to this phenomenon that was described by Lippmann previously, and called it ‘agenda setting’. As Coleman et al. also claimed, agenda setting can be described as “the process of media presenting certain issues frequently and prominently with the result that large segments of the public come to perceive those issues as more important than others” (Coleman, R., McCombs, M., Shaw, D. and Weaver, D., 2009: 147). Moreover, the priority of issues on the public agenda can be influenced easily by the priority of issues on the media agenda (Kwansah-Aidoo, 2005). As it is known, one of the vital roles of mass media is to inform people and educate as well as entertain them. However, media, which are closely related to socio-economic and political issues, cannot be examined as absolute and innocent arbitrators. Silverblatt and Eliceiri (1997) claimed that the source of the coverage, when it is given as well as the issues that are covered and the priorities that are given to socio-economic and political issues, cannot be examined as absolute and innocent arbitrators. Silverblatt and Eliceiri (1997) also claimed that the source of the coverage, when it is given as well as the issues that are covered and the priorities that are given to certain matters in the media, and the ones that are covered on a sustained basis, encompass the agenda-setting power of mass media. Authors talked about three factors that might be responsible for the agenda-setting function. These are (1) ‘perceived credibility of the media’, (2) ‘reliance on media for information’ as well as (3) ‘exposure to media message’ (Silverblatt and Eliceiri, 1997: 4).

Agenda setting is also explained as “the process by which problems become salient as political issues, around which policy alternatives can be defined, and support or opposition is gathered” (O’Heffernan, 1991: 45). Via the settled agenda, interest groups or media owners may center upon any issue that they want. Here, it is noteworthy to distinguish media agenda setting and public agenda setting. As the name suggests, media agenda is about setting the priority of the issues on the media agenda while public agenda is all about the priorities of the public. As also mentioned by McCombs (2002), it is ‘the focus of public attention’ and it is frequently considered by public opinion polls that ask some discrepancy of the established opinion survey question such as “What is the most important problem facing this country today?”

However, beyond the shadow of a doubt, media agenda has influences on the formation of public opinion and as well as on the public agenda. McQuail (1987) categorized the social functions of media as information, correlations, continuity, entertainment, and mobilization. Information function refers to world events, power relations, progress, and innovation. Correlations draws attention to clarifying and illuminating events and to building of consensus while the continuity function expresses culture and
national identity. With entertainment, the media may be reduced to a form of relaxation. Lastly, social objectives, politics, and war are included in the mobilization function. Hence, integration, coordination, control, stability, mobilization, tension, thoughts, values, discipline, and conformity as also claimed by Mehdizadeh (2010) can be managed to some degree by mass media.

As mentioned previously, via the settled agenda, mass media do not tell people what to think, but they tell people what to think about. As agenda indicates the priority of the issue, by setting it through the interests of dominant groups or the one who has control over the media, it would be easier to manipulate public opinion. Therefore, it is possible to claim that media agenda and public agenda are articulated to each other. As news media’s considerable influence on the public agenda’s content is clarified, and the expression ‘setting the agenda’ has become conventional in discussions of journalism and public opinion (McCombs, 2002). During the present study, in order to figure out how mass media do set their agenda and to examine the structure of the discourses they prefer to express themselves, the hard news of each newspaper particularly, were examined through critical discourse analysis.

Formation of Public Opinion via Mass Media and Ideology

Not only by bringing particular issues into question, but also by the content and context of the issue or via its treatment, people can be manipulated. Whereas news is not even absolute reflections of what had happened, but re-construction of the realities, it would be adequate to insist on the manipulative power of mass media. As it is known, media do not only focus the public attention on a particular topic, but also influence our understanding and perspective on the topics in the news (McCombs, 2002). Katz (1995), while highlighting the fact that there are various definitions of ‘public opinion,’ refers to Robinson and Iyangar’s perspectives to clarify the distinction between definitions. The author adds that dominant opinion can be assumed as the ‘cause’ of news discourse from Robinson’s perspective, but as the result of news framing from Iyangar’s point of view. Through the dominant ideologies or the interests of the ruling class, people might be reshaped or reformed by setting the agenda of the mass media. In other words, ownership and control of mass media, as an ‘ideological gun,’ plays a significant role in the process of manipulating ‘publics’ or ‘masses,’ cultivating ideas and even reconstructing ‘realities’ and ‘public opinion.’ According to Noelle-Neumann, as cited in Scheufele and Moy (1999), public opinion can be categorized into two different contexts: public opinion as rationality and public opinion as social control. The rationale formation of public opinion occurs when most of the citizens agree on a view that individuals have arrived at owing to either the reflection or knowledge of an issue. It is also vital for social change. However, public opinion as social control underlines the spiral of silence theory because social mechanisms pressurize persons with social isolation. Thus, this version defines public opinion as views that can be expressed without fear of isolation or views that are expressed to avoid isolation.

Public opinion as rationality and public opinion as social control differ in three aspects: modes of opinion expression, respect of the opinion, and the conceptualization of the term ‘public.’ According to Scheufele and Moy (1999), the rationale formation of public opinion is mainly stressed by the verbal expression of rational opinions while public opinion as social control works through altered modes of opinion expression like verbal and facial expressions, signs, and openly visible symbols. In the rationale formation of public opinion, the public is more knowingly aware as it has the ability to receive information and has the enthusiasm for discussions. However, with public opinion as social control, people observe their environment without thinking to find out the present and future circulation of views. Finally, in the rationale model of public opinion, the ‘public’ refers to a specific group that is politically interested and well-informed, while in social control model, it refers not only to a particular group, but rather to all members of the society.

Mass media, which spread the knowledge to a large number of people, are used to form public opinion. Many stereotypes are involved within the texts of mass media. However, people are generally not conscious of the influence of the owners of mass media or the leading groups that manage the circulation of knowledge through mass media. Stereotypes that are placed at the core of the codes predetermine what to think or not to think about an issue. Hence, ‘what is ignored’ and ‘what is placed’ are the key within the descriptions that are used in the complexity of reality. Based on the results of this selection process, the present study assumes that relating to reality is more significant than what the reality is. The ‘events’ that are reflected are not lies, but are the reconstructions of some parts of the reality. In such a case, it may overlap with the concept of ‘false consciousness’ as proposed by Marxism.

Therefore, as mentioned above, audiences may be influenced by the ‘realities’ constructed through the interests of the control groups or the media owners. There are various theories that investigate whether the way in which mass media is used is an ‘ideological means of communication’ or a ‘means of communication in the way of forming social integration.’ Ideology is defined as a broad interlocked set of ideas and beliefs about the world held by a group of people, and that they demonstrate in both behaviour and conversation to various audiences. These systems of belief are usually seen as ‘the way things really are’ by the groups holding them, and they become the taken-for-granted ways of making sense of the world (Meighan et al., 2007: 212).

Literally, there are various definitions of ideology. One of the main distinctions between the definitions is related to ‘perception’ of the term within certain circumstances. For instance, while Hall (1996: 26) defines ideology as a “mental frameworks — the languages, the concepts, categories, imagery of thought, and the systems of representation — which different classes and social groups deploy in order to make sense of, figure out and render intelligible the way society works”, Williams explained it in
three aspects: “(i) a system of beliefs characteristic of a particular class or group; (ii) a system of illusory beliefs, false ideas or false consciousness which can be contrasted with true or scientific knowledge; and (iii) the general process of the production of meanings and ideas” (Williams 1977/1988: 54).

In addition to this, Althusser handles ideology from different perspectives and claims that it is “the name given to any comprehensive and mutually consistent set of ideas by which a social group makes sense of the world” (Althusser, 1971: 162). Therefore, Althusser assumes that an individual’s lived experiences are expressed by ideology and claims the fact that practical behaviours which ‘recommend’ representations to help people live their lives, empower the ideology. Destutt de Tracy was the one who introduced the term ‘ideology’ in 1796 and conceptualized the term to point at a critical science that intended on following the accurate natural science model to study ideas into basic parts while investigating the perceptions upon which they were found (Rehmann, J 2013). According to him, the concept of ideology bears a positive meaning. He insisted that it was possible to observe the existing reality and to reach ‘reality’ in social sciences, as in natural science, via rationality and methods.

Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels also dealt with ideology as a term four decades later. The Marxist ideology, unlike De Tracy, accepts ideology as an instrument for social production. Marxist ideology deals with the production of reality and insisted that ideology created ‘false consciousness’ but never claimed it in these words. Marx and Engels (who were the first to use the term ‘false consciousness’) insisted that ideology should be accepted as a process accomplished consciously by the thinker, indeed, but with a false consciousness (Akter, T., 2012). Unlike Destutt de Tracy, from the Marxist point of view, ideology bears a negative meaning. Therefore, it insists on the fact that reality is produced. According to them, ideology was closely connected to idealism and idealism was accepted as a problematic approach, which linked the unequal distribution of power relations and resources. To put it in a different way, it was claimed that social and economic regulations were defective and so ideology, as a part of them, was also defective.

According to the Marxist view, dominant ideas were the ideas of the dominant classes at every single period. Further, only the ideas that ‘camouflage’ and naturalize the real nature of socio-economic relations would form ‘ideology.’ Marx maintained that ideology was a ‘shadow-like’ illusion – that an idea was the shady illustration of a real thing. He also claimed that it was an outcome of the capitalist social relations and was devoted to cover up the basic production relations. In essence, a combination of elements preserves class relations. In other words, Marx talked about ‘deceptive’ expression of ‘reality’ and restructurings of the social world by such false reflections of the ‘reality.’ Thus, ideologies were handled as in relation with social relations. Within this context, the dominant group, which diffuses the ideologies, mostly owns or controls the means that enable them to diffuse their ideas. Therefore, they inject their own ideas to the rest and may create ‘false consciousness.’ Thus, briefly, ideology can be defined as an “integrated set of beliefs about the social and political environment” (Connolly, W. E. 2006: 2). Therefore, it would be possible to emphasize the effective power of the dominant political party or ruling class ideologies on each socio-cultural and political pattern. Primarily, these effects or influences can be observed as operating of mechanisms that circle the main system. In this research, newspapers, as a mean of mass media as well as socio-cultural mechanisms and their interaction processes with dominant ideologies within the qualitative context, are explored.

Riot-Control Vehicle as a Means of ‘Power Relations’ and Intervention Directed to Local Regime

The Cyprus issue is not limited only to the problem that was started with ENOSİS that was the intention of Greece to add Cyprus into her land or to the problem between Turkey and Greece. To understand the Cyprus issue in terms of relations between Turkey and Northern Cyprus, it is essential to know the history of the island. It is an issue in the sense of political, social, identical, or economic aspects that have been negotiated for a long time by various nations. Because of its socio-political and strategic positions, as can be traced from its historical background, in the past years, the Cyprus Island had played a part in the joint line of various nations (Akter, 2013).

As stated in the Warranty Agreement, which was signed on the 11th of February 1959, Turkey, Greece, and England have been declared as guarantor countries of the Cyprus Island. This agreement noticeably prevents any direct or indirect act by these countries, which may affect the future of the Island. However, any intervention, whether directly or indirectly aimed at the regime of the nation that lives in the mentioned Island, should be handled within the context of ‘affecting the future of the Island’.

In this study, TOMAs, which particularly gained currency after the ‘Gezi Park’ protests that took place in Turkey (May 2013), will be dealt as the metaphor of ‘power relations’ because TOMAs were used by the government to ‘appease’ the protests of activists. Due to this, the responses of local newspapers (both leftist and rightist) to the ‘idea of bringing TOMA’ to Northern Cyprus will be examined. To deal with such an issue, it is important to investigate the response of local media to any sort of external ‘intervention’ and thus, the general attitude of the nation who lives in Northern Cyprus in case of any situation that may influence the ‘regime’ and thus, may directly affect the future of the Island. Because ideology can refer to “simply coherent and powerful set of ideas, but tends to mean systems of representations which work in the interests of certain groups, often the most powerful, and which present themselves as unmotivated and commonsensical” (Matheson, 2005: 179), it cannot be distinguished from the mass media which can be assumed as a means of ideology.

1 The term effect is used mostly by mainstream scholars who defend the active role of recipients, while influence is used by critical thinkers to underline that recipients are ‘passivated.’ Distinction is based on the awareness of the recipients.
As Thompson (1984) also claimed, there is a close relationship between the theory of ideology and language studies. He suggests that ideology mostly examines the ways in which meaning and ideas may affect the perceptions or manners of people. Within this context, two most known local newspapers from Northern Cyprus, Afrika (leftist) and Volkan (rightist), are analyzed for the purpose of this study. In this regard, local newspapers’ responses, as ‘constructed’ voice of local people, to the metaphor of ‘power relations’ and general attitude to the idea of bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus are examined through critical analysis. Whether or not the local press supports the existing government and its external relations as well as its politics under all conditions will be clarified through the comparative discourse analysis of an issue, which is handled as a metaphor of power relations and government pressure. However, note that it would not be adequate to generalize the results of the present study unless supportive and related studies are going to be done in the future. The present study questioned whether or not newspapers from different ideologies would have similar publishing policies at handling an issue that may threaten socio-cultural system of the country.

**Results**

To provide clear understanding about the assumed influences of media text on audiences, the discourses of particular news are comparatively analyzed. Basically, the interrelation between ideology and the structure of given information is figured out as well as emphasizing the possibility of having consensus on ‘discourses’ in terms of defending or forming public opinion at particular situations that might be ‘assumed’ as a threat for socio-cultural structure. Critical discourse analysis which is defined as “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (Van Dijk, 2001: 352) is the method used in this study.

Correspondingly, discourses on hard news of local print media, particularly the news about bringing ‘TOMA’ to Northern Cyprus are analyzed. Hard news and thus, the agenda of Afrika (leftist) and Volkan (rightist) newspapers which have different ideologies are comparatively investigated for two weeks.

**Case Study**

Comparative and critical analyses of the Afrika (leftist) and Volkan (rightist) newspapers were carried out. During the study, in terms of analyzing knowledge construction about the issue, hard news related to bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus were examined. The cover pages of the Afrika and Volkan newspapers that were published between the 13th and 21st of September were comparatively analyzed.

**Representations of ‘TOMA’ in Northern Cyprus Print Media as a Metaphor of Power Relations**

**First 5 days’ reflection: 13 - 17 September 2013**

As a result of the analysis, it is noted that there was no related news at the coverage of Volkan Newspaper about bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus. Volkan, which is known as one of the most rightist newspapers, has maintained its silence for the first 5 days. On the other hand, the ‘idea of bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus’ was in the first page of the Afrika Newspaper not only for the first 5 days, but for 9 days. Afrika is one of the leftist newspapers, which is also known as adversary press, settled this ‘issue’ both to its own agenda and that of the public agenda.

13 September in Afrika. The news was given the headline “PROMISE OF TOMA” with one of the most known photos from the Gezi Park protests, which seemingly denotes that it is to be used against people (see Figure 1). Actually, the headline itself needs to be investigated within the context of ‘who’ promises ‘what’ and ‘to whom.’ This interrelation indicates the unknown or implicit power relations and privity, but it has been left open to interpretation.

More interestingly, the speech of Prime Minister, Mr. Ozkan Yorgancioglu, about claiming that he had no idea about this issue and promising not to use it against the public was reported next to the given photo. Contradiction between the given visual image and the text indicates the mistrust of the newspaper’s authorities. Afrika was questioning the reason of bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus, if it’s not going to be used against social events.
Reflections on 14 September. On this day, the TOMA issue was on the cover page again, but it was a small column, without a picture, but only with a headline “Snowballing reactions to TOMA” with white letters on black background. Declarations and critics of political leaders from leftist parties about the issue were given under this headline. One of these political leaders was Elcil, who is the General Secretary of Turkish Cypriot Teacher’s Union, was complaining and highlighting the lack of some services by stating ‘no money for education, but building mosque or Koran courses of religious sects and finally for TOMA…’ (His declaration was given in bold black font) and another statement claiming that they will take a stand against followers of AKP to justify that the idea of bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus is ‘indirectly’ from Turkey’s current government.

Furthermore, the Chairman of the Socialist Democracy Party (TDP) Ozuyigit’s approach to the issue was paraphrased as “Prime Minister should make a clearer statement… It is important to prevent the entrance of this vehicle to the Island…..” to show his opposition not only to the purpose of bringing the vehicle, but to the idea itself.

The United Cyprus Party (BKP) made a statement about the necessity of cancelling the TOMA purchase immediately and about the ridiculousness of what Yorgancioglu said. The Air Traffic Controller Association (HTKS), which was also opposed to the idea of bringing TOMA to the Island, also had a final statement: “How people can be tortured by TOMA was proven in Gezi Park Protests… It is produced by dictatorship mentality….”

Silence on 15 September. The results showed that the ‘idea of bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus’ was placed neither in Afrika nor in Volkan’s first pages, while the issue took a great space in the following days’ hard news of Afrika.

Breaking the silence on 16 September. Before the headline “Either resignation or TOMA”, Afrika recalls the General Secretary of the Republican Turkish Party Asin Aksoy’s statement and criticizes him about remaining unresponsive although declaring that he will resign in case of the arrival of TOMA to this country. The headline itself, reminded of a saying by Turkish Leader Ataturk, “Either freedom or death”. Therefore, within this context, TOMA is identified as ‘death,’ figuratively speaking. Ironically, the headline had the subtitle “Soda water for the faint one, TOMA for the one who comes around.”

Furthermore, the Prime Minister of the National Unity Party, Huseyin Orgurgun’s speech, which was based on criticizing the existing government and its promise about preventing the entrance of the vehicle to the country was included in the paper. Afrika wanted to highlight the opposition of the majority of the Turkish Cypriot society regardless of its ideology or political view by including the rightist political party’s approaches about the issue.

Reflections on 17 September. Nevertheless, while Volkan maintained its silence; the issue was again placed in the cover page of Afrika. Ozkan Yorgancilgou was included in the agenda of the newspaper and his statements were reflected. “First action against TOMA is from Ozkan Yorganciglu” was one of the headlines, just right before “he will use his chest as a shield against to TOMA”. Then, his speeches at the parliament were paraphrased and stated that he declared that he would stand at the customhouse to prevent its entrance, if needed.

Last 4 days’ reflection: 18 - 21 September 2013 18 September: Afrika vs. Volkan. At the top of the cover page, the challenge of Afrika was clarified by stating “For Tayyip’s information…one TOMA is not enough for us, we would like at least six… Also few scorpions, plenty of gas bombs and rubber bullets. If you haven’t recognized Cypriot warriors yet, you will.”
On this day, Afrika laid down that the idea of bringing TOMA into Northern Cyprus was totally the imposition of AKP not of the security forces command (GKK) of Northern Cyprus. Then, on the left side of the photo of Yorgancioglu and GKK commander Kavun while shaking hands, a question was raised as ‘who is authorized?’ then replied as ‘none of them’ to highlight that neither political leaders nor the security forces command of the Island have the right to speak or to make decisions about the issue. On the right side of this photo, the statement of Sibel Siber, the president of the assembly, is placed with a headline “Society does not need TOMA.”

In the next headline, it was justified that the issue about TOMA was passed on to AKP. While declaring the visit of Kavun, it was highlighted that no information was given about whether the TOMA issue was discussed or not during that visit, but after the next meeting, Yorgancioglu’s statement about the possibility of arriving at an agreement between the parties was highlighted. On the bottom right, the declaration of non-governmental organisation ‘Toparlaniyoruz’ (we are recovering) was included, with an appeal to cancel the TOMA agreement.

On the other hand, for the first time, Volkan discussed this issue on 18 September. As with Afrika, photos from the Gezi Park protests were placed on the cover page; one was similar to what was in Afrika (see Figure 1) and the rest were also related to the same protest, which justified the identification of TOMA with Gezi Park protests as the metaphor of power relations and as repressive state apparatuses.

However, Volkan, as one of the most nationalist newspapers, emphasized national feelings and nationalism at even such an event by placing a photo including the Turkish flag. By this photo, Volkan also showed a supportive attitude toward the independence and sovereignty of the secular Turkish society while resisting conservative and repressive rule.

The first and the biggest headline highlighted the disturbance caused by the TOMA issue. Then, there was no statement after Kavun’s visit to Yorgancioglu. In addition to this, like with Afrika, Sibel Siber’s statement was included in the paper as a declaration of non-governmental organization ‘Toparlaniyoruz’ and public unions were given space in the paper. Due to this, it was clarified that both newspapers maintained the same attitude about the issue: ‘resistance’.

19 September. In the bottom-center of Afrika, there was a picture of Yorgancioglu and news that was entitled “Discussions regarding TOMA continue, cancellation is asked from the Command”. The statement of Yorgancioglu followed “Sensitivity depicted with the relevant authorities” even though the identity of the authorities was not disclosed; predictably, it was the Command of Northern Cyprus. It was also noted that no certain reply was received yet and that the final decision would be made by AKP. Thus, authorities of the newspaper addressed Turkey again, while giving space to recrimination of local political parties.
The main accusation was about making a tender of TOMA, which was done by UBP when they were still the governing body, and then Akansoy’s (member of the parliament from CTP) statement about denying that he will resign in case of the purchase of TOMA. Authorities of the newspaper tried to emphasize the speciousness of political leaders via highlighting how they were breaking their words by correcting or retracting their previous statements.

On the other hand, Volkan also allocated a small space on the issue on the top of the page with the headline “Purchasing TOMA instruction is given by police department”. In view of the reactions to the Government and authorities regarding who was responsible for the purchase decision, and on shifting the responsibility from one to another, it was declared in the news that this decision was made by the General Police Directorate. Furthermore, as stated in Afrika, Yorgancioglu’s averseness regarding the situation was highlighted in Volkan.

According to the declaration made by authorized people, it would be enough to bring the situation to the Cabinet agenda and to cancel the purchase by paying compensation back to the relevant company. Because of the consistency reflected in Yorgancioglu’s attitude towards the situation, credibility is created in readers of both newspapers.

**20 September: ‘Inability’ vs. the silence of Volkan.** “Inability” was the biggest headline of Afrika on this day. It was noted that the Government’s “Inability” could not shake the issue of the TOMA dilemma. Moreover, Afrika’s authorities claimed that “Recep Tayyip Erdogan who stated that policemen made history by using gas bombs, tear gas and TOMA against Gezi Park protesters, is planning to bring Turkish Cypriots into alignment with same method. He is trying to design the police department in Cyprus in the same way in Turkey”. This declaration, directly and clearly shows that TOMA is the metaphor of power relations in Turkey by looking at it as apparatuses of oppressive state. A photo of TOMA vehicle was again displayed as if an ‘alleged criminal’ (Figure 4); however, the vehicle was referring to the personalized authority of an oppressive state.

![Figure 4. Personalized authority of an oppressive state: the alleged criminal](image)

**21 September.** The biggest headline of Afrika “And TOMA cancellation” was like giving the Turkish Cypriots a piece of good news. Under this headline, it was noted that the previous morning, Yorgancioglu held a press conference and announced the decision, as if it were a gospel. He also decelerated that they came to an agreement about the issue and thanked them. Then, Yorgancioglu appealed to change the agenda and to deal with other issues of government. The agenda of the newspaper shifted to argument about the flight of Trabzonspor which was going to land directly to Southern Cyprus.

The space that was given to the withdrawal of bringing TOMA into Northern Cyprus was at the top of the cover page, but it was very small at Volkan. The declaration of Yorgancioglu about doing the right thing finally, which had to be done at the beginning of the process was included. In addition to this, a picture was placed next to the news of 18 September. However, instead of showing a real photo of the vehicle, only its illustration (Figure 5) was provided to soften the severity of the situation.

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2 Cumhuriyetci Turk Partisi (Republican Turkish Party), leftist party of Northern Cyprus.
3 Ulusal Birlik Partisi (National Unity Party), rightist party of Northern Cyprus.
Conclusion and Further Suggestions

As a result of the investigation, it was noted that the two newspapers as ideological state apparatuses, although having opposed broadcasting policies and ideologies, could make a consensus and agree on all hands against the external forces. Media organs which have the power to create public opinion, within this context, keep molding an opinion as a ‘resistance’ against ‘external’ effects. The similarity between the policies of two adversary media organs, Afrika and Volkan, towards the event in question, surely does not represent the opinion of the Turkish Cypriots, but an opinion that was created.

An indication of this created opinion was not only giving the issue an important place and space in the papers, but their treatment policy as well. In general, TOMA is seen as a vehicle that is used by policemen (as an apparatus of an oppressive state) against the public, and is also identified with the mode of operation of power relations by emphasizing Gezi Park protests. Based on the results obtained, the “inessentiality” of bringing TOMA to Northern Cyprus and the “inconvenience” of the idea were stressed by both newspapers. Their resistance against the external power relations and their effects was supported by photos that were used. In summary, it was clarified that newspapers with different ideologies and policies could have similar publishing policies on handling certain issues such as evidenced by this issue of “bringing TOMA” to Northern Cyprus because it was seen as a “threat” to the stability of the socio-cultural system. As mentioned previously, newspapers may not change their policies to “mold the public opinion” to reflect the “public” opinion, but they may lead the public to resist and collaborate against critical issues.

Because there is a relationship between the media emphasis on an issue and the audience perception, it is possible to assume that newspapers may not reflect the opinion of the public, but they may influence how they do perceive the issue.

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Role of Journalist during the European Election Campaign 2014 in Poland: Guide or Entertainer?

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Abstract  
The article presents the results of a study of the behaviours of journalists as hosts of current affairs programs during election campaign. The goal of the study was to determine whether the discourse created by journalists is informative and explicative, i.e. to what degree does it attempt to explain to viewers the importance of the European Parliament elections and the operation of EU institutions, present candidate positions, their competencies and proposals, and interpret important political and social phenomena that accompany elections. The study was conducted as a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the content and discourse of current affairs programs broadcast by nationwide television stations in Poland two weeks prior to the European Parliament elections in May 2014. The study determined that journalists who hosted the broadcasts under review failed in their role as guides to the complicated political realities of the Euro elections campaign. Journalistic practices described in the article push political discourse towards theatricality and carnival-like qualities, but fail to improve the voters’ level of knowledge of political processes and hence fail to engage them into shaping these processes.

Introduction  
It has been long known that mass media are a very important source of information about the world around us – in its social, political, economical and cultural aspects (Luhmann, 2000, Castells, 2009). Mediatisation is indeed treated as a process of social change (Schulz, 2004, Hjâvard, 2008, Livingstone, 2009). whereas the mediatisation of politics as one of the most important determinants of contemporary social practice appears to be an important challenge to democracy (Mazzoleni & Schulz, 1999). In this context, the role of television seems to be crucial (Bourdieu, 1996), as it not only impacts our understanding and interpretation of the world (Luhmann, 2000), but also our political choices (McQuail, 2010: 503-536). Some even argue that television become more autonomous as a subfield of cultural production (Bolin, 2014).

Television gains special importance during election campaigns, when citizens pay more attention to political content in the medium. On one hand, they seek information about candidates and parties, and on the other, they are more frequently and clearly exposed to issues relating to the election. Two natural areas of presentation of political content, particularly during election campaign are news broadcasts and current affairs programs. And whereas the former type of broadcast is a relatively popular object of content analysis among media researchers, the latter is less often subject to comprehensive, in-depth description of content and actors (despite the fact that important political interviews during election campaign contribute significantly to the agenda-setting function, see McNair, 1995, Scammell & Smetko, 2008).

Articles published about current affairs programs, and particularly about the role of journalists in these broadcasts usually concern themselves with the journalists’ skills and tools, i.e. their strategies in asking questions and presenting arguments (Fetzer, 2007, Hess Lüttich, 2007, Lauerbach, 2007, Emmertsen, 2007, Komiási & Tarrósiy, 2010). media-frame interactions in interviews (Fetzer, 2006, de Smidt, 2012). but also phenomena from the perspective of linguistic pragmatism, such as toughness (Gnisci et al., 2013) or irony (Hirsch & Blum-Kulka, 2014) in journalistic speech.

One important conclusion from analyses carried out over recent years concerns the shifting model of conducting political interviews (Patrona, 2011, Tolson, 2012). The template model, practiced in American and many European (particularly British) television stations was the object of multiple studies (Clayman, 1992; Greatbatch, 1998; Clayman & Heritage, 2002a). In this model, journalists asked questions from the position of a person representing “the viewers’ interest” – in this sense they could naturally place themselves in opposition to the interviewee, but they were also obliged to maintain some level of neutrality or impartiality. The current model is described as “hybrid”, i.e. one where journalistic questions are asked alongside with open conflict with the interviewee (Hutchby, 2011 a,b). This hybrid quality results from the combining of different categories of television interview, resulting on one hand in a confrontational and emotional quality, and on the other hand in the personalization of issues (Lauerbach, 2004, Ekstrom, 2011). The practice of interviewing in an antagonizing, hostile manner is even defined as „confrontainment” (Lorenzo-Dus, 2009). This is of course the consequence of changes in the media system as a whole. Phenomena such as tabloidization, the primacy of entertainment over information, increasing the dynamics of communication while trivializing the content contribute to the evolution of the journalists’ skills and tools, as well as of their role in television programming.

In connection with this evolution, the contemporary definition of a political interview, based on an observation of journalistic practices is as follows: [political interviews] are conducted in the form of dispute; their agendas are in part institutionally predetermined; they foreground public figures; unfold dialogically but also target overhearing audiences; have a high level of tolerance for equivocal talk; and allocate different interactional rights and obligations to interviewers and interviewees” (Kampf & Daskal, 2011: 178-179). Key elements of this definition, also in context of the study presented in this article, include conflict as the basic form of communicative interaction, high exposure of ambivalent, evasive speech, as well as clash of (frequently conflicting) interests of the interlocutors.
Meanwhile, the journalist is a very important influencer. After Bourdieu: „Journalists - we should really say the journalistic field - owe their importance in society to their de facto monopoly on the large-scale informational instruments of production and diffusion of information. Through these, they control the access of ordinary citizens but also of other cultural producers such as scholars, artists, and writers, to what is sometimes called „public space,” that is, the space of mass circulation” (1996: 46). The researcher also points to the crucial role of the moderator in political conversation (illustrated with the example of a debate): „First, there’s the moderator. Viewers are always stuck by just how interventionist the moderator is. He determines the subject and decides the question up for debate (which often, as in Durand’s debate over „should elites be burned?”, turns out to be so absurd that the responses, whatever they are, are absurd as well). He keeps debaters in line with the rules of the game, even and especially because these rules can be so variable. (…) The moderator decides who speaks, and he hands out little tokens of prestige” (1996: 31). It can be concluded that such an important role gives certain advantages, but it should also be associated with certain responsibilities.

Given this determinant, and referring to the normative approach to the role of the journalist in a democratic society, the author postulates that during election campaign, journalists should act as guides to political reality for viewers. It appears they possess both the tools and the legitimization to do so. Naturally, this task requires neutrality and objectivity, as well as – or perhaps in the first place – the skill to conduct interviews with guests (politicians or experts) in such a way as to enable the viewer to understand the relevant political process, the content propounded by the candidate (e.g. credibility and consequences of political proposals), as well as the importance of the elections themselves. This challenge seems particularly important in context of the European Parliament elections, which least engage citizens and concern issues least known and most abstract to voters in nation states. Naturally, this model of political journalism should be practiced first of all in public media, which are obligated to realize their public mission (based on the Broadcasting Act in Poland, adopted in 1992 and amended many times). However, it can be assumed that for commercial stations this model could serve as a template – a type of best practice guideline – which at least the prestigious current affairs programs could aspire to.

**Methodology**

The results of the study presented in this article constitute part of a broad research project carried out by the research team of the Laboratory of Media Studies at University of Warsaw (under the guidance of the author and Tomasz Gackowski PhD) in cooperation with the National Broadcasting Council in Poland. The purpose of the study was to reconstruct the Polish media discourse (more precisely: television discourse) during the European Parliament election campaign. The researchers sought to assess to what extent the discourse is informative and explicative, i.e. to what extent it attempts to explain to viewers the importance of EP elections and the functioning of EU institutions, familiarize them with candidate positions, their competencies and campaign proposals, as well as interpret important political and social phenomena accompanying elections (in case of the campaign under review, this included e.g. the increase in popularity of Euro-sceptic parties).

The study was conducted as a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the content and discourse analysis. The material was analyzed broadly and in-depth via a code key consisting of several dozen categories plus a special qualitative analysis card with in-depth descriptive categories filled in for each programme. The analysis also utilized full transcripts of journalist speech. The study included following areas of research (in brief): thematization of the discourse (topics discussed and self-reference of the media system), guests (types of guests, their time of exposure, their rhetoric and argumentation strategies), structure of the programmes, anchors-journalists (their communication styles, questioning strategies, interactions with guests and self-presentation), but also missionary values of television (according to Polish law: pluralism, impartiality, balance, integrity, quality) and, last but not least, role and image of women presented on air.

To achieve the goals of the study, the researcher adopted the following criteria of qualifying materials to the study sample: the program was broadcast in nationwide television and exhibited the qualities of a current affairs program (genre criterion); the program was broadcast between 10 May (beginning of monitoring and 23 May (last day prior to election silence) (time criterion); presence in the broadcast of a European Parliament candidate, or the topic of EP elections as the main topic of the discussion (representing at least 50% of the duration of the broadcast).

The programs under analysis were broadcast in six major TV stations in Poland in terms of viewership and impact factor: general TV stations, public stations (TVP1 and TVP2), public news program TVP Info, commercial news programs TVN24 and Polsat News and TV Trwam, a social and catholic station.

**Findings**

In total, the analysis covered nearly 55 hours of audiovisual material. The chart below summarizes the number of unique current affairs materials included in the sample.
The large number of unique materials is due to the two main factors shaping the program line-up of these channels:
regular broadcasting of materials (daily, steady level of interest in the topic of elections)
rich current affairs program line-up with strong saturation with election issues – in practice, only news channels discussed the issue of EP elections in more than one dedicated current affairs program daily.

Both these observations plus the quantitative tally list seem to legitimize the hypothesis that the main carrier of current affairs content in the European Parliament campaign were specialized news channels, followed by, to a lesser degree, general topic channels. In the course of the study, the researcher analyzed several key issues concerning the choice and behaviour of the hosts of the analyzed current affairs broadcasts. Under review were the verbal and non-verbal behaviours of journalists, the use of value judgment phrasing and gesticulation, the asking of questions of guests and the manner of argumentation (rhetoric and erotetics).

**Verbal Behaviours of Journalists**

In the quantitative analysis, the researcher applied the journalistic language load index, the purpose of which was to provide a cross cut view of the degree to which journalists in a given program use neutral language, without loaded phrasing (low index values) or the opposite – language containing many evaluative and emotive phrases (high index values, even when not directed at guests of the program). The following operating definition of loaded language was adopted: “nouns containing strong positive or negative connotations (e.g. prostitute, bribe) of which non-loaded synonyms exist (e.g. woman of easy virtue, private financial gain); emotive language – nouns and adjectives illustrating the journalist’s emotional state (resentment, appalled, concerned, touched). value judgment language – evaluative adjectives (good, terrifying, evil, horrible).”

A comparison of the degree of use of loaded language by journalists showed that journalists from public television programs in general use loaded language more often. Good results (low index values) were achieved by Polsat News and TV Trwam.

As an accessory measure of text comprehensibility (aside from loading coded in a qualitative way) it is also possible to use the Gunning Fog index (Fog index, Gunning 1952), a measure developed by American Robert Gunning to assess the complexity of different kinds of texts (from press releases and marketing texts to journalistic and legal writing). All quotes from journalists hosting the programs were written down, and the finished transcripts were then analyzed according to a relevant algorithm. The index values based on transcripts of journalist quotes (illustrating the complexity of their language) for the analyzed sample are as follows:
The values of the fog index can be approximately interpreted as the number of years of education required to understand the text in question. The boundary value is assumed to be 13 – this represents the threshold of comprehensibility for people without higher (tertiary) education. In the analyzed sample this value was achieved by TVP 1 and TVP 2, i.e. general programming channels, whereas all commercial news channels and TV Trwam (highest difficulty language in general, confirmed by observations made also with another indicators in the analysis) achieved a value of above 13 points. This result shows that the language of public debate during election campaign scored in the upper part of the difficulty scale of journalistic language – some broadcasts were likely to cause a degree of difficulty to viewers.

**Non-Verbal Behaviours of Journalists**

A factor that clearly differentiated individual broadcasts was the value of the total averaged index of non-verbal behaviours of journalists. The following operating definition of loaded non-verbal behaviours was adopted: grimaces of mimic muscles, eye movements suggesting an emotional attitude towards the topic of the conversation, gesticulation - gestures of hands, motions of the arms and head, shifts in the stance illustrating the journalist’s positive or negative attitude to the interviewee, paraverbal aspects – raising one’s voice, shouting, shifting tone or pitch to illustrate irony, aggression or clear approval for the interviewee. After Bourdieu, non-verbal communication and paralanguage are very important for understanding and establishing relations in communications: „There are so many registers of human expression, even on the level of the words alone-if you keep pronunciation under control, then it’s grammar that goes down the tubes, and so on - that no one, not even the most self-controlled individual, can master everything, unless obviously playing a role or using terribly stilted language. The moderator intervenes with another language, one that he’s not even aware of, which can be perceived by listening to how the questions are posed, and their tone” (1996: 31-32).

![Graph 3](image1.png)

High values on this scale (i.e. broadcasts which featured strongly loaded non-verbal behaviours of program hosts such as smiling, explicit gesticulation, meaningful head and eye motions) were scored particularly by public television channels – TVP INFO and TVP 2 – followed by Polsat News and TVN 24.
Questioning Strategies of Journalists

The next aspect under review was the questioning strategies applied by journalists. Two types of questions were defined: questions about information and about opinion. As questions about information, the researcher qualified questions the response to which could be ascribed the truth/false differentiation; i.e. questions about specific facts, data, events, persons. As questions about opinion, the researcher qualified those that included requests for the evaluation of specific facts, events, situations, persons, made along the line of good-bad; i.e. these were mostly open questions which encourage loaded, evaluative answers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average questions about information per minute (information questions index – IQI)</th>
<th>Average questions about opinion per minute (opinion questions index – OQI)</th>
<th>Average total questions per minute (question index – QI)</th>
<th>Number of questions in total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POLSAT NEWS</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV TRWAM</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVN 24</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVP INFO</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVP 1</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVP 2</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE/TOTAL</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>2324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE/TOTAL FOR NON-PUBLIC CHANNELS</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>1398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE/TOTAL FOR PUBLIC CHANNELS</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>926</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this tally list, on average, in the time under review, more questions about information per minute were asked by journalists in public media, with TVP1 ranking first. As far as questions about opinion are concerned – the opinion question
index (henceforth: OQI) – significantly higher index values were achieved by non-public channels – 0.57, with public channels scoring just 0.38. Referring to the previous chart, it is worth noting that the predominance of questions about opinion is enormous, which is why the values of individual broadcasts for the OQI index were much higher than those reported with the information question index (IQI). Programs broadcast in public television, covered by the monitoring, were characterized by a much higher average number of questions about information per minute of broadcast – IQI: 0.41. For non-public channels, this index scored just 0.26. This is due to the fact that public television journalists much more frequently asked questions about information, i.e. facts, issues more concrete and more cognitively valuable than questions about opinion, which by definition are characterized by a certain looseness, strong subjectivism and in most cases relatively higher ease of response. In this context it could be assumed that the better program (on account of facts and the program’s information value) would be the one where the journalist asks more information-related questions, especially with the European Parliament elections, which enjoy little popularity due to the fact that the level of knowledge about EU institutions (their function, importance and role) is relatively low among Poles.

One may attempt to generalize that the division into questions about information and questions about opinion today constitutes a characteristic factor differentiating non-public from public channels on the panoramic level of results (for individual programs and their editions there may be significant variations depending on individual hosts and selection of guests). From the perspective of the viewer-voter, who primarily values information and knowledge about the European Union that can be obtained from watching current affairs programming on television, it is public television that would more likely be the better choice, however with all the reservations concerning drawing conclusions only on the level of synthetic, panoramic-level results for individual channels. As far as the average number of question in total asked per minute in the reviewed broadcasts, a higher result was reported for non-public channel programs – 0.83; and a slightly lower result for public television – 0.78 questions per minute of broadcast. In this tally, it is difficult to determine the more or less desirable number of questions that journalists should ask their guests, from the perspective of the viewer-voter. This is indeed a very relative issue which depends on many factors that were not included in this article due to volume constraints.

It is impossible clearly determine (on the synthetic, panoramic level) what it means that a given broadcast on a given channel included more or fewer questions per minute. Is it good that there were fewer questions? Is it bad that there were more? This, of course, depends on many factors. That is why it is worth to compare the results concerning questions asked by the journalist and addressed to his guests in the context of interventions – i.e. the number of interruptions by the journalist per minute of programming covered by monitoring.

**Journalists’ Interventions**

The table below presents the results of the average intervention index (henceforth: II) for all channels covered by monitoring, based on eligible analyzed situations. Additionally, included is the total number of interventions identified and codified during the study in each broadcast covered by monitoring, constituting part of the current affairs program line-up of individual channels during the last two weeks of the EP election campaign. It is also worth noting, that interventions included all cases of interruption of the speaking guest by journalist, as well as attempts to interrupt (e.g. by raising the hand or monosyllabic attempts at interruption).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Intervention index (II) – the average number of interruptions per minute</th>
<th>Number of interruptions in general</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POLSAT NEWS</td>
<td>1,13</td>
<td>845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV TRWAM</td>
<td>0,68</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVN 24</td>
<td>1,77</td>
<td>867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVP INFO</td>
<td>1,24</td>
<td>1209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVP 1</td>
<td>1,82</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVP 2</td>
<td>1,68</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE/TOTAL</td>
<td>1,39</td>
<td>3591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE/TOTAL FOR PUBLIC TV</td>
<td>1,34</td>
<td>1816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE /TOTAL FOR COMMERCIAL TV</td>
<td>1,58</td>
<td>1775</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table no. 3. Source: own research
According to the tally, the highest number of interventions was noted in TVP INFO – exactly 1209. Ranking second was the commercial channel TVN 24 with 867 and Polsat News with 845. If we look closer at the values of the intervention index (II) for individual programs, we will see that for every minute of broadcast, the most frequent interrupters were journalists of public television channels – TVP 1 (II: 1.82); followed by TVN 24 (II: 1.77) and TVP 2 with a relatively high result for only two one-hour broadcasts – II: 1.68. Polsat News achieved and average result of just 1.13 interventions per minute of broadcast. Compared to other channels – especially the commercial TVN 24 – this is a relatively low result. The only channel with a lower result was TV Trwam, which is clearly different from other broadcasts, e.g. in the one-sidedness of guest selection – II: 0.68.

It would appear that interrupting guests very frequently cannot be considered a good journalistic practice. In one extreme example, there were 64 journalist interventions in a 12 minute and 19 second broadcast – the intervention index for this particular program was 5.19, i.e. more than five interventions per minute, which means the journalist had interrupted their guest almost every 11.5 seconds on average. This kind of attitude certainly allows the hosting journalist to dominate over their guest. It is also likely to discompose the guest (as observed in some analyzed broadcasts). However, it is unlikely that the viewer will gain any insights from such a sliced up broadcast. The educational value of such a program is therefore close to none – such practices can attract attention, but only through the temperature of the confrontation and its form, not the content or essence.

The channel where journalists interrupted the least is undoubtedly Polsat News – also a commercial station, which is worth emphasizing, keeping in mind the results of TVN, which competes for the same viewer and follows the same business logic (telemetric). It is worth noting that Polsat News also broadcast programs where the hosts never interrupted their guests – the intervention index was exactly zero. It turns out that hosting a program on a commercial channel without interrupting the guest is possible.

It is worth remembering that on the general level – without accounting for divisions into e.g. guests and taking into consideration the time devoted to each guest – one cannot place a judgment value on the fact that there were e.g. more questions or more interventions per minute. These kinds of comparisons are of limited benefit without the qualitative analyses also conducted as part of this monitoring. This data should be read in a complementary fashion. It should be kept in mind that the manner in which questions are asked to a significant extent blends with the manner in which guests are interrupted, because often when journalists interrupt, it is to disagree with something, add something, or point out a flaw in the speaker’s reasoning, but also often to ask the next question, which is why these two measures should be reviewed in complement, while naturally placing significant importance on the results of qualitative analyses dedicated to individual broadcasts, channels and individual journalists hosting the programs.

Conclusions and Discussion
Following these analyses, it is worth considering what the perfect current affairs program would look like. What should there be more of, and what is excessive? What proportions should there be between e.g. questions about opinions and questions about information? And finally: how many questions in all should there be during a specific running time, and how many journalist interventions should be expected in an interview with a politician? These are not easy questions, and the results presented below cannot provide clear answers. However, it can be assumed that the perfect current affairs program concerned with Euro elections on television would be one where the viewer-voter would learn as much as possible about the European Union to understand facts, events and circumstances, and the journalist would insist that their guest – the politician – answer questions straightforwardly, while allowing them to finish their sentences without constant interruptions. In this setting we would expect the majority of questions to be questions about information, with fewer questions about opinion. Hence all programs where these proportions are out of balance would not be considered – taking these criteria into consideration – as close to the ideal. If this criterion were to be applied to the television broadcasts under review, then in the given research sample there would only be several such broadcasts. It should be emphasized once again that the evaluation of individual broadcasts, channels and journalists we cannot rely exclusively on the indicated indexes, calculated averages and aggregated quantitative data (we need to keep in mind the operational uncertainty posed by the questions themselves, wherein the journalist asks both about information and about opinion about the information). Equally important is the context, language and significance of individual question or intervention than just the fact of stating and counting the number of occurrences of the given behaviour.

In summary it should be stated that the current affairs programs under review are characteristic of political discourse in interviews in recent years, i.e.: presenting some discourse patterns (Fetzer, 2006; Lauerbach, 2006; Weizman, 2008) and shallow, partly irrelevant topics; with ongoing personalization (Thornborrow & Montgomery, 2010); quite high degree of aggressiveness and argumentativeness as opposed to the traditionally conceived ‘neutral’ role of the broadcast news journalist (Eriksson, 2011, Hutchby, 2011a). The key research question would be to ask about the quality of the Polish political debate surrounding the European election. In other words, the authors of the study attempted to determine to what extent did current affairs programs under review succeed in explaining to the average viewer-voter the complexity of issues concerning the European Union and the essence of the functioning of the European Parliament? To what extent where they a helpful cognitive filter, providing a view on the key aspects, opportunities and risks involved in Poland’s functioning within EU structures? As results of the study indicate, the answer to the question about the quality of the Euro elections debate in Poland is in the majority of cases negative. This means that most current affairs programs failed to explain the problems of contemporary Europe in a comprehensible and competent way. In most cases they failed to provide a diagnosis and summary of Poland’s participation in EU structures, failed to explain the role
and function of the European Parliament and other European agendas, such as the European Commission. They failed to enable the Polish viewer-voters to become familiar with the major accomplishments and failures of Polish members of the European Parliament. In most cases, they failed to define the major goals, challenges and opportunities facing Polish European Parliament members in the new term. It should be emphasized that other studies into the activity of Polish journalists in context of the election campaign to the national parliament showed similar behavior of journalists in conversations with politicians (Hordecki & Piontek, 2014).

It is difficult to clearly define the reasons for such journalistic attitudes. If we were to assume that they not caused by time constraints, then the most probable reason for such journalistic inertia would be unpreparedness and ignorance. Were it otherwise, the knowledgeable journalist would certainly intervene by pointing to facts; take control over arguing politicians and coerce them into providing answers to concrete questions with answer that include numbers, percentages, tallies and various expert opinions. Journalists often ask about the politician’s opinions and impressions simply because this requires less preparation. We can therefore once again concede to Pierre Bourdieu, who, writing about the so-called journalistic field, accused journalists of incompetence and unwillingness to learn, which they make up by being telegenic, politicking and biased.

The French philosopher observed that the journalistic field overpowers other fields through its media-based logic, to which increasing numbers of politicians, business people, experts and scientists succumb. Following Bourdieu, it is also worth noting that journalistic unpreparedness also results in unpreparedness on the part of the guest politicians. This creates an understanding of sorts, where both parties refrain from pointing out each other’s incompetence. The journalist cannot accuse the politician of incompetence on the opinion level, because he or she would need to back it up with facts, numbers and data. This, however, would require much more involvement and time, which is plainly in short supply in contemporary media subjected to strong processes of tabloidization and commercialization.

This means that journalists who hosted the programs under review failed in their role as guides to the complicated political realities during the EP elections. The cardinal sins of the Polish journalists’ skill- and toolset can be enumerated as follows: shallow discussions conducted (poor thematisation of the discourse), visible lack of wide knowledge on European Union, which causes inability to verify what politicians say and asking specialists the proper questions, questions about opinion dominate, frequent interventions (torn conversation), quite difficult language in some programmes (abstract terms, mental shortcuts), emotive language and meaningful non-verbal behavior, polarised guests’ positions – because of the journalists confrontation between interviewees become normative part of the interaction.

These kinds of journalistic practices push political discourse towards theatricality and carnival-like qualities, but fail to improve the voters’ level of knowledge of political processes, and hence fail to engage them into shaping these processes. We find ourselves in a society of the spectacle (Debord, 1967) and focus on behaviours based on consumption and entertainment.

These observations match popular reflection of researchers about the evolution of the role of media in democracy, and the influence of media on democracy itself. Denton (2000) wrote that television has turned classic democracy into a political hybrid he named teledemocracy. Constructivists even claim that the media actually construct politics, and the proponents of the theory of colonization of political reality by the media believe that the media exert enormous pressure on politics and force political actors to accept media values (Street, 2005). The growing role of entertainment in television content (Postman, 1986) creates politainment or politicotainment (Meyer, 2002, Riegert, 2007). Naturally, the underlying causes of this state of affairs are economic: Barber (1995) writes that television is profit-driven, with all other values and goals subservient. This causes media institutions (including public media) to forgo their concern for the public good.

These observations are just one step away from conceding to Dahlgren’s (2001) opinion that politics are nothing but a media phenomenon and that politics do not exist outside of the media. And that would be a sad conclusion not just for media experts and political scientists, but first of all for the citizens.

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S3doodle: Case Study for Stereoscopic Gui and user Content Creation

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Abstract
This article describes the web application called S3Doodle. It is an initial example of the combination of a stereoscopic graphical user interface that produces stereoscopic content and is controlled by hand gestures. The web application uses core stereo 3D concepts and implements them with cutting edge technology to create a differentiated experience. We use a spatial input control as an interface that allows us to introduce depth into the created compositions. S3Doodle’s creation is documented, and the experience we had while building it is explained, shedding light on which are the technical decisions behind. We also gather user’s comments from the utilization of the web app. This application serves us as a case study for exploring gestural and stereo interactions, from which we get initial reactions upon which we can provide a better experience for future applications.

Keywords. Stereoscopy, 3D GUI, doodle, human factors, New Media Art, 3D application

Introduction
Stereoscopic 3D is an area that has been generally reserved for movies and some videogames. It works in these mediums because it is able to create a sense of immersion that adds emotional value to the stimuli the user is being exposed to. Even though many criticism for this technology is related to the lack of available quality content and other hardware related implementations, it still represents a growing market. In China, the number of 3D screens in 2014 is close to 23000 and is expected to almost double in just 4 years (International 3D & Advanced Imaging Society, 2015).

Television set size is increasing and the advances in imaging technologies like UHD (4K) and HDR capabilities set an interesting panorama for future stereoscopic content. But there is still an area that has seen little to none experimentation and development regarding stereoscopic features: that of applications. This is due to the unavailability on one hand, of hardware to display these apps and on the other, of development platforms that allow developers to create applications that take advantage of depth. While many challenges appear when including 3D depth in a graphical user interface, we wanted to develop a simple application that would not only use depth in its GUI, but also create stereo compositions. This article describes the resulting application.

Related Work
We research how stereoscopic depth affects a GUI. Similar research has been done where stereoscopic depth is applied in mobile applications like a phonebook to not only improve the UI design but also feature a utilitarian case, as shown in (Häkkiä, Posti, Koskenranta, & Ventä-Olkkonen, 2013). In the same vein, the study of emphasising content using depth done by Huhtala et al. (Huhtala, Karukka, Salmimaa, & Häkkiä, 2011) and using depth for GUIs in automotive dashboards (Broy, André, & Schmidt, Is stereoscopic 3D a better choice for information representation in the car?, 2012), reveal the validity and promising approaches of the stereo format.

Another reason why we are interested in this is because we know that we are not only able to change the gaze pattern of a specific stimulus related to a simple task like web search (Gonzalez-Zuniga, Chistyakov, & Carrabina, 2014). Also in areas like gaming, 3D stereo is perceived to be more enjoyable and immersive than 2D viewing for tasks that provide an advantage in 3D stereo (Kulshreshth, Schild, & LaViola, Evaluating User Performance in 3D Stereo and Motion Enabled Video Games, 2012). It can also alter the behaviour of a user playing a videogame, regarding decisions and actions they perform (Schild, LaViola, & Masuch, 2014). Finally, we took into account several proposed guidelines to S3D GUI creation found in (Broy, Schneegass, Alt, & Schmidt, 2014), (Schild, LaViola, & Masuch, 2014) and our own experience to build our application.

State of the Technology
When trying to develop a stereoscopic application, the most important thing to accomplish is the two different views that need to be fused (Puell, 2006). While most game and graphics engine platforms include support for 2.5D environments like Unity, DirectX and OpenGL, trying to recreate a dual view with different parallaxes is not straightforward, nor does their use come without a steep learning curve. Because of this, we looked into developing a tool that would allow us to create stereoscopic stimuli for our experiments. Our objective was to study the perception of depth in a graphical user interface. We developed a JavaScript library that allowed to draw using the ‘2d’ context of the HTML5 Canvas. By using sets of pairs of canvases (González-Zúñiga & Carrabina, 2015), we were able to create stereoscopic compositions in real time that could be interacted with. The tool has the advantage that is based in web technologies, so it has broad device compatibility and any JavaScript coder can easily incorporate it to his toolset.

We looked into available motion controllers to implement interaction. Our objective was to take advantage of depth by...
incorporating it not only in the GUI but also in the final composition created by the user. We found the LEAP Motion (LEAP Motion, 2015) to be good for our needs, since we could accurately track a user’s hand’s position and draw accordingly in the HTML5 canvas. With these to small pieces of software and hardware, we were able to create S3Doodle.

**Application**

After developing the stereoscopic drawing tool, we set to create an application that could serve as a case study for the inclusion of depth in a GUI. We looked for a task that would be simple, focused and isolated, because it would have the largest potential to increase user performance from the applied S3D (Kulshreshth, Schild, & LaViola, Evaluating User Performance in 3D Stereo and Motion Enabled Video Games, 2012). We choose to reproduce a simple painting application with 4 commands. In order to give depth a utilitarian function, we placed the menu closer to the user, creating a separation between the drawing area and the available tools. This way we wanted to mimic the opacity that some bitmap editors apply to create the separation from the drawing canvas and the tooling. It would also make the user pay immediate attention to the content that was out of the screen.

**Graphical User Interface**

To keep the GUI uncluttered, we just included a button for each available action, and a dark canvas to paint on. No menus or additional content was included. Each button was positioned centered on the bottom of the screen next to the other buttons, creating a toolbar that has an offset of 4 pixels and sits out of the screen. A monoscopic version of the menu can be seen in Figure 1: Menu buttons in the interface.

![Figure 1: Menu buttons in the interface.](image1.png)

The available actions that we included in the application are: (i) colour selection, (ii) square drawing tool, (iii) circle drawing tool, (iv) free-hand drawing and (v) saving the composition as a PNG file. Since we are working with a graphical user interface that uses depth information to emphasise the menu, we decided to use depth also for the drawing. This represents a challenge since it requires a way of drawing in 3D, so we looked into a spatial input peripheral that would give us information to draw in all 3 axis of the Cartesian plain. We discarded the mouse and keyboard as the main hardware interfaces and opted for the LEAP Motion, because it provided the 3D positions for the hand, including palm and each separate finger. It also provided a JavaScript application programming interface that allowed us to easily incorporate it with the S3D canvas drawing toolkit. The API included several basic built-in gestures that we used to map actions.

We created a cursor based on the hand that would not only draw but also display contextual options to the user. Figure 2: S3Doodle Cursor shows the cursor we implemented, which uses the palm as the main cursor and each finger as a possible option when over a menu.

![Figure 2: S3Doodle Cursor](image2.png)

The LEAP Motion device detects several hands, and whenever a new hand is detected, it is drawn on the screen, but only the ‘oldest’ detected hand gains control of the application to draw. Moreover, we mark the index finger on the hands with a stroke to indicate that it is the main inking ‘device’ on the cursor.

**Interaction**

In order to create a more “intuitive experience”, that is, an experience that we would find more natural to use, and taking advantage of the hand gestural recognition device we chose, we decided to assign the index finger as our main pointer for drawing.
We wanted to call upon joint attention, the one we use when we are infants to learn (Mundy & Newell, 2007). We want to direct link this attention to the pointing gesture performed with our index finger, which is the one we enable for doodling in the web app.

Because of this, when using the application, the interaction is gestural. We use the LEAP peripheral to track the hand and then draw on the canvas. The cursor is located in the centre of the palm and fingers enable different actions depending on the selected tool. This way, if the palm is over the colour selection button, each finger is painted in a different colour, and ‘key tapping’ selects this colour for doodling. If we select the rectangle tool, then ‘key tapping’ defines the first point of the diagonal that defines a rectangle, and so on. The “KeyTap” gesture is defined as “recognized when the tip of a finger rotates down toward the palm and then springs back to approximately the original position, as if tapping. The tapping finger must pause briefly before beginning the tap”. This is a discrete gesture.

Since we set ourselves with creating an intuitive experience, we looked into free hand menu techniques for distant displays and decided that we would create a new cursor base in the “Marking menus” concept found in (Bailly, Walter, Müller, Ning, & Lecolinet, 2011) varying the layout of the options to accommodate them in each finger. We gave the cursor stereo depth according to the position relative to the motion sensor, so the hand seems to go into and out from the painting area, allowing the user to doodle “in space”. With this, both the cursor and the menu are taking advantage of depth as a utilitarian feature, to highlight the tools and to provide a visual cue of the Z axis position of the hand. Figure 3: Using the S3Doodle to draw a stereo 3D snail shows the usage of the application. (Although the screen it is displaying in is not stereoscopic).

**Generated Content**
The generated content is a side by side composition of shapes. The free hand drawing consists of a frame by frame stamp of circular elements. This creates a line that complies with the stereo effect by applying each circle a different horizontal offset based on the position of the hand relative to the motion controller. The created composition has the same size as the drawing canvas, and the drawing canvas size is created dynamically based on the chrome of the parenting window/frame. The application lets the user save their compositions as a PNG file. Mouse and keyboard are required in this version to specify the filename and save location since it is managed by right clicking and then selecting “Save As” from the browser window. We have created content and viewed it in FullHD stereoscopic passive and active displays, and on 5” display phones like the Motorola G using Google Cardboard (Google, 2015).

**Technical Implementation**
The application is created using standard and recommended web technologies. The core of the application is HTML5 Canvas and its JavaScript ‘2d’ rendering context. Figure 4: Application structure shows the structure of the application. The HTML page hosts two pairs of canvases that correspond one the drawing surface, and the other pair to the menu drawing. It also includes a reference to the SXS3DCNV library (González-Zúñiga & Carrabina, 2015) that enables the stereoscopic rendering.
The application works with a game loop structure (update/draw). This loop is implemented using a RequestAnimationFrame feature of modern browsers and polls the availability of hands and their position to the LEAP JavaScript API. The reason to do this is to only draw when the browser is ready to do so, and when the browser is active. This creates a smoother animation since it uses a consistent frame rate. It also makes the processor able to handle other tasks while rendering the animation, to the point where it is capable of determining a frame rate that works with other tasks that is currently working on, boosting performance. It uses this information to then draw the position of the cursor and ink in a stereoscopic format. All position values, on the X, Y and Z axis are converted to “screen coordinates” since they are relative to the LEAP device, which marks the origin at the centre of the infrared glass panel, as shown in Figure 5: Comparison of origins for coordinate systems. We modify these coordinates with a multiplier to compensate for the different resolutions the application can be shown in (to make it adaptive and independent from screen resolution) and the half resolution loss from the selected side by side format.

When the user selects a command by key tapping, the app polls the cursor’s position and gives instructions to the user how to proceed, whether by indicating the mappings of menus in each finger, or by inking according to the selected tool.

The application is based in layered stereoscopic 3D. It does not feature perspective nor orthographic shapes. This is to better simulate a blank linen on where to draw, instead of an open space to model volumes.

Limitations
The app has limitations, as the technologies that it is built upon are novel and even the web standards that it leverages have different implementations across browser vendors. We identify technical and usability limitations in this example application.

Technical limitations we identified are:

- Speed of processing spatial input data: having to poll position data and repaint every frame is processor consuming.
- Dual screen painting: Since we are using the ‘2d’ context of the HTML5 canvas we must paint every single scene twice. This has an impact on performance.
- Infrared interference: Depending on the displaying method some active infrared glasses may cause interference with the LEAP’s infrared. This might result in either losing the stereo capability or an inaccurate hand tracking. The two lower corners of the composition are unreachable. This is due to the motion sensing area that the LEAP cannot see.

Following we list the usability limitations. These have been detected by comments made by users.

- The position of the menu in the lower part of the UI makes it difficult to reach the buttons located in both edges of the menu. This is due to the motion tracking area of the LEAP motion.
- The “keytapping” gesture generally ends up selecting different options than the one intended by the user. This is due to several fingers moving alongside the one that represents the option.
- It is not unusual to lose the tracking area. Since the attention of the user is in the screen, many errors occurred from moving the
hand away from the sensor’s reach.
It is hard to stop inking in certain parts of the screen. This comes as a result of the two previous logged limitations.

**Conclusion**
We developed the S3Doodle web app as a proof of concept of an application featuring a stereoscopic graphical user interface. It has gestural input and can create stereoscopic content compatible to with stereo displays. It adapts to different screen layouts and resolutions and
Additionally, the most important finding, apart from the novel stereo/gesture implementations running in a browser, is that the users express that depth effect becomes much more powerful in the created compositions than in the GUI itself. This focus on the content is something that we will take into account for future development of applications and research experiments.
Finally related to our interface, we need to implement a better consistency in the “key tap” gestures we used, since finger options to select and paint cause confusion in some users, as well as work on the spatial awareness of the interaction space of the used sensor.

**Future Work and Discussion**
We believe what is promising of this study case is the performance of the S3Doodle running on a browser handling live multiple hand positions and drawing (twice, since it is stereoscopic) on a web canvas. The current state of web technologies is powerful enough to compute values and “efficiently” run applications on the client. With this, for the application’s future some enhancements to work on are in the shape of (i) adding size cues to the cursor to enhance the depth perception, (ii) introducing more advanced tools, (iii) adding features like video and image manipulation and (iv) fixing usability limitations noted above.
We have showcased the application in university fairs, and in the IEEE 3DUI Symposium this year. We approach users, explain them the GUI and let them play around with it. While we haven’t formally logged results due to the exploratory nature of the application, we have found many of users’ comments important to get a preliminary list of UX limitations and ideas. Users have expressed that the task is captivating due to the depth that is applied to the doodle itself (rather than the depth applied to the GUI elements).

As stated before, this application serves as a test bed for stereo rendering in a web app. What interests us the most is the use of this type of format to get content to the user. We can create video players, games, doodling applications, sketching applications and infographics all of them being stereoscopic and interactive. Movies, pictures, videos, all can be apps on the web, taking advantage of the immersion that gestures and 3D provide, and enabling a better user experience in certain tasks.

Finally, a proposed experiment based on initial findings with this application regarding cursor implementations (aiding the position illusion with size) and perceived emotional perception is also recommended.

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Semiotic Analysis of a Poster about Violence against Women Violence

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Abstract
Semiology can be defined as the study of signs. As a method it can be applied to all sorts of human endeavours, such as cinema, theatre, dance, architecture, painting, politics, medicine, history, and religion. Saussure developed the principles of semiology as they applied to language; Barthes extended these ideas to messages (word-and-image relations) of all sorts. The mainstream semiology has offered a method for unravelling how the visuals and the texts of the posters work together to convey meaning, and how those meanings are connected to larger debates about modern life. As known, posters are quite complex systems in which different substances are engaged. But the semiologic analysis method can be applicable to every sort of human product. In this study researcher analysing a poster related to the violence against women. This poster is a special one, because it’s rewarded by United Nations.

Keywords: Poster, semiology, semiologic analysis

Introduction
Poster is a graphical expression of pictures and words or only words. Graphics and pictures in compositions visualize the text. However, the message of a text is conveyed to the target through letters and pictures together (Halldin, O. http://www.kb.se/docs/collections/history-posters.pdf). When poster is the subject, the first thing which people recall is cinema and theatre posters, the one used in political campaigns, the posters advertising concerts, exhibition new product or some other social activities. The visual regulations which are easy to comprehend and two dimensional as everybody knows have been a significant part of the society for many centuries.

It has been used for various purposes such as to inform people, persuade them, change their thoughts, and mobilize them. Whereas its main purpose has changed by time, the area of its usage has kept growing. Thus, it may appear as a work of art used to increase people’s awareness related to social problems nowadays. This study is about the analysis of such a poster.

Zeytinburnu municipality has had a poster prepared to attract notice to violence against women. This poster was found to be worth award by United Nations. In this study, the poster mentioned above was investigated with the use of semiology method. In this study, some knowledge will be given about posters, and then the poster subject to this study, will be introduced. After that, semiology model will be explained, and finally the award winning poster will be investigated with the use of semiology method.

Poster
Poster is a print material with some visuals which are posted in public places to make an announcement or advertise and to make propaganda (Büyük Larousse, Vol. 1: 124, 125).

As pointed out in the definition above in the past “the places where public posters used to be posted were street walls. Nowadays, thanks to human intelligence and computer, sophisticated visual campaigns can be organized to mobilize people about taking measures for injustice, poverty and hunger. (Thompson, http://www.flickr.com/). Ertep explains the significance and function of poster as follows:

Poster is a means of communication which, from time to time, can tell new and different things to people, make them laugh, entertain them, warn and disturb as it is supposed to be, beyond being a means of enlightenment. It takes its main power as it fulfils its task sending sincere and effective messages – enlightening, directing and persuading people (Ertep 2007: 80).

The advancements in the field of printing techniques, the emergence of coloured offset machines have made photographs subjects to poster printing in 1970s. Moreover, the novelties and convenience which were consequences of computer based graphical design have made posters more effective (Kaptan 1996). Posters are divided into different types with regards to the field which they serve in whereas their shared purpose is to achieve the goal flawlessly and influence receivers.

Cultural Posters
The posters in this field aim to attract people’s attention to such organizations such as cinema, theatre, exhibition, seminar, concert, festival and sport by introducing these cultural activities to people.

Social Posters
Social posters which are used in the field of health, environment, traffic, policy, play significant roles in canalizing societies, spreading some knowledge, thought and disciplines. The posters making the harms of smoking and alcohol current issues, informing about the ways of staying away from illnesses and bringing forward some environmental problems, are good examples for such posters.
Commercial posters

The posters which are commonly used in the corporate advertising, industry, fashion, press-publishing and that aim to introduce a new product or service in the sector are all considered under the heading of this category. The most distinctive characteristic of this type is that it makes the target crowd consumers of a service or a product.

Characteristics of a successful poster

The poster which is the subject to this study is the one which was prepared to arouse social awareness for the violence against women. It is for sure that we cannot change the whole World with posters; however, we can influence the minds and thoughts of people.

Social posters are works of art through which many problems that most people are aware but cannot visually express, are successfully depicted; just like a nice folk song. Poster is a work of art through which we can speak to everybody beyond the boundaries of language, culture and policy. A well prepared poster can have the potential to trigger discussions, thoughts and emotions (Loiri, http://www.posterposter.org/social-poster-design-advice/)

Its mission is to mention about a good story to catch people’s attention and send effective messages. Posters change people’s ways of thinking and behaving. They can depict about injustice, disasters, gender apartheid and human rights and etc. (Loiri, http://www.posterposter.org/social-poster-design-advice/). In summary, posters are works of art which are used to arouse consciousness about some social problems.

Semiology

Semiology is a discipline studying both linguistic and non-linguistic systems (Gümüş and Şahin, http://dergi.mo.org.tr/dergiler/4/453/9359.pdf) Semiology, with regards to the method it uses, attempts to explain everything (plays, gestures, facial expressions, religious rituals, literal works, audio tracks) through language; in other words, it tries to explain non-linguistic facts transforming them into language metaphor (Dervişcemal, http://www.ege-edebiyat.org/docs/493.pdf). Therefore, semiologic analysis is a kind of acquisition of reading skill and it aims to reveal the implicit meaning hidden behind the explicit meaning.

Ferdinan De Saussure is one of the most commonly known names, and he is also one of the founders of semiology. Saussure considers semiology as a discipline which investigates the structures of different semiologic types and the relationships among these types. Semiology, in his own words, is defined as “semiology teaches what signs are and what laws it is related to” (Saussure 1998: 46). According to him, as there are connections among the signs constituting the meaning, a sign has no meaning on its own.

Sign, Signifier, Signified

Saussure states that a sign consists of one signifier and one signified. The one signifier is a physical component of the signifier (voice, form and image), and the one signified is semantic component of the signifier. When you hear or see a signifier, its signified meaning comes into existence in our mind. What we mean to say is that there is not any natural relationship between the objects and any similarity relationships among the words which are equivalents of objects.

For example, the relationship between the audial and written sign of the word “tree” and the concept of “tree” is totally arbitrary. We can know it because there is an associative connection between the sound of “tree” or its written form and the concept of “tree”. The meaning is not hidden in that sound or writing, but in our mind. The combination of the sign in this example (the sound of tree or writing) and the concept of “tree” in our mind is called as signifier. The sound or writing of “tree” is the signifier and the concept of “tree” in our mind is the sign.

Therefore, signifier is “any type of object, creature or fact indicating something except itself” (Vardar, 1988:111). John Fiske de (1996: 63) defines signifier as something which refers to something except itself, which we can make sense with our sense. According to him, the existence of signifier is dependent on that users accept it as a signifier. Considering that, all words, gestures and mimics, fine arts and fashion products, the colours, figures and any architectural feature used on these fashion products in different languages are all signifiers, and they need to be investigated considering their relationships with the other signifiers in their environments (Rifat, 1992).

Three Order of Significations

Three different levels of meaning or orders are used in the study of signs.

First level- when we start with the example of “tree” above, the systematic relationship between the signifier (tree sound or writing) and the signified (tree) is the first order of signification. Barthes called this stage; which Saussure has studied on, as denotative order of signification (Fiske 1996). The denotation in a message is perceived similarly by most of the people.

Second level: The meanings which cannot be or which are not inferred similarly by all receivers from the same message are named as the second order. The signifier and the signified are evaluated considering the meanings and values attributed by the
society beyond the denotative meanings. This is the connotation of the signifier. For example, automobile itself in our society—
or the sign of automobile—may refer to manhood or freedom. Connotation appears as reactions and associations resulted from interpersonal differences. (İmançer and Özer 1999). What makes the difference in giving the meaning to the signifier is the connotative meaning. Those indicating at the level of connotation refer values, emotions and attitudes. For example, the shooting angle in cinema, television and advertisements is used to connotate the connotative meanings in the music and illumination in the background.

**Third level.** The diversity in cultural differences appearing in the second level is evolved into the third interpretation level within the cultural interpretations. The automobile display above reminds us of an industrialized, materialist and rootless society at the third level.

**Semiologic Analysis.**

Barthes (1964) points out that semiologic analysis consists of two transactions. Dividing into pieces/analysing and combining. In the first transaction, when they come together (when they are related to one another) the pieces forming the meaning are investigated. Here, the person making the analysis focuses on the group elements which will form the meaning. The elements and the units which are related under some groups exhibit some series of characteristics. The two units of the same paradigm need to look similar to one another so that the differences between them are visible. For example, American cars look the same for foreigners; however, they are different in models and colours.

The second transaction, combining is related to the rules of bringing together. In brief, the person who makes the analysis takes the object, divides it into elements and then combines them again. In this stage, the person making the analysis makes visible the things which are not visible or not concrete (Seiler http://people.ucalgary.ca/~rseiler/semiolog.htm. Access date: 20.04.2015). Considering the study of Barthes (1977) “The Rhetoric of the Image” as the basis, the following transactions are suggested to be done in order.

Defining or summarizing the message conveyed to reader/viewer

Explain the key signifiers or signified elements.

Explain the paradigm exploited. Find out the signifiers forming the meaning.

Finally, determine the principle/core in the message or the text of the study.

**Linguistic Analysis of the Sample Poster**

The analysis of the sample poster was done based on the three stages of the interpretation. Seiler’s stages given above were followed in this process.

**The first stage.** The woman whose photo was given place in the poster is at the age of between 35 and 40, with white complexion and blue eyes. Her hair is dark Brown and short. Shoulders are leftward in the picture looking across.

What is attached at the heal level in capital size is “TO VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN”. This writing is placed in the ad combining “no” with the symbol of femininity in red hand writing. On the right of the woman at the neck level “VIOLENCE IS NOT ALWAYS VISIBLE” is written in capital size and red color. The word “NOT” is written in italic form.

The following statement “She has 3 broken ribs, 2loose teeth, 5cigarette burns on her leg… YOU CANT ALWAYS TELL…” is written on a black strip in white.

**Second Stage**

The woman in the poster is extremely beautiful. She has almost no make-up, she looks quite modern, literate and healthy. Viewers catch the woman’s eye at the first sight. The woman has a look of questioner, reproachful and she looks as if she wants to know what the audience thinks of. The word of “No” is handwritten adding to the writing “TO VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN” to clearify what the woman in the poster questions.

The statement “VIOLENCE IS NOT ALWAYS VISIBLE” which is written in red on the right speaks out a significant dimension of violence against women.
The fact that the word “NOT” is written in italic and bold form in the statement pauses the audience, attracts their attention and encourages the audience to rethink of the meaning of the sentence. This is closely related to women’s quizzical way of looking at events. It asks as follows “the real violence women are exposed in the society is not always visible, isn’t it?”

In the writing which was written small fonts which is hard to read; both the writing and the strip are associated with the rogatory looking of the woman and the woman herself in the poster. This is very clear. The strip is placed on the chest of the woman. This relationship can be seen more easily when the writing is read. The sadness which is sensed from the looking of the woman in the poster, the following extressions such as “three broken ribs, 2 broken teeth and 5 cigarette burns on the leg” are extremely though provoking. The statement placed at the end of the strip “YOU CANNOT ALWAYS TELL” makes a reference to desperation of women in the society. The upright standing of the woman in the poster expresses that when it is combined with her facial expression: maybe we put up with the unvisible, untold aspects of violence, which perhaps cannot be expressed for now, but we assure that our struglle will continue against it in the future.

Third Stage
The relationship built among different signifiers above points out two important dimensions of violence against women as a universal problem. The first is that all women are subject to violence. There is not relationship between being subject to violence and the following factors such as skin colour, physical appearance, modernity, level of education and etc. The second one is that, people are aware of some of the violence events against women. There are more violence events untold against women than what we hear and witness.

Problem: it is a shared problem of all countries no matter a western or eastern country, rich or poor country. The violence against women results from the inequality in male-dominated societies, customs, traditions and Outlook of polytheistic religions to women, and its causes are very multidimensional. The endless and tireless understanding of agencies and institutes which also impoverish more and more people in the global World also need to be counted here.

References


**Internet Resources**


(http://sozce.nedir.com/)
Semiotic Analysis of Understanding Violence Signs in Videogame Advertising Posters

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Abstract
In this article the authors analyzed the understanding of violence signs in posters of videogames. For doing so two groups consisting of adults and children were analyzed to show the difference in their understanding of violence signs. According to previous researches, without media literacy children are more attracted to advertising and violence in videogames is one of the main issues in today’s life. The aim of this research was to analyze signs that makes violence in videogames posters and the results of this research shows that adults understanding of violence signs differs to the understanding of violence from the children. Also definitions of violence are different in both adults and children.

Keywords: Semiotic, Genre theory, Violence signs, Videogame poster

Introduction: The issue of violence in videogame posters
For the purpose of this article, having a short introduction of the importance of analyzing the violence in videogames is necessary specially in the posters of videogames because it's the first image of the game and people, including children and adult, usually decide to buy and play the videogame based on the images. According to Battaglini and Dougherty (2014) all kind of media such as radio, TV and printed material like posters is being viewed by many people and some media campaigns is showing some risky health behaviors such as tobacco and kinds of behaviors that contribute to some illnesses, and violence.

As technology has sustained to grow in the modern age, videogames have raised as a new media (Onorato, 2013; Ferguson, 2010; Pyle, 2002,). Violence videogames is the new kid of media that came in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Aderson, et al., 2010). These violence videogames, like violence movies, have also appeared violence at the frontline of the children and makes them more violence (Caron, 2001). Children are communicating with videogames because it allows them to control the horrible violence that arises (Onorato, 2013). Base on Walsh’s research (2001) “Studies measuring cognitive responses to playing violent videogames (compared with cognitive responses to non-violent games) have shown that violent games increase aggressive thoughts. These findings have been found for males and females, children and adults, and in experimental and correlational studies” (n. p.). This could rise the question that whether rules and regulation is a need to control children from this violence source because according to Dunkelberger (2011, p.1659) in United State, “Numerous states and political subdivisions [such as California, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Oklahoma, Washington, the city of Indianapolis, and St. Louis County, Missouri] have passed legislation seeking to restrict minors’ access to violent video games.”

Based on many researches done, in almost all countries, people with different ages are affects by violent media, particularly in TV programs, films, and also videogames (e.g., Comstock & Scharrer, 2007; Gentile, 2003; Gentile, Saleem, and Anderson, 2007; Kirsh, 2006; Singer and Singer, 2001). The possibility of negative effects of violence by media have been examined for around sixty years, and significant results has been gotten on numerous of the most key issues on this importance (Anderson, et al., 2010).

The main question of this article is whether children (between 6 to 12 years old) and their parents have the same perception about violence in videogame poster or not? Because, although in some countries violent videogames are band for children but they still have access to them and parents can control their children to not to play violent games. According to Dupon (2015) 92% of the children between the age 6 to 15 plays videogames and also 3-5% of all people addicted to videogames, and so, “Parents need to keep control of gaming from a young age rather than trying to recover control when children are older. Often there is an underlying mental health problem when young people are gaming excessively. They need mental health support” (www.wcc.vic.edu.au).

After these explanation about the videogames, the authors of this article focused on the videogame posters because the poster is the first picture that children and parents may see and although some posters shows the violence’s elements but in some posters there is no violence shown. For example, the poster of videogame called Minecraft, which is a popular videogame on the grounds, is not showing any kind of violence in the poster, as it is clear in figure 1.
Figure 1: Minecraft’s Poster

But the ministry of Children Services General Directorate wanted the legal process to ban the game to be started, according to daily Habertürk. “Although the game can be seen as encouraging creativity in children by letting them build houses, farmlands and bridges, mobs [hostile creatures] must be killed in order to protect these structures. In short, the game is based on violence,” Habertürk quoted the report as saying (www.hurriyetdailynews.com).

Based on this introduction the authors focused on the semiotic analysis of understanding violence signs in videogame posters and for doing so understanding of violence signs in videogame posters is divided into three main category which are: the appearance of the characters in posters, representation of violence tools in posters such as gun, sword, and etc., and also the result of violence in posters like blood, corps, and etc.

After given a short review of literature based on Peirce’s triangulation, causal signs, theory of mind and genre theory of communication and media studies, qualitative research method were selected to have a wider information about the understanding the violence signs between children and their parents. Five poster that shows violence and five which are not showing violence (but all are violent videogame) selected and by showing each game’s poster the similarity and differences of understanding violence signs between children and their parents discussed.

Literature Review

Causal Signs

From the beginning of this part, there is a need to explain why semiotic analysis of advertising videogames posters is related to linguistics and on general why in semiotics analysis there is always a need to understand language signs. According to Dyer (1982), “advertisers employ language and assemble a message to the audiences” (p. 9). In any kind of message transaction which called communication, language is a method of it and that’s why these two are interrelated. “Communication involves at least two persons, the addresser and the addressee, the code, transmitting the information which is to be delivered, and some kind of channel, through which the message will be transmitted. In advertising, the advertisement is this channel and language is the code” (Vestergaard and Schrøder, 1985) (quoted from Wejher, 2015, p.2).

The focused of this article is in advertising posters and so the categorization of communication in this article is just advertising videogame posters. But on general in any kind of advertising the language used could be verbal (spoken) or nonverbal (written). According to Vestergaard and Schroder, (1985) advertising is a one way of communication and it engage people because there is always one speaker which give a message to anonymous and sometimes heterogeneous public.

Charles Sanders Peirce’s ideas about signs system is not only intensely prove the theory of the iconic page, (Bornstein and Tinkl, 1998) but also Peirce concentrated on the iconic demand for any kind of sign to be valid and also reliable. “His semiotic, or theory of how human experience grows by means of the mediating structures we create, fully supports those emerging textual-editorial claims” (Keeler, n. d. p.1) in another word: “carried not only by the words (the ‘linguistic code’) but also by the material features of the text such as layout, illustration, size and kind of lettering, use of space, binding, cost, and the like” (Bornstein and Tinkl, 1998, p.1). Peirce’s ideas not only shows the “integration of the iconic or semantic features of the physical text with more traditional and purely linguistic considerations,” (Ibid, p.3) but also it clarify the reasons of why such a broad interpretation of
representation is reasonably and pragmatically essential to human vision and also the knowledge development (Keeler, n. d).

“As Gilbert Cohen-Séat says, we live in a universe of icono-sphere” (Solik, 2014, p.207). Nowadays humans are bounded by signs with numbers of kinds and also with numbers of connection to sign structure. In the case of advertising also it is the same because advertising deals with signs and signs systems for the purpose of persuading people. But people cannot comprehend all sign immediately. As Solik (2014, p. 208) explained: “We may suppose that the recipient and the advertiser have common interests (although their motives are quite different) and one of these interests refers to the need to understand signs in the best and quickest ways possible”.

Semiotics which also called semiology was first introduced in modern age by Ferdinand de Saussure at the beginning of twentieth century. Because semiology was founded within language signs and other forms of signals, it is possible to define semiotic as the scientific study of signs. As Bouzida (2004) defined semiotic as “semiotics is the science of signs that allowed the proliferation of a number of perspectives and paved the way to other cultural phenomena that raised the study of signs through its denotative and connotative meanings” (p.1001). “Semiotics refers to the explanation of mechanisms and functions of the text as well as visual communicators and gives us a chance of better understanding of the nature of the social processes” (Solik 2014, p. 209).

According to Umberto Eco (2009a) there are three semiotic method: interpretation, formalization and language analysis and all cultural output can be include in a semantic. “Due to its interdisciplinary nature, only interpretation is suitable for understanding of such units, on semiotic, as well as on semantic levels” (Eco, 2009b, p.64).

On general, the goal of advertising is to persuade and motivate people for a good and service, give some information, or give new information about a brand. According to Solik (2014, p. 207) “Production and reception of advertisements is linked to characteristic processes of semiotic that are different than in case of other types of audio-visual products. We work with an assumption that the advertising is ‘full of other denotative and connotative stimuli’ for the semiotic analysis”.

By considering Eco’s theory in open work, it is possible to find a relation to Stuart Hall’s statement also about how specific groups and subgroup of the people in society interpreted in variety of ways based on their experiences. For example, the interpretation of an advertising poster could be different based on people’s age, interests, opinion, and also attention to it. Also according to Kahneman, (2012) and Solik (2014, p. 216) “The involvement of intellect during watching advertisements is limited”.

Theory of Mind

Theory of Mind states to the capability to comprehend the psychological situations and intentions of other people and ourselves (Premack, and Woodruff, 1978; Doherty, 2009; Astington, and Edward, 2010; Miller, 2012). According to Frye and Moore (1991) “Once mature, it enables individuals to explain, predict, and manage others’ behaviors, and is considered to be an integral component for developing the ability to reason logically and abstractly” (LeBlanc, 2014, p. 2020). By the age three in children this ability appears but is not settled until people become adult (Wellman, et al., 2001). Gunter, et al. (2005, p.69) explained that: “children do not interact with advertisements in the same way that they interact with other people and this may be another reason to expect children’s full understanding of advertisements to lag in behind their understanding of minds and beliefs in other domains”.

As John Dewey and Lev Vygotsky explained years ago the development of children is depends on their experiences that they could collect daily but nowadays the thing that makes the experiences for children is the new context in western world which is mass media and also personal media. And according to LeBlanc (2014, p. 2021) “changing is the thought that the more socially and culturally oriented of theories of Vygotsky and Bronfenbrenner, are considered to be increasingly beneficial in acknowledging that children’s development is influenced by their environment and interactions within this environment, and does not “takes place in a vacuum”’.

Austing and Edward (2010) were arguing that theory of mind is more biological instead of social based because it developed with lack of technique. But on the other hand, Livingstone (2007) talked about the factors in the environment of children that increase its development. “If children are able to apply Theory of Mind abilities to electronic tasks, it could equally be associated with required competencies for media literacy… I propose that digital and/or electronic forms could influence children’s understandings of false belief tasks” (LeBlanc, 2014, p. 2021).

Every year companies spend billions of dollars for advertising such as TV commercial, internet ads and also posters and so on just to motivate children. In this regard, Buckingham (2003) says that media is playing with words, images, and sounds to control people in the world in the way that media wants which is troublesome on many ways.

Based on this explanation “Children need to understand the meaning behind language and the interpretations these meanings have for each of us, as consumers. They must learn the tools they need to think critically in response to television advertising” (LeBlanc, 2014, p. 2021).

Buckingham (2003) believed that children and adults are both influenced by media but LeBlanc (2014) says children are much
more vulnerable because of different perception qualitatively. “Children think differently from adults and there are qualitative differences in the way children of different ages understand the world around them” (Greig, 1999, p. 31). LeBlanc (2014) conclude that “without developmentally appropriate media literacy, children can be enticed into believing what the advertiser wants them to believe” (p. 2025).

**Genre Theory**

According to Williams (2003, p. 137) “ Those who emphasize the role of the media in the ‘construction’ of reality often focus on the practices adopted in the media production process as shaping the nature of representation. Despite apparent diversity, the output of the media can be divided into a number of particular kinds of production”. Turow (1997) talked about the ‘formula’ that media foster it. And “this formulas actively shape content” (Tiffen, 1989, p. 64). “The study of these formulas-labelled as ‘genre’ from the French word meaning ‘type’ or ‘kind’ has become a central part of contemporary media studies” (Williams, 2003, p.137). In every visual analysis of advertising design there is two main question which are: what/how it was saying? Each one of these question lead for different method of analyzing a poster. According to McQuarrie and Phillips (2008) for the question ‘what was saying’ the researches are focusing on the content of advertising and for the question ‘how it was saying’ researchers goes for constitute of communication. “The content of an advertisement contains the sales message the advertiser wants to become across to a target audience, but the stylistic idea and the values behind the sales message equally affect the final message of the advertisement, the sum of these two might be something else than what the advertiser intends” (Vare, 2014, p.7).

Based on M.A.K. Halliday’s works on social semiotics, Kress and van Leeuwen (2006 [1996]) developed a method for analyzing visual communication of social semiotic and also they introduced a structure of ‘multimodality, assigning representational, interpersonal and compositional meanings’ to images. “Thus, any image, beyond representing the world – whether in abstract or concrete ways – also plays a part in some interaction and constitutes a recognizable kind of text” (Moya and Pinar, 2008, p. 1602).

It is possible to categorize advertising posters in different ways but McQuarrie (2008) suggested to categorize advertising images into two look-trough and look-at pictures. “Look-trough pictures depict specific objects and scenes, onto which the pictures function as transparent windows… look-at pictures, on the other hand, might show many things but only depict themselves as images. They present ideas, which give them their meaning” (Vare, 2014, p. 50-51). Also McQuerrie (2008) suggested to categorize of look-at pictures in to different genres and he determined a ‘tableaux genre’ which images are coded culturally or sub culturally.

The main question in this research is whether parents and their children have the same perception about violence signs in videogame posters or not. Although parents and children have to categorize the genre of the videogame in the common way if they both have the same interpretation about the signs. But if their interpretation about signs are different they cannot also categorize the genre of the games which is shown in the poster.

**Understanding Violence Signs**

In this article, researcher’s categorized violence signs in three main part which are: first, the appearance of the characters in the poster. In some posters the characters in the posters giving the message to the audience that this videogame is violence but in some, viewers cannot easily understand the violence’s in the game. For example figure (1) is not showing any violence in the main character although the ministry of Children Services General Directorate believed that Mincraft is a violent game and it should be ban for children in Turkey.

Second is the representation of violence tools in videogame posters such as gun, sword or any kind of instrument that cause violence. In many posters the main character is a human and it doesn’t show any violence by the appearance but for example with a gun or sword or any kind of tools that cause violence people can consider that videogame as a violent game.

And third category is the result of violence in the videogame posters such as blood, corpse or etc. of course by showing blood in the poster people can easily find out the violence in the game but in some videogame posters which are truly violent, there is no blood or any kind of these violent signs. But the aim of this article is to find out the violence signs in videogame posters and that topic needs another research or researches.

**Methodology**

According to Newbold et al. (2002) “Within the broad hermeneutic tradition concerned with text analysis, there are two main strands particularly relevant to qualitative content analysis. The first, narratology... and the second draws on semiotics and focuses attention on signs and sign systems in texts and how readers might interpret (decode) those signs” (Macnamara, 2003, p.15).

Neuendorf (2002) says the qualitative research method and the analysis of texts is more properly defined and categorized as rhetorical analysis, narrative analysis, discourse analysis, structuralism or semiotic analysis, interpretative analysis or critical analysis (pp. 5-7). Jensen (1995) introduced the integrated social semiotics theory of mass communication which is a combination of structuralist semiotic research and modern poststructuralist theories. Which means the basics of both de Saussure approach of semiology and Peirce influenced semiotics applied and also each of them ideas is using for comprehensive study of mass media
representations. Newbold et al. (2002) perceive: “So in studying media texts … we can use these ideas as they can provide a way of assessing the meaning production in a text” (p. 87). Also Van Zoonen (1994) believed the semiotic analysis of a media text, such as advertising posters, could be identify by the signs in the text. After that Selby and Cowdery (1995), says “these signs can be analyzed as a result of selection and combination” (Newbold et al., 2002, p. 87).

**Sampling and Data Collection**

Based on these explanation and for the purpose of this research, qualitative research method were selected to have a deep and better understanding of the ideas of parents and their children about violence signs in videogame advertising posters. The sample for this research is convenience sampling method and for doing so 20 mother or father who have children between the ages 6 to 12 from different nationality were selected and researchers asked parents and their child separately because of bias which researchers avoid it. Children may feel not comfortable to answer questions or express their feeling about violence videogames in front of their parents. Of course children have more experience about playing games and they may play the videogames that researchers showed them the poster of it, although some parents also played some of those games but researches wanted the pure and truth feelings about violent signs from children.

In this research five videogame posters that have those three violent signs, which explained above, and five posters from other videogames that doesn’t have violence signs were showing in to two group of parents and their children to analyze the perception of signs in posters form these two group. Different nationality in this research selected because of the videogames were distributed globally and around the world, although the written language in all these posters were English but some parents and children preferred to talk and expressed their feelings and understanding in their own language and so the interviews were most in English but also there was some in Turkish, Persian, Germany and French that researchers could speak on these languages but the interviews with different language were all translated into English to have some important quotes from interviewees.

Keeler (1998, p.9) explained Peirce’s idea about questioning and he explained as: “new perspective evolved from his insistence that before we can ask the traditional philosophical question, ‘how is knowledge possible from experience,’ we must ask how meaning is possible in experience. What are the fundamental conditions for meaning to occur?”

Based on this idea of Peirce, in this research, five poster that have violence signs and five poster without violence sings showed to parents and their children and after each poster the following questions were asked but because the questions were open-ended interviewees could add their ideas openly. The questions were as follow:

Do you think this advertising poster is for violent videogame or not?
If this poster is for violent videogame show me the elements of violence and if not why you think it is nonviolent?
Do you let your children to play this game? / Do you want to play this game?
Can you say the genre of this videogame by this poster?

Because the focus of this article is on human perception of violence signs in two group of parents and children, the elements such as sex, nationality and ages is not considering specifically and so, the only division in this article is parents and their children between 6 and 12 years old.

The posters of this article were as follow:

![Figure 2 Posters](image-url)
Data Analysis
After interviewing 20 mother or father that has children between 6 to 12 years old and their children, the answers for the first question was showing that all parents believed the posters for Gears of War. 3, Star Craft, Halo.4, Prototype and God of War are all for violent games and only the parents who knows the Bio Shock, Half-life and The Hunger Game’s games knows that these games are violent. Out of 20 parent, only 6 were saying that Fallout. 3 and just 4, who knows the news about Mincraft, were saying it is violent game.

All parents believed that the videogame that has gun on it is the cause of violence that means Gears of War. 3, Star Craft and Halo. 4 and God of War and Prototype are violence game because of the face of the character or better to say, the appearance of the character. The parents who were saying Fallout. 3 is violent believed that because in the image children are throwing stone this game is violence but about Mincraft no one could distinguish the elements of violent. Half-life, Bio Shock and The Hunger Game doesn’t have any violent sign in the poster according to the parents.

Out of 20 parent none of them wanted their child to play any of these violent game but 14 of them who had child above 10 were saying that they child is playing violent game and they cannot control it. One mother were saying that her 10 years old child was telling her that: “This kind of videogames are everywhere, in mobile phone, in game nets and everywhere. This is the new generation of games and you (her mother) cannot understand it. It is not about violence and it’s not affecting me. Also all my friends are playing these games and I also want to play. If you don’t let me to play in home, I will go out with my friends and play in game nets”.

The answers of parents to the last question of this research was also based on the sings used in the posters. 15 parent were saying that while there is a soldier in the poster, then it could be war videogame (Halo. 4) and 6 were saying while there is an alien ( Star Craft) then it is a fiction game. But all 20 parent were saying that Gears of War. 3, Star Craft, Halo. 4, Prototype and God of War is just violent game and they couldn’t specify the genre of these games. Out of that 4 parent who knows the news about banding Mincraft in Turkey 14 couldn’t say anything about the genre of Mincraft and 2 were saying this game is Lego game. 3 parent who doesn’t have any idea about The Hunger Game were saying it could be romance and also Half-life is about family but they couldn’t say anything about the genre of Bio Shock and Fallout. 3.

Children but were answering to questions differently and out of 20 child 17 of them who were playing Mincraft were saying that it is not violent game at all and except Mincraft the rest of them is violent game. The judgment of children about the posters were mostly based on their experiences and boys had more experience about videogames than girls and because the majority of girls were not playing these violence videogames, they could specify the violence signs better than boys. All child were believing that Gears of War.3, Star Craft, Halo.4, Prototype, God of War, Half-Life, Fallout.3, Bio Shock are violent games and 3 of them who didn’t watch the film of The Hunger Game were saying its non-violent and the rest (even the ones who didn’t play the game) were saying because the videogame is based on the film, so it is violent.

Children says the appearance of the main character may show the violence in the posters and also according to them the posters of Gears of War.3, Star Craft, Halo.4, Prototype, God of War have the violence signs but Mincraft and The Hunger Game doesn’t have any violence sign. 17 child said Half-Life, Fallout. 3 and Bio Shock has dark color in the poster and it gives the feeling of dark and scary environment in the game and 3 of them shows the background of Half-Life and Fallout. 3 and believed that the background is showing the violence.

Out of 20 child, 12 of them wanted to play all these videogames, 4 of them just was interested in Mincraft and The Hunger Game and 4 of them were not interested on any of these videogames. Only some children above 10 years old know the definition of the genre and out of them just 3 of them could say Halo. 4 is fiction.

Conclusion
According to the literature review above, children are more attracted to the advertising because they media literacy is not shape yet and also children in today’s life are so much attach to the videogames and they spend lots of their time by playing these type of new media. Although some videogames is helping children’s mind to develop but the violence in some is the issues that must be consider. Some policy may help to limit the effects of violence in videogames on children but family members and especially parents can control their child to not to play violence videogames. By considering the sensitivity of children and their essences which is not shape but it will shape soon, some organization and policy can help to reduce the effect of violence videogames on child. But the focus of this article was to analyze whether parents or better to say, adults have the same perception of the violence’s signs as the children or they have different understanding about signs of violence. Because humans perceptions is shaping three time and experience, it is not possible to expect children that have the same perception about sign system but on the other hand, children nowadays are so much attach to the media and they learn many things from it.

In this article, researchers shown ten videogame posters to twenty father or mother and also to their child between 6 to 12 years old and found out child perception about violence signs and their parents are different. Children automatically were focusing on their experiences of videogames although parents was focusing on the violence signs such as blood, gun, and the appearance of
the main characters on the posters. Also according to children killing an animal in videogames is not showing violence because they repeated this image several times in different videogames but parents believed that killing an animal is also a violence behavior and children should not play the videogames that has this kind of actions.

Unfortunately parents cannot watch all the scenes of videogames that their children play and usually they focus on the images of the poster and in some videogames the poster is not showing any kind of violence but there is some violence on them. Interestingly children believed that the appearance of the main character in the poster may show the violence in the game but it is not a must because they were playing some videogame that players cannot see the face of main character while they are playing and they named some strategic games that while they were playing only the gun is in the screen and not the face of the character. For example according to the children who were playing the videogame called God of War the appearance of the character is not showing fully on the poster but it was the most violent videogame that they ever played.

By considering this new media that is so attractive for the children and it is affecting on their behavior and future life, having more research about videogames are quite necessary and not just the poster. Researchers can focus on the content of this videogames to have wider information about what children are playing and what is the direct and indirect effect of this media on the future generation.

Reference:


Show Me Your World: Harlem News, Harlemworld

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Abstract
In tandem with Harlem’s iconic status as the epicenter of Black culture has been its designation of being replete with overcrowding, poverty and an overabundance of the ills of American society. One particular publication, Harlem News distributed throughout Harlem since 1995 features advertisements and article headlines that stand in stark contrast to the quantitative data collected by the US census for Central Harlem. In what ways can textual analysis, using a humanistic approach (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996) cross the chasm that exists between the Harlem as seen through quantitative data and the Harlem depicted in Harlem News? This paper explores the Harlem depicted in Harlem News juxtaposed with 2010 census data. Additionally, John Jackson’s “Harlemworld” concept (2005) as this ideal and realized neighborhood in New York City extending beyond the geographic barriers of the physical place, will address Harlem as this “imagined community” (Anderson 1991)

Introduction
New York City is the largest city in the United States with a population of over 8 million people. (2010 Census). The city consists of five boroughs with New York County, often referred to as Manhattan, being the most populous with a land area of 23 square miles and a population of 1,585,873. Harlem consists of Central, East and West Harlem. Central Harlem which consists of Community Board 9 in New York County is often the Harlem “of” the Harlem Renaissance. Unlike other Black sections of inner cities Central and West Harlem were unique in that it was an area built initially for the wealthy (Freeman 2006). East Harlem was developed as tenement housing for immigrant groups lacking both the opulence and transportation options of Central and West Harlem (Davilla 2004). Black population losses in northern Manhattan which includes Central Harlem was responsible for most of the nearly 30,000 (13 percent) decline in blacks in the entirety of the borough of Manhattan, more than any other borough. Central Harlem has seen its Black population shrink from over 95% during its heyday to the current 60+ percent (New York City Department of City Planning, May 2012).

Although Harlem experienced an economic decline during and following the depression, segregation kept many Blacks in Harlem where they remained the dominant, if not sole group well into the 1990’s. The great migration contributed to Harlem’s iconic designation as the mecca for Blacks in America. The Harlem Renaissance, an arts and culture movement in the early 20th century, contributed to Harlem’s designation as this epicenter of Black culture. In addition to its Black cultural roots, census and other qualitative data present a Harlem marked with income that is lower than that found throughout the rest of New York City. The median income then and now in Harlem lags behind the income of the rest of Manhattan making it financially challenging for many to flee.

This paper does not seek to debate whether the quantitative data is correct, nor the process through which the data is released. The New York City planning documents released in August of 2011 still contained data from the 2000 Census, the full data set containing 2010 Census data was released in 2012. This paper seeks to explore the Harlem as depicted in Harlem News juxtaposed with census data. Additionally, the concept of “Harlemworld” as posited by John Jackson (2005) as this ideal and realized neighborhood in New York City that extends beyond the geographic barriers of the physical place, will be used in addressing Harlem as this “imagined community” (Anderson 1991)

Methods
A humanistic approach proves an apropos lens as it lends itself to conflation of the researcher with the phenomenon. The impetus for this study arose while in the field conducting research for a larger study on Harlem’s Black elite, They Chose to Stay. During my time in the field there were shoot-outs, one fatal, on 111th street between 5th Avenue and Lenox Avenue. I was actually caught in one of the shoot-outs, while driving down the block in the early evening as the sun was setting looking for parking. I canvased the local media to review coverage of the event I had experienced first hand. Harlem News pledge to only focus on the good

Harlem: Moving Up-Town that is...
My move to Harlem was prompted by a yearning to live in a community where I was not the only or one of the few people of color. My previous apartment, a cooperative in Kew Gardens, Queens had less than five apartments occupied by families of color, spread throughout a 21 story high-rise building. Prior to that I lived in Brooklyn Heights and was the only person of color living on my block. My move in 1996 prompted warnings from all of my New York-born friends, especially my Black ones, who admonished me for moving to an area that they viewed as crack infested and replete with poverty, and violence, none of which I found rampant. I had worked in Harlem from 1994 until 1995, as the Manhattan Single Copy Sales representative for the now defunct New York Newsday. My move to Harlem in 1996 was grounded within curiosity regarding Harlem’s middle and upper class, that has since haunted me and planted the seeds for my summer research thirteen years later. In 2000 I moved further downtown to a building on Fifth Avenue between 111th and 112th street, my base while conducting fieldwork.
My fieldwork area fell within boundaries which comprises all of Central Harlem, East Harlem and portions of Washington Heights: from the Westside highway to Fifth avenue, as far south as 110th street to 161st street at the north; from the East river to Fifth avenue as far south as 96th street to 138thstreet at the north. The fieldwork area mimicked the dispersion of middle and upper-income residents from historic areas such as Striver’s Row, Sugar Hill, and Mount Morris Park, which had previously been clusters of safe and acceptable housing for middle and upper-income residents (Hyra, 2008) My field site—a six story mixed income rental building with 55 apartments. The fieldsite building had been built in 1989 as part of one of the initial waves of New York city funded projects meant to revitalize the area receiving 421a tax incentives. The block was initially tenement buildings, which were demolished. The city provided the land to the owners at a low cost, rumored to be one dollar, in exchange for development of the land into mixed use, mixed income residential housing with ground floor commercial space. The fieldsite was located next to King Towers, a New York City Housing Authority (NYCHA) property built, in 1954. There are 1,373 apartments housing and an estimated 3,325 residents. The 13.75-acre site was completed October 31, 1954 and is between West 112th and West 115th Streets, Lenox and Fifth Avenues.  

The NYCHA building lacked a well lighted lobby and did not feature a doorman, whereas my apartment during fieldwork had a 24 hour staffed doorman, valet parking garage, laundry on every floor and a well lighted marble entry lobby with a couch and plastic floral arrangements in the lobby.

My initial Harlem fieldwork was conducted in the Summer of 2009 from May until September when I conducted 17-week field research investigating Information Communication Technology (ICT) by Black parents, caretakers and educators whom I met in Harlem. Subsequent fieldwork was conducted from October 2010 until October 2013, and again from November 21st until January 27th, 2014. Although I “officially” ended fieldwork on January 27th, 2014 I continue to meet and see many of the people featured throughout the paper, with IRB approval through November of 2015.

I observed hundreds of people, and interviewed 17. Utilizing participant observation as a method which included multiple techniques: observation; informal and semi-structured individual and group interviews; spot observations; and archival research (Bernard 2006), I connected with people, spending time with them in their homes and as they conducted their daily lives, shadowing them (Czarniawska, 2007), attending social events, family events, and as they conducted business. I used the snowball technique, which also led to shadowing and an interview with several people who no longer lived or worked in Harlem. Snowball Sampling was to minimize the problems associated with understanding and sampling hard to access populations such as “elites.” This paper defines elites as those who made a choice to either work or live in Harlem when they had the resources to flee and relocate elsewhere. Recognizing the challenges inherent in snowball as it predicates that people know one another. I requested contacts at multiple touch points and thus had multiple balls “rolling.”

I use the term “peeps” as a more unifying way to refer to those who participated in my study. Those who participated in my study did more than simply participate, they ARE the study. I always felt an uncomfortable twinge when referring to them as “Participants,” “Informants,” or even “Interlocutors.” Working with some of my “peeps,” we came up with the term, which seemed to embody the intimacy of our relationship. This term also helped me work through some of my own challenges with the hierarchical relationships inherent in some of the other terms. “Peeps” stems from an urban term, which is a shortened form for “my peoples,” used to refer to friends or people within your circle. The use of “peeps,” spoke to the urban nature of the study and the complexities of the “elite,” who are not often associated with using urban slang.

I interviewed key “peeps” at least three times for 90 minutes each using a phenomenological approach focusing on the experiences of those interviewed and the meanings they make of those experiences (Seidman 2013). There were some interviews which only occurred once and in the case of married couples I interviewed both partners together. My “peeps” either read or were aware of Harlem News and one, “Sheila” during my time in the field approached the owner regarding writing a column targeting young people interested in college and other educational opportunities. Sheila is in her late 50’s approaching retirement following a successful career owning a boutique public relations firm. Sheila who had attended Wellesley for undergrad, New York University for Graduate School with some time at The London School of Economics wanted young people to have access to higher education. Pat Stevenson the owner paid her a nominal fee to write a weekly column. In addition to Sheila, another one of my peeps Vivian knew Pat Stevenson and admired her tenacity and drive. She shared that Pat came out of the “advertising world,” and got “how to maneuver and make enough money to keep herself afloat.” Vivian also shared that her news gathering process relied heavily on press releases stating, “All you have to do is send her a press release and she will cover your event.”

Setting

Harlem was initially a rural area settled by the Dutch and during a time of great expansion in the early and mid-1800’s Harlem was developed as an upscale suburban community. At the time transportation options were limited which would have made travel to the commercial section of Manhattan cumbersome. Transportation growth in the 1870’s fueled real estate speculation and growth of real estate development, which collapsed in the first decade of the twentieth century (Scheiner 1966).

In the beginning of the 18th century there were 1500 Negroes in NYC, by 1900 that number had increased to 36,000 in Manhattan
Central Harlem’s terrain covers 1.5 square miles and 961 acres. The area is bordered by 5th and its rationale (Lewis 1966), and more recently drug dealing (Bourgois 1996), health disparities (Mullings and Wali 2001, people within the confines of Harlem. Furthermore the anthropological fascination with Harlem was historically one with poverty observation which came under fire from people like Albert Murray, who called his methodology shoddy and ultimately isolated youth programs such as Kenneth Clark’s Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited Inc. (HARYOU) offered statistics and other observation which came under fire from people like Albert Murray, who called his methodology shoddy and ultimately isolated people within the confines of Harlem. Furthermore the anthropological fascination with Harlem was historically one with poverty and its rationale (Lewis 1966), and more recently drug dealing (Bourgois 1996), health disparities (Mullings and Wali 2001, Mullings 2005), and gentrification (Jackson 2003, Davilla 2004, Sharman 2006, Rhodes-Pitts 2011).

The period of the 1950’s and 60’s saw ethnographies confirming the perception of a declining and crime ridden Harlem (Lewis.) This period saw the introduction of data and other statistics, which although meant to attract resources and attention to various youth programs such as Kenneth Clark’s Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited Inc. (HARYOU) offered statistics and other observation which came under fire from people like Albert Murray, who called his methodology shoddy and ultimately isolated people within the confines of Harlem. Furthermore the anthropological fascination with Harlem was historically one with poverty and its rationale (Lewis 1966), and more recently drug dealing (Bourgois 1996), health disparities (Mullings and Wali 2001, Mullings 2005), and gentrification (Jackson 2003, Davilla 2004, Sharman 2006, Rhodes-Pitts 2011).

Central Harlem’s terrain covers 1.5 square miles and 961 acres. The area is bordered by 5th avenue to the East, Morningside Avenue, St. Nicholas Avenue, Edgecombe Avenue and the Harlem River Drive to the West, 110th Street and Central Park North to the South and the Harlem River to the North. The area has several natural boundaries which include Central Park to the South of 110th Street, Harlem River to the North, and Marcus Garvey Park also known as Mount Morris Park to the East of 5th avenue, Morningside Park to the West of Morningside Park, St. Nicholas Park to the North of St. Nicholas Avenue. The area covers a small area yet within this small parcel of land lies Le Petite Senegal—known as the largest area hosting Senegalese outside of Senegal, the famed Apollo Theater, and Harlem Hospital—as of 2014 the only Hospital in Central Harlem.

With a population slightly over 110,000, 37% receive government cash support in form of either medicaid—governemnt health insurance for the poor, supplemental security income—a federally funded program to provide cash suppoort to hep aged, blind and disabled people, or cash suppart in the form of the state and federeally funded Teporary Assistance for Neeedy Families (TANF) commonly referred to as “welfare.” (New York City Department of City Planning May 2012)

Harlem News: Harlemworld

The Harlem News Group publishes a free weekly newspaper: Harlem News: Good News You Can Use Connecting Harlem, Queens, Brooklyn and the South Bronx “featuring ‘only’ positive news and information. Harlem News is the longest continuously published free weekly available in buildings, restaurants, and cultural institutions. Their mission states:

The Harlem News Group will publish positive news and information. Our mission is to deliver “good” and informative news to our readers focusing on health, education, housing, business and employment opportunities. We look for and publish results, not problems. We promote businesses, opportunities and events happening in the communities we serve. We are dedicated to providing you our readers with valuable information they can use to improve the quality of life for themselves, their families and their communities. (p.2)

The owner Pat Stevenson has published similar papers in Brooklyn, Queens and the Bronx since 1995. She has always struggled to keep the paper alive and as of 2015 started holding more sponsored events to drive revenue and offer a more integrated media offering to advertisers (Jones notes).

There are paid publications available on newsstands targeting Blacks which are distributed throughout Central Harlem: Amsterdam News—which is the longest running paid newspaper in Harlem founded in New York city in 1909 moving to Harlem in 1910, New York Beacon, and NY Carib News. The Harlem Times is another free weekly founded in 2001—whose tag line is “News for Harlem and the Harlem of the World,” according to their 2013 media kit they print 25,000 copies which are seen by 100,000. The only audited publication was The Amsterdam News, all of the other publications self-reported their circulation numbers. Harlem News is the only publication without a stated audience based on news regarding a race or ethnicity. All of the other publications have tag lines state that they feature news regarding people of Black, African-American, or Caribbean descent. Harlem News purports itself to be a publication geared towards Harlem, with the only caveat being that they only publish “positive news.”

The Harlem News Group, Inc. publishes four newspapers; Harlem Community News, Queens Community News, Brooklyn Community News and Bronx Community News. These publications are “free” to our readers. We currently distribute 50,000 weekly copies in malls, supermarkets, retail outlets, apartment buildings, banks, colleges, YMCA, libraries and cultural institutions in the communities we serve. Our editorial features “only” positive news and information. We provide a positive environment in which businesses and corporations can advertise and promote their products and services. Our rates are reasonable for advertisers who may want to reach consumers in a specific area or they can advertise in all four of our publications utilizing
Harlem, historically known as an area of predominantly the lower class, confirmed with census and other statistical data produces newspapers and magazines which when analyzed reflect Harlem as an Imagined Community in the sense of Benedict Anderson, “imagined because the members of even the smallest nation will never know most of their fellow members, or even hear of them, yet in the minds of each lives the image of their communion (1991:6). Albeit the imagined community resides in parallel with the geographic and physical Harlem of census tracts, community boards and other geographical boundaries which contain the “residents” of Harlem. Harlem exists in both the physical and imagined sense as evidenced in the cover, articles, and advertisements found within Harlem News, the only free local weekly newspaper whose goal is to provide “positive community news.”

Often the Harlem Renaissance is credited as being one of the major catalysts in the perception of Harlem as this epicenter of Black culture. A “Harlemworld” not bound by space with its basis tied to print culture, i.e. the printed word which was produced, and distributed during the Harlem Renaissance, indeed supports Benedict Anderson’s Imagined Community concept, in that “print capitalism laid the bases for national consciousness, albeit a national consciousness of this idealized Blackness depicting “a kind of image” of the social life of Harlem while concurrently “actively creating social life.”

Currently Harlem is experiencing a renaissance of another sort, often conflated with talks regarding gentrification. This renaissance within the last ten years has seen the introduction of Uptown Magazine with its office located in Harlem on 125th street with a national focus using the local euphemism for Harlem—“Uptown.”

Whether Harlem is considered an imagined community or one with geographic bounds, census and other quantitative data obscure the existence of the middle class within Harlem’s confines. In spite of studies that noted the Black middle class flight as a social phenomenon in the age of deindustrialization (Wilson 1976, 1980, 1987, 1996, 2009, Lacy 2007), Steven Gregory argues that this was exaggerated by the likes Wilson who focused too narrowly on poverty and conflated poverty with Black culture (1998). “My Peeps” remained, fought (both publically and behind closed doors) to maintain and eventually reinvigorate Harlem.

I would argue that middle class flight should not be the basis of arguments regarding urban decay. Mary Patillo, looked at middle class Blacks in a Chicago neighborhood. During a lecture November 1st, 2013 at Columbia University Patillo clarified that her definition of middle class was actually more the lower middle class. “The middle class is not the people like you and I in this room. They are secretaries, postal workers, not people with PhD’s making more than one hundred thousand dollars a year.” In contrast, “my Peeps” held assets in the form of real estate, stocks, or savings of at least $500,000. They all had either a bachelor’s degree or some sort of training or license, often a real estate brokers license, many had master’s degree, and there were at least six with doctoral degrees. Despite arguments that state as African Americans generate wealth they often flee the inner city (Wilson 1976, 1980, 1987, 1996, 2009, Lacy 2007), they have been wealthy African Americans in Harlem since African Americans first flocked to the area in the early 1890’s. The non-poor in Harlem have been documented since the first group of middle class Blacks migrated to the area (DuBois 1901, Johnson 1930, Dodson 2000). The African American middle class in Harlem have most recently been studied primarily around issues of class and race as it relates to black (re)gentrification (Taylor 2002, Jackson 2003, Hyra 2008, Rhodes-Pitts 2010).

Quantitative data on Central Harlem showcases a geographic area where 43.3 percent of the population receive income support in the form of cash assistance, supplemental security income, or Medicaid. Census data for 2010 showcases a Central Harlem that is no longer predominantly Black, with one of the lowest incomes within all of Manhattan.

Textual Analysis Using a Humanistic Approach
From 2010 to 2011 the Central Harlem’s 28th precinct recorded murders jumping from two to six. I was caught in one of those shoot-outs while driving down the block looking for parking. Harlem News pledge to only focus on the good in the community, “Good News, Your can Use,” was reflected in their news coverage. None of the shootings were ever featured in Harlem News.

The third week in October for 2010 and 2011 was selected to conduct the textual analysis. According to the 2010 Census Data, Central Harlem has a population of approximately 118,000, an increase of about 11,000 over the past 10 years. Presently, African Americans, which according to the census definition includes Caribbean’s, African immigrants, and Blacks, whom I define as those who came to the United States involuntarily as slaves and those who identify as their direct descendants, all comprise approximately 63% of Central Harlem’s population, followed by Hispanic at 22%, Whites at 10% and Asian at 2%. Blacks are no longer the sole inhabitants of the Central Harlem. Census tracts

Harlem News October 2010 comprised 48 advertisements and in October 2011 comprised 35 advertisements, which included 2 in-house advertisements for Harlem News. Of the Advertisements featuring people who did not appear to be of African descent: one appeared in both the 2010 and 2011 publication using the same advertisement featuring four students marketing the Harlem YMCA Literacy Zone, and the other advertisements featured only in 2011 marketed Rev Will of the United Divine Church of
the Healing Christ as a wedding officiant, and another with a photo of Rev. Will from the previous advertisement marketed the United Divine Church of the Healing Christ. Columbia University had a full-page advertisement with one photo which featured a football player in full gear whose race was obscured. The articles did not feature photos of anyone that did not appear to be of African descent, although there was a montage of 19 photos from Harlem Week, which featured one photo where there appeared to be two people who were not of African descent.

About 15 percent of Harlem’s black population is foreign-born according to census data, mostly from the Caribbean, with a growing number from Africa, which is reflected in the articles and people featured throughout Harlem News e.g. Latin legend flutist Dave Valentin, Marva Allen owner of HueMan Bookstore of Caribbean descent, of the students listed on the article about the Touro College of Pharmacy participation in the Senior Entitlement Fair mentioned three students Olawemimo Abiona, Chukwuma Pius and John Park. There did not appear to be any news coverage of issues related to African immigrants.

The Harlem News 2010 cover features national radio show host, writer and comedian Steve Harvey’s Dreamer’s Academy recruitment drive. There was a photo with Steve Harvey and five youth taken at a New York event October 7th which celebrated five years of the Dreamers Academy. The Dreamers Academy is held at the Walt Disney World resort in Orlando, Florida, and the recruiting event was held at a hotel in Midtown Manhattan. The Publisher referenced the event in her opening letter, which is found in every magazine. The Attendees of the Academy were announced in December 2010 and there were five listed from the state of New York, 3 from Brooklyn, one from Cambria Heights in Queens and another from Liverpool, New York.

The content throughout the publication equally holds true to the tagline. The community section featured one article: Special Ceremony Celebrating the 9th Incoming Class of Lang Scholars, about a program founded by a philanthropist with students from Washington Heights and Inwood areas of New York focusing on science and math education in Manhattan. The longest section was the events section which featured a Jazz for Young People family Concert at Lincoln Center, a Concert Celebrating John Coltrane at Rose Theater, also part of Lincoln Center, Modern Art by Anton who is actually based in Mt. Vernon—a predominantly African American Town in Suburban Westchester County which based upon 2010 census data is 63.4% Black. Anton’s work was featured at an art event I attended in the summer of 2010 at Renaissance Gallery in Harlem and during our conversation he informed me that this studio was in Mt. Vernon. I had also met Anton when I worked at a newspaper in Westchester County from 2000 until 2006. The events section also featured Dreamers Academy story from the cover, asking students to submit applications.

The publication’s advertisements feature primarily local businesses. There was an advertisement for the Mountaintop, a Broadway play featuring Samuel L. Jackson and Angela Bassett. Tickets range from $136.50 to 49.50, although no ticket price was mentioned in the advertisement. The advertisements for rental apartments featured apartments ranging from $1,400 to 2,200 per month and condo’s from $450,000 to 650,000 up. There was an advertisement entitled, Living with HIV/AIDS, for an outpatient adult day health care program for people with HIV/AIDS in Harlem. They advertised themselves as the “Only AIDS Specialty Skilled nursing facility in Harlem.” They mentioned that they had served Harlem since 1992. The full-page advertisement on the back page was for the City College of New York Continuing and Professional Studies Program. Many of the advertisers had Harlem in the title, Physical Therapy of Harlem, Harlem Alliance for the Mentally Ill (HAMI), Harlem Arts Alliance, The Brownstone, Harlem’s Crown Jewel, and Harlem YMCA Literacy Zone.

Jack Goody mentions lists as it relates to literate and pre-literate societies and writing. Goody serves as a valuable tool when analyzing the lists featured on the cover of Harlem News. The 2010 Harlem News cover featured Steve Harvey and students from Disney’s Dreamers Academy with the following headlines:

**Left hand navigation all in white type on green background**

Inside
NY Urban League Present a Parents Guide to College
Touro College Participates in Senior Entitlement Fair
John Coltrane Legacy Concert Oct. 28&29 at Rose Theater

**Below Photo all in white type on green background**

Disney’s Dreamers Academy with Steve Harvey Looking for High School Students with Dreams

Goody referenced various types of lists, administrative lists, “information extracted from the social situation in which it had been embedded” (1990:88), event lists which are chronicle type records (91), and lexical lists, “lists of classes of objects, such as trees, animals and the body parts” (94). Reviewing the lists on the cover of the publication provide a glimpse into a Harlem the publication outlines as being one focused on academic success, music and entertainment, and events for Seniors in the community. The list also showcases an interest that extends beyond the geographic bounds of Harlem.

**Conclusion**

The Harlem depicted in *Harlem News* provides a glimpse into one of the many Harlem’s that could be argued as existing, alongside the one depicted in the quantitative data. I would argue for a multiplicity of Harlem’s some imagined quasi-groups, which come together around common causes, comprising geographical as well as non-geographical boundaries. A Harlem that is
both a “state of mind” as well as one with physical bounds all existing concurrently. The publication demonstrates a Harlem that exists in both places, as it extends Harlem beyond the physical bounds while also making a case for a geographic space known as “Harlem.” Qualitative data serves as a lens through which to also view Harlem, and make the case for the presentation of multiple Harlem’s. Harlem News’ coverage obscures “shoot-outs” and the census data obscures the people covered in Harlem News.

De Certeau asserts in the Practice of Everyday Life, reading is thus situated at the point where social stratification (class relationships) and poetic operations (the practitioner’s constructions of a text) intersect; a social hierarchization seeks to make the reader conform to the “information” distributed by an elite (or semi-elite); reading operations manipulate the reader by insinuating their inventiveness into the cracks in cultural orthodoxy. (1984:72) De Certeau reference to the readers highlights an interesting component of the distribution of Harlem News which is only found in certain residential buildings 1330 fifth Avenue a market rate rental building where rents range from $1200 for a one bedroom to $2300 for a two bedroom, restaurants such as MoBay—which closed its doors in 2013—owned by a husband and wife team—which yelp listed as having entrées in the moderate price range at $11-30 and cultural institutions such as the Dwyer Center within Harlem. Further study would involve canvassing Harlem to provide a map of all of the places where the publication is available, which would in some ways hint at readership. Although free by controlling where the publication is made available the publisher is thus controlling or in some ways “targeting” access to the information. This targeted access amounts to an “elite or semi-elite” distribution, as I did not find copies of the publication available in King Towers, a public housing development, sandwiched between a rental building and a condo development, which both had copies of the publication available. It could be argued that the presence of doorpersons at each of these buildings facilitated distribution, which further research would be necessary to conclude or at least shed more light upon.

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Social Changes & Social Media Usage amongst Emirati Female

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Abstract  
Similar to other world’s regions, the reputation and utilization of social media has risen exponentially within few years in the United Arab Emirate (UAE). The upward shift in the UAE female use of social media invited the researcher to conduct this study. The research aimed at comprehending the reasons behind increase in the social media popularity among the Emirati females. It also investigated the reasons that are causing the Emirati female increase their social media usage. The study, through the methods of comparison with the previous situation in the UAE, methods of analysis and description, is focused on the way of changing traditional beliefs aligned with females and how women rights in full citizenship was achieved. The study also discusses the social and economic progress in the last decade. It also follows the discussion of Internet stages of development until it reached today’s level of usage among the Emirati female.

Keywords: Internet accessibility, social media, Emirate females.

Introduction  
The creation of social media is directed to assist people find each other. In the past, there existed traditional forms of social media such as newspaper, radio and movies, but their influence to people’s lives was small. The discovery of Internet revolutionized every aspect of traditional forms of social media. It changed their delayed passage of message, as most of the traditional media were inaccessible, unresponsive, inflexible, and scheduling (Pejman, 2009). Internet has made social media visible to all willing to use as long as they have Internet access (Eastin and LaRose, 2004). Thus, the social media is no longer a medium of meeting people only, but also became a medium of communication.

In Emirates, the widely used social media includes Facebook, followed by Twitter, while Google lag on third. During Arab Spring, Twitter contributed significantly, as it brought people together (Arabic Knowledge, 2011). Digitally, the Emirates are considered properly connected considering a study undertaken by Telecommunication Regulatory Authority in 2010, which showed that 99% of homes in the region had mobile phones, 78% of the homes could access reliable internet and half of the homestead had a social media account (Strong and Hareb, 2012). Hussein (2013) says Middle East, in the recent years, has emerged a new social media hub. The availability of mobile phones and cheap Internet has enabled the growth of the social media in the region. A survey explored on proportions of social media use showed users of Facebook were 94%, twitter at 52% and Google at 46%, YouTube covered 1% and other social media such as WhatsApp at 8%, LinkedIn at 10%, Instagram at 4% and others were noted to have strong influence too (Arabic Knowledge, 2011; Physic.org, 2013). YouTube and ‘other social media’ except LinkedIn occupied a lesser proportion due to their limited commerciality and concentrating a lot on entertainment (Hussein, 2013; Jenaibi, n.d.). LinkedIn has potential of growing in Emirate than Twitter, as it is more commercial than twitter (Hussein, 2013). The users of the social media account prefer the accounts using English other than pure Arabic. Considering the growth of the social media in the region, since 2010, Facebook is estimated to grow at 10% and Twitter at 20%. Nevertheless, the emerging social media popularity is growing at a higher rate than Facebook or Twitter (Arabic Knowledge, 2011; Dubai School of Government, 2011; Strong and Hareb, 2012).

This research presents a description entailing the background of motives for using social media as based on gratification consequent through studying the reasons for rising in popularity among Emirati female. The study also covers various types of social media, information and communication technology elements with background that highlight its features, changes, usage, popularity, significance, and content of changes in relation to Emirati youth in the Arabian Gulf Region.

Methods and Procedures  
The study elaborates the situation in the past in the UAE, with an emphasis on the social changes that have contributed to the growing impact of the Internet and its increased use by women in the UAE. The methods that are used are comparison with the previous situation in the UAE, methods of description and analysis of current situations. The research analyzed a number of surveys and studies by government and non-governmental organizations. For the research purposes, it was unavoidable to analyze the past, all those changes and positive changes in the social environment in the emirate, which contributed to greater rights for women and that have opened the way for their networking in the global Internet network.

The emphasis is on changing traditional believes against women; socio-economic progress achieved by women in UAE in the past
decade - significant changes that have led to social media movement, increased use of the Internet and social networks. As the completion of the research process, there is a comparative overview of the current situation in the UAE and other countries in the Middle East, and the world beyond.

**Background**

Fast wealth accumulation from oil mining has made the seven emirates, Abu Dhabi, Umm al-Quwain, Ajman, Ras al-Khaimah, Sharjah, Dubai, and Fujairah established in 1971 and ruled by emirs, grow rapidly in terms of communication and economic prosperity (Roben, 2004). According to Dubai School of Government (2012), in the Arab world, there exists ongoing population empowerment by civil movements and political reformists. Social media is highly involved in the ongoing community empowerment (Strong and Hareb, 2012).

Since 1970s, Emirates infrastructures have been revolutionized due to influence from institutional affiliations, electronic communication and transnational travel networks (Pinaroc, 2009). Slaughter (2007) states that in the Emirate community, the social media industry has more than 1.7 million followers. Moreover, the social site popularity is exponentially increasing. This has drawn attention from policy makers who are debating over the influence of social media at Arab community and the whole world (Mourtada and Salem, 2012). A world Economic Report acknowledges the development in usage of social media in Emirati as it rank the region the leading Arab country in adoption of information and technology (Slaughter, 2007). It also lead in spending huge amount of national income in the adoption of emerging technologies, information and technology hardware and software in social institutions like the hospital, civil projects and schools (Sysomes, 2010). For example, between 2008 and 2011, the government of Emirate region planned to spend $3.3 Billion (Slaughter, 2007). Emirate government and citizens are striving to remain abreast with rapid changes in technological improvement especially in the usage of internet, as these are effective methods of obtaining information and communicating (Robin, 2004). Actively, most of customers in Emirate utilize online forums to search for product details as many suppliers sell through social media forums (Jenaibi, 2013).

Furthermore, the founder of the Twitter once said the emergence of Twitter was meant to assist individuals keep in touch with each other by quickly looking through a friends list and locate the friend (Strong and Hareb, 2012). According to Urista, Dong, and Day (n.d.), social network common among youths allows them to have own homepage with their own customization in terms of pictures, videos, TV shows, events, movies and much more of their favorites. The social sites allow individuals to have an active responsibility of socializing and developing their own profile in their liking (Strong and Hareb, 2012). As a result, the social media has grown a tomorrow generation that want to remain forever connected through sharing moments and events through online forums (Strong and Hareb, 2012).

**Changing Traditional Believes Against Women**

Just like in other Arab world, the Emirate families are considered locus of loyalty, identity, economic prospects, and social status. In Arab settings, their family tends to be large as shown by statistics saying the average number of children to Emirate woman were 6.2 child. Men and women in their families know their roles as assigned by the cultural settings. It is the role of men to provide for the family and ensure its financial status is maintained. Their mode of clothing as influenced by their Muslim customs and hot climates include veils for women and masks called *batula* to cover their hair and face. In Emirate, women view has changed from the traditional look at women as whom who were illiterate, servants, and followers of wrong religion practices to citizens who enjoy full rights include becoming future leaders. According to Abed, Hellyer, and Vine, Sheikh Zayed commented the following at the time of establishment of Emirate:

“Nothing could delight me more than to see women taking up their distinctive position in society. Nothing should hinder their progress. Like men, women deserve the right to occupy a high position, according to their capabilities.” True to his words, women in the Emirate have acquired almost equal responsibilities to male. Traditionally, women are never supposed to make appearance in any court leaving their men representative stands on their behalf. The culture used to restrict women from making legal proceeding. The Arab culture recommends any legal claim be solved by consultation and mediation by close friends and family members. Court proceedings were minimized where possible. However, with the changing of ways of life, women prefer to take issues to court and they are demanding to represent themselves there.

This has resulted to changes in regulations and rules to accommodate all citizens in their legal requirements. The legal framework in UAE has evolved to accommodate females more than it was in the year 2005. The Shari Personal Status laws found in the UAE were borrowed from Egyptian and French communal laws. The personal status law regulates matters concerning divorce, marriage, and child custody. UAE most civic laws, consider women as equal as men and their civic testimony consideration have been equated. It is also important to know that most of UAE population is expatriates with their families and only a small portion of the population is considered UAE citizens.

Moreover, with the current changes in UAE towards advanced position of women in their society, the government of UAE states it is demonstrating the model of an Arab woman from all aspects of life. Since 2004, the UAE has acceded to reduce discrimination against women through formation legal reforms by giving them equality in matters of nationality, legal capabilities, and equality in family or marriage life through Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). The UAE government has also established rights to child in terms of their nationality, naming right, independence of thought or
The UAE nationals are noted as the minority in their own country, but they maintain the positions of great influence, which has enabled them to retain firm ties to their culture, particularly enforced to women. It was recently that the government of the Emirate encouraged the Emirate female to contend for ‘male job’ such as workforce and roles of leadership in the country. Nevertheless, the cultural norms and practices against women never changed especially in their interaction. This restricted their social networks. However, with Internet deployment and large integration into UAE academic and other sectors of life, female will have the opportunity to access bigger social field, which will avail to them the opportunity for self-development and exploration. Thus, the researcher expectation is that Internet play a significant role in forming the ways into which female sculpture their identity exploration.

Furthermore, the change in gender equality in UAE is not automated from the technological innovation. Study of Hedge explains that it was because of intensive restructuring of economic principles, regional integration, and technological advancement to ensure the UAE attained increased dominance in the world as a pioneer display of post-oil growth over its history. When the seven states in Emirate united, after 40 years of failed attempts, structural hindrance developed on how government, society, religious clerks, families, and parent restricted the queer behaviors among the females as national homogeny affected the technology of control. It presented to control bodies, government, society, religious cleric, families and parents, a wide gap between the control of females in their physical environment and cyber space as cyber technology provides a wider space characterized by unfathomable diversity of social power. As an illustration for the above, the Ministry of Social Affairs started a regulatory move, Awareness Initiative, called Mustarjilat, which means that females who throw away female features and try to imitate boys way of living by copying boys mannerism such as clothes acquires female attraction. In the awareness initiative, the Ministry target female youths within educational organizations and youth detention foundations. The non-bureaucratic organizations have also stepped in to try to contain the changes. For example, female students joining Higher College of Technology have to sign an agreement called taahhud, which is an accord that they will behave and uphold sexual conducts. Similarly, female students in all female universities such Zayed University, are constantly observed for display of affection.

In addition, women are copying their male counterpart in business and other risking adventures. According to a study “UAE women entrepreneurs and their businesses”, done on young females in the UAE, about it was noted that most of women entrepreneurs were in there twenties. Among the women entrepreneur, most of them are well educated as more than 2/3 had a Master’s degree. Their degrees were obtained locally as only 20% of them had gone abroad to further studies, unlike a parallel study investigation on male entrepreneurs in the UAE where more than a half studied from abroad. These women marked networking fuelled their business success.

The consequence of over regulation against gender in the real space, it comes as no surprise that the female Internet users in the UAE acquire a second position in the world ranking in acquiring social site memberships. The queer subjectivity extension into a social site within the UAE is also linked up with government efforts to grow information and communication networks. It has been noted that UAE females have greater interest in joining the world community more than other youth in the Arab world. Thus, the female behavior in the UAE provides an ambidextrous opportunity to examine the role played by telecommunication and social sites emergence and the new forms of behaviors in the social sites.

Socio-Economic Progress Achieved by use Women in the Past Decade
Social media usage remains high among the most active users of social media and professional networking sites in UAE (Bandura, 1985). They use Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter among others. Clearly, this high usage of social media opposes a stereotype of the Arab region as lagging behind with regard to technology and being less connected (David, 2013). The societal and political changes occurring in the Arab region have played a crucial role in challenging stereotypes about Arab females as subjugated and subservient (Daniel, 2013). To begin with, women have played a significant role in coordinating and participating in social uprisings in the Arab world (Tunisia, Egypt and Yemen). This has strongly cemented their roles as equal partners in men in changing the political arenas in their countries (Cohen, 2011; Bill, 2013). This leadership role by women has been acknowledged through the awarding of the Nobel Peace Prize to an Arab woman. Tawakkul Karman is a prominent Yemen political activist. This clearly depicts that social media has played a significant role in women social and economic empowerment (Benat, 2013; Bayt, 2013).

According to a study carried out on “Social Media in the Arab World: the Impact on Youth, Women and Social Change” social media is a crucial instrument for women’s empowerment. Majority of the participants agreed that social media had the capacity to be an empowering and connecting tool for females in social, economic, as well as legal, political and public arenas (Weinstein, 1980; Watts, 2003). These conceptions, however, differ from the reality of gender disparities that exist in the Arab world as it pertains to these aspects. As a result, social media can possibly be a change instrument with regard to women’s empowerment in Arab societies. Majority of participants presented that social media is an enabler of both youth and women empowerment. However, gender disparities exist in real life in many facets of the Arab world. This is clear given the region’s low rankings with regard to gender equality inside the political empowerment, as well as economic involvement pillars of various female’s empowerment indices (Wafa, 2012; Awad and Ramona, 2012).
The UAE has adopted Information Communication Technology (ICT) as a way of creating a competitive economy and fostering citizen services. However, the affluent Gulf state has put some restrictions on the use of online tools that seem to challenge the government’s authority. These restrictions are meant to avert access to local and global voices that vary from the state’s viewpoint with regard to politics, religion, as well as gender matters. Similar to other states in the Gulf region, Emirati Internet users take advantage of a robust ICT, as well as high connection speeds. The population that uses the Internet has increased from 61 percent in the year 2007 to 85 percent in the year 2012. In early 2013, there were over 900,000 Internet users in the region with 99 percent using broadband connections. However, it is crucial to note that, broadband connection in the UAE is amongst the most expensive in the globe with annual spending of approximately $2,178 per account (The Arab World Online, 2013). The UAE also has the highest mobile phone accessibility amongst its populace. The penetration rates accounted for roughly 170 percent in the year 2012. Of all the 26 nations that were involved in the Google Survey on Smart phones, the UAE was ranked the first with 61 percent mobile users who declared they owned personal Smart phones (Van 2013; Alexander, 2011).

According to UNICEF, literacy levels among the Emiratis were approximately 94 percent among men and 97 percent among women. As a consequence, there were no apparent obstacles to Internet usage. This clearly showed a remarkable increase in women empowerment education wise. For further encouragement for computer education the government incorporated computer laboratories in civic schools, thereby attempting to foster computer literacy among the young people. The social media in the UAE has tremendously enhanced women economic, social, as well as political empowerment even though a lot of restrictions exist with regard to access of online content. The state exercises state and self-censorship and has a Cyber-crime law that was adopted in 2012 (Arab Social Media Report, 2011).

Social Media Movement Wave
Dubai School of Government highlights the occurrence of continuous growth in terms of increased diversity and popularity among the social media adoption in the year 2012 far beyond the heights of the Arab spring. It is a sign of emergence of social media movement wave sweeping through the Emirate region, which is not the only contribution of development in information and technology networks, but incorporation of higher organic growth occurring and establishing connection among Arab communities and societies (Mourtada and Salem, 2012).

In Emirates, the social media usage shifted from social to political and recently, it has evolved to become mother of modification of businesses, social set ups, civil and political. Social media has many Arab users and the number is increasing, which has made the government appreciate the possible influence from the media. Emirate government is seeing this as a chance of innovation and collaboration into more transparent, inclusive, and participatory ways of governing. Many Arab youths are using social media for interaction such as business, social, approach current governance and take on civil movements.

According to Dubai School of Government a survey conducted in 2011 to investigate men and women social activities found out that women engagement in civil activity and governance through social media showed that women in Emirates were 62% and most of them were between age 15 and 40 years, while 40% of them held a master’s degree. In its analyses, the media found a high gap between genders in population usage of social media in the Emirate. When the participants were asked about the barriers holding them from making full use of the social media, majority of the respondents noted some cultural and societal constraints acting on Arab world women. The study also delved further into the issue of men and women usage of social media by investigating into trends followed by men and women when in social media. It found out that the trends were similar between male and female. Male and female utilized the social media to network, obtain vital information like advertisement or job related knowledge and activism ranking. The activism ranking was further followed in the above study and it provided how men and women engaged into activities of their empowerment through social media. Most of the studied sample subjects noted that social media could enhance women’s participation in activities boosting political, legal, economic, civil, and social aspects of the society.

Despite the study limiting as the Emirati women who participate in social media covers only 5% of Emirati community actively engaged in social media, it gives a great hope as the Emirati women have been drawn as the potential future leaders. Emirati government is campaigning to improve women’s position as the tomorrow’s leaders and improve their assimilation into more and higher ranking employment opportunities. According to UAE report on government website, the UAE government is described as the model to empowerment of Arab women. The effort to bring equality of gender in UAE has also been noted by international forums such as the World Economic Forum when they were analyzing gender index in 2011. The UAE was noted as the top Arab country in upholding of gender equality. Although it ranked below the 100th mark, the Gender Gap Report, the committee applauded the significant input by UAE government in its attempt to educate women. Mostly, it highlighted the important step the UAE government has employed in providing free university education to all Emiratis irrespective of their gender. Accordingly, women have responded positively to this important step, by showing higher numbers of female graduates than male in Emirate universities.

Emirati women have also grown politically. For instance, one of the most powerful women in the world as ranked by the Forbes is Qasimi Sheikha, Minister for Economy in the UAE. Similarly, Emirate empowerment of women is visible through UAE Federal National Council as there is significantly higher number of women participants in every year of council’s election. When the
Comparing the current development in the UAE with the old lifestyle in this country by 1971, there has been a huge step of change within a short time. In 1971, the country was characterized by poverty and illiteracy. There was only one newspaper and people traveled long to acquire primary education at high cost. Within just the first several years of the union, the Emirates government has managed to make a whole time change in most ways of future generations’ style of life. That brave decision was taken after conducting a survey that resulted in the fact that none of the current century females in the country had a mother with computer literacy. The women in the Emirati current generation have managed to develop beyond comprehension of communication technologies and they have developed enormous competence. They are considered heavy Internet users as most of them spend an average of seven hours a week. A study by YouGovSiraj in 2010 found out that more than 71% of UAE females were active participant in the social media, either to develop their connections, gather information, or to experiment identities.

In order to consider the above communication and information media establishment in the UAE by the government through uses and gratification theory, it is possible to derive what people do to media. From the above, the UAE government has enhanced the cyber communications in a stylish and standard ways just like any other normal human undertaking. As the government of Emirates concentrate on expanding information and technology to its citizens, the society goes through dramatic change.

It has been noted that with the growth of internet usage to connect social media websites, youngsters grow dependent and become addicted to Information and Technology facilities such as mobile phones and computers, as these devices become the chief gadget of connecting, learning, sharing and researching. When the government of UAE provided communication facilities, it was providing computing facilities to assist in scientific discoveries and growing of businesses. However, after their installation, gadget as phone, computer, and Internet connection are “must have” for the Emirate females. Education has improved as education providers have started offering decent technological based knowledge. The youth from high and primary schools are finishing their education with literacy to information and technology beyond imagination.

Instead of the traditional media or the infrequent use of social media by women, the UAE is the leading country in women’s usage of social media. For instance, females account for roughly half of Facebook users worldwide. The UAE has a penetration rate of 68%, which is 7% above the average rate for the region. In the Arab region, only a third of these users are in the Arab region. In this region, males remain twice likely as females to be users of social media platforms. The obstacles to women’s use of social media both around the globe and in the UAE can be attributed to both environmental and individual factors. Environmental factors cover the societal and cultural limitations that women face globally and more so in the Arab region. Individual aspects encompass lack of skills and capacities of the female social media users, lack of ICT literacy, lack of assurance in social media as a channel of communication, as well as limited level of reliance in ICT’s safety and privacy. As a consequence, closing this virtual gender gap calls for overcoming the environmental hindrances by tackling discriminatory aspects as well as the cultural limitations of women. Majority of males and females in the Arab world fundamentally agree on aspects connected to social media and its impacts on women and civic involvement. They harbor similar ideologies on the function of social media in fostering women’s empowerment. Social media usage and penetration is the highest in the UAE compared to countries in the Middle East. UAE has approximately 54% of its populace on Facebook and this number increases to 78% of all its Internet users. Comparing the UAE with the US, which has over 150 million Facebook users, the UAE’s infiltration rates are higher both with regard to its population and number of Internet users. With this high penetration rates, the UAE is the seventh highest in the globe. In countries like Tunisia, similar to the UAE, approximately 78% of its Internet population is on Facebook. Nonetheless, the penetration rates to the entire population are relatively low at 26 percent. Egypt, which has a penetration rate of 11 percent, has 47 percent of its Internet users on social media platforms. Regardless of the low penetration numbers, Egypt harbors the most Facebook users in this region with slightly above 9 million users. Saudi Arabia and Morocco trail behind Egypt with only over 4 million users each. Algeria, Tunisia, Jordan and the UAE harbor 2 million users each while Lebanon and Iraq have roughly over 1 million Facebook users (Arab Social Media Report, 2012).

While throughout the globe, the trend has been that more women use social networks more than men, in the Middle East, this is the total opposite. Fewer women in this region use the social networks accounting for just a one third of all Facebook users in the region. Lebanon depicts the most balanced ratio with female users accounting for approximately 44.3 percent of the country’s Facebook users. Jordan and Tunisia depict 41.3 percent of female users while Bahrain represents 40 percent. Yemen, Iraq and Mauritania depict a much lower ratio of roughly 20 percent each. However, according to an online study carried out by a research firm called Effective Measure, 40 percent of the UAE’s online community are females over and above the region’s aggregate of 28 percent. In this study UAE has Gulf’s biggest number of female Internet users. As a consequence, the Arab state represents a possibly lucrative market for online organizations. It is also presents that the UAE has the second highest women Internet user populace in both the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region. This is only second to Morocco’s 46.6 percent. As a consequence, these numbers provide good prospects for online companies especially those providing consumer goods with the aim of reaching female users. This is because women are highly hunted Internet users online for business since they are fewer and in sites that attract more females, there is increased value. Which had over 68,000 Internet users from every part of the region, revealed that women Internet users surfed more online from their homes. In addition, 67.3 percent accessed the Internet using...
home broadband connections. On the other hand, it was crucial to note that, while the UAE had the highest Internet penetrations in the Gulf region, it lagged behind other Arab countries regarding the quality of broadband services. The UAE is in the bottom 25 percent of the Gulf region’s states regarding the delivery of broadband services. UAE follows Bahrain, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia among other nations. In this study, broadband quality of service was defined as the speed and responsiveness of Internet connections. This also describes the condition of the connection lines whether congested or unpredictable (Yun and Trumbo, 2000; Zillmann, 1994).

Results and Conclusion
The use of social media has rapidly increased in the UAE. These social networks include Facebook, YouTube, as well as Twitter among others. The UAE population is very skilled in the use of an assortment of social media. They also understand the proper moral and practical limitations of social media. Social media has served as a crucial source of information, news, sharing of ideas, business development, as well as cultural production and entertainment.

Phone, computer, and Internet connection those days became “must have” for the Emirate females. Education has improved as education providers have started offering decent technological based knowledge. The youth from high and primary schools are finishing their education with literacy to information and technology beyond imagination. With Internet deployment and large integration into UAE academic and other sectors of life, female will have the opportunity to access bigger social field, which will avail to them the opportunity for self- development and exploration. Internet play a significant role in forming the ways into which female sculpture their identity exploration.

With the current changes in UAE towards advanced position of women in their society, the government of UAE states it is demonstrating the model of an Arab woman from all aspects of life. All the positive changes in the society - traditional believes against women, social and economic progress achieved by UAE Women, resulting in an increasing use of social networks by women. Internet accessibility in Emirate has formed a tool to deliver female from social isolation and traditional pressure. Even more actual trend has been shown that women used the social networks more than men, in the Middle East.

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Social Media Advertising/Marketing: A Study of Awareness, Attitude and Responsiveness by Nigerian Youths

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Abstract
The growing popularity of the social media has without question brought about a paradigmatic shift in the way advertisers and marketers seek to promote their goods and services and affect the purchasing decisions of their customers and targets. However, research on advertisements positioned on these social networks and the level of awareness, attitude and responsiveness of its users are relatively still developing, especially within the Nigerian context. Because Facebook has, among the various social media, grown exponentially to become the biggest and most popular today, this study thus investigates the level of awareness, attitude and responsiveness to Facebook advertising on the part of Nigerian youths who are believed to be active social media users. Drawing a sample size of 400 from some select universities in South East Nigeria, the survey finds high awareness of Facebook advertising among the youths. However, it was found that in their vicarious experiences with Facebook, these youths experience some “attention challenges” in noticing and observing the ads. Their attitude to the Ads also indicate a cause for worry: even though they fancy and see Facebook Ads as useful, majority of them would not buy the product or visit the website for more or even “Like” products or services liked by their friends. Debunking the Uses-and-gratification theory to some extent, the study supports the social cognitive theory of communication and recommends that social media advertisers make their Ads more assertive, eye-catchy, detailed, brief and concise, more visible and more properly positioned, among others.

Keywords: social media, Facebook, advertising, marketing, Nigerian youths.

Background of the Study
Advertisers and marketers had before now, romanticized with the traditional media of communication to reach their audiences, and to wage advertising ‘war’ in competition against themselves. However, this is rapidly changing. Recent studies indicate that the traditional mass media audiences are increasingly and to a great extent turning toward the new media for information and gratification of certain communication needs (Rudloff & Fray, 2010; O’Toole, 2000). This has indicated a flight from the more conventional mainstream media especially among the younger generation to the alternative media of new (social) media. Today, if you are not on the social networking sites, you are not on the Internet. This fact has become truer for consumers as well as for advertisers. And advertisers and marketers are well aware of this singular fact. The Internet having advanced into Web 2.0, the new media is today facilitating two-way online interaction and user-generated content has became the mainstay of this development. What has become clear is that social media, especially social networking sites (SNS), enable users to present themselves, establish and maintain social connections with others, and articulate their own social networks (Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe 2007, Weinberg 2009; Kaplan and Haenlein 2010; Meerman Scott 2010). Alluding to the rapid change that is occurring and which is creating a chasm between the traditional and new media, IAB Platform Status Report (2008) shares that:

User Generated Content (UGC) and Social Networks are transforming the media ecosystem. Gone are the days when power rested in the hands of a few content creators and media distributors. Gone are the days when marketers controlled the communication and path between advertisement and consumer. Today’s model is collaborative, collective, customized and shared. It’s a world in which the consumer is the creator, consumer and distributor of content. Today there are over a billion content creators and hundreds of millions of distributors. The proliferation of quality, affordable technology and the popularity of social networks and UGC sites have forever changed the media landscape.

This growing popularity of social media has also brought about a paradigmatic shift in the way advertisers now use traditional media to ‘catch’ their target audiences, leading them to invest more effort into communicating with consumers through online social networking. This social engagement thus presents marketers and advertisers with the opportunity to promote their goods and services and affect the purchase decisions of their customers and targets through online marketing and social media (Evans, 2010; Rudloff and Frey, 2010).

Rationale for the Study
Among the social media and social networking sites, Facebook has grown exponentially over time to become the biggest and most popular social networking site today with a population of over 1 billion users (Facebook, 2012b) and still counting. In Nigeria,
and parts of Africa, the diffusion of new digital technologies and their use are increasing by the day. Internet penetration in Nigeria currently stands at about 30% with over 50 million internet users (Business Day Research and Intelligence Unit and Terragon Insights Report, 2013), out of the 167 million Nigerian citizens (National Population Commission, 2012 cited in Terragon Insights, 2013). This figure puts Nigeria as the nation with the largest Internet population in Africa and 11th in the world (Internet World Statistics, 2012 cited in Terragon Insights, 2013). Furthermore, statistics show that the rate of penetration of mobile telephony in Nigeria also stands at 69 percent, with 113,195,591 mobile subscriptions (Terragon Insights, 2013). This is an indication that in Nigeria, Social network sites such as Facebook may have become a medium for advertisers and market practitioners to engage their customers and consumers. However, research studies on these social network sites and how its users perceive it are relatively limited.

This study therefore becomes germane when we recall that as new information technologies are evolving globally, advertisers in turn are increasingly relying on various modes of interactive technology to advertise and promote their products and services. Thus, recent observations and studies have indicated that advertisers have turned the way of the social media in a bid to reach their targets, by taking advantage of the ubiquitous social networks with their multiple platforms. However, understanding consumer’s attitudes toward advertising has always been one of the goals of advertisers. This is based on the premise that advertisers and the audiences may be playing discordant tunes if the intended message of the advertiser is not well received by the intended audience. Advertisements can only be said to be successful if the message is well delivered and at the same time well received by the intended audiences. It therefore becomes exigent to find out to what extent these advertising messages on the social network platforms have been received by the audiences and by extension helped to promote and build awareness on the advertisers’ offerings. This study comes handy to unveiling to what extent the popularity and proliferation of social media (Facebook in this instance) advertising is in congruence with the expected awareness, attitude and responsiveness among the youths in Nigeria.

It is the expectation of the researchers that insight gained from this study will be valuable for advertisers and marketers who apparently spend whooping sums of money targeting people through the social media. It will enable them make better judgments about the effectiveness of their advertisements and online marketing strategies, and of course, advise them on the best policies and practices for improvement. In the area of scholarship, this study promises to be another useful addition to the already existing body of literature in the area of New Media, Social Media and the 21st century Nigerian youths.

This study in a nutshell undertakes an in-depth investigation to determine whether the youths who from observation make more active use of social media like Facebook, are even aware of the existence of social media advertising positioned by advertisers and to explore their attitudes and responsiveness towards these advertisements. Specifically, the study seeks to: Find out if and to what extent Nigerian youths make use of Facebook (social) media; Determine the extent to which they are aware of advertisements posted on Facebook; Ascertain the perception of these youths to the advertisements encountered on Facebook; and Investigate their attitude and responsiveness toward such advertisements.

Theoretical Framework
The theoretical frameworks which form the basis for this study is located within the Uses and Gratifications theory of Mass communication and Social Cognitive theory of Psychology and Mass communication. Central to studies analyzing media adoption and use pattern is the basic concept of the Uses and Gratifications approach, which states that people make an active and goal directed choice between the different media that surround them, based on their needs and the different gratifications these media provide them with (Katz et al., 1974; Ruggiero, 2000; Roy, 2008; Cauwenberg et al., 2010).

In the mass communication process, Uses and Gratifications approach puts the function of linking need gratifications and media choice clearly on the side of audience members. It suggests that people’s needs influence what media they would choose, how they use certain media and what gratifications the media give them. Uses and gratifications approach also postulates that the media compete with other information sources for audience’s need satisfaction (Katz et al., 1974a). Uses and Gratification theory is relevant in understanding patterns of use of the different media forms by audiences, most essentially in view of the development of the new media, since the choice between new and traditional media will in future depend more on how well these technologies satisfy particular interests and needs of individual consumers than on the current social distribution of necessary equipment and skills (Cauwenberg et al., 2010). Uses and Gratification approach, as analyzed by Kocak and Terkan (2009) “takes the use of mass media as a process of the satisfaction of the needs and takes the media audiences as individuals that are active, rational, and resistant to the effects and makes choices according to their preferences” (p. 2).

Looking from the new media perspective, a wide range of new theories, approaches, and methodologies have been proposed as a response to the changes occurring in the digitization of content, the creation and distribution of digital artifacts. These new trends have also motivated scholars to revive traditional theories in the field of mass communication and journalism, which could aid in examining digital communication. Hence, in determining the media use behaviors and motives of the Nigerian youths who consistently engage and interact with the emerging social media, the uses and gratification approach gives some important data. Also, the proponents of Uses and Gratification argue that the technique is suitable for studying new communication technologies. As Ruggiero (2000) puts it, “since new technologies present people with an increasing number of media choices, motivation and
satisfaction become even more crucial components of audience analysis” (p. 14).

The uses and gratifications approach (U&G), though an old media theory, is presented as a theoretical lens and empirical means for studying how audiences engage with new media. U&G provides a unique perspective on new media as it stresses the relevance of media in the context of everyday life, examining uses, gratifications sought and obtained, and media practices over time. In particular with the increasing adoption of social media, the U&G approach seems promising in providing a theoretical framework from which to examine what kinds of social media are adopted by what segments of the population, and what gratifications individuals obtain from their use of various social media platforms, sites, and services. This will help us better understand what motivates users to spend large amounts of time on these sites sharing, liking/disliking, forwarding, adding, and disseminating content. In other words, each of the new media concepts – interactivity, abundance, demassification, asynchrony, etc – offers a vortex of communication behaviors to examine, using the uses and gratification theory. Media scholars have also suggested that traditional models of Uses and Gratification may still provide a useful framework from which to begin to study Internet and new media communication (Kuehn, 1994; December, 1996; Morris & Ogan, 1996; Ruggiero, 2000).

However, in talking about social media advertising, the U&G theory will better explain why and how certain segments of the population derive satisfaction from any type of advertising positioned on the social media. It would also explain why and how other contents of the social media, apart from advertising compete for the audiences’ attention and thus could make certain advertisements less desirable and less effective.

On the other hand, the Albert Bandura’s Social Cognitive theory (1986) which states that people are self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating, not just reactive organisms shaped and shepherded by environmental events or inner forces, might be instructive here too. This attribute might unwittingly contribute in making people develop particular kinds of attitude to (social) media content and respond to them in certain ways, even when they are aware of and exposed to the particular media content.

Literature Review

By definition, social media is a set of various web services that can be interrelated for social interaction using highly accessible and scalable communication techniques (Subramanyam and Greenfield, 2008). Those web services refer to user’s capacity to create, publish and share contents that are accessible in various platforms – basically webs and mobiles. Mayfield (2008) explains that social media is online or electronic media which facilitates participation, openness, conversation, community and connectedness amongst online users. The core of social media as explained by Trusov et al. (2009) lies in fact that users can have individual profiles and personal images, users are able to communicate their thoughts, feelings, interests (music, hobbies, preferences) and link to affiliated profiles (friends or professional fan pages).

Various social media applications exist that allow the creation, modification and exchange of online content. According to Hausmann & Poellmann (n.d.), the most relevant categories of social media applications at present are summarized and cursorily discussed below:

• Collaborative projects encompass knowledge communities like “Wikipedia”, bookmarking sites like “Mr. Wong” or review sites like “Yelp”. While knowledge communities enable users to add, remove, and change text-based communities, bookmarking and review sites allow a group-based collection and rating of Internet links, media content or products and services.
• Weblogs (Blogs) represent the earliest form of social media and are regularly updated websites on which contributions are published in reverse chronological orders. In general, blogs allow extensive interaction between blogger and readers via a comment function.
• Microblogs like Twitter are seen as a hybrid of blogging, instant messaging and status notifications. They allow people to publish short text messages (restricted to 140 – 200 characters) using a multitude of various communication channels such as cell phones, instant messaging, e-mail and the Web.
• Content communities like YouTube, Flickr or Slideshare focus on content and file sharing between users. Content communities exist for a wide range of different media types like text, photos, songs, videos and PowerPoint presentations.
• Social Networks like Facebook connect users with similar background and interests who create personal, fully customizable profiles displaying their identity and then share these with so-called friends or fans. Profiles can include any type of information, i.e. photos, videos, audio files and blogs.
• Virtual Worlds comprise virtual games and social worlds where a three-dimensional computer-based environment replicates the “real world”. In games like Warcraft user can appear in the form of a personalized avatar and interact with the community.

For the present study, focus is on social network sites; Facebook being a popular example. Finin et al. (2005, p. 419) define a social network as an “explicit representation of the relationship between individuals and groups in the community”. Additionally, Raacke and Bonds-Raacke (2008) indicate that social networks provide a virtual platform where people of similar interests may gather to communicate, share and discuss ideas.

A unique and striking feature of social networks is the users’ profile. This profile is the focal point of one’s social networking
experience. Each profile page is unique to the owner and allows its user to literally “type oneself into being” (Sunden, 2003, p. 3). Each member is encouraged to upload their personal profile photograph and share a range of personal information such as where they go to school and details about their personal tastes, such as favourite movies and music (Boyd, 2007). As users have total control over the content that they choose to share and the applications they place on their pages, they can, and usually do, opt to portray themselves in the most positive light. In essence, this means that a user can aspire to an ideal-self through his/her SNS profile. Aside from the inclusion of personal details and photographs, there are two further main components of the social networking profile – friends and comments (Boyd, 2007). Friends also play a fundamental role in the composition of SNSs. On joining a SNS, users are encouraged to identify others with whom they wish to form relationships. Once the connection is made, the relationship will be visually represented on each user’s profile page, under the friends section, within which there is a facility to nominate one’s top or best 8, 12, 16 or 20 friends, to be listed as such on the user’s main profile page (Boyd, 2007). Research to date in this area has focused overwhelmingly on one’s profile page, primarily regarding how people portray themselves through their profile page and how they connect with friends and acquaintances via the network (Boyd and Ellison, 2008; Tong et al., 2008; Liu, 2008; Boyd, 2007).

Social Media Advertising and Marketing

Social media advertising refers to the process of gaining website traffic or attention through social media sites. Social media advertising campaigns usually center on efforts to create content that attracts attention and encourages readers to share it with their social networks. Traditional campaigning approaches are overshadowed not only by rising social media but also due to increasing difficulty to create an outstanding campaign due to very competitive market. Impact of social media can be seen in television advertisements which sign off with a plea for consumers to visit their websites, Facebook or Twitter page with the promise of an exciting online experience, fun incentives and a sense of community that people actually want to get involved with (Kaushik, 2012). Bajpai et al (2012) write that Social media has become a platform that is easily accessible to anyone with Internet access. Increased communication for organizations fosters brand awareness and often, improved customer service. Additionally, social media serves as a relatively inexpensive platform for organizations to implement advertising and marketing campaigns.

With the advent of the Internet and the development of Web 2.0, there is a palpable shift in the control of communication and of course, advertising. The web has successfully switched the power of control from companies to the customers. Thus, customer decides what he/she wants to see, read, or listen to, so the companies compete in getting people’s attention and delivering their messages. The good news is that when companies join these social networking sites, people can interact with the company and their products. This interaction makes users feel personal because of their previous experiences with social networking site. Social networking sites like Twitter, Facebook, Google Plus, YouTube, Pinterest and blogs allow individual followers to “retweet” or “repost” comments made by the product being promoted. By repeating the message, all of the users’ connections are able to see the message, therefore reaching more people. Social networking sites act as word of mouth. Because the information about the product is being put out there and is getting repeated, more traffic is brought to the product/company. Furthermore most advertisements on Facebook for instance invite users to simply “Like” the product or the company by simply clicking the “Like” button. What follows such action is that the company henceforth starts sending such user contents, information and other interactive posts that market the product or the company so “liked”.

However and undoubtedly, the use of social networking sites such as Facebook and user generated content (UGC) has presented both opportunities and challenges to the advertisers, marketers and the overall advertising landscape. IAB Platform Status Report (2008) concedes that “In the larger eco-system, social networking and UGC sites have provided high-value advertising inventory and audience segments needed to capture more of the market share and targeted audience reach that advertisers demand, e.g. Microsoft’s investment in Facebook, Google’s acquisition of YouTube…” The report continue that, Traditionally, marketers have been able to buy time or space on fixed media in a controlled context. They knew where their ad would appear, what it would look like, and perhaps most important, in what context it would be seen. In other words, they could be guaranteed their message wasn’t being delivered in a hostile or inappropriate environment. Today, such guarantees are harder to make, and that lack of control can be a source of great anxiety for marketers.

Considering the above, it is therefore important that advertisers and marketers be reminded that a new approach is deemed critical in their use of social networks. Instead of broadcasting one-way messages at their audiences, advertisers are compelled to engage customers in a conversation. Instead of inviting individual consumers into an environment of their own making, marketers advertising on these sites are entering a conversation initiated, maintained, and “owned” by consumers themselves. Doing so carries risks, but failure to do so carries more.

On impact of social media advertising and or marketing on consumers purchase decisions, Fauser et al (2011) found that consumers felt that information sharing, collaboration and relationship building was necessary to support ongoing communication; social media marketing allowed organisations the opportunity to be in the position to offer additional sources of information regarding product benefits, product features and provide real time feedback to consumers; social networks, particularly Facebook were found to be most suitable information sharing platform at the beginning of the consumer purchase decision as many consumers relied on social recommendations; and many consumers used Facebook reviews and ratings (“likes”) as the means to seek recommendations, peer advice and find product information.
Bati (n.d.) studying attitudes of young consumers towards social media marketing, surveyed a total of 124 students at some universities located in Istanbul. He found that 66.9% of the participants think that using a social media tools for advertising is useful; 50% of the participants are fans of at least one company or brand; 54% of the participants follow of at least one company or brand; 57.2% of the participants trust recommendations from people they knew personally about brands; 42.8% of the participants trust brand websites and mini-sites; and 47.5% of the participants like social network advertising very much. Similarly, Chi (2011) analyzing User Motivation and Social Media Marketing Responses in Taiwan found that social networking online is the main reason users keep spending time with social media such as Facebook. Therefore, users perceive and respond to marketing venues, such as advertising and brand communities, in a different way than they do to traditional media. The findings also indicate that user motivations generate complex effects for responses to social media marketing, differing across Facebook advertising and virtual brand communities. Azizul Yadi Yaakop, Marhana Mohamed Anuar, Khatijah Omar & Alphonsus Liaw Kuok Liang (n.d.) who studied consumers’ perceptions and attitudes towards advertising on Facebook in Malaysia suggest that there are three online factors that significantly influence consumers’ attitudes towards advertising on Facebook. The factors are perceived interactivity, advertising avoidance and privacy. Surprisingly, according to them, credibility was not a significant factor predicting consumer’ attitudes towards advertising on Facebook.

Methodological Considerations
This research adopted quantitative methodological approach and thus used the survey method as the study design. The questionnaire was used as the survey instrument. Consequently, 400 questionnaire were distributed to young people between the ages of 19 and 30 in select universities in south east Nigeria. The universities include: Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka in Anambra State; Godfrey Okoye University, Ugwuoma, Enugu State; and Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki. The sample size was determined from the entire population of the select Universities given at 65,940 (Nigerian Universities Commission, 2014).

Having determined the sample size, the researchers then proceeded to selection of a Faculty from each of the selected universities. The researchers while selecting the respondents ensured that all the faculties in each of the schools had equal chance of being selected. Nnamdi Azikiwe University for instance has 15 faculties viz: Education, Law, Social Sciences, Management Sciences, Medicine, Pharmaceutical, Arts, Engineering, Bio Sciences, Physical Sciences, Health Science and Technology, Environmental Science, Agricultural Sciences, Basic Medical Sciences, and Confucius Centre. Two faculties were randomly selected from the above, which are Social Sciences and Engineering. For the purpose of representativeness, two departments were chosen to represent each of the faculties selected. This process was repeated in Godfrey Okoye University and Ebonyi State University with four (4) and eleven faculties respectively. To further delimit the sample for effective administration of data collection instrument, the researchers deemed it necessary to rationalize the distribution of questionnaire to schools according to the numerical strength of the schools. Hence nine (9) respondents each were selected from the selected departments (Psychology, Political Science, Mechanical and Chemical Engineering) across the levels in Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka (which has the highest population among the selected universities), making a total of one hundred and forty two respondents (142). Eight (8) respondents were drawn across the levels in the selected departments in Ebonyi State University (Law, English Language and Literature and Philosophy) making a Total of one hundred and forty four (144), while seven (7) respondents were issued with questionnaire across the levels in the selected departments viz.: Accountancy, Economics, Applied Biology and Computer Science, in Godfrey Okoye University, Enugu making a total of one hundred and twelve (114). The questionnaire contained twelve (12) question items.

Data Presentation and Discussion
From the total of 400 questionnaire that were distributed to respondents from the select Universities, though there was a 100 percent return rate, there were 2 unusable questionnaire which respondents did not fill out. The analyses of the valid ones were done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Hereunder are the details of data analysis based on the research objectives/research questions. However, for the sake of comprehensibility, the data presentation and the discussion of relevant findings are hereunder merged together.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age bracket</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 years</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25 years</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-21 years</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the demographic data above, 54 percent of the respondents were females whereas 46 percent were males. This shows an almost even distribution of the young people who were surveyed. Data also show that for majority of them, their ages were spread between 19 to 25 years. This indicates that these young people are between the ages adjudged by the United Nations to be the ideal definition of youth – between the ages of 15 and 24 (United Nations, 2003) - as only 14 percent were between the ages of 26 – 30 years. In the same vein, data shows that the percentages of the level of study for the surveyed undergraduate students were almost equal.

Use of Facebook Social Media

Table 2: showing data on the respondents’ use of Facebook social media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ownership of Facebook account</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>92.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of using Facebook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 10 years</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6 years</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 3 years</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How often respondents Facebook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once in a while</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several times a week</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyday</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent when signed in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 hour</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of 3-5 hours</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of 1-2 hours</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From data presented above, majority of the respondents (92 percent) own Facebook accounts. Only an insignificant 8 percent agree they don’t have any. However, data at the same time indicate that majority of the respondents (52.3 percent) have just had this account for between 1 – 3 years; 32.7 percent of them have had it for between 4 – 6 years while only 6.5 percent have had it for as long as 7 years just as 8.7 percent opened their own accounts less than a year ago. Though these data indicate that the phenomenon of Facebook might not totally be new to these young people, yet when compared with young people in more advanced societies, Nigerian youth might still be discovering the Facebook phenomenon. On the other hand, from the above data, it is seen that 32.6 percent of them ‘facebook’ on daily basis just as 28.3 percent say they do so several times a week. This makes it difficult for one to begin to consider the fact that another 30.4 percent aver they use Facebook once in a while. The fact that over 60 percent of them either use it everyday or several times a week speaks louder here. However, when asked the amount of time they spend when signed in, it is shocking to note that 45.7 percent of them spend less than an hour on Facebook, even though
the fact that another 41.3 percent agree they spend between 1 – 2 hours. It is interesting to also note that those who answered “Others” wrote in black and white that they are logged on round the clock, always and all the time. That might be speaking for those who have Blackberry or Android phones and constant Data subscription.

At this juncture one is tempted to ask, if these youths have been Facebook account holders for as long as the data show, and ‘facebook’ either everyday or several times in a week, what medium do they use in ‘facebooking’? From the data shown in Figure 1 above, majority access the Facebook social media using their internet-enabled mobile phones whereas a paltry 9 percent say they do so using both their mobile phones and personal computers (laptops). Only a handful of them (2 percent) access through their PC alone. This finding is in line with Omenugha, Ndolo & Uzuegbunam (2012)’s finding that Nigerian youths are increasingly spending more time on the Internet than on other more conventional media; mobile phones being at the forefront of this development.

Having established the fact of their use of Facebook social media, another thing is to ascertain the extent to which they are aware of Facebook advertisements. Firstly, 87 percent agree they have at one time or the other encountered advertisements positioned on Facebook while 13 percent claim they haven’t had such encounter. In an open ended question to this regard, many of them were quick to name various kinds of advertisements they have encountered: product advertisements, cooperate advertisements, telecommunication, on music concerts, real estate, on foreign scholarships, on fashion accessories, on mobile phones, automobiles, commercials, among others. Still, 61 percent of the undergraduate students claim that these encounters with

**Table 3: Awareness of Facebook Advertisements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Encountered advertisements on Facebook?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>86.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How often?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidentally</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>61.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Noticeability</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They take me time and effort to notice</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are easily noticeable</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>82.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Facebook advertisements happen “Sometimes” (that is, not always) whereas a considerable 36.2 percent say they encounter them always and only 2.5 percent do so accidentally. Toeing this line of thought, the next question sought to find out if this encounter has anything to do with noticeability of the advertisements. Yet, 82.9 percent of them claim that these Facebook advertisements “are easily noticeable” to them just as only 17 percent of them allege it “takes them time and effort to notice”. This brings up a certain contradiction. Majority of them claim they do not always encounter advertisements on Facebook and yet turn round to say that the advertisements are easily noticeable to them. Considering the fact that there is never a time these days when advertisements are not always displayed on Facebook, this contradiction might go to show that these youths might simply be suffering from ‘attention problem’.

Table 4: Perception of Respondents To Facebook Advertisements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using social media for advertising is useful and good</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>97.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like Facebook advertising very much</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>68.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy viewing advertisements displayed on Facebook</td>
<td>Sometimes/Not really</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>61.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a fan of at least one company/brand on Facebook</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compared to other media, advertisements on Facebook are more eye catchy</td>
<td>Not really/Sometimes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>34.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>63.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s easier for me to recall brands advertised on other media than those on Facebook</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>65.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>34.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The position of these advertisements is the biggest factor that prevents me from noticing them</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coming to how these undergraduate students perceive the whole idea of Social media/Facebook advertising and the advertisements themselves, seven (7) statements were put forward to them in order to elicit varied responses pertaining perception. Interestingly, a vast majority of the respondents (97.7 percent) agree that “using social media for advertising is useful and good” whereas 68.1 percent “like Facebook advertising very much”. Still we cannot ignore the fact that a good number of them (31.9 percent) do not like it very much. Similarly, majority of them “enjoy viewing advertisements displayed on Facebook” while another 34.1 percent do not. It goes to show therefore that since majority avow that using social media to advertise is good and useful and that they like Facebook advertising very much, it is expected that they would also enjoy viewing them. Moreover, 52.3 percent of them claim they are fans of at least one company/brand on Facebook. This claim is nonetheless questionable owing to the fact that another huge 47.7 percent allege they are no fans to any brand or company. Yet, more disturbing indications from their perception show that when compared to other media, advertisements on Facebook are not more eye catchy (63.8 percent). The rest say they are more eye catchy (34.2 percent) and some say they are, sometimes (2.0 percent). Still, many of the respondents admit that it is easier for them to recall brands advertised on other media than those advertised on Facebook. This lends credence to our earlier assertion in Table 3 that these youths might be experiencing what could be called as ‘attention challenges’ in their use of Facebook. As if to echo the last observation, 57.8 percent agree that the positioning of these advertisements on Facebook is not the one big factor that prevents them from maximally noticing, recalling and observing them. Rather, it is their fault; so it seems.
Considering the above revealing data on perception of Facebook advertisements, what remains is to ascertain their attitude and responsiveness to these advertisements. To gauge this, four-item statements were given the respondents to respond in the affirmative or otherwise. 58 percent aver that if they are fans of a brand on Facebook, they will buy the product whereas 42 percent claim they won’t. Yet, data analysis shows strongly that majority of them at 62 percent would not visit a product website after seeing an advertisement on Facebook. However, 38 percent say they would. There is the common practice on Facebook where users are updated about what brands and products their “Friends” like and could be fans of; the idea being that users can decide to as well ‘Like’ the brand or product as they are likely to want to associate with what their circle of friends associate with. But in this study, data shows that 54.3 percent of the young people say they would not “like” the product/brand just because their friends do; whereas 38.7 percent of them claim they would. That is not denying the fact that 7.0 percent say they sometimes do. Finally on attitude, 63.6 percent agree after all said, that they “always look out for Facebook advertisements because [they] tell them what’s new and popular”.

### Summary and Conclusion

This paper set out to tackle four research objectives – To find out if and to what extent Nigerian youths make use of Facebook (social) media; to find out the extent to which they are aware of advertisements posted on Facebook; to discover the perception of these youths to the advertisements encountered on Facebook; to investigate their attitude and responsiveness toward such advertisements. The study finds that Facebook phenomenon and its use is popular among the surveyed Nigerian youths – undergraduate students and that over 60 percent of them either use it everyday or several times a week. This use is however facilitated by their internet-enabled mobile phones. It shows that Nigerian youths are beginning to join their contemporaries in other societies to engage more with the Internet and the mobile phones. This brings to mind what George Dixon, Manager of Mobile and Digital media, MediaCom UK said about social media and advertising:

Mobile is amplifying consumer usage of the social media, due to the quick access to content it offers. Our target audiences can engage with friends and brands far more often and more easily than previously possible on the desktop web…with more time spent on Facebook via mobile, than via the traditional web.

More so, it is found that majority of the surveyed youths are well aware of advertisements on Facebook as many of them have encountered as well as have been able to name some of the various advertisements they have encountered. These range from product advertisements, cooperate advertisements, telecommunication, on music concerts, real estate, on foreign scholarships, on fashion accessories, on mobile phones, automobiles, commercials, among others. However, it is concluded that the youths might be experiencing what has been termed “attention challenges” in their vicarious use of Facebook. This is apparently so because although 82.9 percent allege that the advertisements are easily noticeable to them, 61 percent still claim they do not always
encounter advertisements on Facebook whereas we know that the Facebook platform is almost always patronized by very many advertisers, companies and marketers, these days. This attention challenge is further buttressed by the fact that the youths say that the positioning of the advertisements on Facebook does not in any way contribute to their inability to notice the advertisements ‘Always’. In the same vein, while majority of the youths avow that using social media to advertise is good and useful and that they like Facebook advertising very much as well as enjoy viewing them, they more easily recall advertisements from other media platforms than those from Facebook. Furthermore, the attitude and responsiveness of young people to Facebook advertising in general indicate a cause for worry. While majority of the youths avow that if they are fans of a brand on Facebook, they will buy the product, many of them insist they would not visit a product website after seeing an advertisement on Facebook and that they do not necessarily have to ‘Like’ the brands their friends “Like” on Facebook. However it is interesting that majority of them still say that they always look out for advertisements on Facebook because of one striking utility: they tell them what’s new and popular.

The salient findings of this study have revealed an interesting argument about the Uses-and-Gratifications theory. Advertisements and marketing contents abound on Facebook. This is a time-tested fact. However, while media scholars might be quick to assume that advertisements and marketing stunts comprise as being among the media users’ needs and gratifications and reasons for ‘facebooking’, this study has found a slight contradiction to this. As far as the surveyed young people are concerned, advertisements, though noticeable and appealing, do not form part of their more serious gratification sought from Facebook usage. This is explained by the fact that they could be distracted by a host of other gratifications they are seeking after on Facebook to notice the barrage of advertisements that continue to ‘fight’ for spaces on Facebook. This has debunked the existing assumption and theory of Uses and Gratifications in relation to the social media and advertising. Again, the social cognitive theory of Psychology and Mass communication seem to have played out in this scenario as well. The fact that people are self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating, not just reactive organisms but can call up certain psychological schemas to bring to bear in their decision-making, is indeed instructive here. The fact that although most of the young people like, enjoy, and view Facebook advertisements but still have attitude and response challenges lends weight to this. Perhaps, the varied responses which emanated from the open-ended question posed to the respondents about what they think advertisers ought to do to increase the effectiveness of their Ads on Facebook, might be a sure way to close this discussion. For these youths, they believe

“advertisers should make these social media ads more eye catchy; brief and concise; have better visibility, include more useful details that can aid potential buyers; take note of the positioning, make ads more creative and thought-provoking; be more persuasive; make ads larger and less inconspicuous; be truthful in delivering their ad communication; consider using pop-up ads as well…” Shouldn’t we rather agree with them?

Recommendations
This study recommends, alongside those suggested by the students themselves (see above) future research directions. A study involving a larger sample size drawn from more than one geographical zone in Nigeria is hereby suggested. More so, further examination on the relationship between social media consumption and attitude and responsiveness to advertising/marketing communication should be explored using a qualitative methodology such as focus group discussion.

References


The Effect of Narcissistic Personality on Interpersonal Communication

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Abstract
Narcissistic personality disorder which closely associates with egocentrism –a personality characteristic in which people see themselves and their interest and opinions as the only ones that really matters. Narcissist personality disorder characterized with unstable and intense emotions, overly preoccupied with vanity, prestige, power and personal adequacy, lack of empathy, and an exaggerated sense of superiority. According to Freud the narcissist’s Ego is weak, disorganized and lacks clear boundaries. Many of the Ego functions are projected. The Superego is sadistic and punishing. The Id is unrestrained.

In this paper the researcher, tried to explain the reality that narcissism is the product of a family environment where children are loved and spoiled infinitely only when they achieve certain things. In case of failure or rejection, he or she experiences feelings of insufficiency and inferiority, as well as loneliness and disappointment. As expected, the narcissistic individual is only happy when he/she experiences that he/she is special, and thus attempts to always create environments where he/she will feel this way. In this paper, after revealing the narcissistic personality features, the effect of this personality type on interpersonal communication will be explained.

Keywords: Narcissism, narcissistic personality disorder, interpersonal communication.

Introduction
The word “narcissist” is used as an adjective to describe those with narcissistic personality disorder. Colloquially, it is used to describe people who have an overly positive opinion of themselves. Individuals described as “looking down on everybody,” “not moving a finger to help,” “wanting to have their cake and eat it too,” “acting like they rule the world,” and those who “have their nose in everybody’s business” are usually narcissists.

In this presentation, various portraits of a narcissist will be presented. These portraits will depict the self-image of a narcissist, as well as his or her approach to other people and relationships. Perhaps you will find yourself, your spouse or children in these portraits. You will recognize your friends, or teachers, doctors, party officers or people in high positions. First, we shall discuss how a narcissistic personality forms. Then, we will examine prominent features of a narcissist, and illustrate their approach and behavior in interpersonal communications.

What is Narcissism, and Why Does a Person Become a Narcissist?
The most distinguishing characteristic of people who have narcissistic personalities is their need for others’ approval to maintain their self-esteem. “Self esteem in individual’s self-evaluation of how valuable and respectable they are. Those with high self esteem know they are loved, respected and deemed important by others. Those with low self-esteem, on the other hand, feel that they are not loved, respected or deemed important by others.” (Seifert, 2004, s. 140).

We all like the approval of others, and dislike criticism. In this regard, we all have a bit of a narcissistic tendency. This tendency is normal; however, if an individual is overly concerned with their self-esteem, it may be narcissistic. Narcissists continuously seek the approval of others, thus how they look to the outside world is much more important than how they really are.

Narcissistic individuals experience a serious emotional deficiency, and worry about delivering a high performance. This is because narcissists receive conditional love from those close to them in childhood. In other words, narcissism is the product of a family environment where children are loved and spoiled infinitely only when they achieve certain things. The child experiences pleasant feelings such as pride, confidence, strength and uniqueness as long as he/she displays the behavior and success his/her parents expect and receives their praise. When the child fails to receive praise, their entire being fills with feelings of embarrassment, insufficiency and jealousy. These emotions lead the child to believe they are not accepted or loved.

A child who experiences negative emotions such as these fills up with anger, but he or she has to suppress this anger somehow. This is because his/her anger would hurt the already strained relationship with his/her parents. These emotions are increasingly accompanied by loneliness, emptiness, and anxiety. As the child keeps experiencing praise and criticism, he/she ebbs and flows between contradictory emotions and thoughts. When he/she achieves success, feelings of superiority and uniqueness over others and demands for everyone else to submit to his/her will surface. In case of failure or rejection, he or she experiences feelings of insufficiency and inferiority, as well as loneliness and disappointment. In this case, he/she experiences negative feelings such as not being worth loving, or being worthless and a failure. Going back and forth between these contradictory emotions becomes the essence that shapes a child’s existence. In other words, his or her existence is defined by the thought that he/she is special on one hand, and insufficient on the other. Due to the conditional and insincere relationship between the child and the parent, the different thought schemes of specialness and insufficiency exist side by side without becoming whole in the mind of the child. As expected, the narcissistic individual is only happy when he/she experiences that he/she is special, and thus attempts to always create...
environments where he/she will feel this way. However, feeling special does not satisfy the narcissist, as the desire to be loved as a whole person always remains insatiated in his/her subconscious. It is only the individual’s “special side” that experiences approval. Thus, it becomes compulsory to continuously stage being special.

When the narcissistic individual becomes an adult, he remains in the fangs of things he/she believes makes him/her special, just like an addict. He/she strives to attain professional success, authority, and the power to impress others. He does not even consider thinking of others around him when trying to reach these targets. As he cannot accept failure or being ordinary, he strives for nothing. He falls into a world of loneliness. As he feels frustrated, those around him feel frustrated as well (Hasanoğlu, A. (2012). Spiritual hunger and Narcissism).

Narcissistic Personality Traits

The masks narcissists put on for others to see, in order to cope with the feeling of valuelessness they experience deep inside, become their true personality. The components of this feeling of valuelessness are insufficiency, embarrassment, weakness and inferiority. These threatening feelings cause the development of various behavioral masks. The most distinct and widely observed one of these behavioral masks is grandiosity. The person attempts to make up for the feeling of valuelessness deep inside with a self-image and self-presentation of grandiosity. There are a few main characteristics that display the feeling of grandiosity:

Boasting: The individual continuously and exaggeratedly attempts to boast about the characteristics that he/she values and believes others value as well. This may be physical appearance, power, wealth, intelligence, analysis skills and so on, depending on the individual or the environment. The narcissist does not mention these characteristics appropriately or moderately, and aims to impress and grab the attention of others to satisfy his/her hunger for approval.

If they help someone, their ultimate aim is to be thought of as “good” or “helpful”. Thus they make their help known to others, and want their names to be mentioned. Help and aid boosts their ego.

They are intelligent, ambitious and successful. Narcissists feed on compliments. They work hard to receive compliments
and hold onto those they already have received. They try very hard to show their superiority, they are easily noticed by their circles and they impress others easily. Thus it is very likely for narcissists to be successful or attain respectable positions. Their achievements feed their vanity even more.

However, they do not have many friends, nor can they form strong friendships. This is natural, as they give much more importance to having admirers than having friends. As a result, they become people of high status who are very lonely and at the top. Narcissists have another characteristic that is well liked at first glance, which initially creates a positive impression: humility. Narcissists like to create the impression that they are humble. They have a softness or a smile on their face. This is why they might be mistaken as naive or reliable people by those who do not know them very well. Thus, narcissistic tendencies can be disguised by acts of humility or tolerance. (Sözen, 2009).

Narcissism can be spotted from a strange gleam in the eyes of the affected individual, especially in advanced cases. Some people consider this gleam as a semi-state of rapture, while others consider it as half-insanity.

They are self-serving. Narcissists always think of themselves and their own interest, and do not care for the negative influence of their behavior on others. The thoughts and behavior of others are only worthy if they serve the goals of the narcissist, and such behavior receives compliments from the narcissist. Otherwise, they do not bother to hear the opinions of others, let alone listen to. However, more intelligent narcissists will try to hide their true stance by asking questions or pretending to take up an interest in other people. Narcissists do not hesitate to be unfair to others; often they are not even aware that they are being unfair, as they believe everything they do is fair.

Since they do not care for the opinions and emotions of others, people usually drift away from them after a short while. Narcissists expect service without compensation. When they do not get what they want, they react through verbal attacks, nervous fits or emotional and physical harassment. If someone exposes their selfishness, they may become very condescending and aggressive. Being met with reactions that may hurt their self esteem, such as being laughed at, is the greatest attack against their self esteem.

They cannot empathize. Since they do not respect or listen to others, they cannot understand their feelings either. When self-consciousness is combined with failure to understand others, a narcissistic personality develops. Others exist to praise and approve of them. They always expect sacrifice from others, because narcissists believe they are worth making any kind of sacrifice over. They are not givers, they are receivers. They enter romantic relationships only to be approved of. This is why they cannot remain in close relationships, marriage, or good friendships.
They usually lie a lot. They can take any action to make others retain the impression that they are perfect. They may change their value, lie, cheat, or deny their actions. They may commit crimes if necessary.

Power and money are important to them. They cannot contain their anger and they become aggressive when they cannot reach their material or spiritual desires that correspond to their own plans and goals. These are often losses for others and gains for them. They want to be in positions where they are the center of attention, are the object of others’ focus and control events. Their desire to gain the admiration and love of others is very strong. They design crisis scenarios to gain attention. They hold the belief that they must control everything and everyone.

They are always right. As narcissists see themselves as superior, intelligent and valuable, they believe they are right under all conditions. Thus they believe their desire to do something is sufficient for that thing to be done. They do not like to hear opposition, when their wishes or actions are criticized, or when they are met with opposition, they get the impression that they are not being valued and become even angrier. They react harshly and become aggressive. This is because they believe they are always right and that they never make mistakes. When something goes wrong, it is most certainly someone else’s fault. If they cannot find someone to blame, they blame the system. Thus, they never apologize. They do not believe they have a personality disorder; moreover, they accuse those around them with having personality disorders.

They are jealous. They exaggerate their talents, importance, and values. Since they believe they are superior to others, they communicate arrogantly. If they manage to gather people who approve of and admire their attitude, they feel secure and they
become happy. They are jealous of intelligent, wisdom and talent, and they envy the successes and talents of these people. They believe other people are secretly jealous of their own talents.

They like to show off and always need to talk about themselves. Narcissists cannot stand being ordinary. They must be the center of attention everywhere. So, they vocalize personality traits that satisfy their narcissistic tendencies. In this context, they consolidate a part of their personality, such as their honor, intelligence, physical strength, sense of humor or good looks, with their narcissism.

When the individual self-essentializes through one aspect of their personality, when he/she is asked who they are, they define themselves with their fame, wealth, achievements, and so on. An individual who self-essentializes with objects that he/she owns, he/she does not react to an insult to their personality, but reacts harshly to an insult to those objects. Even when they talk nonsense, they feel like they have said something very important. Many narcissists talk incessantly; for instance, they forget to eat because they talk so much, and keep everybody waiting. They place their own ego before other people.

Signs of Narcissism in Interpersonal Communications
The primary characteristics of narcissists, which have been outlined above, indicate as a whole the behavior and attitudes they employ in their interpersonal communications. However, it would be beneficial to discuss what narcissists do/do not do within the framework of certain principles that indicate proficiency in interpersonal communications.

Proficient Communicators Think Critically and Rationally
Critical thought is rational thought; it is causal, impartial and understandable. It requires intelligence, attention, and the maximum clarity possible. (Miller, 1997). One cannot be proficient or successful in communication without critical thinking. Narcissists are
able to think in an intelligent and critical manner; however, when they are the subject of their criticism they are always positive, and when others - especially those who negate them - are the subject of their criticism, they are always negative. They believe that they are correct on every subject, and that others should be criticized because all that they themselves do and say is correct. They have ultimate success, while others have ultimate failure.

Critical thinking requires thoroughness. It requires an awareness about the reasons of our thoughts and actions (Langer, 1989). However, narcissists are not aware of their own statements and the reasons behind these statements. Moreover, they have no tolerance for not being listened to, and especially for disagreement with their opinions.

A Proficient Communicator Realizes the Role Of Power

Power is related to the ability to change or control another person’s acts. This ability should be used effectively, and it requires an individual to change himself/herself, as much as it allows them to change others. Narcissists usually lean towards changing others. They use any type of power they have (legal, reward-punishment, brute force, power of information, power of expertise, and so on) for this. On the other hand, they regard themselves as perfect and never consider changing. They think it is the other person who should change, not them.

Proficient Communicators are Ethical

Human communication brings up ethical questions, and good and bad, right and wrong, and moral and immoral need to be taken into account. Ethical behavior involves a person’s moves and behavior and his or her separation of moral (ethical, good, right) and immoral (unethical, bad, wrong). Thus, every instance of communication has an ethical dimension (Neher & Sandin, 2007; Bok, 1978). It cannot be expected of a narcissist to be ethical, nor is it possible. They can tell any lie, deflect truth, and may even become aggressive to attain power and money.

Proficient Communicator is an Effective Listener

Listening is a complementary element of communication. Those who have underdeveloped listening skills cannot become proficient in communication. Narcissists enjoy speaking more than they do talking. That they sometimes appear to listen in order to make a positive impression does not change this fact. They do not listen because they do not have the ability to empathise.

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Social Media’s Influence on the Content of Turkish TV Serials

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Abstract

Popularity of social media is increasing in all including TV serials, parts of life. This popularity is visible in all types of media. Almost all TV programs have their own social media accounts. Most TV serials have their own formal and informal social media accounts. Formal ones are managed by producers and TV channels. Audience also follows TV serials on their own Facebook, Twitter and Instagram accounts. While following the TV serial, audience comments on shared videos of old or new episodes of particular TV serials. They share their own views about TV serials and give insight to story. Is there any influence of audience on content of TV serial? If some influence is visible, audience have power on the way stories are told because their expectations can be expressed to the writers or producers. The present study aims to examine the relationships between the audience and TV serials on social media accounts. Facebook account of a TV serial is examined to reveal this relationship. The present study has qualitative research methodology and research design is case study. Aramızda Kalsın is used as the TV serials to show this relationship.

Keywords: TV Serial, Aramızda Kalsın, Facebook, interactivity, transmedia

In his seminal work, ‘The Scientific Revolution’ Thomas Kuhn (1970) claims that when a new paradigm develops, it replaces the former one. Yet, his claim has not been justified. Instead of replacing the former, older one, novelties gain a ground and exist parallel to the already existing one. In addition to Thomas Kuhn’s idea on paradigms, the same suspicion has been around for the novelties in the media technologies. As early as the invention of printing machine by Guttenberg in 1440, the invention itself created a nervousness in the clergy thinking that the printed book would replace the hand-written ones. Then, the newspaper was considered as a threat to the book; yet both the book and the newspaper have been co-existing for centuries. Later, the radio; and the Internet technology was considered as a threat to the all former mass-media tools. Today, all mass-media and the Internet co-exist. What is more, through converging instruments, one has access to all media in a single instrument. Yet, one important point to mention is that the developments in Internet technology developed the linear, one-way nature of traditional mass media and provided opportunity for interactivity. This led to the development of transmedia.

The term “Transmedia” has taken upon a variety of definitions parallel to the technological developments. Initially it started as an opportunity given to the audience to take part and shape the “text” of video games. In the first place, transmedia is called as “multiplatform, or enhanced storytelling represents the future of entertainment” (Jenkins 2003, p.3). Secondly, this engagement can be done “[T]hrough characters in blogs, through exciting and engaging television drama series, through [SMS], Twitter, Facebook, apps! The key is create the stories and the world, and use the platforms that comes naturally to the different parts of the story” (Staffans 2011, p.7). Then, Buckner & Rutledge (2011) define transmedia storytelling;

“[T]elling a story across multiple media outlets. It’s not one story repurposed for multiple media. Each platform furthers the story with a unique contribution, yet is a satisfying experience on its own. Together, the media platforms create a deep, rich narrative experience. It’s one part of psychology, one part new media technology, and two part of story” (p.1).

Mittell (2006) points out that there are changes on traditional media to new media. Mitell (2006) asserts that as several researchers discussed that transmedia storytelling is increasing. Traditional media takes new formats due to create new direction all with unpredictable outcomes. A high-profile source is the television show Lost’s venture is mentioned and shown how to teach audience about transmedia storytelling and the differing ways television and games function as narrative media. Carroll (2003) maintains that speaking on moving images and dominant forms of expression and communication on the Internet and can be called as transmedia phenomenon. Later on, with technological developments which led to converging media and the audience started to have all traditional mass media and the Internet on the same device, which can also be mobile, the term “transmedia” started to be used as an opportunity given to the audience to take part on in the scenario of television serials. This development started in the USA with channel ABC and later used in the scenario of the popular TV serial Lost in the UK (Wyatt, 2007). Also mention that it is used for a TV serial El Barco in Spain (Grandío &Bonaut 2012).

Among the functions of the Internet, Social Networking Sites (SNS) (i.e. Facebook) act as the most popular provider of interactivity to the former/older linear, one-way mass media. From this development, TV serials are perhaps, one of the most influenced genre among the traditional mass media. Either producers or channels open social media accounts (such as Facebook, Twitter) for the TV serials. This opportunity provides the audience a chance where they can express their reaction to the plot, and/or characters of the serials. Otherwise, the audience creates their own social media accounts where they express their own
insights. This can even lead to changing the plot or, continuing to air or cease to produce the serial. This fact, in a way, remind us of Roland Barthes proposition for Death of the Author. In this case of TV serials, certainly each audience reads an episode of a serial personally yet through SNS the audience goes beyond this and acts as an activist in the upcoming episodes of the serial.

Turkish TV serials have gained international popularity in the last decade. Almost all of these serials have formal and informal SNS accounts. The Turkish audience is very keen on using SNS as a channel to react to the plot of the serials.

Recently, the expedited use of SNS led the TV serials and actors and artists have their Facebook, Facebook like pages and Twitter accounts (Grandío & Bonaut 2012). They explain;

The increase in online consumption through computers and social networks has led many European markers to invest in new media and technologies in order to enrich the audience experience of television fiction. Myspace, Twitter or Facebook are among the social networks most used by the TV networks to link specific content to their official sites and to generate an interaction between viewers and the fictional characters (Grandío & Bonaut 2012, p.558).

They also maintain that; “many characters in popular TV series now have a personal account on Twitter, Facebook or Myspace, and it is also common to find characters' videoblogs, in which they explain their feelings about what is happening in the main television plot” (Grandío & Bonaut 2012, p.559). This has provided opportunity for the audience to express their reactions and wishes to the “text” of the TV serials. In the Turkish context, despite the wide international use of the Turkish TV serials, no studies have been conducted with respect to the audience’s contribution to the text of a TV serial through the messages on SNS. The present study seeks to explore reaction the Turkish TV serials through a formal social network sites-Facebook like page of the serial.

The ultimate aim of the present study is to explore audience’s sharing on the like page of the TV serial: Aramızda Kalsın and to analyze these responses impact on the plot of the serial.

Methodology

The present study is designed as a case study. The Turkish television TV serial ‘Aramızda Kalsın’s like page is taken as the case. Qualitative methodology has been favored for the study.

Data collection was done on the TV serial Aramızda Kalsın’s Facebook’s like page. Aramızda Kalsın was a popular Turkish TV serial. It was on the air from December 2013 to January 2015. The reason for choosing this particular Turkish TV serial is its popularity ever since its introduction. A number of articles have been written on Turkish TV serials such as Gümüş [Noor]. Also, popular Turkish TV serials are translated into English and broadcasted internationally. However, there is no request to translate this serial into English. For other Turkish serials which were on the air during the same period subtitles are produced for, non-Turkish television viewers. Aramızda Kalsın was produced by TMC company.

The content of Aramızda Kalsın was different from other Turkish serials and it shows a middle class happy family in the Turkish society and only includes a variety of family relationships. The serial “Aramızda Kalsın” started to be broadcasted in September 19, 2013 and continues to today on Star TV. The general theme is family relations in a Turkish family. The main character of the serial is a woman with two children. She is divorced and had to return her relatives’ house because her mother and father passed away. There, she met a man and fell in love. The story develops on this plot.

Aramızda Kalsın has 63,377 hits of likes on Facebook. TMC announced that it would stop broadcasting date of Aramızda Kalsın. After this announcement; data was collected on Facebook’s like page last post on January 23, 2015 after the last episode, because numbers of comments are numerous.

Data analysis

Initially, data have been organized under the objectives of the study and positive and negative comments on the serial. Audience’s comments direct the research to see four hidden themes on their comments. These hidden themes are; criticism on producer of the serial, criticism on TV channel of the serial, criticism on other Turkish serials and concerns of audience to reaction for early finishing of the serial. Thus, data analyzed under five themes.

Findings

Last post received 137 comments from January 2015 to February 2015. 126 comments were collected. Audience’s comments are categorized under five points. The first point is positive comment on the TV serial, the second point is negative comments on producers, the third point is negative comments on TV channel, the fourth point is negative comments on other Turkish TV serials and the last but not the least is the fifth point which holds negative feeling of audience the finishing of serial.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorizes</th>
<th>Audience comments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st point</td>
<td>Positive comments on the serial</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Characters of the serial</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Content of the serial</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Positive influence of the serial</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Enough stories to extent the serial</td>
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<td>2nd point</td>
<td>Negative comments on producers (criticism)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Not explaining the reason for finishing the serial</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Not hearing the voice of the audience</td>
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<tr>
<td>3rd point</td>
<td>Negative comments on TV channel (criticism)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Not explaining the reasons for finishing</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Not following and watching TV channel</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Not hearing the voice of audience</td>
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<tr>
<td>4th point</td>
<td>Negative comments on other Turkish TV serials (criticism)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Their contents are not like family serial</td>
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<td>• Their contents are meaningless</td>
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<td>5th point</td>
<td>• Concerns of the audience (feeling)</td>
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<td>• Emotions</td>
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<td>• Feelings sadness and unhappiness</td>
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Comments have been done directly on the content of the serial. For example, “wonderful, positive, making audience smile, happy and enjoyable and serial is like a man (Turkish way of saying that it is proper very good). Additionally comments indicate that this particular serial is assumed and is accepted one of the serials for the whole family. Generally, most of the audience mention as “it a nice serial”. What is more; audience tell their reasons why they do not want the serial stop being produced. Above all, the serial has enough stories to continue and it is the best example of a family serial.

Negative comments: Audience’s comments show that audience are not satisfied with the channel and producers’ decision. Mostly, the audience ask for the reasons for finishing the serial and ask to continue broadcasting the serial. The TV channel and producers are criticized with this respect. The audience point out that if they stop broadcasting the serial, they will not watch Star TV. In addition to those negative comments, audience criticized other serials which are not like Aramızda Kalsın. They assert that other TV serials are not serials for the family. Audience also shared their feelings on finishing the serial. They point out that they are unhappy about bringing the serial to an end. Some audience are content with finishing the serial.

With respect to television viewers/social media users’ post on the serial: they share their views in four points. These points are; positive comments on the content of the serial, characters of serial, positive effect of serial and existence of enough stories for the extension of the serial. Positive posts show new ways of looking at the serial and these views are only limited with w those who commented last of Facebook Like Page’s. Each user tells their own way of looking at what the serial means for themselves and tells the reason for positive comments. These sharings also include alternative ways of meaning of the serial. These ways are related to the users who share views. In this way, television viewers who share views of oneself on Facebook Like Page’s. These include their comments on meaning of serial for themselves.

Serial’s stories are not restricted with the scenarist. The scenarist is not a participant in social media. Facebook users who follow Like Page of the serial and who comment on postings of the serial are on the stage. Obviously the scenarist wrote the story in 58 episodes but the serial’s audience criticized the TV channel, the producer and the scenarist. Apparently, most serial viewers think that possible stories are available to continue the serial. Social media help television viewers to remind the TV channels, producers and scenarists that they are not the only scenarists; the audience is also the scenarist. Those negative comments reveal that they will boycott other programs as well as serials in that particular channel so that their programs would lose their scenarists because of this boycott.

Negative comments of the audience tell the producer of the serial that “we are here, why do you not care us?”, “Why do you no take our views into consideration?”, “This serial should not finish” “It should continue”. There are more than 50 posts on similar issues. It indicates that the audience want to be visible. The audience additionally criticize other Turkish TV serials. The criticism is based on the content of the serials. Audience are not satisfied the stories of other serials and tell what they want. In this content, they also share their negative feelings on untimely finishing the serial.
Out of 126 comments, 14.28% television viewers mention their positive opinions with respect to family issues. Audience put forth their views as: “This serial shows the best example of the family.”; “This serial is a good family serial.”; “This serial shows good family lives.”. This percentage is not a negligible percentage because last post solely had been used to analyze and to bring light to audience’s views.

The ongoing positive comments constitute 46, 83%. Audience use these sorts of words “sweet, wonderful, pretty” to express their views on the serial. These words are also used to describe their feelings about the characters. The percentage of this sharing is 2, 38%. The positive comments indicate the positive feelings of the audience. 17, 46% indicates the influence of the serial on the audience as: “helping to laugh”, “relaxing” and “joyous”. These comments are the most frequently repeated comments. One of the audience mentions that “The serial helped my daughter learn Turkish”; it shows that this serial is not only watched in Turkey or by Turkish speaking countries. Another one tells “This family looks like mine”. The last but not the least, “This serial helps me go back to my childhood”.

6,35% of audience tell this serial is the unique one. Pointing out that they only follow this serial and assert that “This serial is the meaningful one”. 1.59% of audience’s views maintain that “This serial includes honestly of a family” and “This serial is an honest serial”. All those comments mention positive things on the serial: characters and the effect of serial on the audience by commenting on the last post of Facebook like page. However, this post also involves negative comments and these negative comments are not on this serial as it has already been mentioned above. 7,93% of audience find the decision to cease the serial as vicious decision. 6,35% of the audience ask the producer “Why did this serial end?” or similar questions. “It should not come to an end”. Only 1,59% of audience mention positive comments to producers “You did a good job because it is should not/would not be extended”. Less than 1% (0,79%) of audience ask question in relation to producing similar serials by the producer and ask to get similar pleasers. 2,38% of audience share their complain of producers; for instance, they point out that they do not respond their wishes positively and assert that “no one hears us”; “no one cares us”. 4,76% of audience mention that “If the serial ceases, I will not watch this channel even for surfing on the channel”. Despite fact that 7,54% of audience mention about other serials and ask why these serials continue their contents and themes are not good.

Discussion and Conclusion

It is noted that the audience share their comments on the TV serial “Aramızda Kalsın”. It seems that the audience’s comments and criticism are not taken into account and the serial finished early. Even though the audience mentioned their criticism and complaints, they could not change the decision about the serial to an end. Currently, Aramızda Kalsın is broadcasted during the day time period. This shows that audience’s messages cannot be transferred from social media to television, however, audience’s comments of the TV serial still continues by using social media (i.e. Facebook Like page). Sharing audience’s views might not prevent finishing the production of the serial but the audience caught chance to tell what they think via social media and try to say that ‘We are the new authors of the serial’; however, the raising of their voices was not effective. On the contrary, it is stated that: “In this context, TV shows are one of the main forms which have increased their visibility on the Web by incorporating specific strategies into their narratives on social networks, like Twitter, Myspace or Facebook, thereby facilitating the integration of viewers within these stories” (Grandio & Bonaut 2012). Interaction between audience and television serials are enhanced with the help of the social media. “Twitter and other social networks become more popular and normalized as platforms for our everyday interactions, and networks and producers begin to further embed social media initiatives into their content and programming strategies” (Harrington et.al 2013). Television programs (i.e TV serials) need to be a part of new technology and development. Deller (2011) notes that television shows, or topics related to them, frequently appear in Twitter’s ‘trending topics’. Also, Twitter has become a key communication tool for narrative expansion of a television fiction (Grandio & Bonaut 2012). Staffans (2011) explains numerous ways to be caught to novelties; “through characters in blogs, through exciting and engaging television drama series, through SMS, Twitter, Facebook apps, the key is to create the stories and the world, and use the platforms that come naturally to the different parts of the story”. As Buckner and Rutledge (2011) explain, there are three reasons why producers should use transmedia storytelling to make their audiovisual stories more successful: persuasion, audience connection, and financial impact. Regarding audiences, Transmedia strategies have created numerous points of entry that reach and link multiple demographics. Television serials are the target source for reaching customers. In other words, story experience in TV serials constitute a satisfying experience for the audience (Buckner and Rutledge, 2011). This paves the way to the producers to reach customers.

By the help of technological developments; interational experience can be occurred between media production and audience. Grandio & Bonaut (2012) mention that new creative storytelling is not merely for television. It is also for new media. ‘Twitter, Facebook, webisodes, videoblogs, interactive experiences, and so on’. As Porter & Lavery (2010) claim that; Fans share just about everything they know about the show, debate it, and want to know more. They gather to watch episodes and immediately post online their kudos and criticism of each episode. They develop websites—a June 2009 search of “Lost fan sites” pulls more than 102 million English-language sites dealing with the series, including videos, reviews, actor or character sites, blogs, and wikis.

Transmedia aids the audience for being a scenarist, a narrator and an author. Also, audience can tell what they want and what they do not want. In this way, the reader or user is positioned as an author remediating the substance and structure of previously
existing media to new work. The audience can become the author and have power more than illusion via advance of technology (Colbert 2008). Thus, audience take pen to continue own story for serial with help of technology. When an audience continues his/her own story, it looks like this is an interactive act. “The notion of interactivity and how to adequately define an interactive medium has been the source of much debate within the new media theory. This debate is often explored in consideration of whether interactivity is actually possible. Kerr et. al (2006) define the term interactivity as it must be regarded as a political, rather than a descriptive. This term is used by numerous new media that advocated emphasizing the user’s control over the medium, whilst de-emphasizing the medium’s control over the user (p.72). Kerr et. al (2006) point out that this act helps audience for learning the power of own himself/herself for the storytelling.

Through transmedia or multiple platforms, the audience shapes the story, in other words what appears on the screen (King & Krzywinska 2002, p. 22). Newman (2002) mentions that “a simple, mechanical measure of inputting controls or commands in order to influence on-screen action” (p.49). However the viewer can change the channels or turn off television, there is not any normal action that the audience can perform in order to alter the content of the programme (Evans 2008, p.5). “‘Interactivity’ is therefore not a monolithic concept but one of that covers subtle distinctions between different activities based on both interpretation and physical action” (Evans 2008, p.6). “Ability to perceive the experience as a simulation of interpersonal communication” (Kiousis 2003, p.372).

With respect to democracy, opportunities of interactively attending can be done democratically. Audience’s use of new technologies and social networks provide platforms and opportunities to be a part of interactivity about TV programs such as Aramızda Kalsın. The data collected for the study suggests that despite the chance given to the audience to react, and lead to the TV serial’s scenario, it can be to interactive for the audience. The audience’s reactions are not taken into consideration seriously. Thus, it is not democratic in the sense of interactivity being democracy. “The widespread use of the Internet is for the social networking, blogging, video-sharing and tweeting has an elective affinity with participatory democracy” (Loader and Mercea 2012, p.x).

Indeed, technological developments are universal. They are used internationally in a short time. Yet, social concepts of like that of “being democratic” & “being participatory” require longer time to be digested by various societies. In Turkey, SNS, particularly Facebook is extremely popular and widely and actively used. Yet, the TV producers are not sufficiently successful to read the audience’s messages and react to the audience in such a way to satisfy their demands or to explain the producer’s reason that why they do not take these audience messages into account. Ronald Barthes was right. Reader is the author itself. The TV networks began to realise (and continue to do so) that they had to understand the consumption of television fiction as a cross-platform practice. Traditional broadcasting was just one element of this, meaning that networks had to strengthen their ties with the public (and naturally also commercial ties) through new communication networks. Consequently, they developed new strategies which focused on prolonging the story as a commercial item (Grandío & Bonaut 2012, p.560). The converging media is also leading to the way to transmedia. Technological developments and developments are in communication through SNS provided by opportunities for the television to interact with the audience. Gradually, we are moving towards looking at the ‘whole picture’. Text is the most significant issue. It can be produced for radio, TV or the web. The SNS provides opportunities for the audience to participate in the writing of the text (Cunningman 2012). In the media, the boundaries of the writer and the audience are getting blurred. The text itself is being proposed by an author but is gradually shaped by the audience.

References


What Motivates a Transmedia Audience

Social Mobile Gaming and User Practices

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Abstract
Form of gaming and game area advanced with the developments occurred in ICT’s. Hence game playing moved to the digital space. Computers, tablets and mobile devices became gaming tools. Mobile devices with increased power, faster communications and higher resolution displays are increasingly common to our everyday life. Today’s mainstream entertainment revolves around interactivity. People want entertainment they can control and become fully involved in, a system that interacts intelligently with them and their surrounding. Powerful smartphones use various techniques such as the touch screen which users can play by intuition, or with a variety of sensors to create different ways to play. One of the top reasons why people play is participating in a social activity they can enjoy with their friends. Mobile phones are an always-carried device, they provide an excellent platform for applications. These social mobile games also allow user to interact with friends via social networks. Social mobile gaming applications generate unique and dynamic environments by creating a multidimensional and complex form of interaction among users to communicate across gaming platforms. Using the Unified Theory of Adoption and Use of Technology, a multifactorial model for technology adoption, and determinants like motivation, advertising, and game quality, this research examines the roles of these factors and how they encourage use of social mobile gaming applications.

Introduction
Mobile technology has passed an important evolutionary technological cycle. With its advance, the mobile application has cultivated itself as a superior figure in business and culture. Since its delivery in the 1970’s, mobile phone technology has impressed people with its developments in human communication. (Hjorth, Burgess, & Richardson, 2012). Media technology industries have become apparent contributors to the increasing consumer attention in smartphone technology by creating downloadable interactive software. Gartner, an information technology research and advisory company, predicts that more than 268 billion mobile apps will be downloaded by 2017 (Gartner, 2014). According to Smart Insights, 89% of the time that users are on their media is spent on mobile applications (Bosomworth, 2014). Powerful smartphones use different techniques like touch screen, or with a variety of sensors to create different ways to play. The smartphone game has risen its popularity in recently years and many games designed for this device. Mobile devices with increased power, faster communications and higher resolution displays are increasingly common to our life. People wish entertainment they can control and become fully involved in, a system that interacts intelligently with them and their surrounding (Rodriguez, 2014). One of the top reasons why people play is participating in a social activity they can enjoy with their friends (Montola, Stenros & Waern, 2009).

Theoretical Framework
Utaut (Unified theory of acceptance and use of technology)
When cultivating a method for analyzing adoption and use of technology, Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003), figured out some of the most successful theories in adoption and use. Venkatesh et al. (2003), aimed to formulate a theory that merged the most important elements of outstanding acceptance models, to create a more efficient method of explaining technology acceptance. Researchers studied behavioral and acceptance theories to combine what would become the UTAUT; these theories included: Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1985; Davis, 1989; Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw 1989), the Motivational Model, (Davis et al. 1992), Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), combined TAM & TPB (Taylor & Todd, 1995), the Model of PC Utilization (MPCU) (Thompson et al. 1991), Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) and Diffusion of Innovations (Rogers, 1995). When Venkatesh et al. (2003) first investigated the design for a technology acceptance hybrid, researchers found seven significant determinants directly linked to adoption or usage. Four of these constructs were linked with acceptance and usage: performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence and facilitating conditions. The UTAUT has served as a model and has been applied to the study of a variety of technologies (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). As mentioned, SNS connection and advertising factors explain the adoption and use of mobile games.
Since the development of games like Nokia’s Snake in 1997 (Paul, Jensen, Wong, & Khong, 2008; Goggin, 2010), to the currently popular 10 million plus downloaded Candy Crush Saga® (Woollaston, 2013), mobile gaming has become one of the fastest growing segments of the video-gaming industry (Paul et al., 2008). With the mobile gaming explosion, social networking sites (SNS) have also been a segment that has become a social phenomenon. As of March 2014, Facebook reported having a total of 1.28 billion active users; 1.01 million of those users active at least monthly on Facebook Mobile alone (Facebook, 2014). Because of popularity in mobile app use and easier access to social networking sites, mobile gaming companies have developed a method to integrate both concepts and create new hybrid social mobile gaming applications (SMGAs) to advertise. The SMGA industry has utilized increase in SNS interaction and gaming to persuade users into continued game use and user-driven advertising. As users are more active in games, rewards are offered based on player engagement, game referrals, game ratings, “likes”, hashtags and score posting. Companies have also utilized gaming platforms for in-ad referrals and cross-promotional marketing. Users playing certain SMGAs can be informed of similar mobile games through in-game ads, SNS and banner advertising, and other games in the game play area (Fallarme, n.d.). Because of this growth and popularity in the areas of social networking, mobile gaming, and gaming advertising, these phenomena have undergone research attempts to establish what influential factors are responsible for user adoption practices and use outcome. User behavior (Park, Baek, Ohm, & Chang, 2014), adoption (Christensen & Prax, 2012) moderating factors (Zhou, 2012; Liu & Li, 2011), online virality and cooperation (Varga, Blazovics, Charaf, & Fitzek, 2012), connectedness (Paul et al., 2008), and continuance (Kim, Oh, Yang, & Kim, 2010), have all been researched as potential factors in the adoption of mobile and social mobile gaming. Despite the popularity and research attempts, there still lacks an understanding in what factors influence specifically SMGA use. SMGA users are connected to social media in these gaming platforms, exposing them to a massive virtual setting where many sources can sway use practices. Traditional elements like performance, effort, social influence, and facilitating conditions have previously been explored in the context of mobile gaming, but explanation in emerging factors like the role of user motivations, utilization of social networking sites, gaming quality, and advertising factors have not been examined in adoption of SMGAs theoretically and systematically.

This study purports to fill such research voids. By applying elements drawn from the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), SNS use, ad exposure, and other contingent elements, this study examines the factors that influence use of SMGAs among users. The results of this study can provide researchers and professionals with better insight into how social media, motivation, game quality, and advertising factors, as theoretical concepts, play in SMGA use when combined with the UTAUT.

Social Gaming

Games like Snake®, created in 1997 (Paul et al., 2008; Goggin, 2010), set the precedence for mobile gaming as the standard in smartphone specifications. The casual gaming revolution has risen, ensuring a mass acceptance (Wilson, Chester, Hjorth, & Richardson, 2011). Early mobile gaming, like Nokia’s Snake®, allowed users to adapt to the small interfaces that mobile phones provided (Wilson et al.). As time has progressed, screens have become larger, creating systems that are more user-friendly with touch screen technology, and have advanced graphical interfaces; this has kept the popularity of mobile gaming growing. Smartphone technologies’ enhanced power, speed, and graphics, are attracting more consumer attention and reaching the demographical masses through system advancements and market diffusion (Pace, 2013). This growing demand for mobile gaming is said to be fueled by the following main factors: improved quality in video and audio, addition of more users, improved ability of wireless networks to handle broadband transmission, and the allowance of users of mobile devices to download superior and more gripping mobile gaming (Soh & Tan, 2008). This advancement, combined with social network ties among users, and user exposure to game promotions (Trepte, Reinecke, & Juechems, 2012), has allowed mobile gaming to cultivate a fusion of social networking and gaming mobile entertainment, making it more popular and increasing use.

Networking has become an activity that has taken over media technologies. Social networks empower people to build ties,
 keep in touch with one another, share information about one another, and create dynamic relationships online (Niyato, et al., 2011). Mobile devices have established a social medium that has produced a better method of interaction and communication among friends (Wei & Lu, 2014). Social ties have long been a topic of attention in the area of online gaming and social network research (Huvila, Holmberg, Ek, & Widen-Wulff, 2010) by finding correlations in online gaming to social environments created in SNS’S (Trepte et al., 2012). Because of the increase in popularity, social networks like Facebook, Twitter, have penetrated the gaming platforms; creating a large group of social gaming options (Järvinen, 2009). SMGs create a pool where technology and socialization comeingle. To better understand social mobile gaming, for the purpose of this research, we can define social mobile gaming as ‘a mobile gaming application in which players collaborate and compete with one another while interacting in game play’. Emergence of social network games and studied them from various focused perspectives, such as sociability (Losh, 2008), social dynamics (Wei, Yang, & Adamic, 2010), game design (Järvinen, 2009; Paavilainen, 2010), playability (Paavilainen, Alha, & Korhonen, 2012, in press), platform (Kirman et al., 2010), playfulness (Kirman, 2010), marketing (Hamari & Järvinen, 2011), behavioral economies (Hamari, 2011), player classification (Kirman & Lawson, 2009), uses and gratifications (Hou, 2011), and motivations (Doughty, Hopkins, & Lawson, 2011).

Advertising
The SMGAs’ hybrid composition has been something that has not only attracted users but advertisers as well. In-game advertising (IGA) has been used to promote products and brands within a mobile games (Terlutter & Capella, 2013). Terlutter and Capella analyzed in-game advertising, looking at individual and social factors that led to users’ responses to game and branding. In the past, a variety of companies have merged with gaming industries for product placement within gaming. Cascadian Farms, an organic farming company, also teamed up with Farmville to advertise themselves within the game in efforts to increase brand awareness in game and in social networks (Terlutter & Capella, 2013). A more recent tactic that has been used on in-game promotion has been crosspromotional campaigns. Companies and game developers create networks to build and grow games (Appstrip, 2012). This allows for the cross-promotion of gaming to a specified demographic of users interested in that gaming genre; this tactic is intended to increase use of gaming applications through game suggestions (Appstrip). This type of advertising is said to increase word of mouth promotion, and social networking promotion as users are referred to other games that fit the criteria of their current favorite platforms. These types of promotions have recently become popular among gaming app developers to increase user traffic in gaming.

Constructs for Social Mobile Game Use
Motivation for Gaming (MG)
The motivational perspective is an important factor when considering how and why users adopt and use technology. Davis et al. (1992) found that motivation was important to behavioral intention to adopt. Users can experience motivation in two ways, The first is extrinsic, which emphasizes performing a behavior to achieve a certain goal (Vallerand, 1997); this means that there must be something that the user is hoping to achieve to motivate use and engagement, the act is not solely for pleasure, but rather for the anticipation of an outcome (Lafrenière et al., 2012). The other is intrinsic, where users seek the pleasure and satisfaction from performing a behavior itself (Deci, 1975). This desire develops from users playing with anticipation of developing skill level, exploration, and engagement; this creates a sense of thrill and enjoyment (Lafrenière et al., 2012). Lafrenière et al. developed the gaming motivation scale (GAMS), to measure the presence of motivation in gaming. Adopting the GAMS, this study examines if and how motivational factors influence users’ use of SMGAs. Zhou (2013), used the UTAUT and Flow Theory to help explain motivation and adoption practices among users. Flow Theory originated through research by Csikzentmihaly (1975) who investigated the experience of enjoyment within individuals as motivation in certain activities.

Quality of Game (QG)
Growth in the market of smartphones has created a robust foundation for the distribution of more sophisticated gaming options (Penttinen, Rossi, & Tuunainen, 2010). This opens doors for game quality to improve and progress. To keep the interest of the user, these mobile apps provide updates and new features to keep the information and interface fresh. With new technology evolving and game quality developing, this keeps users in constant awareness with the newest features mobile apps have to offer. The quality in game growth continues introducing newer and more stimulating apps that benefit users. Designers, like those for WRC: FIA World Rally Championship, have goals to create “realistic but approachable” games with a high degree of realism to make the game more complex to play (Seif El- Nasr, Drachen, & Canossa, 2013).

Social Networking Influence-Interaction and Connectedness in Gaming (SNG)
Interaction, connectedness, and technology were also variables studied within mobile technology adoption. In 2012, Forbes reported that Facebook had 15 million users who have purchased virtual goods, for uses such as gaming. SNS’S are being utilized to enhance features on social and mobile gaming (Yung-Hui, 2012). Because of the increase in user adoption of SNS’S and smartphone use, social games like Angry Birds® and Words with Friends® are becoming more accessible to users, thus attracting new gamers outside of the traditional demographics (McDermott, 2012). SNS’S build communities around the game and allow for viral distribution of gaming (Feijóo et al., 2012). Through SNS use, players elicit a multi-level platform for emotional connectedness and an outlet for user entertainment and interaction. Users link to these relational ties within the social communities, by posting scores and sending game invites to initiate new users to play. Yun et al., (2013) define social influence
(SI) as the degree to which an individual believes that he or she is expected to use a new technology by significant others. Social media allow users to share experiences about SMGAs through reviews and feedback shared on posts. Strong ties between attitude and behavioral intention have been connected to the use social networks as tools for supporting the purchasing decision (Di Pietro & Pantano, 2012).

Game Advertising (GA)
Advertising has increased the potential for users to adopt of SMGAs. The book, *Groundswell* by Li and Bernoff (2008), focused on the use of new media technologies for business tactics, like advertising, and the utilization of online social media for increased user consumption of products. These authors see that more readily, consumers have relied heavily on information given through new media technologies, like SNS’s and cross-promotional gaming advertisements, when choosing to adopt mobile gaming. Halligan, Shah, and Scott (2009) argue that motivating customer adoption has changed from its traditional marketing strategies. They see that prospective adopters look to new media technologies for influence. In line with banner advertising, advertising on social networks has become medium to broaden consumer adoption through user-generated promotions. This type of advertising encourages user to share ads across social networks (Hansen & Lee, 2013).

Methodology

Data Collection
A secure online survey was created via Google Forms. One method used to collect participants was the use of Social Networking Sites (SNSs), Facebook. Other channels used were SMGA social chats, email blast. Study participants were offered information regarding the survey with a Google link they could follow to participate in the research effort. Participants were invited to Share the link on their respective SNSs. Participants were able to complete the survey on any computer with Internet access, 24 h per day. Data collection was conducted from April 15 to April 25 of 2015. Before beginning the survey, participants read and indicated their consent to participate. The survey took an average of 6 min to complete. Data were then examined for incomplete surveys. Once data were cleaned for analysis, a total of 101 participant responses were used in data analysis for the purpose of this research. The data were downloaded from the Google Forms website into a Microsoft excel file and imported into the statistical analysis program SPSS to test research hypotheses.

Measures
This study explored many variables probable in being significant determinants in the behavioral intention to use SMGAs. A total of seven factors were tested, entailing the following: motivation, game quality, social network influence, advertising. Demographic factors of gender, age and education were also tested.

Motivation
Davis et al. (1992) noted that Motivation can be a strong influencer in intention. Users can experience motivation in two ways; extrinsically and intrinsically. The first is extrinsically, in which a user acts on a behavior to achieve a certain goal (Vallerand, 1997); the other is intrinsically; this is where a user seeks satisfaction from performing a behavior (Deci, 1975). These two characteristics of motivation were considered as eight items were created for the 7-point scale that ran from 1- strongly disagree, to 7- strongly agree.

Game Quality
The ever-evolving progress in smartphone enhancements keeps users interested in smartphone technologies and mobile applications. Browne and Maire (2010), found this to be true when studying the aesthetics in mobile gaming and how users reacted to game quality. Quality has become something that must be considered in user intention to adopt SMGAs. Participants responded to six items regarding the quality of social mobile gaming applications. Items on a 7-point Likert scale extended from 1- strongly disagree, to 7- strongly agree.

Social Networking Influence
Social networks have taken advantage of the fact that 56 million Americans have played mobile games; they have done so by building online gaming communities for viral gaming distribution (O’Dell, 2011; Feijoo et al., 2012). This has led SNS’s to become an outlet for social influence in SMGA use. In social influence, individuals weigh decisions heavily on the importance of others’ beliefs and use that to determine if she/he should choose to adopt technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003). This study asked participants to respond to six items concerning SNS influence in SMGA adoption and use.

Game Advertising
Advertising has had to evolve with the ever growing popularity in mobile apps; this means that there has been a change in how to motivate customer adoption (Halligan, Shah, & Scott, 2009). Cross-promotion, Tell-A-Friend, and online game referrals have become the norm. This study focuses on Advertising as a potential construct in SMGA use. Five items were used to measure if SMGA advertising influenced app adoption, arranged in a 7-point scale, with 1- strongly disagree, to 7- strongly agree.

SMGA Usage
Hernandez et al. (2009), argue the importance of companies knowing the difference between use and intention and the need to know which motivations influence each. Rogers (1995) and Cooper and Zmud (1990), note that the phenomenon of adoption and usage can be categorized into a post-acceptance stage, because users have accepted technology, used it, and integrated it as part of a normal routine (as cited in Cho, Cheng, & Hung, 2009, p. 265).

Since this study assumes that all respondents have used SMGAs to some degree, the questionnaire included four survey items about SMGA usage.

Research instruments
The researchers used the questionnaire which used by Ana Kahni Rodrıguez, B.A for the thesis presented to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Texas in determining the level of SMGA use. Questionnaire has 31 items which includes likert scale of 1 to 7 and 3 demographic questions. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 22.0) was used to calculate data.

Results
Motivation
Motivation would be a positive predictor of respondent use of social mobile gaming apps. Motivation was tested in the two categories of friendship motivation and entertainment motivation. In this study, motivation was hypothesized as a factor in adoption and use. Participants in Wei and Lu’s (2014) study of mobile gaming found that gaming was a form of instant entertainment, which is one of the main motivational reasons for adoption. Motivations showed positive significance in the number of SMGAs users currently owned. What can be inferred is that users rely on entertainment motivation to download SMAGAs. According to the results, there is a probability that the more entertaining an SMGA is, the more likely a user will download it. When tested against the length of time SMGAs are used, entertainment motivation, represented a positive relation.

Game Quality
Quality of game being a positive predictor of the use of social mobile gaming apps. In previous research, studies showed that quality was a main concern to demanding gamers during the purchasing process of gaming (Penttinen, Rossi, & Tuunainen, 2010). Result showed that quality was an important feature that showed significance among respondents. This analysis discovered a positive relation with the number of SMGAs respondents used. This means that respondents utilized less SMGAs based on the quality of the game.

Social Network Influence
Zhou (2013) found that social influence was an important influencer in adoption of mobile apps; research showed that social influence reflected a process of compliance in which users followed opinions of peers when choosing to adopt. This study hypothesized that social influence from social networking sites would be positive predictor of user adoption and use of social mobile gaming apps. Based on the analysis of participants’ responses, social network influence was not significant in predicting SMGA use. Both women and men don’t interested in social networks.

Advertising
Soroa-Koury and Yang (2010) reported that advertising on mobile devices could affect users towards having a favorable opinion of them. This made the willingness to accept them easier. When this factor was tested in data analysis for this research, results indicated a negative relation between ad exposure and SMGA daily use. Ad exposure negatively influences the longer time users spend on SMGAs per day.

Conclusion
Overall, this research found significance in the areas of motivation, quality, social network influence and advertising. This researched discovered that entertainment motivation was a significant factor that spanned across the number of SMGAs respondents owned, the length of time they were used, and how many hours per day users were active on SMGAs. Advertising and social network influence indicated a negative relation to how many hours per day were spent on an SMGA. Future research could focus on the limitations and incorporate other factors suggested for research. This study provided insight into the areas of mobile apps, business tactics, and gaming. Findings can be utilized among future researchers and businesses to assess the effect on user decision to engage in social mobile gaming application practice.

References


Stratejik İletişim Yönetiminin “Ülke Markası” İnşasındaki Rolü

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Giriş
Yeni yüzyılda markalar ve kurumlar gibi ülkeler de keskin ve zorlu bir rekabet ortamında karşı karşıya bulunmaktadır. Küreselleşme süreciyle birlikte iletişimin endüstrisi başta olmak üzere yaşayan pek çok önemli dönüşüm, ülkeleri aşılamsız etmek teknik ve yöntemleri terk etmeye zorladı. Ülkeler artık yeni paradigmayı anlamak, kodlarını çözme, yeni yöntem ve tekniklere yol almak zorundalar. Bu süreçte ülkelerin “marka değerlerini” artırma, kendi “ülke markalarını” inşa etme düşüncesi ön çıkarmaya başladı.

Ülkelerin kendilerini doğru konumlandırılması, mesajlarının kamuoyunun etkili şekilde anlatılması ve sonucunda itibarlı, saygın ve güvenilir bir marka değeri sahibi olmaları; 21. yüzyılın rekabet ortamında stratejik bir öncelik haline gelmiştir.


Makelede yöntem olarak literatür taraması yöntemi kullanılmış, birincil ve ikincil kaynaklar detaylı şekilde taramaştır. Bu taramadan elde edilen verilerin analizi sonucu; ülke marka değeri artırmak, itibarlı, saygın ve güven veren bir marka oluşturmak isteyen ülkelerin neler yapması gerektiyine dikkat çekilmiştir, onlar için stratejik bir yol haritası sunulmuştur.

Stratejik İletişim Kavramı
Amerikan stratejik iletişimi yöneticisi, Emil Goldman, stratejik iletişimi, “tutum ve davranışları etkilemeye yönelik bir strateji” olarak tanımlar (Karagöz, 2015:45). Tutum ve davranışları etkilemek için; bireylerin bilincinini, iletişimin stratejik stratejilerinin ülke markası inşaına yaptığı katkıları ve etkisini incelemektedir.

Stratejik iletişimin yaradığı yeni uygun mesajın ilgiyi kamuoyuna ulaştırılması, kamuoyunun bilgilendirilmesi amaçlayacak yönkey odaklı pasif bir iletişimin ve devletin tutum ve davranışlarını etkilemeye yönelik bir strateji olarak tanımlanır (Onat, 2012: 78). Iletişim süreçlerinden başlangıç olarak önceden belirlenmiş bucaktakiler ile birlikte, iletişimin stratejik stratejilerinin ülke markası ve kurumların yararlanması ve kamuoyunun etkisini etkilemesi için stratejik bir stratejik stratejilerinin ülke markası inşaına yaptığı katkıları ve etkisini incelemektedir.

Stratejik iletişimin kullanıldığı discipline olarak yapılan arastırmaların sonucuna göre, iletişim olarak tanımladığı (kimi zaman enformel araştırmalardan da yararlanır) bir sorunu, ilgili hedef kitleleri, ölçülebilir amaç ve hedefleri tanımlamak için kullanılır (Çınarlı, 2009: 5). Tutum ve davranışların etkilenmesi; bireylerin bilincinini, iletişim teknolojilerinin etkisini, kamu diplomasisi, medya ile ilişkiler, halk ile ilişkiler gibi disiplinler bütünleşik bir anlayışla kullanılır (Güncan, 2010: 105). Stratejik iletişim genel anlamda planlı iletişim kampanyalarını tanımlamak için kullanılan bir kavramdır. Bir işletme, bir STK tarafından yürütülebilecek stratejik iletişimi; devlet, ordu, hükümet veya daha az yapısal bir grup tarafından da yürütülebilir.

Stratejik iletişimin genel anlamda planlı iletişimin kampanyalarını tanımlamak için kullanılan bir kavramdır. Bir işletme, bir STK tarafından yürütülebilecek stratejik iletişimi; devlet, ordu, hükümet veya daha az yapısal bir grup tarafından da yürütülebilir. Yani, stratejik iletişimin genel anlamda alfabedeki gibi bir iletişim düz amaçlarla da kullanılabilir. Stratejik iletişim; stratejik iletişimin genel anlamda planlı iletişimin kampanyalarını tanımlamak için kullanılan bir kavramdır. Bir işletme, bir STK tarafından yürütülebilecek stratejik iletişimi; devlet, ordu, hükümet veya daha az yapısal bir grup tarafından da yürütülebilir.
Stratejik İletişim Yönetimi Neden Önemlidir?


“Ülke Markası” Ve Kamu Diplomasisi İlişkisi

Devletlerin çıkar, fırsat ve potansiyel tehdit merkezli değerlendirmelerine göre oluşturdukları ve başka ülkelerin kamuoyunları etkileme amacıyla yürüttükleri faaliyetleri kapsayan kamu diplomasisi; başka ülkelerin hükümlerini değiştirmek, hüküm vermek, etkilere takip etmek ve kamuya artışlarını hedefledirmektedir. Ülkeler, kamu diplomasisini yaygınlaştırarak yabancı ülkeleri ile ilişkileri etkileyecek konulara kapalıları aramaktadır. Yabancı kamulaşımları bilgiyi ve etkilemek, bu etkili geliştirilecek, yaşanışları anlamlamaları ve kabul edenlerin yoluactalı bir işi oluşturmaktadır (Morrow). Hükümet ve sivil toplum kuruluşları, kamu diplomasisi anlayışında, görüşlerini yabancı sivil toplum kuruluşlarına ve kamuya aktarabilme imkanı bulunmaktadır (İnan, 2012, 64). Kamu diplomasisi, yabancı kamuoyunun fikirlerine, idéal değerlerine ve ülke çıkarlarına hizmet edecek şekilde sempati oluşturma amaçlarıyla kurdukları iletişim sürecine uğramaktadır. Ülkeler yabancı toplumların tutum ve davranışlarını etkilemek için etkilemek, bu etkiyi geliştirmek, yanlış anlamaların ve kabullerin yol açtığı kargaşayı sınır ötesi iletişim ortamını sağlamakta (İnan, 2012, 64). Kamu diplomasisi, hükümetlerin yabancı kamuoyunun fikirlerine, idéal değerlerine ve ülke çıkarlarına hizmet etmek, bu etkiyi geliştirmek, yanlış anlamaların ve kabullerin yol açtığı kargaşayı sınır ötesi iletişim ortamını sağlamakta. 

Sonuç

Kaynakça

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Unhate Company of Benetton and Corporate Reputation

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Abstract
Organizations struggle for positive corporate reputation to affects buying behavior and brand loyalty positively. To get this result, many corporations are producing ads which look like each other: Esthetically perfect, using digital effects, showing healthy and beautiful/handsome people in spectacular places, and fate happiness shows... But Benetton did create advertisements to make people talk, to develop citizen consciousness. This study is about the Benetton’s most recently lunched advertisement company named UNHATE. Researcher will discuss the ads from the corporate reputation, brand image, and from the advertisement philosophy of Benetton.

Keywords: Reputation, brand image, brand loyalty, UNHATE ads.

Introduction
Price and quality of a product is not the only criteria for costumers for demanding a brand. Moreover there are a big variety of products that have almost the same quality and same price. So businesses have to exert significant effort to affect the customer preference for the advantage of their brands. In this context, corporations do have to look for new ways beside quality and price to differentiate themselves from their rivals. Actually they are trying to do that, but the number of successful ones is precious few. Benetton is one of the most distinguished brands in business world with its controversial publicity companies.

Benetton’s last controversial “UNHATE” company won the Press Grand Prix at the Cannes Ad Festival in September 2011. This success of Benetton has taken both positive and negative reactions/criticisms from different environments. But it’s obvious that Benetton has world talk on itself through these ads, and gained a good worldwide reputation.

Reputation is a matter of management, and it has grate effect on both consumer perception about the companies, and on the consumers buying preferences. Consumers tend to buy the products and services of the companies that have good reputation. Positive reputation also can create good brand image, and brand loyalty (Booker and Serenko, 2007).

In this paper the massage of the UNHATE ads will be discussed from the Benetton’s understanding of advertising, and the reputation of Benetton. In the following pages it’s tried first to explain the reputation concept and importance of reputation from the point of brand loyalty and consumers’ buying behaviors. And then the UNHATE ads would be analyzed.

Theoretical Background
Reputation is “the opinion that people in general have about someone or something, or how much respect or admiration someone or something receives, based on past behaviour or character (http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/). According to Fombrun and Van Riel (2004), corporate reputation has six dimensions: social responsibility, emotional appeal, products and services, workplace environment, vision and leadership, and financial performance. They says that, according to the researches who works on corporate reputation perceptions, among all these dimensions, products and services, social responsibility and financial performance have the greatest effect on reputations of the companies

Consumers are no longer passive or in the dark. Because of the performance of communication and information Technologies consumers are conscious about where their money is going and who they are supporting by buying their goods. So the reputation of the enterprise or corporate reputation becomes mission-critical

Reputation and Brand Image
According to Shandwick, reputation of a company behind a brand is just as important as strong product brands. Because product brands can benefit from the overall reputation of their company. “The corporate reputation is perceived to add luster to the product brands, not just the other way around. The fusion of the corporate and product reputation has only reached its tipping point today. They are becoming nearly indivisible.”

http://www.webershandwick.com/uploads/

Brand image is the “perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory” (Dichter, 1985; Aaker, 1991; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995...)

Pope and Ahmed Mohamed el-Tayeb and Imam of the Al-Azhar mosque in Cairo.
According to Aaker (1991), brand image creates not only value in a variety of ways, such as helping consumers to process information, differentiating the brand, and generating reasons to buy; but also giving positive feelings, and providing a basis for extensions. And brand associations are all the linkages that exist between a brand and the other nodes stored in memory. And consumers also want to do good as they spend.

According to the results of a research made by Shandwick on 1375 consumers (ages 18+), %87 of Chinas and 75% percent of Brazils are completely and/or mostly agree with the “More and more, I check labels to see what company is behind the product I’m buying” statement. And respectively 83% and 73% percent agree with “More and more, I try to buy products made by a company that does good things for the environment or community” statement. http://www.webershandwick.com/uploads/.

UNHATE Advertising Company and Its Reflections
As it’s said above; Benetton’s controversial “Unhate” ads won the Press Grand Prix at the Cannes Ad Festival in September 2011. The press jury celebrated the ads for both its universal message and ability to go beyond just the printed page. UNHATE is an integrated advertising campaign featuring print, outdoor, digital and film focusing on the kiss, the most universal symbol of love. The ads, which are all emblazoned with the slogan “unhate,” refer to the company’s UNHATE Foundation, which “seeks to contribute to the creation of a new culture of tolerance, to combat hatred, building on Benetton’s underpinning values” (http://www.zap2it.com/blogs/benetton). The ad campaign features world political and religious leaders kissing each other on the mouth (http://www.redhotmarketingblender.com/). Although the meaning of this campaign was exclusively to combat the culture of hatred in all its forms; it has taken many positive and negative criticisms after it lunched. One ad in the series had featured Pope Benedict XVI kissing a Muslim imam and was pulled within hours of launch after the Vatican denounced it. Also some print publications refused the ads, including the International Herald Tribune, the Guardian and Elle Francia. However, such as The Economist, Newsweek, Le Monde’s magazine in France and Germany’s Fur Sie did run them.

Benetton says the accompanying press material is inviting “the leaders and citizens of the world to combat the culture of hatred”. The UNHATE campain is the firsty initiative from a new Benetton foundation of the same name, launched by Alessandro Benetton, executive deputy chairman of the Benetton group. UNHATE ad company is another example of integrating the public relation, corporation reputation, and brand image successfully for the benefit of Benetton. UNHATE ads are the newest provocative and socially charged work. Benetton has realized many such shocking campaigns in the past.

Benetton’s’ Shocking Ad Campaigns
When photographer Olivero Toscani created for Benetton the first multiracial campaigns with the “United Colors of Benetton” slogan; Benetton moved into controversial topics such as AIDS, Gulf War casualties and so on. The philosophy behind this new understanding; was bearing itself against “life-style-advertisings” of being dull and unimaginative, creating and portraying an ideal World that does not exist. Hera are two examples from Benetton socking campaigns’. In this ad; one figure from three historically conflicting continents and all are being warmed by a single blanket. It can be seen that the women on either end of the child have their hands clasped together, and the image reminiscent of a family portrait. So this ad is much more than meets the eye.

The 1993 ad below; brought color to the AIDS pandemic. This was just over a decade after the formal recognition of the disease, when it was still charged with ideas that it was cleansing society of the undesirables.
Benetton bravely uses HIV positivity to create lively, sexy images — a perspective very unlike traditional representations of AIDS as death itself.
Using iconic images from the recent news of horrors that still haunt the millions is insensitive. Very often, insensitivity is affective. The car bomb image at the top, for example, treats the issue of terrorism from an observational perspective, as if saying that the brand is still relevant to today’s issues and that some issues cannot be considered as simply as we have seen to date.

In 1994, Benetton takes the uniform of a fallen Bosnian soldier brutally wearing its red (the most uniting color of all, no?) and bullet holes. This was conveniently at the height of the war’s presence in western media where it became the issue of human rights with its thousand-fold complications.

The Features of UNHATE Company
The stunning (albeit photo-shopped) images of UNHATE ads push the boundaries of advertising and communication once more. Alessandro Benetton, chairman of the group, maintained that images were meant to promote the idea of “unhate” (“which is not as utopian as love”) and should not be seen in the physical or sexual context. “The images are very strong, but we have to send a strong message (http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/business/international).
The simplicity of this gesture, a kiss, in comparison to many of the aggressive notions in the ads we have seen to date shouldn’t be able to incite such strong reactions as it does.

The Value of UNHATE Company

What is wrong with these photo-shopped images? Benetton wants the world to unhate. As Benetton says “These are symbolic images of reconciliation with a touch of ironic hope and constructive provocation- to stimulate reflection on how politics, faith and ideas, even when they are divergent and mutually opposed, must still lead to dialog and mediation.” http://www.creativereview.co.uk/

Brand experts said that it’s possible to be controversial, protect your brand and make a serious point at the same time. “It is a risky strategy that Benetton have taken but this is a great example of a brand creating something that is a global discussion point. Most of the Benetton advertisements are controversial touch on sensitive subjects like politics, religion, racism, etc. UNHATE ads can be seen as a new success for Benetton for combat against the hate culture.

As a public attention grab advertisement, which don’t obey the rules of traditional advertisement; not making a point about the clothes. But definitely it preserve the positive feeling about the brand, and promote brand image though an eye-catching and controversial campaign. On the other hand, Benetton used media most compatible with the media, and allow everyone to participate the campaign to stimulate public being together for a global issue and around the brand. So UNHATE fits perfectly
with Benetton’s history of social advocacy. The company is so successful concerning the web traffic and press coverage. 500 million customers around the World visit the web site, and 600 article in 60 countries written about EN HATE ads. Ranked number 5 in the most popular subjects on Google and Twitter for one week. And this company definitely promote the brand image. It’s an eye-catching and shocking advertisement. And it wouldn’t be a prophecy to say that public is waiting for new advertisements, curious about the subjects that the brand could promote.

Last Words
If we think of the hurtful conditions of the World, UNHATE ad company has created a very sympathetic and valuable nods in memory of human beings. There are 195 countries in the World, and there is a war in one of each three countries in the World: Exact number is 65. http://geography.about.com/ Think of a World that 50% of its population lives on less than 2,5 dollars, and 80% lives on less than 10 dollars a day; 22,000 child die every day due to poverty. Every one child out of three lives without adequate shelter. And every one child out of three has no chance access to safe water. http://www.statisticbrain.com/world-poverty-statistics/.

We all familiar with the problems mentioned above and many more. So it’s part of world leaders' responsibility to lessen these unacceptable conditions. UNHATE company aimed has the leaders remember this responsibility. If the leaders able to overcome the hatred feelings against each other, and can love each other the solution will come by itself.

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The Impact of Top-Down Communication on Career Satisfaction

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Organizational communication includes both interpersonal relationship and information exchange process by different levels. As an independent variable, organizational communication influences both organizations and individuals. This study aimed to investigate the impact of top-down communication on career satisfaction. The sample consisted of 205 office managers, executive assistants and secretaries working in different sectors in Istanbul. 16 cases were excluded due to missing data. The data form 189 participants were analyzed. Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990) and Top-Down Communication Scale (Downs & Hazen, 1977) were data collection instruments. The quantitative paradigm, including descriptive, relational, and comparative models was employed. In analyzing data, a set of correlation, analysis of variance, and multiple regression techniques were employed. Results reveal that top-down communication is positively and significantly correlated with career satisfaction (r = .457, p< .01). Top-down communication explains 20.9 % of the variance on career satisfaction. Institution explains additionally 4.7% variance on career satisfaction. Top-down communication was categorized as low and high top-down communication scores. When top-down communication groups compared, significant mean differences of career satisfaction were found. As age, occupation, institution, educational level and years in the present group differ, significant mean differences both on top-down communication and career satisfaction is found.

Various interactions of organizational communication dimensions with individual and organizational factors are found out day by day. It is clear that organizational communication contributes not only to the performance and effectiveness of the organization but also the attitudes, values, behaviors of the individuals within the organization (Simsek, 2011). Organizational communication consists of both individual and interpersonal communication levels. This study aims to evaluate organizational communication in terms of interpersonal hierarchical relationship. Organizational communication forms employee’s attitudes towards the organization. This study examined whether top-down communication affects employees’ career satisfaction evaluations.

Organizational Communication

Organizational communication is commonly defined as a process by which activities of a society are collected and coordinated to reach the goals of both individuals and the collective group (Business Dictionary, 2015). Container and social constructive approaches discuss organization and communication interactions differently. The container approach towards organizational communication assumes that organizations serve as containers that influences communication behavior. Organization and communication exist separately. Organizational structure has effect on the communication practices. In contrast, social constructionist approach claims that communication creates the form and the shape of organizations. Even the information flow practices could form a centralized or decentralized organizational structure (Commgap, 2008). In this study, organizational communication practices were evaluated as the independent variable. This means that organizational communication affects organization and their members, consistent with the social constructionist approach.

Components of organizational communication are classified differently. Putnam and Cheney (1985) determined main organizational communication focus areas as information flow and channels, climate, superior-subordinate and network analysis. Allen, Gotcher and Seibert (1993) determined 17 organizational communication areas: interpersonal communication, communication skills, culture and symbolism, information flow and channels, power and influence, decision making and problem solving, communication networks, communication and management styles, organization-environment interface, technology, language and messages, structure, uncertainty and information adequacy, groups, ethics, cross-cultural and climate (Deetz, 2000). Technology, social media, and discourse were new fields related to organization communication researches.

The functions of organizational communication could be categorized as to inform, regulate, integrate, manage, persuade, and socialize organizational members/organizations. Inform means providing necessary information. Regulate is related to management issues. Integrate is defined as left hand knows what the right hand is doing, meaning coordination. The management function is associated with achieving organizational goals. Persuasion is generally evaluated between supervisors and subordinates or peers. Socialize refers to being integrated into the communication networks (Richmond, McCroskey, & McCroskey, 2005). This study focused on the quality of superordinate-subordinate communication. The reason for that is top-down communication interacts with all of the organizational communication functions.

Top-down communication is historically has been one of the main issues of organizational communication. In many organizations, the flow of the information has been designed hierarchically like monitoring and controlling duties (Friebel & Raith, 2004). Especially organizational communication theories were based first on classical management theories, emphasizing managerial hierarchy. Transmitting information from high level towards lower ones was the case. Top-down communication is only a tool for maintaining the structure. Human relations perspective, developed from the results of Mayo experiment known with “the Hawthorne effect”, focused first on the individuals and the importance of the interactions of employees, which causes need satisfaction. Human resources approach attempts to achieve high performance and productivity by viewing each person as a valuable human resource. Top-down
communication is an obligation to attain the organizational goals. Employee participation in decision making is a part of this strategy.

Systems approach assumes that individuals in organizations achieve more than they can independently. Top-down communication is a part of this system. An interruption in top-down communication could affect the whole organization. Cultural approach gives importance to the shared values and beliefs, common practices, skills, and actions, rules, objects and artifacts, and mutually understood meanings. Cultural approach was developed due to the success of Japan firms. According to this approach, the quality of the top-down relationship and other organizational communication practices determines the organization itself (Hahn, Lippert, & Paynton, 2014).

The success of an organization mostly depends on its organizational communication practices; including relationship, information exchange and positive culture and climate. Generally the higher hierarchy level determines and maintains the directions and the quality of organizational communication. Therefore, top-down communication secures sufficient information flow across hierarchical levels and organizational units. According to the Brandes and Darai’s (2014) experimental research, top-down communication between managers and their subordinates resolves uncertainty about the work. They pointed out that a lack of top-down communication could be associated with reduced organizational performance. Top-down communication is suggested to be developed in order to increase employee performance in the presence of uncertainty. Supervisor support is a kind of positive top-down communication experience. Demirhan, Kula and Karagöz (2014) reported that supervisor support is related to job satisfaction and performance.

The importance of the top-down communication quality measured by leadership styles on employee satisfaction was questioned by Donald Pelz (1952). Pelz effect explained that instead of leadership style, the power of the manager is more effective for downward communication. Morgan and Schieman (1983) stressed that most of the employees felt their organization are not successful in downward communication based on a survey of 30,000 employees. Only %40 of the managers, %39 of the professionals, %32 of the clericals and %26 hourly workers evaluated downward communication as good or very good. Larkin and Larkin (1994) highlighted that downward communication is most effective if top managers communicate directly with immediate supervisors and immediate supervisors communicate with their staff. Jablin (1980) indicated that top managers could follow-up by communicating with employees directly, depending on the importance of the issue (cited in Baker, 2002: 7). Interpersonal communication is under the umbrella of organizational communication, considering top-down communication research. From the need perspective, interpersonal communication fulfills pleasure, affection, inclusion, and relaxation needs. When these interpersonal needs could not be satisfied, loneliness, anxiety or dissatisfaction would most likely be experienced. Communication needs could be influenced by the political, cultural, economic, social environment and social- psychological environment like social background, life position, and psychological characteristics, satisfaction etc. (Rubin & Rubin, 1992). To sum up, interpersonal communication part of organizational communication affects the need fulfillment process. Positive top-down communication serves like managerial/organizational support. Therefore, top-down communication or downward communication is thought to be related with employees’ organizational evaluations like career satisfaction.

Career Satisfaction
Career satisfaction is defined as the positive psychological or job related outcomes/success perception based on individual job experience. The achievement level of the predetermined career goals determines career satisfaction (Yükssel, 2005). Linked with motivation theories, career satisfaction has both individual and organizational aspects. External career satisfaction factors are salary, promotions etc. and inner satisfaction factors are individuals perceptions and evaluations (Avcı & Turunç, 2012).

Career satisfaction could be evaluated as higher level organizational needs. The aim of career management could be associating organizational and individual expectations (Aktas, 2014). Career satisfaction is significantly related to many organizational variables such as performance (Greenhaus et.al, 1990), turn-over (Joo & Park, 2010). The main purpose of the present study is to examine the impact of top-down communication on career satisfaction concerning some demographic variables. Toward this purpose, answers are sought to the following questions:

What are the levels of top-down communication satisfaction and career satisfaction?
Is the correlation between top-down communication satisfaction and career satisfaction is significant?
How much of the career satisfaction is explained by demographics and top-down communication scores?
Are there any significant differences in top-down communication satisfaction and career satisfaction, when demographic data differentiated?
Are the any significant differences in career satisfaction of more satisfied and less satisfied employees regarding top-down communication?

Methods
Model
A quantitative approach of scientific inquiry was employed. Descriptive, relational, and comparative models were used to
examine interactions between top-down communication satisfaction and career satisfaction. The research model and the variables of the study are presented in Figure1. As can be easily deduced from the illustration, the impact of top-down organizational communication on employees’ career satisfaction is investigated in reference to demographics.

**Top-down communication**

![Figure 1. Research Model](image)

**Sample**

The data from the 205 office managers, executive assistants and secretaries working in different sectors in Istanbul, Turkey were collected. The scope of this study consisted of service, education and health sector. After missing value analysis, 16 cases were deleted. There is no any univariate and multivariate outlier. Data from 189 (110 female and 79 male) employees were analyzed.

The descriptive statistics of the sample were presented below considering gender, marital status, age, education, occupation, sector, institution, years in occupation, and years in the present organization.

- **Gender**: Male, 79 participants (41.8%); female, 110 participants (58.2%).
- **Marital status**: Single, 90 participants (47.6%); married, 99 participants (52.4%).
- **Age**: 18-24 years old, 35 participants (18.5%); 25-29 years old, 57 participants (30.2%); 30-34 years old, 47 participants (24.9%); 34-39 years old, 31 participants (16.4%); 40+ years old, 19 participants (10.1%).
- **Education**: High school, 45 participants (23.8%); associate degree, 92 participants (48.7%); undergraduate, 32 participants (16.9%); masters, 10 participants (5.3%); doctoral, 10 participants (5.3%).
- **Occupation**: Office managers, 45 participants (23.8%); secretaries, 113 participants (59.8%); executive assistants, 31 participants (16.4%).
- **Sector**: Public sector, 90 participants (47.6%); private sector, 99 participants (52.4%).
- **Institution**: Education, 26 participants (13.8%); service, 70 participants (37.0%); health, 93 participants (49.2%).
- **Years in occupation**: 1-5 years, 86 participants (45.5%); 6-10 years, 53 participants (28%); 11-15 years, 31 participants (16.4%); 16 and more years, 19 participants (10.1%).
- **Years in the present organization**: 1-5 years, 117 participants (61.9%); 6-10 years, 39 participants (61.9%); 11-15 years, 18 participants (9.5%); 16 and more years, 15 participants (7.9%).

**Instruments**

- **Demographic Data Form**: This form consisted of questions about gender, marital status, age, education, occupation, sector, institution, years in occupation, and years in the present organization.
- **Career Satisfaction Scale**: Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormald (1990) developed this scale. Avcı and Turunç (2012) translated the career satisfaction scale into Turkish. Before the application, researcher and a SME controlled the items of the scale and some small adaptations were done. The Cronbach alpha reliability value of the career satisfaction scale in the present study was \( \alpha = .86 \).
- **Top-Down Communication Scale**: The communication with subordinates factor of the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) was implemented. CSQ was developed by Downs and Hazen (1977). Simsek (2011) translated this scale into Turkish. The reliability was found high \( \alpha = .95 \). The Cronbach alpha of the scale in this study was \( \alpha = .939 \).

**Results**

Demographics and top-down communication were independent variables, whereas career satisfaction is the dependent variable. The minimum, maximum, mean scores, standard deviations of top-down communication scores (M=2.94, SD= 1.14) and career satisfaction scores (M=2.79, SD= 1.04) were presented in Table 1. As seen in the table, the mean score of top-down communication satisfaction is found to be higher than career satisfaction mean score.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of top-down communication and career satisfaction
Bivariate Pearson correlation was conducted in order to determine the relationship between top-down communication and career satisfaction. They are positively and significantly correlated \( r = .457, p < .01 \). As top-down communication increases, career satisfaction also increases.

**Table 2.** The correlations of top-down communication and career satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top-down communication</th>
<th>Career satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.457**</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*Significant mean differences at the .01 level

The impact of the top-down communication and demographic variables on career satisfaction was analyzed by a set of regression analyses. Regression results are illustrated in Table 3. For the first regression analysis, only top-down communication was regressed on career satisfaction. The explained variance by top-down communication on career satisfaction is 20.9%, which is very high and significant. As top-down communication increases, career satisfaction also increases. For the second regression analysis, both top-down communication and demographic variables were regressed on career satisfaction. In addition to communication satisfaction, institution explains additionally 4.7% variance of career satisfaction.

**Table 3.** Regression Table (IV’s: Demographic data, top-down communication, DV: career satisfaction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Predictor (Unique R²)</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Top-down communication</td>
<td>x1 Top down com (R² = .209)</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R= .457, R² = .209, F (1,187) = 49.47, p &lt; .001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Demographic data and top down communication</td>
<td>x1 Top down com (R² = .209)</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x2 Institution (R² = .047)</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td>-3.42</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R= .506, R² = .256, F (2,186) = 32.02, p ≤ .001</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The mean differences of the top-down communication and career satisfaction, depending on demographic data changes were tested by a set of variance analyses. Additionally, top-down communication was categorized as satisfied and dissatisfied communication groups. Only significant differences were reported in Table 4.

Top-down communication means were significantly different, when age [F(4, 184) = 4.12, p < .005], education [F(4, 184) = 12, p < .005], occupation [F(3, 185) = 18.38, p < .001], institution [F(3, 185) = 20.56, p < .001] and years in present organization [F(3, 185) = 4.55, p < .001] groups changes. As age, educational level and years in the present organization increases, top-down communication means also increases significantly. Secretaries and health sector have less top-down communication.

Career satisfaction means differs significantly, in terms of the categories of age [F(4, 184) = 3.35, p < .05], education [F(4, 184) = 2.38, p < .05], occupation [F(3, 185) = 17.9, p < .001], institution [F(3, 185) = 18.46, p < .001] and years in present organization [F(3, 185) = 18.46, p < .001]. Similar to top down satisfaction; as age, educational level and years in the present organization increases, career satisfaction also increases. Secretaries and health sector have less career satisfaction compared to the other occupations and institutions.

When top-down communication was grouped as satisfied and non-satisfied ones, depending on median score of 2.94. The career satisfaction scores of the group with low top-down communication scores (M=2.37, SD=.84) is significantly low compared to the group with high top-down communication scores (M=3.23, SD=1.04). The variance analysis result was found to be significant [F(1, 187) = 38.60, p < .001].
### Table 4. Top-down communication and career satisfaction means and mean differences in terms of demographic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IV</th>
<th>DV</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Sig/F</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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### Discussion and Limitations

This study aimed to explore the impact of top-down communication on career satisfaction. Demographic data were collected too. Top-down communication and career satisfaction are significantly and positively correlated. Top-down communication scores were categorized as low and high group depending on the median score. Employees in the high top-down communication group (M=3.23, SD= 1.04) experience significantly more career satisfaction compared to low top-down communication group (M=2.37, SD=.84). Top-down communication explains 20.9 % of the variance on career satisfaction. Institution explains additionally 4.7% variance on career satisfaction.

Top-down communication could serve a kind of organizational support (Hagedorn & Labovitz, 1968; Miller, 1975). Rhodes and
Eisenberger (2002) claimed that managerial support is one of the main antecedent of organizational support. Why organizational support behaviors, like positive top-down communication have positive organizational and individual outcomes? Top-down communication decreases uncertainty and increases recognition and motivation. It satisfies both individual and organizational needs. Perrewé and Carlson (2002) showed that managerial support as a part of organizational support is positively correlated with job satisfaction. Koeck et al. (1994) reported that individuals pay attention to the organizational evaluations about themselves and the value given by organizations for their efforts. Top-down communication provides feedback for employee to evaluate himself and his performance. Wicks (2005), pointed out that, only listening the employee without being able to solve his/her problems and conveying positive feedback and appreciation is important (cited in Demirhan, Kula & Karagöz, 2014).

Positive top-down communication creates positive thoughts and feelings towards organizational evaluations. If an employee has communication problems with his/her supervisor, satisfaction in most job related issues could not be experienced. Leader-member exchange theory suggests this.

Career development, proactive personality and career management behaviors were all positively related to career satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). Aktaş (2014) reported that career satisfaction is positively correlated with affective and normative commitment to occupational. Similarly, Turunç and Çelik (2010) found that perceived organizational support effects both organizational identification and job performance. Organizational identification is defined as psychological link between organization and employees, which could be associated with satisfaction.

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Jablin, F.M. (1980). Superior’s upward influence, satisfaction, and openness in superiorsubordinate communication: A re-


The Perception of Public Relations in Society:
A Case Study of Gender Knowledge, Attitudes and Skills in Relationship to Media

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Abstract
The paper reports on an ongoing research study examining the evolution of Public Relations in Jordan and its impact on society. The literature review has identified several factors that may have influenced the evolution of public relations in Jordan, namely: globalisation, gulf investments emergence, market changes, media and economic expansion. The research suggested that several variables may have been affecting the evolution of public relations in Jordan, such as; age, gender, income, social inheritance, education, religion, nationality. The paper reports on some findings of this research study that examined the range of Public Relations industry policies undertake in Jordan, and its impact on gender attitudes and skills in relationship to communication. The study examined evidence in areas where differences in knowledge, attitude and skills amongst gender towards public relation perception for media in general and future job in particular prevail. A well-defined questionnaire survey which forms its empirical base was carried out and administered on a random population, mainly university participants to determine whether gender issues and the characteristics associated with male and female oriented areas are recognised in tandem with media. The study findings verified that there are still gender-based differences in the industry towards to communication issues. Findings also indicated clear differences between female and male knowledge, attitudes and skills in relationship to media, with their associated characteristics supporting values marked out in the feminist theory of public relations.

Keywords. Public Relation, Socioeconomic Factors, Gender Issues, Perception

Introduction
Public Relations is moderately new to Jordan, and was originally introduced through advertising companies early 90’s (agencies) as a trivial service for International franchise or companies when required. Lately, it developed into an identified means of corporate communication distinguished from that of advertising, one that represents image rather than sales and with long term remuneration that come together on the organizations existing and future credibility, development and community interaction. Today there are a good number of PR firm/ agencies in Jordan, to name a few: Bidaya Corporate Communications, iRelations, ASDA’A Burson-Marsteller, Polaris and Madison PR. The principal areas that exist now in Jordan revolves around: Brand Promotion, CSR, Content Creation – Press Releases, Press Kits, Company Profiles, and Media Relations. Some of the most current issues that PR profession could be faced in the near future in Jordan are: Global Financial Crisis, Energy, Politics, and Environment. The research will address the correlation between the importance of principal areas of PR Business in Jordan and future outlook.

As it is the case throughout the history of Public Relation’s evolution, the introduction of the profession was a result of number internal and external factors, which depend on a number of variables, on the other hand, the introduction of any new external profession or idea, faces several challenges. Through this research, the researcher intends to explore public relations, perceptions in the Jordanian society. For this purpose, the author has focused on the factors such as gender, knowledge, skills and attitudes in relationship to new media. The reason behind taking Jordan here is that it is a relatively young country and has been the hub for foreign investment and political conflict-caused immigration notably for the past fifteen years. Jordan continues to provide asylum for a large number of Palestinians, Syrians, Iraqis, Libyans, and other refugees, despite the substantial strain on national systems and infrastructure.

This pressure has become even more acute over the past two years, as the global financial crisis had an impact on Jordan’s economic situation and infrastructure for water, electricity, waste management, education and health care. Moreover, globalization, economic growth, media spread, market change, foreign investment, and change in social structure have created the need for a new smarter way other than commercial promoting and marketing to manage crisis, and introduce new products, services and ideas.

The research highlighted society’s perception towards PR in tandem with the previously mentioned factors. This paper will address only Media factor as it is beyond the scope of this paper to address all suggested factors. Consequently, the research, as suggested above, that several variables may have been affecting the evolution of public relations in Jordan. The intention of this pilot survey was to allow widespread comparison of differing aspirations and expectations, next to the fact that Gender variable will be heavily
examined, and explored.

**Literature Review**

In order to fully understand the concept or phenomenon of public relations, the role of gender and attitudes towards it is necessary. Its importance and centrality is evident from the scholarly work done on this topic by feminist inspired scholars. In social relations formation too gender is important. Cailles (2009) testifies that women outnumber men at most agencies, he claims that it’s an industry still dominated by men. Cailles, remains confident that the old-school network, just as it is in the advertising world, still exists in PR. Gender Role Attitudes has been given a serious attention in research, in measuring the gender-role attitudes a person’s gender-role attitudes reflect beliefs about the roles of men and women. Sutton (2009) was of the view that “gender...concerns the psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females. Gender is linked to socially constructed notions of masculinity and femininity; it is not necessary a direct product of an individual’s biological sex.” (p. 601)

**Glass Ceiling and Velvet Ghetto**

Glass ceiling used politically for describing, “ the unseen, yet unreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements” (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995. P.iii) since its initiation, the term has been applied by feminists representing the hurdles the successful females face in their career. However, some have also used it to the obstacles minority men have to face in their career (Frenkkel, 1984; Bollinger, 1995). Since then this term has been used to indicate uneven number of women in a specific profession. Sutton (2009) was of the view that “gender...concerns the psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females. Gender is linked to socially constructed notions of masculinity and femininity; it is not necessary a direct product of an individual’s biological sex.” (p. 601)

It has been highlighted by many scholars that women face discrimination in pay rates as well as promotion policies. They are paid less as compared to men and they are not appointed to top level management seats so the women who reach a certain point in their career and don’t get what they deserve either start their own business or raise families leaving their career. The concept of Velvet Ghetto is applied to clustering of women in a specific profession and the history revealed that the term was introduced in a 1995 study that showed women clustering in public relations field in America during the period 1970 to 1980. Since then this term has been used to indicate uneven number of women in a specific profession. (Northouse, 2013). The gender roles and attitudes towards public relations have been the topic of research for many research studies. As in every field/profession, gender bias is present in public relations field too. For instance, the women work in public relations sector more than any other field however; their representation on management or leadership side is low. According to Aldoory&Toth, (2002)

Media has become a most influential tool that can leave an impact in our lives by shaping our views about different issues. The media that educates people that lead to social change. So, media itself can be used for changing attitudes towards women and to eliminate gender bias. For instance, we can use it to protect women from violence by educating people. However, the facts and figure reveal that media has also played a role to enhance gender inequality and discrimination because it is in the hands of men. Men dominate in media whether it is commentary, expert pools or hard talk shows. Women are usually assigned to cover topics such as food, family, relationship and fashion while political issues usually are thought to be masculine field. In talk shows too we see more men as guests than women. If we talk about new technology it has been found that the male contribution toward video games developing is 88% compared to the fact that almost 50% gamers are women. Further as mentioned above the number of women on leading jobs or key seats in television and newspapers is very low.

In film production to there is less representation of women in direction and production. In newspapers mostly article writers are male however female writers have also emerged recently. In the film industry too, evidence suggests that women get less recognition for their performance as compared to males. For instance women get fewer nominations in Academy Award compared to men as the ratio of nomination has been 1 and 5. (Elisa, 2015) Kate Fitch(2010) also pointed out towards the fact that women representations in senior level post in PR is low. Further they do not get recognition for their work nor are their opinions considered legitimate in the academy. Verhoeven (2010) examined the perceptions of public relations professional regarding the efficacy of their decisions and found that male professional were of the view that they are more influential than moving when it comes to strategic decision making in the field of public relations.

Exploring the phenomenon from a feminine perspective Elspeth found that as women have diverse experiences they are more inclined to ethical decision making. She states that this trait of a woman is beneficial both for male and female representative in PR field. She describes that it is the affiliation that reduces gender based differences in an organization. She also pointed to the fact that relationships help in ethical decision making no matter the PR practitioners are male or female. Johnson (2010) discussed the representation of women in film and television in PR roles and its influence on how PR practitioners define themselves. According to Johnson, media has a key influence in shaping minds and educating people that’s why it is important to explore how females PR practitioners are portrayed in films and television.

There is a negative impact on public perception about women role in public relations when they are negatively portrayed or their role is shown as limited and less important. Though women representation is less and bias exists as regards the recognition of their work and authenticity of their opinions however things have started to change and we can observe improvements. (Elisa, 2015)
According to a report by UNESCO, women representation have increased in the process of decision making as well as key position during the last 10 years. According to the amended electoral law, women quota in political parliament has been increased to 12 which was six earlier. Also, it is encouraging to note that 50% employees in Jordan civil services are women. However, besides these advances women have not reached the appropriate level of recognition, as their representation is low on leadership seats. (Jordan Department of Statistics 2010). In this research, we will be examining how this being reflected and affected by the media in PR. Attitudes as a variable define the kinds of things that are acceptable or appropriate for men but not women and vice versa in the performance and perceptions. For example, people vary in the degree to which they endorse the idea that “women should be just as able to work as equals with men in all businesses and professions,” or that “decisions about what is best for a community should largely be in the hands of men.” Spence and Helmreich (1978).

In the this pilot project, gender attitudes were measured of data collection with a modified version of an Gender Attitudes, perception, trust, knowledge and skills. The designed questionnaire requires respondents to indicate whether they believe men and women in general perceive PR and media differently in regards to jobs, education, and day-to-day activities. On the other hand, research as such indicated that public relations is a female-dominated profession, with up to 70 percent of the profession numerically are females in some European countries, the research will also examine this theory, yet the analysis will beyond the scope of this paper. Comparatively in literature, few women advance to senior level roles while male practitioners occupy the senior positions and female practitioners occupy the junior and middle-level positions.

It has been debated that these have led to a profession that is divided along gender lines, with women dominating in education (up to 90% female PR undergraduate students. Brenda Wrigley, a US researcher, identified through an in-depth study of women PR practitioners what she inferred as a “negotiated resignation” towards the so-called ‘glass ceiling effect’ whereby invisible barriers are encountered by women who aspire to top jobs, even though a clear pathway appears to exist. Yeomans, (2014) argued that “the less visible cultural and social processes, including how gender itself is performed during everyday interactions, that serve to reinforce the status quo.”

It is clearly identified that there is a gender gap that has led to considerable pay differentials between the sexes. This paper will shed light on some areas revolving around this concept, in an attempt to find some answers related to the extent of gender gap in Jordan.

Research Methodology
“The Perception of Public Relations in Society” pilot survey is based on data collected from 220 questionnaire responses conducted online between April and May, 2015. A voluntary random stratified sample was drawn from all walks of life and nationalities in Jordan. The survey originally intended to cover a larger numbers of populations in Jordan. It was shared via one of the most social media utility ‘facebook’ targeting Jordanian University students, and sent via E-mail to Middle East University staff and Professors. As the “The Perception of Public Relations in Society” is part of PhD thesis research work, consequently it is an ongoing pilot survey, in which an additional numbers of participants are expected to participate in summer 2015

Survey Design
The survey is divided into three sections: A) General information and Demographics. B) Public Relations, Media and Society. C) PR work environment and Organizational polices.It had a set of ten (10) questions with several sub questions focused on public relation and its relation to media in tandem with Gender issues. Due to the sample being one of convenience, results may not represent the Jordanian population in a statistically accurate manner.

Results and Discussion
General Information and Demographics
The majority of whom responded were Males (140) (65.7%), with Females (73) forming (24.3%) (Figure1); the majority of that age group was between 18 to 24 years. It may indicate that this age group is simply either more or responsive for future online surveys, is indeed eager to provide good feedback on PR issues, andshould be considered a good target group for future research. All respondents were born after January 1945, are university participants, degree educated, and in fulltime employment. More than three-quarters (85.9%) has a bachelor or higher degree, (40.8%) work in an organizations or in middle and senior management, while 53.8 percent are still participants (Figure 2) The following 6 nationalities living in Jordan are covered by the research. Unless indicated otherwise, 220 questionnaire were completed by; Jordanian, Palestinian, Syrian, Iraqi, Libyan, Yamani and other nationalities.
The research sample was representative of “The Perception of Public Relations in Society” survey in terms of gender, age, and work (Figure 2), level of study, nationality, financial situation, and social status. The analysis at this stage of the research employed simple controls because this study seeks to understand the relationship between PR and Media in tandem with Gender experiences without making predictions or describing complicated causal relationships.

B) Public Relations, Media and Society

Because, the list of PR involvements and current related issues should not be exhaustively long; surveys must remain brief and focused for people to respond. It is intended at this point to pursue the same online research as disciplines exploring further issues to perform complex analyses, yet the researcher sought to make this study readable and easily applied to practice. Social, cultural, and economic causes are interesting and important and were thus explored; some other areas of politics were too complex and beyond the scope of this study yet were touched upon.

A genuine interest in PR was noted among all respondents. Since this was an online survey, extra care by participants was considered; the researchers spent extra time making sure participants took the survey. It was an outstanding team effort and work. The responses in answering the questionnaires were also regarded as a positive sign amongst participants, to assist understanding the new challenges of media and PR. The study recognized that; Performance vary between gender, where females (52.5%) are more likely to say that they have enhanced their outlook and performance by the impact of public relation and media departments operating in Jordan, while men have been equally affected (47.5%).
Result 1: Evidence of Gender Gap in PR and Media: the survey has made some strong observations in regards to gender gap between men and women surrounding perception and outlook.

Result 2: When asked about the extent of which media and PR agencies has influenced the development of participants especially when it comes to their attitudes around skills (performance), aspirations, knowledge, performance, willingness to improve, confidences (trust) the qualities that define leaders and leading organizations, and directional change by the desirability of specific industry sectors such as media and PR.

Males are somewhat more likely than females to seek change in their attitude around skills (57.1 percent vs. 42.9 percent).

Result 3: In a finding that may mimic the concept of the glass-ceiling debate, that gap reduces significantly to 0 points when participants asked how likely they see the impact on their willingness to improve, males and females scored equally. These gaps reflect how well participants feel affected by current practices in PR and media agencies in Jordan.

Participants were asked to rate how strong their various technical, analytical, and skills. Females rated themselves on similarity with males generally in knowledge, and higher than males in directional change, indicating a strong belief amongst women to improve (professionalism, communication, etc.).

Result 4: When participants were asked to rate their skills, a significant gender gap emerged (Figure 6).
The relationship between Awareness of PR role and both Gender and Education:

When participants were asked whether or not they have sought understanding and knew of the public relation agencies role or PR role in society. Answers by males were 85% with an excellent extent rate, vs. 15% of female. It’s important to mention that the highest percentage discrepancies amongst this criteria when education was compared with PR awareness role, was It’s clear that the culture of PR is evolving and more interest in market trends needs for PR is making its way to affect education in Jordan. More statistical analysis will be submitted in future papers in that regard in an attempt to substantiate this argument.

There was a positive association between owning education and level of awareness amongst most population

This clearly identifies the positive factors of education may play a big role in raising awareness amongst society.
Q9 Media and PR agencies influence on the development of participants

Attitudes around skills:

- Female: 5.6%, 14.8%, 49.7%, 33.3%
- Male: 6.5%, 21.7%, 30.4%, 26.4%

Aspirations:

- Female: 11.1%, 14.8%, 5.6%
- Male: 20.4%, 9.8%, 16.3%, 29.3%

Knowledge:

- Female: 5.6%, 11.1%, 9.3%
- Male: 27.8%, 6.8%, 12.1%, 17.6%

Performance:

- Female: 7.7%, 13.5%, 28.8%
- Male: 9.8%, 16.3%, 39.1%, 20.7%
Figure 7 (left)

Media & PR agencies influence on development of participant: The relationship between Gender and attitudes around skills, aspiration, knowledge, performance:

While males and females both consider the overall contribution to the development of the study factors emphasizes some level of Improvement, they place different levels and inconsistency of emphasis on a number of factors.

More than half of females (74.0 percent) highlighted developing their attitudes around skills as high in relation to Media and PR, as opposed to 56 percent of males. Females (74.1 percent) more strongly associate having a “significant knowledge based behavior” with PR and Media agencies than do males (58.3 percent). Males, on the other hand, take slightly similar note of an organization’s impact to create and enhance their performance level and (60 percent vs. 69 percent for males).

Conclusion

The most significant findings of this study are:

The majority of respondents were male (143) (65.3%) vs. (67) (34.7%) female. Despite the fact that as it is everywhere, females’ employment rate in PR is higher than males’.

The study found traditional trends in PR practice in connection with conventional thinking; some highlighted results were mainly concentrated in the lack of PR improvement in society and practice amongst PR agencies. Which directly affects PR perception leading to challenges facing PR agencies.

A good tendency amongst Gender in Jordan to get involved in PR research. Responses from participant were higher than anticipated and still on the rise, indicating a much more serious involvement amongst gender in the future.

PR agencies have not effectively introduced PR policies into the society in the last few years compared with PR integration worldwide. Noting that publics seem well aware of the media, and referring to responses, it is widely used. Then PR professionals/agencies failed utilizing media channels to manage its image among the Jordanian society.

The study has revealed weakness in PR policies and awareness

Future studies needed, to investigate this important issue, and look into means and methods to improve PR practice, awareness, and image in Jordan.

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The Portrayal of Pictures and Content Abusing the Rights of People in Online Thai Newspapers

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Abstract

The research investigated the portrayal of pictures and content abusing the rights of people in online Thai Newspapers from 2012-2015. The study is theoretically linked with media content and gatekeeping and Law on Protection of Rights. The laws relating abusing human rights were also analyzed. The objectives of the study were 1) to analyze the kinds of abuses that denigrate the rights of people that online Thai newspapers perform through their use of pictures and language, and 2) to determine to what degree readers and news reporters/anchors can work to prevent online Thai newspapers abusing the rights of people. Sampled were eight online Thai newspapers which depicted people in the news in a manner that abused their rights. Also, in-depth interviews with 10 readers and 10 news reporters were used to collect data on how to protect people from being abused by the online Thai newspapers. The results showed that the kinds of abuses the rights of people were 1) using inappropriate language 2) telling the real name of the mother’s victim 3) informing the real name of the victim, and 4) pointing out the name of the suspect. For picture abuses, those who were defamed in the news were celebrities, the raped victim, and the killed persons. Besides, readers, news reporters/anchors informed on the use of laws, stability in media ethics, media literacy and the arts of news reporting to prevent abuses of the rights of the victims.

Keywords: Portrayal of Pictures and Content, Abusing, Rights of People, Online Thai Newspapers

Introduction

It has been a few years since people in Thailand access news on online Thai newspapers. Despite the recommendation to protect people by Privacy International (2013), there have probably been more content and pictures inappropriately presented on online Thai newspapers. The paper focuses on what online Thai newspapers should do to make the online newspapers depict the proper news since there have been more youth and readers looking for news for their information, knowledge and pleasure. Nevertheless, the news literacy has probably been a beginning for Thai for the past five years. Some might not even know the term “media literacy.” While some universities in Thailand start teaching this term, how many Thais know or become aware of media literacy. In this sense, instructors, researchers, lawyers, news reporters and general audiences can be a part of the society to inform online readers and at the same time to find protection for audiences who access the online news whose content were often uncensored. Especially, readers possibly misunderstand who is found guilty or the suspect in the news. Thus, the protection of people in the news is important whether they are criminal or not; media in Thailand need to stop abusing the suspect and learn how to function properly. Since there is more news each day abusing those in the news, especially online news which spreads fast and enables the suspects to be perceived as guilty. Besides, media should present the proper story and aim not to focus only selling news, especially news that ruins the reputation or credibility of people appearing in the online newspapers. This study concentrates on analyzing the kinds of abuses that denigrate the rights of people that online Thai newspapers perform through their use of pictures and the language, and determining to what degree readers and news reporters can work to prevent online Thai newspapers abusing the rights of people. This study will benefit the improvement of Thai media and news reporting in a better way.

Review of Literature

Media Content and Gatekeeping

One of the useful frameworks for understanding this study was that media content and gatekeeping function as noted by Soroka (2012:515), pointing that

“the basic idea of gatekeeping is a theory of communications began with Lewin’s (1951) work on community dynamics and a notion of gatekeeping that was laid out in terms of food consumption—the selection process by which certain foods reach the dinner table, or not. Lewin saw this as a product of “communications channels” and “gates,” metaphors well-suited to a theory of news selection in mass media. Media gatekeeping was then more fully developed in White’s (1950) classic case study of a wire editor at a smalltown daily newspaper.”

However, Soroka (2012: 516) stated that biases in news selection had been portrayed as a function of a variety of factors, including 1) organization-level factors such as administrative characteristics, working procedures, and cost and time constraints, 2) story-level factors such as the geographic proximity of the story, visual features (for television), the clarity (ready interpretability) of the story, and story types —disasters, economics, crime, and so on, and 3) extraorganizational, or professional, factors such as journalistic values and norms, and views of “newsworthiness” The study used the media function as a gatekeeper to illustrate clearly how online media in Thailand presented the messages about people negatively.

Law on Protection of Rights (from Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand 2007)

The second concept was Law on Protection of Rights 2007 [of Thailand] provided in Section 35 saying that “the right of individuals in a family, honor, and privacy shall be protected. News, messages, text and pictures are spread by any means to the
public which violate and affect the right of a person, reputation, honor, and privacy shall not be made unless the benefit of the public.” Also, international law such as Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948, Article 12 (United Nations, 1949) indicates that “No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honor and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.” These concepts are used to explain how people in the media could be protected from violation by the media.

Methodology & Results
Samples were 40 pieces of news from eight online Thai newspapers (Thairath, Dailynews, Khaosod, Posttoday, Manager, Nationtv, Tnews, and S news). They were analyzed both in content and the pictures in order to find out how they abused the rights of people. Then, information from the newspapers and theoretical frameworks were used as questions for in-depth interviews with 10 readers (including lawyers) and 10 news reporters from different news organizations to collect data on how to protect people from being abused by the online Thai newspapers. In this research, the persons in the online news were represented by pseudonym instead of the real names to protect their rights. Also, the interviewees’ names were protected by using Reader A, Reader B, Reporter 1 and Reporter 2, for example.

To analyze the kinds of abuses that denigrate the rights of people that online Thai newspapers perform through their use of pictures and the language.

There were a lot of news items with similar abuses in this study but common kinds of abuses that denigrate the rights of people that online Thai newspapers perform through their use of pictures and the language would be discussed here.

Through language, four kinds of abuses which denigrated the rights of people were 1) using inappropriate language 2) telling the real name of the mother’s victim 3) informing the real name of the victim, and 4) pointing out the name of the suspect. Due to space consideration, the researcher selected four that will represent each of the abuses just noted.

Using inappropriate language
A newspaper abused people in the news such as the term “pong” means “pregnant.” Despite the lady in the news was pregnant but the term “pong” was a colloquial and contemptuous word for women. Besides, the term “funny no name husband” is a word for a cynical term for a man because his wife was a famous singer although the man was not aware of the headline. (News of March 3, 2012).

Using the real name of the mother’s victim
The newspaper informed the name of the mother. This could make readers know her family. Although this is the shocking news and all kinds of media in Thailand reported the news, the name of the victim’s relatives should not be repeated. As Boonpoo (2010: 88) stated in his article that “sometimes mass media do not understand that presenting the news like that is an invasion of privacy such as reproducing the blurred picture of a raped victim but informing the names of everyone in the family as well as the domicile could lead the victim to become the defendant again.” (News of July 8, 2014)

Informing the real name of the victim
Despite unrelaveling the surname of the girl, her name was mentioned and her appearance as well as her house was shown although the girl’s arm blocked her face while the arm’s was fastened to the wall. The school name and the province were also disclosed in the news. This might not be right. The girl would have to study again in the school if she wanted to according to her teacher. (News of January 7, 2015)

Pointing out the name of the suspect
The news was about Chinese girlfriends attacking a girlfriend. Four girls made one girl naked and cut her hair. The news source was from China and online Thai newspaper used it to release in Thailand. The name of the gang leader was mentioned in the news although she offended her friend, her name should be kept out due to her age. (News of March 6, 2015).
Table 1: showing the abuses through language on online Thai newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Headline</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>People in the news</th>
<th>Types of News</th>
<th>Online Thai newspapers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March 3, 2012</td>
<td>Y[pseudonym][famous country singer] pregnant, grab funny no name husband</td>
<td>Inappropriate language such as the singer's parents expelling the guy from the band</td>
<td>A famous singer and her husband</td>
<td>Celebrity</td>
<td><a href="http://www.thairath.co.th/content/249619">http://www.thairath.co.th/content/249619</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 8, 2014</td>
<td>Employee pleaded guilty to rape a girl before throwing her from the train</td>
<td>telling the real name of the victim's mother (also blur only the eyes of the girl but still can see her face)</td>
<td>A 13-year-old girl was raped and murdered</td>
<td>crime</td>
<td><a href="http://www.manager.co.th/Home/View-News.aspx?NewsID=957000076696">http://www.manager.co.th/Home/View-News.aspx?NewsID=957000076696</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 7, 2015</td>
<td>Paweena help a girl locked in the bathroom by her parents</td>
<td>Telling the real name of the girl aged 15 (despite no surname) and the name of the school</td>
<td>A girl locked in the bathroom</td>
<td>crime</td>
<td><a href="http://breakingnews.nationtv.tv/home/read.php?newsid=747245">http://breakingnews.nationtv.tv/home/read.php?newsid=747245</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 6, 2015</td>
<td>Five girls attack a girl, cut hair, make a girl nude and post the pictures</td>
<td>Telling the name of 16 year-old girl who attack a friend (The suspect)</td>
<td>The Chinese Girls</td>
<td>Harassment Behavior</td>
<td><a href="http://www.khaosod.co.th/view_newsonline.php?newsid=TVR-ReU5UWTBNRF15TX-e9PQ==">http://www.khaosod.co.th/view_newsonline.php?newsid=TVR-ReU5UWTBNRF15TX-e9PQ==</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were three main types of pictures which abused the rights of people in online Thai newspapers: 1) defaming the actor by putting the blurred unknown person compared with the actor 2) the raped victim, and 3) the killed victims (In this paper, the researcher covered their identities while they were not blocked in the news).

Defaming actors/singers by putting the blurred unknown person compared with the actor
In this case, it is usually an entertainment news which required the rating from readers according to some news reporters and anchors said that news about celebrities or famous persons could sell fast and readers were interested. As a sample for this study, an actor named Title [pseudonym] was quoted to be repeated in the news although it might not be true, his name, face and picture were shown. He stated that “I was shocked that it was news. I did not do it. Before entering the entertainment industry, I use the phone in black and white. I am not worried about it. If it affects my reputation, I have to talk with my adult. [supervisor]” (“Clip off [of a man], similar to Title [pseudonym] in Hormones,” n.d.). The defamed picture and his picture were used to compare the similarity. In the online news, it was a kind of repetition that could be talked and watched by readers over again and again. The websites and the news should stop this because he is a teen. One comment from a reader was “the news reporter wants to sell the news without thinking about youth.”

Another case was one Thai singer who was portrayed on online entertainment news. He claimed that the picture was not him but similar. From the debate org. 77% agreed that celebrities should be protected from the media. “They do need their own privacy and they have the right to it, just like any other person.” (“Should celebrities be more protected from the media?” n.d.)
Figure 1: showing the abuses that denigrate the rights of people through online Thai newspapers (The case of Title [pseudonym]) (Source: http://m.posttoday.com/articlestory/351663) The images here and below have been altered by author to protect confidentiality.

The raped victim
The news about rape might not say the cause of the incident but focus on the victim and the family. In some cases of the rape, the victim picture was blurred but readers could guess how she looked. In the case here, the 13-year-old-girl who was raped and killed, her blurred picture spread all over Thailand due to the serious offense. The girl travelled back from hometown to study near Bangkok. She stayed in the same sleeper car but she was raped and killed by employees of the State Railway of Thailand (SRT). The news was shocking to Thais since passengers could be unsafe due to the male workers of SRT on the train especially at night. The news was repeated by mass media including online newspaper due to the serious case and people's interest. However, the pictures of the girl and relatives were put on the news from time to time until the case finished. From the picture of this online Thai newspaper, one can see the face of a raped girl clearly while other online news avoided putting in the picture. In this study, the researcher did not attempt to say who was right or wrong but the victim and the family had their right to privacy.
The killed victims

The killed victims were depicted in the media due to readers’ eagerness, especially the famous persons. However, in some cases, after the murderer was arrested, the pictures of the victims appeared. While the pictures of victims were blurred at the scene, later the picture of the victim in general was portrayed. In this case, it might be all right for some readers, but it should be allowed from the family to show in the news as in the US where people use Restatement of Torts §§ 652 A (1) (The American Law Institute, 1977). Before presenting the victim, a news reporter had to ask permission from the relatives.

In the case of Phra P (Monk P), the abbot of a temple in Thailand, who was killed while receiving food on the street, the pictures of the killed monk were blurred but an online newspaper presented the picture which might not ask permission from his father. The monk was famous because he was a doctor and the director of a hospital in that province. After that, he went into priesthood and taught Dhamma till he was murdered.

To determine to what degree readers and news reporters/anchors can work to prevent online Thai newspapers abusing the rights of people

Readers and news reporters/anchors could work to prevent online Thai Newspapers abusing the rights of people as follows:

Readers’ perspectives on preventing online Thai newspapers abusing the rights of people

The responsibility of media producers

1.1 Media must not violate ethics. They must not reveal faces and names of the victims and the suspects. They must tell only the
news but not names. Besides, media should limit themselves in telling stories.

1.2 Media must apologize for the violations. Starting from the heads of news organizations, they must stand out and apologize to the sufferers. They could say excuse through media about what they had done wrong. In case they did not have any apology, the violated were able to use law as a helper.

“The victims cannot be healed and have no choice. Those who have money can sue the media.” (Reader A, personal communication, March 15, 2015)

Legal reaction to media about their inappropriate depictions

Those were violated could claim their rights by reporting to that news organizations who violated them. If they did not do anything such as apology, the violated could fight for justice by going to attorney General to help them if they had no money for fighting in the court.

“The violated have sued the media because it affects their living. There will be some people calling the violated and their cousins all time. They feel bad. So, they have to protect their rights. They need to call to the media organization to erase the name and surname from the news including taking the picture out. Prosecution is the best example.” (Reader B, personal communication, March 13, 2015)

A severe law from the government

The Computer Act 2007 (n.d.) states clearly in Section 16 “anyone poses other pictures from the build-up editing, addition or alteration by electronic means or any other methods to cause others to be hated or despised or discredit to shame, he or she will be imprisoned not exceeding three years or a fine not exceeding 600,000 baht or both.” However, some violations occurred.

“The government must have a real legal penalty, not a paper tiger. The law must be really used to punish the news reporters” (Reader C, personal communication, March 16, 2015)

Readers’ awareness and media literacy

Readers themselves are indispensable to learn to read, develop their thinking and analyze the news. They need to be trained and educated whether they are victims or not. As stated in Victims’ Rights and Remedies (n.d.), the victims receive help from the Victim Services Unit in Virginia in education, protection, participation, and privacy. Thai education must encourage Thai people with knowledge and critical thinking as one interviewee said, “in the US, England and Australia, they teach students to think by showing examples and ask questions about media and news. Thais may not think about fast news from online, probably using technology due to popularity.” (Reader D, personal communication, March 19, 2015) Besides, readers should also think before posting or commenting on something in the online news since it might affect their lives negatively if their words accidentally ruins others’ rights.

News Reporters’ and anchors’ perspectives on preventing online Thai newspapers abusing the rights of people

Unfortunate willingness to violate the media ethics

The media must take into account the impact of the individual victims and their relatives. The news reporters must be aware that a news report was a function of media but was necessary to agree with the Office of the National Human Rights Commission of Thailand (2007) joining with the United Nations General Assembly which certified the guideline to control the personal data in the computer system 1990. The guideline stated the respect of human rights of personal information, access to information of individuals, and principles of non-discrimination. As news reporters mentioned:

“A case of one media telling the real names of raping an old woman both online and on television, the reporters did not screen the name but telling the suspect’s real name and surname. Then, the face and name spread through online and it is quick. People thought it was that man but later it was not. The channel and the online newspapers did not say excuse to the suspect.” (Reporter1, personal communication, March 7, 2015)

“News reporters have freedom but need to be careful for what they have done but in my case the organization I belong to will help me in case of making mistakes. Media must help protect human rights. Otherwise, media will be opposed by society.” (Reporter 2, personal communication, March 12, 2015)

Media’s stability and responsibility in news reporting

Media must not forget ethics. They need to be stable and focus in developing a comprehensive set of principles and standards for the practice of journalism, especially in an age of global news media. News reports of Thailand should be accurate, balanced and diverse if compared to international perspectives. One female reporter stated:

“As a news reporter, I am responsible for what I report and the sanctity of this career is that news reporters are bound to standards and codes of conduct and cannot harm others by their writing. News editors screen news and if making mistakes without intention, and persons appeal, we have to explain that. After that, issuing an apology letter officially to the sufferers and showing in website of that news organization.” (Reporter 3, personal communication, March 9, 2015)

Another news reporter expressed his idea:

“I choose ethics, not rating or selling news. Some media compete for business and forget respectability and righteousness. In doing that, it ruins myself and lack morals. (Reporter 4, personal communication, March 13, 2015)

The need of inspection by related organizations

The organizations relating new reporting in any media would have to continuously monitor the news. It is necessary for online news, which gets published on the internet in a minute might not be checked for accuracy due to business and update the details, to be checked by the professional news organizations. At the same time, news reporters must consider and need to save face of the organizations they belong to since readers will not trust the news.

“Thai Journalists Association, for example, needs to take action, encourage and warn the reporters that what should practice and
what the ‘blind spot’ that journalists made.” (Reporter 4, personal communication, March 13, 2015)

“In Thailand, if you make the news or people in the news to be scandalous, news is sold easily and fast and people remember that news. Especially, the news about celebrities becomes a trend. Some readers are eager to know about their lives. People stick too much on stars’ stories whether good or bad, readers enjoy about the gossip about famous people and they may not seek the truth. News writing about entertainment is good for sale. Any stories about significant issues are gone. News reporters lose good content. Those who do not know media literacy follow the news. Media decline. The news organizations need to be aware of their credibility.” (Reporter 1, personal communication, March 7, 2015)

**Media and the arts of communication**

Media need to have good taste and use communication responsibly to report news. Bloody images, shocking scenes, and emotional content and rude language should not be used. Not only in print media, some online Thai newspapers present the repeated corpses and the dead victims, for example.

“As a female student in grade six hanged herself despite the blurred picture, her cousin requests the news organization to stop because the picture causes the family’s hurt. It emphasizes their sadness.” (Reporter 5, personal communication, March 1, 2015)

**Conclusion and Discussion**

From readers and news reporters’ points of views, one common theme was that media and news reporters should have not violate their ethics and must stay in their profession in positive ways. Selling news must not make the victim in trouble again for their repetition. Readers’ ideas focused on enforcing laws to make news reporters not harming others, and media literacy will help the ability of readers in analyzing news intelligently. As for news reporters, they are required to describe media content and pictures properly. This result agreed with Soroka (2015) in that media need to have content and distribute information accurately and properly. This will keep news reporters going along with the work creatively.

Finally, the purpose of this research does not place blame on any organization. The researcher’s goal is to describe what is occurring across several media and suggest ways to improve coverage.

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The Role of Indigenous Films in Preserving Culture in Nigeria: 
An Appraisal of Nollywood Home Videos

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Abstract
An examination of the Nigerian society, discloses the challenge which the country’s cultural system faces. Daily, our moral and cultural values is being attacked by Western ideologies and culture. This is especially propagated in our media who set agendas for the society based on Western ideologies. This research thus investigates the role of film as a medium of communication in preserving culture using a detailed examination of the performance of the Nigerian film industry and its contribution in preserving the Nigerian culture. Findings from the study show that the Nigerian film industry has failed to preserve the great heritage of Nigerians. Finally the paper suggests that Nigerian film makers must strive in the preservation of our culture for easy identification in the world.

Introduction
The Nigerian culture has been invaded by the foreign cultures through the use of communications systems like films. History has shown that the intrusion of Western culture into the third world nations [like Nigeria] through the use of communications facilities has always been rampant.

This is because the Nigerian people have been exposed to a high range of programs and communications content which have in turn moulded their thought pattern, belief, system and actions. This means our culture has been twisted and contaminated by interference of Western values and beliefs; cultures which have been defined as the total way of life, is an integral part of any society and stands for the sum-total of existence of a particular group of people dealing with their past, their present and a projected insight into their immediate and distant future. It is reflected in their way of life, ranging from religion, system of government, language, attitudes their dressing code, their expression of emotion and sadness. In essence, culture is the totality of the way of life of a people.

Nigeria is a country rich in land, people and culture. Its uniqueness lies mainly on its culture. It is not only the most populous country but also the most culturally diverse black nation. This brings us to the issues of the role of film in preserving culture in Nigeria. The Nigerian culture has suffered untold damage over the past years due to cultural imperialism which has crept into the society via communication facilities like radio, films etc. Due to this the Nigerian people have been forced to embrace the Western culture. Since culture is an integral part of the society and cannot be forgone, this study expresses the important of the medium as an instrument for the preservation of the Nigerian culture through its film house Nollywood.

Culture is as old as man. It was probably created out of man’s desire to live in an organized world. Every society has a culture which they hold on to. Nigeria perhaps is one of the most culturally diverse countries in Africa having well over 300 ethnic groups each with their own uniqueness. An x-ray of the Nigerian society will reveal a picture of cultural infection which is gradually decaying. All these are borne out of the fact that we have not understood our culture enough to uphold its values. Apart from the fact that this has brought untold crises, pain and hardship upon Nigerian people, it has also stunted the growth of this sector [culture]. There is a need to look into this problem and proffer solutions. This brings us to the issues of the role of film in preserving culture. The introduction of films into our society has seldom failed to shake centuries old cultural practices, simple lifestyles, social integration and economic pattern. Often the benefits of modern communications which disseminate unfamiliar, vivid, absorbing information and entertainment originated in urban centers and more often than not from foreign places have been accompanied by negative influences which can dramatically disturb established orders. It should be noted that it is not only the media but the messages that is important and conditions must be created for national mass media and communication system to carry the cultural message of the nation. Communication system and the way they are used can pose a threat to cultural identity in most countries; if not all because communication is a part of culture as much as an influence upon it. The development of a national communication system can help to foster a thriving national culture. The importance of any organ of the mass media in the society cannot be underestimated as it stand as a medium of communication. Film is perhaps the most universally, appealing and more effective. A well planned film rises above certain barriers by its use of pictures, music and sound conveying messages to people or audience of different background. What this means is that what we fail to understand through our traditional media we understand through film, No wonder Enahoro writes that, they are concerned with distribution of power in the society and the domination of certain interest over others. Therefore if films are a powerful media of communication it means that it could be effective in communicating a people’s culture to them.
For a long time the Nigerian people have been exposed to a lot of foreign cultures via communication media. It is therefore assumed that to correct this, an effective tool of communication must be utilized and film is that medium. Film has also been viewed as a potent medium of communication through which messages ranging from indoctrination, education, entertainment, integrations, information, mobilization etc, can be relayed to people to achieve certain objectives. They have the power to re-direct and reposition the psyche of an average man. Films have an inexplicable bond between itself and their audiences willing suspend disbelief when viewing a film. The power of films on its audience makes it a viable tool for preserving culture. Nigerian film makers can reposition Nigerian’s dented image by making film that will promote Nigeria’s culture abroad.

**Theoretical Framework**
The following theory has been found relevant to this paper.

**Cultural Imperialism Theory**
The term imperialism always provokes negative reaction; it does refer to a real dilemma that pits western nations against those of the third word. According to Dennis (1983) media imperialism results in cultural imperialism and implants western Ideas and values, thus upsetting natural evolutionary development”

Culture as a word is credited to the British anthropologist, sir Edward Taylor. He defined culture as that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, moral, low, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of a society:. Of more relevancce to this discussion is the definition by the word Book Encyclopedia. It say that,

Culture consists of all the ideas, objects and ways of doing things created by a group. These include arts, beliefs, custom innovations, language technology and tradition. Culture also consists of learned way of acting, feeling and thinking rather than biologically determined ways.

This definition particularly underscore the views that the greater or the more influential part of what makes culture is acquired or learned, and not in bore or innate. The implication of this is that culture could be learned, acquired experienced or transferred from one place to another through various ways. One of the most influential of these way is through the film. This is where communication and mass media play a significant role in the transmission of culture. This relationship between culture and communication is clearly stated in the McBride report(1980) thus. The role of communication may be regarded as that of a major carrier of culture. The media of communication are cultural instruments which serve to promote or influence attitudes, to motivate to foster the spread of behaviuor patterns, and to bring abut social integration. For millions of people, they are the principal means of access of culture and to all forms of creative expression. In the modern world, mass media supply the cultural fare and shape the cultural experience of many people.

Okunna cited in Ekeanyanwu (2005) also captures this relationship thus

…given the nature of the international communication system, there have always been fears that the massive flow of Western predominantly American media culture into non-western societies of the developing world could lead to cultural domination which will distort and displace native cultures and lead to the adoption of foreign values, lifestyle and behavioural patterns.

This distortion according to Okunna is called cultural imperialism or cultural synchronization. Domatob (1988) further defined cultural synchronization as “The process through which the cultures of developing countries, such as those of Sub-Saharan African.”

Cultural imperialism is therefore defined as the subtle manipulation of the mass media of underdeveloped or developing countries by the developed western capitalist nations of Europe and North American using their advanced and well developed mass media to control the behaviour lifestyles, morals, mores, arts and values of the underdeveloped or developing nations through the production and massive exportation of media software to the developing nations.

Cultural imperialism is also the subjugation of a local culture and the imposition of an alien culture on the local culture (Ekeanyanwu, 1998). Schiller, (1997) also defined cultural imperialism as “the process by which western nations dominate the media around the world which in turn has a powerful effect on the third world countries by imposing on them western views and therefore destroying their native cultures.”

From the above definitions, it simply means that, western civilization produces the majority of the media (Film, comics, news etc.) because they have the money to do so. Therefore, third world countries are watching their media filled with the western world’s ways of living, believing and thinking. The third world cultures then start to want and do the same things in their countries and thereby destroying their own culture.
Literature Review

Culture is as old as man. It can be traced back to the very beginning of man’s existence. Thus it has many definitions and meaning as perceived by different people. It could mean a way of life of a people or reason for the existence of a people etc. According to the penguin English dictionary in Opubor, A.E. et al (1979;31), culture is defined as “improvement of mental faculties, refined taste or judgments, High intellectuals, and aesthetic development of a group…characterized by a special level of material achievement. Culture is a way of life which a people have fashioned for themselves. It includes their art, their science and all their social transition including their system of beliefs and rituals.

Culture should not be seen only in terms of Music, Dance, Drama, and arts. It is the intertwining of the artistic fibers of a nation, with the science and religion of its people, the law and moral expectations of the community, the wisdom of their past and the education of their present and future. Opubor A.E. et al (1979;31), Defines culture as “a vast apparatus, Partly material, Partly human and partly spiritual by which societies are organized into permanent and recognizable groups. Culture is a way of life of a people, their identity and life wire. It has gone beyond idol worshipping since whenever its concept is discussed what readily comes to the mind of an average African is ‘the picture of his fore bears dancing around giant trees in sacrificial worship or otherwise the picture of a Sango man casting spells and mouthing incantations in the process of some unholy ritual.’ (Ibanga, 1993;3).

Culture is the language of the people, their life style and existence. Therefore no culture should be termed inferior or superior since is posited by Ibanga [1993;3] it is ‘the totality of knowledge and behavior, ideas and objects that constitute the common heritage of a people’ culture is not primitiveness or barbarism. Right from the colonial era up to this present age the white man has succeeded in stuffing the minds of African with western values and interiority complex and this has made them to regard their culture as barbaric and as a people. ‘Without a recognizable past, a turban present and a bleak future….without perception, ability hope or intellect’” [Enahoro, 2009;4].

Nigeria possesses a culture which reflects the people’s way of life just as any other culture. It includes the process of birth, of growing up, of carving riches for oneself, of passing through and fulfilling obligations in the different phases of existence and of pursuing attitudes and attributes that will make one an acceptable member of the society or put one at war with his neighbors depending on the interaction factors. Culture of an individual is dependent on the culture of the society, and or the society to which that individual belongs. What this assertion means according to Elliot cited in Enahoro [2009;19] is that

The cultural ethics theory is based in society and the culture of a nation as opposed to nature…an individual is shaped by his or her culture…and finds that being parts of the culture club provides an ethical security

Culture influences individuals in the society, it directs their pattern of thinking and behaviors to what it wants them to do. Culture is not limited to music, dance, the law and the morals expectations of the community, the wisdom of their past and the education of the present and the future.

Film as a Medium of Communication:

Film as we know today, came into existence on 28th December, 1895 at the grand café on the boulevard de opera in Paris, France when the Lumier brothers Augusta and Louis exhibited their ‘workers leaving the factory’ this was the first time a motion picture would be exhibited a viewing audience; this remarkable event opened the gates for the flow of motion pictures. In Nigeria however, film premiere took place on the 4th of August, 1903 at the Glover hall Lagos. This film featured the Alake of Abeokuta, and was shot during a visit the Alake made to England. Though actual film production started in 1948 with the establishment of the colonial film unit, the main reason behind the establishment of this film unit is to further the aims of colonialism at.

The film therefore was meant to counter the nationalist agitation by showing the people that the British were indeed fulfilling their civilization mission. The film unit was therefore pre-occupied with showing the real achievement of colonialism through highlighting community development, road, and construction agricultural production, visits of colonial governors and administration of justice. To portray the excellent work done in the heathen parts under the Union Jack.

However, with the attainment of independence it was obvious that the nature of the industry in content, aims and objectives had to rely on various communication means, including film to reach the people. More so, the country now had other alternative sources of films other than the colonial film units or the British council.

The content of the early film were largely documentary in nature, and related to topics such as education, health, agriculture amongst others. The Nigerian natives were shown films by means of travelling cinema vans. It became necessary to use mobile vans because films were few and theatres did not exist in the remote areas. However, due to the continued shortage of vehicles, a majority of Nigerians did not have the opportunity to see films shown by the units. The colonial film unit was not concerned with producing films for African audiences but involved itself in training Africans on the technique of film production. Although the movie living in bondage by Ken Nnebue in 1992 set the pace for the emergence of Nollywood, according to Megbejum [1989]”Hollywood is a vehicles through which Nigerian cultural heritage is represented”

Film is not meant for the mere titillation of the senses, rather it performs functional role of affecting man’s attitude and increasing
The motion picture has been described as an altruistic cultural documentation process a school of thought contends that what most people know about other countries and places invariables learnt via films. It is also said that a picture is worth more than a thousand words. this is supported by Ossa Edwards and mercy Sokomsa (2006;150). who believes that films functions in an entirely different way...watching a good movie, the individual emerges from it the way one would emerge from reading a good novel; sober, humbled and changed, like the hero would have been.

The film medium appears to have the most universal appeal and impact when compared to other media. When properly harnessed, the film can rise above limitation of language and language barriers by utilizing its creative powers of visuals and audio effects to create a community among an audience of various backgrounds. Film is the most powerful media for fostering cultural awareness. Films tell stories of past event, present event and future event. Enahoro cited in Timothy, S.J (2002) of the view that; The significance of film as a medium of communication has been very well articulated by David Sills, cited in Timothy, S.J(2002;69);

What affect this artistic, social, and economic phenomenon has on the cultural values of both creators and viewers is an international problem of the magnitude since cinema is a world-wide language that can be grasped by illiterate as well as by the educated. Nothing less than the control of man’s mind and emotions is at stake.

What makes film the major cultural force is a combination of different factors which includes uniqueness of film as an art form solemnly dependent on modern technologies, the use of film as a communication medium principally to entertain, instruct, subjugate, persuade and propagate and of course the overall social, political, economic and educational needs of the contemporary word that are deeply dependent on communication in its various forms, films inclusive.

The Role of Film in Preserving Culture
Films perform a functional role main objective being to affect man’s emotions. Film as an art form or an instrument for persuasion instruction and entertainment is like a bullet, with force to conquer or at least live a mark for the record. It is a documentary of the consciousness of culture. Galvanizing or fusing all forces into a concrete charger that reconstruct the mind of the people. Film is a custodian of the people’s primordial consciousness. Therefore film exposes, liberates exposes, unites, reproaches, reprimands, scorns and can applaud and attract attention, either for positive or for negative reaction. This makes it stand out as unique from other form of mass media. Our culture is fast eroding into oblivion. There is an urgent need to uphold these cultures visually through films to avoid extinction by civilization. Though radio and television may be used for the same purpose, film has an edge over the rest because it has the ability to enter into direct communication with the people and reach the nook and cranny of the country.

Film have an inexplicable bond between itself and the audience as the audience willingly suspends disbelief when viewing a film. It also employs the concept of ‘‘verisimilitude’ or realism in the narratives. This captures the audience mind and value in totality. A.E. Opubor and Nwuneli [1992;29] also said “in fact Etokodo soon became a den of robbers, street fighters and rascals” this development came to pass due to the influence of film on audience. The power of film on its audience makes it a viable tool for preserving culture.

Nigerian film makers can reposition Nigerian’s dented image by making films that will propagate Nigerian image. A.E. Opubor and Nwuneli corroborates this by saying” Cal penny’s kongi’s harvest created a great impact in the mind of great black Americans. In the review of the film at its premiere show in Washington, D.C the Washington post of June 16,1972 wrote for many among the black members of the audience, last night was an introduction to the American scene as viewed by Africans themselves……their own dressing rivaling the spectacle of clothing in the film-predicted success for black film making” Nigerian film makers must as a matter of fact succeed in using the film medium to develop our cultures for the sake of arts, posterity and promotion of our heritage.
Description of Characteristics of Study Sample

Demographic Data

The questionnaire was the instrument used for data collection. It was designed into parts. The first classification involved the bio-data information of the respondents, in which five characteristics ranging from educational qualification to marital status were identified. And secondly the classification based on three research questions and in which five variables were examined by the respondent. After the distribution of the questionnaire to a hundred and ten respondents which cut across different areas in Jos, the Plateau State Capital (The study area), a total of one hundred copies was retrieved. The responses are represented in the tables that follow:

Research Question

The following research question was adopted for this study:

Are films important instruments used in the presentation of a people’s culture?
Can Nigerian film industry portray a rich heritage of the Nigerian culture?
If managed effectively, can the Nigerian film industry go a great length in propagating the culture of the Nigerian People?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are films important instruments used in the presentation of a people’s culture?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can Nigerian film industry portray a rich heritage of the Nigerian culture?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If managed effectively, can the Nigerian film industry go a great length in propagating the culture of the Nigerian People?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table, the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents sex is outlined. Of the one hundred respondents, twenty more representing twenty-nine percent were males. While the remaining seventy one representing seventy-one percent were females.

Table 2: Educational Qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA/M.Sc.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sc./B.A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table, the frequency and percentage distribution of respondents educational qualifications is outlined out of one hundred respondents, zero representing zero percent had Ph.D, zero representing zero percent had MA/M.Sc., three accounting for three percent were holders of B.Sc./B.A, eighty seven persons account for eighty-seven percent were undergraduates. Those with other qualifications not specified in the questionnaire were ten accounting for 10 percent.

Table 3: Occupational Qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil Servant</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Employed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector Workers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the table above, the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents occupational qualification is outlined. Out of the hundred respondents zero representing zero percent were civil servants, seven representing seven percent were self-employed, zero representing zero percent were private sector workers while eighty seven and three representing eighty-seven and three percent were students and others respectively.
Table 4: Age Grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Grade</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-44</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 and above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents age grade of the one hundred respondents, eighty seven representing eighty seven percent were between the ages of eighteen and twenty nine. Thirteen representing thirteen percent were between the ages of thirty and forty-four. While zero accounting for zero percent were between the ages of forty and above. This suggests that Nigeria’s population is largely made up of youths.

Table 5: Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondent marital status. Eight representing eight percent were married while the remaining ninety two accounting for ninety two percent were single.

SECTION B

Table 6: Research Question one: Are films important instruments in the preservation of a people’s culture?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UD</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Films usually depict the values, attitudes and behaviours of a particular set(s) of people</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The western culture is a strong force to reckon with in the world mainly due to the force of the film medium</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When properly planned and researched films could be a powerful instrument for the promotion and preservation of people’s culture.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The perception of the Indian costumes, language, songs as spectacular is mainly due to their projection by Bollywood films</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Films are strong public relations strategies which can communicate and create an understanding of people’s culture to the world.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the mean score on the information obtained on the power of the film medium. Five terms sort the respondent’s assessment in which all variables were accepted. The weighty decision in item six, seven, nine and ten which translates into three point ninety-four, four point sixty eight, three point sixty one, three point forty-three and four point eight respectively affirms that film is an effective tool in preserving culture.
**Table 7:** Research Question two: Can the Nigeria film industry portray a rich heritage of the Nigerian Culture?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UD</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The depiction of the Nigerian culture and the promotion of westernization is highly promoted in our home videos</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Nollywood themes and plots usually not connected to the Nigerian people and their lifestyle</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Nollywood have so far, painted a gory image of Nigerians and disregard their beautiful and rich heritage</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Nigerians have not root and identity in the world which can be blamed on the poor representation by its film industry.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Nollywood films promote the various Nigerian costumes.</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the mean score on the information obtained on the effectiveness of Nigeria Film Industry in promoting the rich heritage of the Nigerian culture. Five items sort the respondents assessment in which three variables were translated into four point two, three point seventy five, and three point twenty nine affirms that Nigerian Film Industry have succeeded in promoting the rich heritage of Nigeria culture. However, items eleven and fourteen were rejected by the respondents implying that contrary to what people think the Nigerian Film Industry has failed in its duty to preserve the Nigerian culture.

**Table 8:** Research question three: if managed properly, can the Nigerian Film Industry go a great length In propagating the culture of the Nigerian people?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UD</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Nigeria is rich in cultural values which is meant to be displayed to the world</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Our culture and values are constantly being eroded, thus a means must be created to preserve it</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Nigerian Film Industry is an industry highly reckoned with in the world</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The film industry could become a leading force in the promotion of our disrupted culture</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Nigerians have deep regard for Nollywood stars, thus if they could sell and promote the culture within films they feature in Nigerians could bring up and love their culture.</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the mean score on the information obtained on the power of Nigerian Film Industry in propagating the
culture of the Nigerian people. Five items sort the respondent’s assessment in which all variables were accepted. The decision in all items sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen and twenty which translates into four point seven, four point ninety-seven, three point eight, three point eighty one and four point forty two respectively shows that Nigerian Film Industry if managed well can propagate the heritage of the Nigerian people.

From the findings above, it is evident that the Nigerian Film Industry has not succeeded in utilizing the powerful medium of film in preserving the culture of the people and preventing it from decay. It is possible that the late entry of the Nigerian people into film making is responsible for this development. However, it is not too late. Nigeria has rich ethnic cultures which can be exploited and promoted through the film medium. There are a number of tourist attractions, cultures, etc that can be turned into film, Nigeria has a promising future in this regard, if only our film industry develops. And until that is done Nigerians might not have a place culturally in the world.

**Recommendation**

Given the potential of film as a medium for preserving culture, this study after a thorough look makes the following recommendations.

Nigerian film producers must use the film medium to promote our culture for easier identification in the committee of nations. Nigerian film makers must be culturally faithful to our society. No matter the type of film we produce, they should be able to evoke and relate as close as possible certain social, cultural, feeling to the target audience.

Government must as a matter of responsibility set up structures for the training of film makers professionally for the promotion, growth and sustenance of the film industry. This is necessary since film remain the vilest medium for the preservation of cultures.

Government must collaborate with private sector to encourage indigenous film making especially in projects that seek to promote our culture and heritage. This will in turn make room for the mass production of film that will properly showcase our culture to the outside world.

Government in collaboration in with private sector promote the culture of film viewing via the resuscitation of cinema houses amongst Nigerian since it has great influence on the citizens.

**Conclusion**

The greatest resource of any country is its people. And these people are backed up by values, tradition and culture which they believe in. No country irrespective of its size, population, resource or visible physical development, can call itself great or developed unless it takes care of its people. These people should be allowed to make decision based on their own socio cultural and political environment for the betterment of the living condition of both the individual and the group. Benjamin (2007;70) says that the communication sector has faced a number of problems and constraints in terms of lack of communication facilities, relevant quality technology assessment, finance and man power which has slowed its progress. Therefore from the study one can conclude that there will be no cultural development in the society without a sound and liable means of presenting, educating and promoting the cultures in the society.

Since the exhibiting of “workers leaving the factory” by the Lumiere brothers in Paris on December 28, 1895, many countries have since tapped on the potentials of film to sell and propagate their culture, Nigeria cannot be an exception. We have to realize and appreciate the power and virility of the film industry and maximize it to the fullest as far as our culture is concern. This improvement should translate into concrete steps by the establishment of a conducive film production environment and the building of Cinema Theatre. This action can upgrade the popularity of film and the promotion of culture through it as a respected mass media in Nigeria.

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The Role of Theatre and Drama in Conflict Prevention Resolution in Nigeria

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Abstract
Conflict is perceived in many parts of the world, including Nigeria as something abnormal, dysfunctional and detestable but it can also be an agent of positive change. Every society is bound to experience one form of conflict or the other but what makes a society an ideal polity is the extent to which the conflicting interests and needs are constructively managed (Onigui and Isaac 2004: ix) so that violence does not threaten its continued existence. There is generally an indestructible mimetic instinct in man demonstrated through theatre and drama which is his oldest and most thrilling artistic experience. It is a dynamic and unitary art which functions as a means of entertainment, education, celebration, protest and discovery. As a discipline, drama has the potentialities of sharpening social awareness and presenting alternative approaches to the problems of society. Whether presented on stage or through the tube, drama has always been a powerful medium of communication in which the dramatist assumes the multiple roles of an observer, commentator, judge and jury of his society. As Ngugi Wa Thiongo (1981), the erudite Kenyan playwright observes, literature cannot escape from the class structure that we experience everyday because it reflects directly or indirectly on our economic, political and ideological structures. Therefore, if carefully programmed, monitored and executed, Theatre and Drama will go a long way in preventing and or resolving conflicts in Nigeria.

Conflict an Outline
Conflict is perceived in most parts of the world, including Nigeria as an abnormal, dysfunctional and therefore a detestable phenomenon. Conflict which is an integral part of human existence, has three major structural levels: intra-family, intra-community, and inter-community. Other levels of conflict include individual or personal, societal, ethnic, political, economic, and class dimensions (Onigui and Isaac 2004: ix). Conflict may occur in several forms including physical attacks or verbal aggression. It is, however, an inevitable aspect of life which has the capacity to bring about positive change. As subtly portrayed by Onigui and Isaac (2004:4),

Conflict is a dynamic factor which starts with initiation, escalation, maintenance or monitoring, abatement and then termination or resolution.

From the above definition of conflict, it is quite obvious that it is a phenomenon that has the capacity to grow to a destructive state if it is not monitored and abated or maintained. It is therefore very important to avoid the terminal stage of conflicts by painstakingly following the causes of the conflicts in order to eventually arrive at reconciling the contending individuals or groups concerned. When this happens, the society, individuals or communities concerned, will usually be restored to some degree of orderliness that is capable of sustaining the changes that have emerged.

Whether conflict is viewed as normal or abnormal, it is a recurring decimal in human existence. It features in all kinds of human endeavour: social, economic, and political. It is therefore not surprising that conflict is the very essence of most formal and informal social organizations and processes. The differences that bring about conflict would normally require some adjustment in the differences between two or more people where at least one person or group will concede. In a situation where conflicts are not resolved, the consequences are felt beyond the immediate environment of those involved, thereby causing instability that may deter development. Conflicts are often endemic in industrial organizations, factories and bureaucratic set-ups. According to Onigui and Isaac (2004:3), conflicts from these organizations are often settled through collective bargaining and union bargaining by institutional arrangements that help in reducing or managing such conflicts which are based on divergent views and goals.

The existence of conflict presents challenges to the rational man who is disposed to think of alternative ways of proffering solution to the challenges before him. Man’s response to conflicting situations constitute the most important step in solving such occurrences which can be a veritable tool for promoting growth and development, if properly handled through efficient procedures. Conflicts, whether international, national or community-based, have become regular and increasing features of the socio-political set-up of the communities or countries involved. The rise and rise of conflicting situations in the human community is as a result of several factors derivable from the social, political, religious, ethnic and class differences of the citizenry.

Conflicts arise where there are multiple interests, goals and aspirations by individuals or groups in an identifiable physical environment and social set-up. They thrive where there are changes in the socio-political arrangement which gives rise to competition for political positions. It can also occur where the environment occupied by a community is earmarked for specific development that would up-lift the economic profile or status of the individual or group. As Coser (1956:8) correctly puts it, conflict can be regarded as:

…a struggle over values or claims to status, power and scarce resources, in which the aims of the conflicting parties are not only to gain the desired values, but also to neutralize, injure, or eliminate their rivals. Such conflicts may take place between individuals,
between collectivities, or between individuals and collectivities. Inter-group as well as intra-group conflicts are perennial features of social life.

In this respect, conflict can be regarded as what happens during the process of finding solutions to problems that emanate from opposing interests. As posited by Park and Burgess (1951:574), “...conflict is designed to solve divergent dualism and achieve some kind of unity even if it be through the annihilation of one of the conflict parties.”

Conflict may not necessarily be looked at as a completely negative phenomenon because in a situation where it is carefully handled, it has the tendency of translating into a normal process of interaction. As Deutsch (1973:156) correctly observes, although conflict generally exist “whenever incompatible activities occur” and may result in a “win-lose” situation, the resolution, transformation, and management of conflicts may produce a “win-win” situation.

Drama and Theatre an Overview
What is referred to as Drama and Theatre can be traced to the religious rites of earliest communities shown through traces of songs and dances performed by priests and worshippers in honour of a god. The origin of Drama and Theatre is derived from the dithyramb or hymn sung around the altar of Dionysus, the Greek god of wine and fertility whose cult had spread to Greece from the North-East. The hymn was sung by a chorus comprising fifty men derived from each of the ten tribes of Attica that contributed five men for that purpose. The process which evolved from a simple act of worship to full-scale Greek tragedy, had the altar of Dionysus positioned in the centre of the stage - a form of Drama that dates back to 5th century BC in Greece.

The dithyramb or hymn which initially dealt with only the worship of Dionysus, had a widening scope that eventually reflected the tales of demi-gods, heroes, legendary ancestors of the Greeks and their associates. The dithyramb also reflected their wars, feuds/quarrels, marriages and adulteries – all of which reflected on the destinies of their children. These aspects became sources of tension which gave rise to conflict between man and god, good and evil, child and parent. Drama and Theatre which is a dynamic and unitary art, consist of many interlocking elements such as lighting, directing, stage/costume design, scenery, props and other essential materials used by actors before an audience. In order for a performance to be termed theatrical as we understand it today, there are three necessary elements required:

actors speaking, singing or miming
an element of conflict conveyed through dialogue, and
an audience that is emotionally involved in the action but not directly taking part in it.

In the absence of these elements, there are other forms of performances that may be termed religious or social ceremony which does not strictly translate into theatrical experience. For example, an order of service for a coronation in which the king is crowned by the high priest or a sermon in the church or mosque, do not constitute a play because they are firmly rooted in reality. The use of dialogue between two or more characters on stage or through the tube, is a subtle means of communication and, or negotiation that can serve as a balm in conflict situations. Aristotle’s postulation that drama is “the imitation of an action that is true to life but not life itself”, scores this point succinctly.

Drama deals directly with the socio-cultural aspects of a people in any given society. It is characterized by several elements which include shared language that symbolizes and categorizes events; shared way of perceiving and thinking about the world, that is, world view and cosmology; agreed form of non-verbal communication; agreed moral and other values; and a system of religious and other allied beliefs. In this respect, the art of the theatre does not only mirror the life of a people but also suggest how to improve it. The flexible nature of theatre as an art form, is capable of recreating the past, confirming or criticizing the present and projecting the future. This attribute perhaps explains why drama and theatre has survived all kinds of hardships since its inception in the 5th century B.C. In this respect, drama and theatre can be aptly described as a dynamic and unitary means of entertainment, education, celebration, protest and discovery. These qualities obviously place this art form in a vantage position in terms of conflict prevention and resolution.

The Place of Drama and Theatre in Conflict Resolution in Nigeria
Conflict prevention and resolution have been part of human experience for centuries. However, as Burton (1993: 55) correctly notes, the formal recognition of the concept conflict resolution, is comparatively recent in academic discourse. According to him, some scholars interchange “dispute” with conflict which are normally resolved through “settlement” interpreted by him as negotiated or arbitrated outcomes of disputes while resolution is an outcome of a conflict situation. Burton however concludes that “dispute settlement” and “conflict resolution” may be used interchangeably since both concepts operate on the same principles despite the fact that they may refer to different conditions and scope of social relationships.

Conflict resolution mechanisms provide an avenue for interaction with the concerned parties, with the hope of reducing its scope, intensity and effects. In general, conflict resolution provides the opportunity for the convener to interact with the parties concerned. The convener in this sence is the dramatic preformance which should be followed by observation and discussion by...
both parties involved. Other problem solving strategies observed by Mitchell (1993:78) are severally referred to as “problem-solving techniques”, “interactive problem-solving”, “third party consultation”, or “collective analytical problem-solving.” Conflict resolution no matter the form it takes, acts as a healing balm to the parties involved, because it provides the opportunity to explore alternative solutions in restoring normalcy.

As correctly observed by Onigu and Isaac (2004:9), the essence of conflict resolution is that it “facilitates consensus-building, social bridge reconstructions, and the re-enactment of order in society.” Here, the positive side of conflict is that instead of breaking up societies, it educates those involved on how the different individuals that make up the social units should be vanguards of reconciliation in their respective societies. In this respect, the practical demonstration of the conflicting situations that give rise to crisis which can escalate into violence, will create and ideal forum for meaningful discussion that can lead to the resolution of real life conflict. When this happens, the situation that could have translated into violence will have been averted.

A Historical Overview of Conflicts in Nigeria

The West African sub-region has been plagued by intra-state conflicts for more than two decades. Within this period, most of the countries within the sub-region experienced ethnic and religious crisis, some escalating to full scale civil wars as witnessed in Liberia, Sierra-Lione, and Cote de Ivoir. As correctly observed by Okebukola (Best 2007: vii), the crisis brought about wanton killings, destruction of property and despicable suffering to the citizens of these countries. The various crisis in the West African sub-region have, however, impacted positively on the government and their agencies by making them: …not only to consciously identify the root causes of the prominent tensions in their countries but also to learn how to structurally deal with conflicts through collaborative efforts with the military, civil society, non-governmental organizations and peace groups.

Nigeria has been enmeshed with myriad of crisis due to the prevalence of conflicts since her independence in 1960. Since then, violence has been on the rise as a result of various conflicting indices ranging from political through religious to ethnic divides, culminating into the three-year Civil War from 1967 to 1969. From then till date, Nigerians have witnessed series of violent conflicts resulting into monumental loss of lives and property. Conflicts in Nigeria over the years, have come in many shades and colours and from various communities in the six geo-political divides of the nation. The following conflict occurrences that have bedeviled Nigeria, are a clear testimony of its tortuous history, growth and resilience:

- The conflict among the Yakurr people situated in South-Eastern Nigeria in 1992, which culminated into the war between the Ugep and Idomi, is one example. The two groups constitute the largest and smallest Yakurr settlements of South-Eastern Nigeria respectively. Although both communities are related by blood and share a common boundary, the interplay of political, geographical, psychological, demographic and economic factors, combined to make war inevitable. These antecedents become very handy whenever there is need to analyse other Nigerian communities.
- The Tiv-Jukun conflicts in Wukari Local Government Area, Taraba State (1990-1992); the Owerri massacres; the communal conflict on the Jos Plateau; the Takum conflicts; the Warri conflicts which gave rise to the South-south insurgency by the armed militia; and of recent, the emergence of the “Boko Haram” sect which is unleashing unprecedented terrorism activities in the Northern parts of the country. Most- if not all these conflicts are characterized by “large scale human suffering and atrocity, prolonged threats to human rights, and instability” (Onigu and Albert: 118). Most of these conflicts which have been prolonged, took economic, political, structural, religious, ethnic and resource-oriented dimensions.
- There were the intra-ethnic conflicts among the Yoruba nation which dates back to the Owu wars of 1817-1824; the Ijaye wars of 1860-1865, and the Kiriji wars of 1877-1893 (Omolewa 1986: 118). Conflicts in modern day Yoruba societies deal mainly with indigenes versus settlers, for example, “the Modakekes, the Ijebus of Lagos State and those of Ogun State, and the Ijajes in Ondo and Delta States.

Other conflicts that have bedeviled the Nigerian nation include the one between pastoralists and agriculturalists in North-Eastern Nigeria; the Boko Haram ethno-religious crises in Maiduguri, Yobe, and Adamawa State which has now taken centre stage in the state capital.

The most notorious and intractable conflicts in Northern Nigeria have been those induced by ethno-religious factors (PIDAN 2010: xxii) which have been politicised by unscrupulous so-called politicians for their selfish interests. A typical example is the imposition of the Shari’a law on several states in the North in 1999 which Olusegun Obasanjo, former President of Nigeria described as “Political Shari’a.” As Kukah (2009:16) correctly puts it:

…there are many Local Government Areas where only people of a clan, tribe, or community dominate all handles of power.

Politics in this sense is mainly about capturing power through whatever means in order to fulfill sectorial and private parochial ambition rather than the common good of all citizens. This “do or die” affair normally engage the so-called political jobbers in vices such as bickering, gossip, mudslinging, sensationalization and blatant distortion of facts which often lead to wanton destruction of lives and property.

According to Eleiegwu (Osahor 2003), there are various socio-political factors that have brought about crisis in the chequered history of Nigeria since independence among which are the following:

- The post independent loose federation with a weak centre and four strong regional governments that were terminated by the 1966 coup.
The breakdown of rules of the games which has made politics dangerous to both players and spectators because of blatant rigging of elections.
Gross misuse of political power which has disenfranchised the electorate.
Widespread corruption which has led to misappropriation of public funds.
Erosion of the individual’s fundamental human rights.
The extravaganza of politicians amidst abject poverty of the masses.
The foisting of central or unitary government on the nation by the military after the 1966 coup and subsequent counter-coups.
The pre-war political emprise which led to the creation of 12 states followed by the Biafran Rebellion.
The Nigerian Civil War (1967-70) fought to keep Nigeria one – which exposed our primordial ethnic tendencies and further fragmentation of Nigeria into 19 states and then 36 states and 774 local government areas as we have today.
“The militarization of the polity and the politization of the Military” for 29 years of the country’s 52 years of independence.
The re-establishment of democratic government which is tortuously working its way from a civilian to a civilian government.

Most of the conflicts enumerated above have had re-occurring tendencies because of the dynamic nature of life which knows no bounds, and whose predicaments are intricately associated with natural as well as man-made inhibitions. Theatre and drama as a medium which literally mirrors society, is a veritable means of demonstrating the prevalence of the rudiments of conflicts which usually bring about crisis and wanton destruction of lives and property if not properly checked. The mission of the dramatic arts in conflict prevention and resolution cannot therefore be over-emphasized.

Drama and Theatre as Veritable means of Conflict Resolution
Drama and Theatre can be a veritable means of resolving most of the conflicts that afflict many Nigerian communities. This is very much so because it is a dynamic art form which functions as a means of entertainment, education, celebration, protest and discovery. It is therefore a powerful agent of social control. As earlier mentioned Drama and Theatre has always been in the service of man for time immemorial. Theatre has always been in the service of man as an agent of change. Its nature, function and aesthetic values are constantly reflective of the ever-changing nature of society.

A typical example of theatre for positive change is very evident in the crisis that took place in the Protestant Church in Lagos in 1880. The crisis led to the establishment of many secessionist churches that could freely use their indigenous languages and music. In fact, there were attempts to blend the Yoruba language with European materials for the purpose of entertainment. For example, the Abeokuta traditional masquerade songs were modified into church songs with the aim of winning over converts from traditional religions and this turned out to be a successful venture. Secondly, the advent of Ogunde Theatre in 1946 brought about what is referred to as political theatre which specifically launched attacks on and lampooned colonial rule (Anpe 1989: 3).

The re-establishment of democratic government which is tortuously working its way from a civilian to a civilian government.

Whether presented on stage or through the tube, Drama is a powerful advocate of positive change. In this sense, the dramatist in most cases, assumes the multiple roles of an observer, commentator, judge and jury of his society. It is therefore not surprising that in defense of his role as an artist, Socrates (Chinyere 1998) declared himself as:

…the gadfly which God has attached to the state and all day long and in all places and feasting upon you (society), arousing, persuading and reproaching you

Conflict Prevention and Resolution using Popular Theatre as a Paradigm
In treating the contribution of Drama and Theatre to Conflict Prevention and Resolution in Nigeria, I have opted to use popular theatre as a paradigm. This is so because literature is society-based since it is the reaction and interaction of the people or societies concerned that determine its form. As correctly postulated by the Kenyan playwright, Ngugi Wa Thiongo (1989: 212), it is society that creates the materials for the arts and consequently,

…arts is for the service of man, and for art to be successful, the artist has a professional responsibility to make his work relevant to his society and its concerns.

Popular theatre deals with the performance of drama, puppetry, singing and dancing which are referred to as popular because they are not meant for the educated elite alone but the entire community. It is therefore open to all members of the society. The daily life of the average Nigerian is full of songs, dances, and stories. They sing as they work, dance at parties, and at times act out stories under the moonlight. Since the plays, songs and dances are their own and deal with problems they are familiar with, it becomes easier to put up performances as a teamwork. The plays are sometimes performed in the local dialects of the people, and
the subject matters are the local problems that every member of the community can understand. This form of drama is therefore very ideal for the illiterate or semi-literate Nigerian who is often traumatized by the elite. They also contribute the highest risk-proned group during violence emanating from intractable crisis. They also often fall prey to the lure of political jobbers and religious bigots.

The popular theatre that is ideal for conflict prevention and resolution can be generically defined as a researched performance of drama which may include poetry, songs and dance that can be understood by the educated, the semi-literate and the illiterate members of a given community. The performance which usually take place in public place or the village square, also involve members of the communities as performers. It is usually free-of-charge and so can be attended by everyone. The performance is capable of catching and retaining the interest of a large number of people in the community concerned. These members of the community can easily identify with the problems presented on stage and contribute actively in finding fresh alternatives to solving them through discussions.

The discussions that usually follow such performances, provide opportunities for the participants and members of the audience to exchange useful ideas and suggestions that can lead to solving the problems raised. In this respect, popular theatre serves as a medium that motivates members of the community to be actively involved in discussing their immediate and remote problems and also be ready to do something about solving them. The process or actions that normally follow such performances include:

**Discussing the problems raised with others**
Agreeing with others to do something about the problems, and Learning from other information the skills needed to solve such problems.

Popular theatre which is community-based, should always be planned and run in such a way that community members are involved at each stage. The organizing team should meet and map out strategies for a community workshop. When the workshop kicks off, members of the community should participate in deciding the issues to be highlighted during the performances and also participate fully in the selection of actors. The next step is to organize a workshop of all actors who will rehearse on issues based on the draft script, followed by a performance tour of all the communities. There should be a discussion after each performance which should be documented and evaluated at the end of the entire exercise.

In a similar vein, the re-enactment of the causes and effects of conflicts in human societies in general and Nigeria in particular, should lead to workshops aimed at finding solutions to the malady or taming conflicts in such a way that the possibility of these serving as agents that motivate positive social changes, is explored. Discussions on conflicts may even bring up the issue of whether conflict prevention or resolution is always possible or even necessary; or should be managed in view of the fact that it has a re-occurring tendency.

Theatrical presentations such as these which are aimed at tackling and, or resolving conflicts, should lead to practical problem-solving workshops by both audience and actors. As Rupensinghe (1995: 77) puts it, the process requires sincerity, adequate consultation and communication among actors…where discussions are open-ended because conflicts have the tendency to “wax”, “wane” and transform themselves. Participants in workshops such as this, are expected to be flexible and open to change in order to successfully modify approaches in preventing and or resolving such conflicts, and also learn from the process.

As Levine (1961: 10) correctly puts it, the quest for conflict resolution is obviously a dialectical one because it borders on the development of the culture of tolerance which will enhance the ability to negotiate and then balance individual or group interests. The inherently dynamic nature of conflict, usually bring about the need for intervention or mediation through the judiciary or by means of coercion in order to re-direct and change its intensity. These aspects can be effectively scripted in form of plays or play-lets during workshops performed to the communities concerned, followed by discussions by both actors and members of the audience in order to promote peace and tranquility.

**Conclusion**
From the above discourse, it is obvious that conflict is an inevitable phenomenon in human existence. It is dynamic in nature and has the potentiality of escalating to the level of wanton destruction by the communities involved. Conflict is not an entirely negative phenomenon because its resolution can motivate social changes in society thereby promoting meaningful development. However, because of its re-occurring nature, conflict cannot be solved once and for all since it is not a mathematical equation. Conflict should therefore be effectively managed through dialogue and constant monitoring. While accommodation should be adopted where conflict resolution fails, it is also important to note that new conflicts tend to surface as old ones are being accommodated, hence its unending nature.

As correctly posited by Onigu and Isaac (2004: 10), what is urgently needed in Nigeria today, is a formidable conflict resolution super-structure that will promote consensus building, social bridge re-constructions, and the re-enactment of order. This will then energize and motivate necessary social changes that will ensure peaceful co-existence among the citizenry.

Finally, the role played by Drama and Theatre in the resolution of conflicts cannot be over-emphasized. The medium’s essence
lies in the fact that it presents the conflicting situations on stage before the communities concerned and thereafter, provides the opportunity for meaningful exchange of ideas between the actors and members of the audience. Drama and theatre is therefore a necessary and veritable medium in conflict resolution and can therefore ensure peace, security and sustainable development.

References


The Use of Caricatures as a Means of Advertising: The Case of Sütaş

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Abstract
Advertisers often make use of humorous elements in advertisements they create. Advertisements that contain such elements play a great role in creating awareness and attaining positive attitudes. Caricature, which is an element of humor, is interesting, eye catching, entertaining and memorable by its very nature. Because of these characteristics of caricatures, they are being used for advertising purposes. Advertisements with caricatures are spreading rapidly and embraced by consumers easily. Especially in the last ten years, companies in different sectors use advertisements with caricatures to publicize their products and services. These companies have different target audiences with different characteristics. They all have differences in opinions, attitudes, perceptions and buying behaviors. Target audiences’ brand choices depend on many different factors. Advertising is an important factor in brand choice. Using attention grabbing methods like advertising with caricatures affects their buying behaviors. This study examines the use of caricatures in Sütaş advertisements. Target audiences’ opinions, perceptions and attitudes about advertisements with caricatures are examined in this descriptive study.

Keywords: Advertising, Advertisements with caricatures, Caricature, Communication, Humor, Sütaş caricatures.

This article is derived from the Master’s Thesis entitled “Caricature Advertising and Target Audience Communication, Sütaş example” which is prepared by Güldane Zengin in Selçuk University Social Sciences Institute the Public Relations and Publicity Graduate Program with Thesis in supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin Altunbaş.

Introduction
Caricatures are a product of humor, and they have been used in various forms through the centuries. Caricatures can be seen as cave drawings, paintings on vases and jugs, or as sculptures. Caricature met with the art of painting as time passed, and became widespread when printing press was invented. This allowed caricatures to be a tool for representing social phenomena, as well as cultural and social values. While the art of caricature emerged late in Turkey, its development was fast. By the way, In Europe and the United States, the word caricature is used to define exaggerated portraits mostly. However, caricature is something similar to comics for the Turkish consumer.

Caricatures were the inspiration for various fields, and one of them is the advertising field. Advertising professionals are good at making use of interesting tools, and they are using caricatures too. There are sound reasons for using caricatures as a means of advertising. Caricatures not only make people laugh, but also grab the attention of them, gain their interest and get recalled by them. Caricatures can be surprising or shocking, while being informative and enlightening (Özer, 1986:94). In this context, it can be said that it is also an effective way of advertising.

There are many attempts made by organizations to use caricatures as a means of advertising. One of those organizations is Sütaş, which is a major producer of dairy products in Turkey. Sütaş targets the youth with its advertising campaigns, and uses caricatures in many ways to reach its target audience. Sütaş caricatures are published in Hürriyet daily newspaper, featured in product packages, and even displayed in special parts of shopping malls. In this study, the attitudes of youth toward these caricatures are analyzed.

Caricature
Caricature is the art of converting the extraordinary and conflicting aspects of feelings, ideas, events or people to drawings in a humorous way. Caricatures may sometimes be aided with text (Fidan, 2007:39). Caricature can be consumed by readers of every age. Caricatures are entertaining, humorous, satirical, and they also make people think. They help in transferring the messages while making the messages permanent in the receivers mind (Uğurel ve Moralı, 2005:2). In addition to this, caricature is named as “graphical humor” nowadays (Fidan, 2007:39). Because in time it get simpler and obtained a graphical order. Graphical approach can only be attained by caricatures without text (Balcıoğlu, 1987:10).

History of Caricature
The old cave paintings are regarded as caricatures (Özer, 1985:5-6). There are many examples of caricatures in ancient Egypt. Many humor historians pointed hieroglyphs as the beginning of caricature (Selçuk, 1997:7). In the ruins of Pompei and Herculaneum, it is found that the faces of enemies are deformed intentionally in the wall and vase paintings. This is the foundation of portrait caricatures. Similar portrait caricatures can be seen in Rome, China and ancient Greece. First drawn stories are found in Egypt and India (Kar, 1999:25).

When printing press is invented, caricatures started to become widespread. Printing press helped people to create hundreds of copies of one caricature. The first example of this belongs to Leonardo da Vinci (Özer, 1985:6). Caricature was accepted as an art
form in 17th century in Italy. Italians named the portraits of people in which head is replaced with animal heads as “caricatura”. In England, the democratic regime let free press, and this led to the rise of caricature as an art (Özer, 1985:7). 1830 was an important year for this new art form, since the political satire newspaper “La Caricatura” was published in France. The first caricature in this newspaper belongs to French painter Charles Philipon (Topuz, 1997:51). In this era, caricature became a way of affecting global politics. Philipon used caricature as a political weapon against the French king Louis-Philippe. However, this led to a ban on caricatures. French king banned “expressing ideas with drawings”. Authorities stated that in a population where half of the people are illiterate, caricature is stronger than words. In the end, La Caricature was closed (McKee, 2002:6). The development of the art of caricature did not stop. Caricatures started to feature text and became narrative pieces. The exaggerated drawings of people became an art form of its own (Özer, 1985:7).

**Development of Caricature in Turkey**

Turkey was late to embrace caricatures. First steps were taken in 19th century. First printed caricature belongs to Arif Arifaki and featured in an İstanbul newspaper in 1867. There were 20-25 caricatures in this newspaper (Topuz, 1997:211). First humor magazine was named as “Diyojen” and it was published by Teodor Kasap in 1870. The caricatures in this newspaper were not signed by their artists, thus it is not possible to identify who drew them (Balcıoğlu, 1987:5).

The journey of caricature was happening on a bumpy road. 1960s were not active years for caricaturists. The reason behind this was caricature magazines decreasing sales. Caricature magazines were focusing on universal tragedies of human life in these years. They were not publishing a lot of caricatures on political subjects (Sipahioğlu, 1999:130). Turkish caricature was 100 years old in 1970s. In these years, universal caricature understanding was established, and the success of Turkish caricature was recognized. Caricature artists also created their association in this era (Sayedut, 2006, http://www.mizahvecizgi.com, 31.01.2009). The first years of the 80s were very inactive for caricaturists, since there was a military coup in Turkey (Öngören, 1998:120). Caricature continued its development in 1990s. Leman magazine was started its life in this era and became the most read magazine, not only among the caricature magazines, but also in all types of magazines sold. Leman became a synonym for caricature magazine (Hoşafçlı, 2006:107). Through the 2000s, popular culture affected caricature in a way that questioning, thinking and universal humor ideas are left for instantaneous entertainment. Although such caricatures exist, number of magazines sold is more important than before (Kaptan, 2004).

**Relationship between Caricature and Advertising**

Advertising is a communication process and the message is coded to be transferred. While transferring the message, semiology is put into use. It can be said that one of the signs is caricature. The reason behind using caricature in advertising is creating a humorous communication style which integrates well with the brand. Caricature is an art form that is found interesting and embraced by the society. Caricature helps advertising to occupy a strong place in consumers mind and it can be effective in the purchase decision process (Fidan, 2007:14).

The aim of advertising is to inform the unaware consumer about the product; or get the aware consumer to the point of purchasing the product by making it appealing. Using caricature as a means of advertising is an important factor in creating word of mouth (Özer, 1985:80). Advertising professionals often select a caricature artist who is well known by the society. It is important to select someone whose style of drawing can be recognized by society to be able to gain positive results from the advertising campaign (Kar, 1999:134).

Advantages of using caricature in advertising can be listed as (Fidan, 2007:149):

- Helps in expressing the message.
- Strengthens the message.
- Grabs the attention of the viewer, wherever it is positioned in the page.
- It is striking and it has a high potential to surprise the viewer.
- It can represent the message in ways that photos can’t.
- It can express tough messages in a softer way.
- Caricatures are loved by almost everybody.
- Has a high potential to stay in the mind of the target audience.
- It is an effective way of word-of-mouth communication.

Using caricatures in advertising may also lead to some disadvantages (Özer, 1994:26):

- May dilute the message.
- May make the message less believable.
- If the advertising message and caricature does not match, it can have adverse effects.
- May have negative effects on the reputation of the advertiser.

Organizations are hesitating to use caricatures in advertising because it is important to adjust the dosage of advertising messages in such caricatures. Unqualified artists can create caricatures that are featuring high dosage of commercial messages and this can be damaging to the brand (Altun, 2008: 64).
Methodology
In this study, youths attitudes, views and perceptions toward Sütaş’s caricatures was analyzed. Sütaş, which is a dairy producer in Turkey, is using caricatures in its advertisements since the year 2002.

There are many organizations that are using caricatures in their advertising campaigns. This study is limited to the advertisements’ of Sütaş. The field study is limited to the students of Selçuk University, in the city of Konya. The questionnaire form was pre-tested on 20 participants and corrections are made according to the feedback received. The final questionnaire forms are distributed to female and male students, who were studying in various degrees of undergraduate and graduate programs. Out of the 465 questionnaire forms, 445 were usable. The rest were not used because of incomplete answers.

The questionnaire form consists of 46 questions. First five questions are intended to gain information about the participants demographic profile. Following nine questions are asked to learn about the participants degree of involvement with caricatures. 25 of the questions are in Likert scale: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree, Strongly Agree. There are also questions to assess the degree of awareness about the use caricatures as a means of advertising.

Findings
Out of the 445 participants, 51,2% of the participants were female, while 48,8% were male. 63,16% of the participants are aged between 20 and 22. Most of them (92,4%) are single. 75,5% have up to 500 Turkish Liras for spending every month. Most of the participants (66,8%) do not have a tendency to buy caricature magazines and the participants who read caricatures are a minority (68,3%) among the general sample. In spite of this, there is no negative attitude toward caricatures. Most of the participants read caricatures from newspapers (46,7%). The least used medium for reading caricatures is the internet (16,6%). This leads to low rates of sharing caricatures on the internet (10,5%). Most of the participants (62,3%) also does not have a favorite caricaturist who they follow routinely. However, 60,5% of the participants stated that they were verbally sharing the stories told in caricatures with their friends and family. It can be said that the participants are not necessarily interested in caricatures, but if a caricature captures their attention and liked by them, they have a tendency to talk about it.

There are various organizations that are using caricatures in their advertisements. Ten of those organizations are listed and participants are asked to select the ones they remember. There was also an “other” option if participants thought they can recall another organization that uses caricatures. The results suggests that Sütaş is the most remembered organization (23,70%), while Turkcell takes the second place (18,40%) and Avea comes third (17,90%). It was interesting to see that some of the participants filled the open-ended “other” option with the names of the firms that does not have caricatures in their advertisements, like Fanta, Redbull, World Card, Albeni and Adidas. These brands do not feature caricatures but they have animated advertisements. It can be said that some of the participants have confusion about the scope of caricatures.
To be able to reveal the most read caricature magazine among the participants, a question which lists seven caricature magazines was asked. Most read magazine was Penguen (32.23%) while Leman (17.97%) comes after that and Uykusuz (14.84%) follows them. There was an open-ended question which required the participants to write their favorite caricature artists. The top three names written were Salih Memecan (17.74%), Yiğit Özgür (8.87%) and Dağıstan Çetinkaya (6.45%). As stated earlier, the preferred medium for the participants to read caricatures are newspapers. To the question which was asked to reveal the names of these newspapers, 25.60% of the participants replies “Sabah”, 16.67% replied “Zaman”, 11.31% replied Hürriyet and 35.41% replied with the names of other newspapers. These results are related to each other. Salih Memecan, who is the favorite caricaturist among the participants, works in Sabah newspaper, which is the newspaper where most of the participants prefer for reading caricatures. Yiğit Özgür is works in Uykusuz magazine and Dağıstan Çetinkaya works in Zaman newspaper. In addition to this, when asked about which internet sites they prefer for reading caricatures, the participants replied with Facebook, Penguen website and Uykusuz website.

When asked about which brands they recall when they hear the word “cow”, Sütaş came first (44.46%). Sütaş is followed by Milka (24.57%) and Pınar (7.09%). It can be said that a firm link between cow and Sütaş is established. In general, the recalled brands are about dairy, chocolate and red meat.

According to the findings, the caricatures on product packaging (79.4%), in newspapers (69.9%) and on the internet(58%) draw the attention of the participants. However, they are not eager to advice the products that were advertised with caricatures. They also do not share such caricatures with their friends. In addition to this, the participants are undecided (35.3%) if they would buy a product because of its caricature advertising. The participants do not think that caricature advertising is boring (67.7%). They stated that advertisements with caricatures stay longer in their minds (55.9%). Such advertisements help them identify brands in store shelves (54.6%), and it also makes them curious about the brand (46.3%). On the other hand, participants stated that their ideas about the brands do not change because of caricature advertising. However they were undecided, if brand become more friendly if they use caricatures. It can be said that the participants’ purchase decisions are not affected by the use of caricatures in advertisements.
The participants' attitudes toward Sütaş’s advertisements with caricatures are tested by eleven questions. Participants stated that they did not encounter these advertisements in newspapers (52.5%). It can be said that this result is expected, since advertisements were only appeared in Hürriyet newspaper. Also they did not see these advertisements on the internet (46.1%). They did not like to share both on the internet (58.7%) and verbally (48.8%). On the other hand, participants stated that they saw caricatures on the product packages (56.2%), and they also stated that they read these caricatures. They think that the caricatures are funny (45.9%), but they do not know the artists names (69.2%). In addition to this, the participants stated that their purchase decisions are not affected by Sütaş caricatures (58.7%). It can be said that the use of caricatures as a means of advertising for Sütaş products affects the participants’ ideas, attitudes and perceptions positively, although they do not have direct effect on purchase.
Conclusion
Using caricatures as a means of advertising is a new way of advertising for the firms in a time where mass communication vehicles are developing and becoming widespread. The use of caricatures are getting popular, because caricatures target every type of people, and it features humor which helps in transferring messages to the reader. Advertising creates identification, brand image and it leaves traces in the consumer mind. It is not by chance that advertising and caricature met. Many organizations are using caricatures for advertising. Sütaş is also one of those organizations who are using caricatures in advertisements, newspapers, and web sites and on product packages.

In this study, it is found that the participants’ attitudes toward caricature are positive, but they are not avid followers. They are sharing the caricatures with friends and family if they like it. The most remembered brand that takes advantage of caricatures is Sütaş. A long-term campaign like Sütaş’s may have positive effects on this finding.

According to the study, while participants are active about sharing caricatures, their attitudes on caricature advertising is on the negative side. However they also stated that they share advertising they like with friends and family. It may be helpful to work with popular caricature artists and select popular newspapers. Sütaş uses talking cows in most of their advertising campaigns. When asked about which brand the word “cow” evokes in their minds, Sütaş was the top result. This shows that cows must also be a part of their caricature advertising campaigns. The participants do not think that caricature advertising is boring. These advertisements aid in identifying brands in the shelves, but they are not very effective on the purchase decision. In addition, the participants stated that they read the caricatures on the product packages and share them with their friends. The use of caricatures as a means of advertising has a supportive role for brands. Especially product packaging is a good medium for caricatures.

References
The Use of Mobile Phones as a Direct Marketing Tool and Consumer Attitudes

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Abstract
Mobile phones are one of the direct marketing tools that can be used to reach today's hard to reach consumers. Mobile phones are very personal devices and they are always carried with the consumer, wherever they go. This creates an opportunity for marketers to create personalized marketing communications messages and send them on the right time and place. This study examines consumer attitudes toward mobile marketing, especially toward SMS marketing. Unlike similar studies, this study does not focus on the young, but includes consumers who are in the 18-70 age range to the field research. According to the results, it has been concluded that most participants think SMS marketing is disturbing. Most important problems with SMS marketing are about getting subscribed to message lists without the permission of the receiver; the high number of messages sent; and the irrelevancy of the message content.

Keywords: Direct Marketing, Mobile Phones Mobile Marketing, SMS Advertising, SMS Marketing.

This article is derived from the Master’s Thesis entitled “Use of mobile phones as a direct marketing tool and consumer attitudes” which is prepared by Abdülcelil Mücahid Zengin in Selçuk University Social Sciences Institute the Public Relations and Publicity Graduate Program with Thesis in supervision of Assist. Prof. Dr. Göksel Şimşek.

Introduction
SMS (Short Message Service) is a technology that allows mobile phones to exchange text messages. An SMS message is limited to 160 characters, but it is possible to send and receive longer messages using modern mobile phones. This is achieved by combining multiple SMS messages into one (Network Dictionary, 2007:439).

One of the main advantages of SMS technology is its being a type of asynchronous communication. SMS messages can be read whenever the receiver wants. The receiver has more control than voice communication. She or he can choose when to read SMS messages, when to respond them, while carefully crafting the response (Ling, 2004:151). Another important advantage of SMS messages is almost instant delivery. If the receiver’s mobile phone is open, and if there are no problems with the GSM network, messages are delivered to the receiver’s phone instantly (Doyle, 2001:274; Latimer, 2008). Other advantages can be listed as, inexpensive price, simplicity, and broad compatibility (Doyle, 2001:275-276, Mobile Advertising Overview, 2009:6-7).

Sms Marketing
Marketers can use SMS messages for various purposes. There are two ways to use SMS messages for advertising purposes. First method of SMS advertising is attaching the message to a service message. In these type of messages, advertising text is displayed at the end of the messages that GSM operators send, such as weather information, news, or the information about the mobile phone bills etc. An example of this is the message Lipton attached to weather SMS’s sent in summer in Turkey: “Refresh yourself with Lipton”. The second and most common method is to send an advertising message on its own. These messages contain only the information that marketers sent (Mobile Advertising Overview, 2009:10; Mobile Advertising Guidelines, 2008:5).

SMS messages can be used for branding, informing about campaigns, and calling to action. Some SMS messages may promise to send more information to interested consumers (“Write CITI and reply to receive more information”), some may promise discounts or freebies (“Write BURGERKING and send to 2222 to receive your free drink”), while others may direct to a web site or provide a clickable phone number (Mobile Advertising Overview, 2009:6). SMS technology has significant advantages for marketers, such as (Mobile Advertising Overview, 2009:10, Muk, 2007:177, Rettie et al., 2005:305):

Always together with the consumer: One of the differences of mobile phones from other communication vehicles is, its mobility. A mobile phone is always carried by the owner, wherever she or he goes. This makes consumers more accessible by the marketers.

Personization: Mobile advertising messages can be highly personalized. SMS messages can be sent to consumers according to their demographic profiles or geographic location, in a timely manner.

Broad support of SMS technology: All mobile phones can send and receive SMS messages.

Simplicity of the SMS messages: SMS messages can only contain text. This forces the messages to be simple, without any images. However, because of this simplicity, messages are easy to produce. In addition, even the oldest phone models can view the advertising message.

Viral potential: Consumers can forward SMS messages that are sent by marketers, to their own friends.

Measurability: Marketers can measure the response rates to SMS messages which are calling for action, and if the results are not satisfactory, they can change the messages before the campaign ends.
Limited number of junk messages: When compared to e-mail, it can be said that consumers receive less spam as SMS.

SMS marketing is similar to tele-marketing and e-mail marketing in some aspects. Similar to these marketing methods, SMS marketing can be annoying for some consumers too. In order to prevent SMS messages to be perceived as intrusive, marketers must first gain the permission of customers, and then cater the messages according to her or his needs (Rettie et al, 2005:305-306).

Findings
The data for this study is gathered from visitors of Konya’s three big shopping centers, which are located in three different districts of the city. The questionnaire form consists of 37 questions. Last 18 questions are in Likert scale: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither (Undecided), Agree, Strongly Agree. Out of the 250 respondents, 53% are female and 47% are male. 66.8% of the respondents are married, while 33.2% are single. 15.2% are students, 14.8% are unemployed and the rest are working on different jobs.

Most of the participants are using a single mobile phone (70.4%), while almost a quarter are using two (24%). Participants using three or more phones are limited to 4%. When asked about their monthly mobile phone bill, 37.2% stated that they are paying between 16 and 30 Turkish Liras and 26% stated that they are paying between 31 and 50. 71.2% of the participants stated that they are not send more than 50 messages monthly. It is interesting to see that the second biggest group (10.8%) send more than 1000 thousand messages in a month. When asked about how many marketing intended SMS messages they receive in a week, almost half (49.6%) of the participants stated that they receive 2 to 5 messages and 21.2% stated that they receive 6 to 10 messages.

To the question, “What do you do when you receive an SMS message intended for marketing”, 35.2% responded with “I read it immediately”, 34% with “I delete it without reading”, and 28.4% with “I read it when I have free time”. In addition, 36.4% of the participants stated that, when they receive a marketing SMS message they quickly scan through the message, while 21.6% stated that they read all of the message carefully, and 20.8% stated that they read none of the message.

The first hypothesis proposed that, “Consumer are using SMS technology more than other mobile technologies which are suitable for marketing”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mobile Technology Usage</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sending SMS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browsing WAP-Mobile Internet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chat-Messenger</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sending&amp;Receiving e-mails</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sending MMS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downloading logos, music, ringtones or games</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be able to understand which mobile technologies are preferred by participants, six questions was asked. According to the results, it can be seen that SMS has the highest mean (2.42), so H1 is accepted.

Disturbance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disturbance</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34. I receive marketing SMS messages from companies that I didn’t gave my number</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I receive marketing SMS messages that are irrelevant to me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Same companies send too much SMS messages</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I receive marketing SMS messages in inappropriate times</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Marketing SMS messages are disturbing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are three variables tested in this study: Annoyingness, benefit and attitude. When looked at the items of annoyingness variable, it can be seen that the highest mean belongs to “I receive marketing SMS messages from companies that I didn’t gave my number” (3.49). This is followed by “I receive marketing SMS messages that are irrelevant to me” (3.44); “Same companies send too much SMS messages” (3.37) and “I receive marketing SMS messages in inappropriate times” (3.16).
The benefit variable consists of four items. The highest mean belongs to the item labeled "Marketing SMS messages are good sources of information about products and services" (2.92). Other items are as follows: "I use marketing SMS messages to take advantage of low price opportunities" (2.75); "Thanks to the messages that informs about discounts, I can shop from stores that I normally couldn’t" (2.70); “Marketing SMS messages provides the opportunities I want" (2.30).

The item labeled as "I like being informed about campaigns by SMS" has the highest mean (2.88) among the items of attitude variable. The second highest mean belongs to “I find campaigns conveyed by marketing SMS messages appealing” (2.60). The third item, which is labeled as “I find campaigns conveyed with marketing SMS messages appealing” has a mean of 2.55; while the lowest mean belongs to “Marketing SMS messages affect my buying decisions about products and services” (2.51).

Comparison of Variables’ Significance

According to correlation analysis, it can be seen that there is a negative meaningful relationship between disturbance and benefit variables (r=-0.21, p<0.01) and disturbance and attitude variable (r=-0.22, p<0.01). It can also be seen that there is a strong
positive relationship between benefit and attitude variables ($r=-0.74$, $p<0.01$).

The Ages of the Participants and Disturbance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>M Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5,847</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>2,243</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>105,572</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111,419</td>
<td>249</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H3 proposed that “There is a positive relationship between age and disturbance felt from marketing SMS messages”. An ANOVA analysis revealed that as the age increases, marketing SMS messages are found more disturbing. The mean for participants aged between 15 and 21 is 2.9; while it is 3.5 for participants aged 57 and above. According to these findings, H3 is accepted.

According to the conducted, chi square test, there is a meaningful difference among participants about the frequency of sending SMS messages. Participants aged between “15-21” sends SMS messages more frequently than participants who are 43 or above ($x^2=112,728$, $sd=24$, $p<.001$). A similar situation also exists about the amount of text messages sent. Participants aged between “15-21” sends more SMS messages than participants who are 36 or above ($x^2=119,699$, $sd=36$, $p<.001$).

To be able to test H4 (The consumers who are annoyed from marketing SMS messages are making an application not to receive such messages), an independent-samples T test was conducted. According to this, there is no meaningful difference exists ($t=1.048$, $p>0.05$), so H4 was rejected.

**Conclusion**

Mobile phones are must have tools for the modern individuals. This is a technology that is used by almost all consumers. It is also a personal piece of technology, maybe even more personal than “personal computers”. Unlike desktop computers or landline phones that are used by every member of a household, mobile phones are used solely by the owner and very rarely shared with others. Mobile phones also have the advantage of being “mobile”, thus always being close to its owner.

These factors create an enormous opportunity for the direct marketer. Marketers can call consumers mobile phones, as they call their home or work phones. However, there are strong negative associations about telemarketing. Fortunately, mobile phones feature a technology that landline phones don’t: Short Message System. SMS can be used as a subtle way of sending marketing messages to consumers.

The findings of this study suggest that participants think SMS marketing messages are disturbing. This result is not surprising since participants stated that they receive messages in inappropriate times of the day and they receive a lot of SMS marketing messages. They are also receiving messages from firms that they did not share their number. It is also found that most of the messages received are irrelevant to the receiver.

Firms can make their messages less disturbing and more valuable. Before conducting SMS marketing campaigns, firms should use up-to-date databases of interested consumers. There is a tendency to mass-send messages and hope to get some return, and this should stop. Firms should never send SMS messages to consumers without their permission. There is also a problem with the content and relevancy of the messages. To address this issue, firm need to tailor the messages for the receiver and make every message valuable. They should send messages in the right time and right place. The necessary technology already exists. It is time for firms to think before they send.

**References**


Thematization in Polish Current Affairs TV Programmes During 2014 European Election Campaign: Autopoiesis In Polish Media System

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Abstract
The aim of this study was to examine the quality of Polish public debate on the European Elections: in other words, how current affairs TV programmes tried to explain the complexity of issues concerning the European Union and the essence of the functioning of the European Parliament to the average viewer-voter. In the study, the methodology of qualitative and quantitative content analysis was implemented.

The paper focuses on the phenomenon of thematization in the TV programmes covered in the study. Much attention in the discussions of the journalistic topics was given to such issues as the process and dynamics of a given campaign, the manner of its coverage by the media, and the polls. In this regard, the results of the study confirmed a strong autopoietic (definition of the Luhmann’s theory) and self-referential nature of the electoral discourse.

Keywords: thematization, topics, current affairs TV programmes, discourse, autopoietic

Research
In this paper, the author would like to present some results of the complex research conducted in 2014, particularly two weeks before the European Elections in Poland (10-23 May 2014). The purpose of the study was to analyse the quality of the journalistic discourse during the electoral period and to see how current affairs TV programmes, covered in the study, tried to explain the complexity of issues concerning the European Union and the essence of the functioning of the European Parliament to the average viewer-voter. The research was based on the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the content of the current affairs television programmes (complex code key, charts of quality analysis for each programme, and transcriptions of journalists’ statements). The research material contains all current affairs TV programmes in which candidates to EP appeared or in which topics related to the EP Elections were raised within two weeks before the European Elections, that is in the period between 10 and 23 May 2014. The study encompassed the following Polish nationwide stations - TVP1, TVP2, TVN24, Polsat News, TVP Info, TV Trwam (55 hours of study in total). The first graph below presents the exact number of unique TV materials, devoted solely to the elections, from the whole research sample (in total: 160 unique current affairs TV programmes)

![Number of unique TV materials](image)

Graph no. 1. Source: own research

It is worth mentioning that these channels broadcast the most popular current affairs TV programmes. Three of them, TVP1, TVP2, and TVP Info, are publicly owned. It must be underlined that TVP INFO is a typical news dedicated channel, which is a part of the Polish national public broadcaster – TVP (TVP 1 and TVP 2 are mainstream channels, that are not entirely dedicated to news broadcasting). TVN24 and Polsat News are the news channels owned by the two main competitors of TVP - TVN and Polsat, which are private, commercial TV stations. Finally, there is also TV Trwam, which is the biggest social and catholic broadcaster - non-private and non-public (according to the license, it cannot emit commercials). In general, TV Trwam is in great opposition to the rest of the channels, both in terms of programmers that are broadcasted and its political affiliation. We have to add that the voice of TV Trwam is one of the most influential ones in the Polish discourse and therefore, the study cannot ignore it and focus only on the mainstream TV news stations.
In the research that was conducted on the request of the Polish National Broadcasting Council, a research team studied various aspects of the political discourse in the current affairs TV programmes, including: structure of the programmes (construction (parts of the programmes), visuals, video editing), guests and anchors of the programmes (type of guest, affiliation, place, and time of exposure (passive (appearing without saying anything) / active (appearing and talking)), rhetoric, argumentation strategies, interactions with journalist and opponents, the number of interrupts (style of interrupting), anchors’ style of delivery (meaningful verbal and non-verbal behaviours), questioning strategies, interactions with guests and self-presentation (including topics discussed and knowledge presented on air), the role and image of women (women as guests (number – proportion to men, guest type, style of communication, conversational style), women as anchors (as above)), missionary values of the television (according to Polish law): pluralism, impartiality, balance, integrity and quality, and finally, thematization – the main focus of this paper – which includes topics that were discussed, time devoted to each topic, and also the self-reference of the media system.

Exposure of Political Parties during 2014 European Campaign in Poland
Because of the space constraints, the author would like to focus only on two aspects of the aforementioned study. The first aspect is related with the following questions: how did the structure of a given party’s TV exposure, in the last two weeks before the European Elections, eventually influence the electoral results? Are these two issues correlated? If they are, what does it mean? Another question that is to be raised is connected with the idea of the media thematization on the European Campaign – what it was about and what kind of topics built the political discourse during the last days before the elections.

The second graph below shows the presence of the electoral committees of particular political parties on air (in minutes).

Two main parties – Platforma Obywatelska (Civic Platform – the governing party) and Prawo i Sprawiedliwość (Law and Justice – the main opposition party) – were most frequently presented in the programmes covered in the analysis. A group of experts, advisers, spin doctors, former politicians, and officials – named as “Non-party” – ranked third. The second governing party (a smaller coalition partner) – Polskie Stronnictwo Ludowe (Polish People’s Party) – received only 161.1 minutes of exposure. It was twice less than two other Polish parliamentary opposition parties – Sojusz Lewicy Demokratycznej (Democratic Left Alliance) and Europa+ Twój Ruch (Europe+ Your Move). If we look closer at the next graph (Graph no. 3), which presents the structure of exposure in every TV station included in the research, we will see that all three news stations tried to present various electoral committees.
Generally, the more diverse the graph, the greater the pluralism of a given television station. Furthermore, the more evenly and symmetrical the greyscale in the graph appear, the greater the impartiality of a given station is – of course, if we make a simplification and decide to measure the exposure of the political parties as the main determinant. At this point, it should be noted that there is a great disproportion when it comes to TV Trwam. This social and religious TV station is strongly affiliated with the right wing parties which are, at the moment, in opposition – Prawo i Sprawiedliwość (Law and Justice) and Polska Jest Najważniejsza (Poland Comes First). Therefore, these two political groups received the greatest amount of airtime. The third group which was given some amount of coverage in TV Trwam consisted of experts, advisers, and social activists. Other stations tried to provide a more or less similar amount of airtime for all electoral committees.

Now, if we take into account the relation between the media exposure – the visibility in the current affairs TV programmes, broadcasted within the last two weeks before the 2014 European Elections – and the final results achieved by each electoral committee, we will notice that they are not accidental, but correlated. We believe that there is an even stronger correlation between being in the current affairs TV programmes and achieving proportional electoral results. The following charts and tables present the r-Pearson correlations. Table no. 1 and graph no. 4 show the general correlations between the exposure of electoral committees on TV and their electoral results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European Elections 2014</th>
<th>Exposure in minutes</th>
<th>Electoral results (pct.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>648.8</td>
<td>32.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PiS</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>31.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLD</td>
<td>346.5</td>
<td>9.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E+TR</td>
<td>327.5</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>230.4</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSL</td>
<td>161.1</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNP</td>
<td>115.6</td>
<td>7.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RN</td>
<td>79.3</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ r\text{-Pearson} : 0.877 \]
\[ \alpha : 0.002 \]
Almost all tables and graphs presented above show a significant linear r-Pearson correlation between the visibility of particular parties in the current affairs TV programmes within the last two weeks before the European Elections and their final electoral results. In general – in table no. 1 and graph no. 4 – we can see that the correlations are really strong, with $\alpha: 0.002$ and r-Pearson: 0.877. If we take a precise look at the rest of the tables (no. 2-3) and charts (no. 5-7), we can notice that this general correlation is also maintained in the case of the two TV news channels covered in the research – TVP INFO (the biggest correlation and a great level of significance) and Polsat News (also big correlations, but with a lower level of significance). The weakest correlation was
As we may see, this simple data summary could be supportive of the following thesis: if your exposure in the current affairs TV programmes within the last two weeks before the European Elections is high, you will receive better electoral results. However, this intuitive assumption does not have to be true in every case. We have to bear in mind that the linear correlation values presented above are heavily based on the two main and biggest parties, PO (Civic Platform) and PiS (Law and Justice). If we eliminate these two parties from the graph/table and leave only the small ones, the correlation between the exposure of these parties in the TV news stations and their electoral results will be much lower, a mere 0.44. One could say that the globally dominant parties are heavily exposed, but the smaller ones are only slightly exposed. However – according to the latter remark – we can say, in simple terms, that the smaller a party is, the lower the r-Pearson correlation between the electoral results and the exposure of this very party on TV is noted. It turns out that the dependence the exposure on TV and the electoral results can be noticed only if we take into consideration the dominant parties.

For now, it is worth remembering that these observations may be primarily related with the specificity of elections, particularly in the case of the European Elections. We do not have enough space to present other variables of the political discourse that were analysed in terms of their correlation with electoral results, however, we have to say that there are numerous studies and a great deal of research which prove that the European Elections do not have to be perceived on par with other elections that take place in any democratic country. In other words, according to Reif and Schmitt (1980), the European Elections seem to be the so-called Second-Order Elections (SOE). The First-order Elections (FOE) are of course the national elections. What is more, the results and campaigns of the European Elections – from the SOE’s perspective – are influenced by the political constellation of a national political arena and are characterized by the dominance of the first-order arena national political issues (Reif and Schmitt, 1980: 247). In this case, we have to remember about the very important concept of Europeanization (Börzel and Risse, 2003; Cowles et al., 2001; Featherstone and Radaelli, 2003; Ladrech, 2010). The Europeanization is understood as a process by which domestic actors and institutions adapt to the institutional framework and logic of the EU or, in other words, as the responses of national actors to the impact of the European integration (Ladrech, 2002: 392-393; Radaelli, 2000, Kovár and Kovár, 2012: 32). From this point of view, the Europeanization, treated as a media’s logic process, presents different ways of how political parties wage the EP Election campaigns. The media seem to be a good platform for an analysis of how political actors deal with the issues associated with the European integration during the EP Elections (Kriesi, 2007: 90).

After more than three decades and six rounds of the EP Elections, the SOE model has, by and large, become one of the most widely tested and supported theories of a voting behaviour in the elections to the EP (e. g. Ferrara and Weisbaupt, 2004; Freire and Teperoglou, 2007; Hix and Marsh, 2007). We should also be aware of the fact that the media constitute the most important source of political information and provide a channel of communication between the governors and the governed, particularly in relation to such a remote and abstract issue as the European Union (EU) politics. It is also an important channel of information in the case of the Second-Order EP Elections (Strömbäck and Shehata, 2010; Blumler, 1983; Koopmans, 2007, Bennett and Entman, 2001; European Commission, 2004: 162). Given the highly “national” structure of the EP Elections and their identification as SOEs, where the national political arena provides the dominant frame of reference, it is hardly surprising that the campaigns should be nationally differentiated.

**Thematization of Polish Discourse during 2014 European Elections**

According to the aforesaid observations, the following questions arise: to what extent do the Polish current affairs TV programmes present the most important information about the EU and the challenges which the European Union and, consequently, the European Parliament, along with their representatives, are facing? What kind of tasks and topics are they dealing with? Finally, what kind of an institution is the European Parliament? What can and cannot the EPs do? What kind of pledges can they make?

The majority of the answers to these questions seem to be hidden in one of the most important categories of this study, namely the thematization of the political discourse in the Polish current affairs TV programmes (see f. ex.: Boyatzis 1998; Jalali & Silva, 2011, Bolin, 2014, Hollander, 2014). In other words, it concerns the question of what topics and threads were mainly discussed by the anchors and their guests during the programmes covered in the study.

First of all, in the research, we described 841 thematic units (one topic discussed in one programme was classified as one unit), with two levels of coding. Generally, we have identified:

- 623 unique thematic units aggregated at a detailed level;
- 185 thematic categories aggregated at a generalized level.

What has to be emphasized is the fact that out of the 185 thematic categories [clusters] aggregated at the generalized level – clustered level (according to Krippendorff, 1980) – top ten categories constitute almost 66 percent of the 841 thematic units that were identified. These categories were classified as thematic units and are listed in the following table, along with the percentage and the total number of occurrence.
### Table no. 4. Source: own research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number of occurrence</th>
<th>Percentage of all subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electoral campaign itself</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The current politics of the parties</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polls</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements of assets</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of public debate</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukrainian crisis</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy union</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration deepening</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood protection</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-presentation of politics</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What should be added is the fact that the primary sets of information, encoded for all the programmes covered in the study, consisted of the topics that were discussed in each of these programmes. As a separate topic, we also encoded each single thread in the discussion, the so-called interjections made by the journalists or one of the guests, which introduced a new issue that was, nevertheless, not discussed further in the programme. A surprising observation can be drawn from the results presented in table no. 4, namely the strength of the autopoetic (Luhmann, 2000) materials in the journalism devoted to the EP Elections (See: Schuck et al., 2013). A very high percentage of discussions held by the journalists concerned, to a greater or lesser extent, the campaign itself - its style, rhetoric employed by various parties, electoral spots, communication strategies, etc. The topics related to the campaign were also strongly connected with the currently published polls, the reflections on the quality and level of the public debate, and the self-presentation of particular politicians. The substantive issues outside the scope of the campaign, concerning practical political problems, were clearly dominated by the general topics, not related to the current political decisions, in the discourse of the television programmes covered in the study. The main theme of the broadcast journalism – tackled beyond the campaign – was the current, predominantly national politics of the individual parties, competing in the elections to the European Parliament in 2014. Often, party election broadcasts attended by the candidates to the European Parliament were used by the anchors as a tool for the discussion about the national politics. Among the specific events that were discussed, we have indicated the problems with the declaration of assets (Aleksander Kwasniewski, the former President of Poland, Donald Tusk and Jaroslaw Kaczynski, the former Prime Ministers of Poland), the crisis in Ukraine, the situation of flood risks, and even the victory of Conchita Wurst at the 2014 Eurovision song contest. Interestingly, the European Union appeared as a central theme only when discussing the issue of a possible energy union and a further integration of the European structures. Other topics or political EU-wide agenda were present to a much lower extent.

**Media Logic during Elections**

It is believed that today’s daily life cannot be imagined without the media, particularly the mass media. They are omnipresent in politics, economy, education, and arts, as well as other public and private spheres of our lives. Besides sleeping and working, we spend most of our time using the mass media (Keplinger & Maurer, 2000; McCombs & Shaw, 1993). They represent the world in the society for the society and they are a significant source of knowledge about the world in which we live (Luhmann, 2000: 1). According to the concept of the “Media Society” and a process of Mediatisation, the media are a societal phenomenon penetrating all areas of modern, globalised societies (Saxer, 2007: 26; Hjarvard, 2008). Therefore, societies act more and more according to the logic of the mass media. The mass media have become important for politics and its actors, as well as for the scientific community and its discourses (Bourdieu, 1996). However, the mass-mediated picture of the world is not a mirror, reflecting the actual reality; rather, the reality as presented in the media is constructed by the media and their mechanisms of selection and presentation styles (Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000). This fact is especially obvious for topics that are not part of our direct and primary experience. One of the paradigms of the social science research, the social constructivist perspective, argues that the public defines the attributes of risks via a social construct (Berger & Luckmann, 1966).

As Niklas Luhmann puts it, “[w]hatever we know about our society, or indeed about the world in which we live, we know through the mass media” (Luhmann, 2000:1). Luhmann describes the dual reality of the mass media system. This system occupies a special position in the social structure, providing information and reports to other systems and on other systems. This dual reality is based on two assumptions. The first assumption is the operational closure of the media system, in which the first reality is fabricated. In other words, the first reality of the media is the process of reproducing the media system and differentiating it from other systems. The second assumption is based on what the media perceive as real and what is then reconstructed as this reality. Therefore, the function of the media will be to block the societal self-observation, as well as the self-observation of other
functional systems, by imposing their own interpretative framework of the reality. In other words, the media system construes the reality of other systems.

The question that arises from this is: how are the mass media capable of construing reality? The answer lies in the process of thematization, through which the systems communicate. Topics constitute structures of the communication processes, based on generalization. Furthermore, topics represent a reference that is alien to communication, which, on the basis of a system-external differentiation of the information/non-information code, enables the media system to operate and construe the reality.

Above all, a recursive public discussion of the topic is both a typical product of and a requirement for the continuation of the mass media communication. What is more, it ensures that the public recursivity has a retroactive effect upon the communication in the environment of the mass media (Luhmann 2000: 12).

Approaching this concept from a narratological perspective, we can observe a permanent self-reference as a key characteristic of the media content: all pieces of information are combined with each other in the process of autopoiesis, because the (potentially unlimited) mutual referencing is an immanent feature of the media information.

The requirement of recursivity leads to these events being referred to in a subsequent news item – whether they are assigned a meaning that is typical or whether they are woven into a narrative context which can continue to be narrated. Occasionally, incidents that are reported offer an opportunity to report similar events and then to report a ‘series’ of events (Luhmann 2000: 33). The mass media form operationally closed systems that can be compared with other social systems, e.g. law, politics, science, business, etc. Secondly, the cognition itself is self-referential and closed: it can only occur in systems.

What does this really mean? It means that the mass media do not present an image of a reality that they have distinguished (this cannot actually be their function), but rather, they themselves create the reality, which they communicate on a daily basis as news, reports, advertisements (the autopoietic relation). Although this reality is a manufactured reality that is formed in a selective manner—and we are all aware of this—it is a socially relevant reality and remains valid while giving us a picture of the actual reality, provided that we understand how it is produced, constructed, and consumed (Bechmann & Stehr, 2011: 142). What is more, the autopoietic systems are characterised both by a great deal of autonomy, since they are not dependent on external production processes, and by self-reference, since their organisation closes in on itself and their structure is self-defined - it can be any so long as its supports autopoiesis (Mingers, 2002: 294; Maturana & Varela, 1987: 349).

It must be emphasized that the majority of the current affairs TV programmes covered in the study did not account for the contemporary problems of Europe in a comprehensive and competent way. In most cases, they did not make a diagnosis or a review of the Polish presence in the EU structures and they failed to fully explain the role and function of the European Parliament and other European agencies, such as the European Commission. What is more, they did not allow the Polish viewer-voters to look at the most important achievements and failures of the Polish MEPs. They generally did not define the most significant goals, challenges, and opportunities, faced by the Polish MEPs of the new term. Unfortunately, the Polish European campaign often resembles a national campaign, focused on such issues as home affairs, flood threats, or simple promotional activity of individual political star-locomotives (and their political parties), which largely dominates the current affairs TV programmes devoted to the EP Elections.

Conclusions – Exposure vs. Elections Results
To sum up, the study confirmed a clear domination of the two, main parties in Poland – PO (Civic Platform) and PiS (Law and Justice) – in the political discourse of the current affairs TV programmes. A group of non-party experts and politicians from these two parties were the main commentators on TV. Moreover, the biggest parties were highly exposed in the current affairs TV programmes during the last two weeks before the 2014 European Elections in Poland. They received the biggest support if we take into account the European Electoral Results (significant, strong r-Pearson correlation between being exposed on television and achieving great electoral results). However, at the same time, the research presents - in the case of small parties – quite an opposite dependency. Namely, we noticed that the parties which were relatively highly exposed on television (such as E+TR (Europa+Your Movement) and SP (Poland Comes First)) did not exceed the electoral threshold. To make it even more complex, we took into consideration the fact that one of the smallest political parties - Kongres Nowej Prawicy (Congress of The New Right Wing) – despite a relatively low exposure of their representatives on TV, achieved a good electoral result – 7.15 pct. However, it is worth mentioning that this party is well exposed in other media, mainly the Internet, thanks to its many young fans and activists (Sula, 2014).

Autopoietic Discourse of Polish Current Affair TV Programmes
Strong autopoietic (according to the definition by Luhmann) and autoreferential electoral discourse means that the media are interested primarily in what they “produce,” in this case, in what they emit. Their narratives relate to themselves and the speeches made by the visitors in programmes constitute a point of reference for the next guests in the subsequent broadcasts. A great number of the journalistic topics in the discussions were the issues concerning the course and dynamics of a political campaign, the manner of its coverage by the media, as well as opinion polls. The essential and actual decisions and processes of making
politics were represented to a much lesser extent, which raises the question of the adequacy of the media discourse as a medium of the actual knowledge about the political problems and not simply the knowledge about the rules of self-propelling and autopoietic “game,” which is the election campaign. A visible, strongly autopoietic (Bechmann & Stehr, 2011) journalistic discourse is one which deals mostly with the election campaign itself (how it is conducted, what are the communication strategies of the parties, etc.) and, to a lesser extent, with the substantive issues. According to Bechmann and Stehr (2011: 144), the sector of news and features (including current affairs TV programmes) still corresponds most closely to our everyday expectations of that media function, which is connected with the reproduction of reality. Although information is offered here in a mode of neutrality and objectivity, a closer analysis reveals that the mass media are not greatly interested in truth, let alone the scientifically generated function, which is connected with the reproduction of reality. Although information is offered here in a mode of neutrality and objectivity, a closer analysis reveals that the mass media are not greatly interested in truth, let alone the scientifically generated truth. Luhmann no longer proceeds on the basis of a causal relationship between the mass media and the society, which seeks direct effects as if the media were deliberately seeking to manipulate. The media affect the public opinion, but indirectly, by framing particular topics, rather than directly. Each individual piece of information may be wrong, but the topic itself structures the public communication, providing the basis for a further communication (Bechmann & Stehr, 2011: 146).

It is worth mentioning that an autopoietic system, however, can be perceived also in a different way - it does not transform inputs into outputs. Instead, it transforms itself into itself. What is meant by this is that the outputs of the system, that which it produces, are its own internal components and the inputs it uses are again its own components (it does always require some elements from the environment and it does excrete waste). It is thus in a continual dynamic state of self-production (Mingers, 2002: 280).

Among the substantive issues, the national political issues dominated the discourse, eclipsing the issues at the European level. It also means that the majority of the current affairs TV programmes did not explain the problems of modern Europe in a clear and comprehensive way, as have been already mentioned before. As Luhmann argues, „[i]t is the topics of communication which ensure that the mass media, in spite of their operational closure, do not take off, do not take leave of society. Topics are an unavoidable requirement of communication. They represent communication’s other-reference. They organize communication’s memory. They gather contributions into complexes of elements that belong together, so that it can be discerned in the course of communication whether a topic is being retained and carried forward or whether it is being changed. At the level of topics, then, other-reference and self-reference are constantly being coordinated in relation to each other within the system’s own communication” (Luhmann, 2000: 12). It is clear that the media operate highly selectively, so that they do not function as a mirror and channel for the public, but rather, they generate their own reality. Any piece of information can be accepted or rejected, creating the possibility of bifurcation in a further communication, without the need to assume an underlying plan or genuine reality (Bechmann & Stehr, 2011: 146).

Finally, we can agree once more with Niklas Luhmann, who says that “[w]e know so much about the mass media that we are not able to trust these sources” (Luhmann, 2000:1).

Discussion – Autopoietic and Second-Order Election
To sum up, according to the already mentioned concept of the European Elections as the Second-Order Elections (SOEs), the media does not help to break the “vicious” cycle of the second-order voting by offering domesticized themes during the campaign. In that sense, the EP Elections fail as an instrument of democracy, namely they fail to express the will of the European people on the European issues (Mair and Thomassen, 2010), and do not help to redress the EU democratic deficit, but rather, they intensify it (Compare to Adam, Maier & Kaid, 2009; Peter & De Vreese, 2004). We have to remember that the process of the European Elections is nationally framed and dominated by national and political issues, which naturally supports the autopoietic thematisation (self-referential themes of a campaign), acting to the detriment of the most crucial aspects of the European Elections.

The crux of this paper is that the more autopoietic a political discourse during the last two weeks before the elections is (according to the phenomenon of thematisation commented on in this paper), especially when it comes to the European Elections, which seem to be the Second-Order Elections (De Vreese et al., 2006; De Vreese, 2009; Irwin, 1995; Norris & Reif, 1997; Weber, 2007), the more misunderstood the viewers-voters feel about the main functions, goals and institutions of the European Union (including the European Parliament). What is more, it generates a general social apathy and common discouragement for the political participation in the elections (voter turnout in Poland during the last European Elections: 2004 (the first ones) – 20.87 pct, 2009 – 24.53 pct, 2014 – 23.83 pct. See: Tuman, 2008). This perspective should be one of the most challenging topics for the researchers on the European Union, especially in times of the rising separatisms and national particularisms in almost every EU country.

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Tribal Language and Community Radio: A Case Study on “Radio Mattoli” Wayanad, Kerala, India

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Abstract
Wayanad is located in the Western Ghats as a north-east district of Kerala. The Wayanadan culture is mainly carved out from the different tribal communities. They do not have any basic infrastructure and the literacy level is very low. Most tribes do not have very much interaction with the outside world and hence the governments are helpless in upgrading their living standard. Radio Mattoli is a community radio started in the year 2009 with the aim of developing the socio economic and the cultural status of the marginalized society at Wayanad. In this study, the researcher could get a positive result on the reach as well as the impact of the community radio. Development of alternative medium for indigenous group not only helps in communicating local news and information, but it also helps in improving quality of life of the people.

Keywords: Community Radio, Tribal community, Tribal language broadcasting, Personal Interviews.

Introduction
Wayanad is located in the Western Ghats as a north-east district of Kerala, India, with an altitude ranging from 700-1200 meter. It is the only district in the state to have the border with both Tamil Nadu and Karnataka (Therakam, 2014). Wayanad is famous for its scenic beauty and rich traditions. The Wayanadan culture is mainly curving out from the different tribal communities. The total population of Wayanad could be divided as Tribes and Non Tribes where the tribes consist of different indigenous minority groups with their own cultural and ethnic identity (Fedina, 2000). Even though Wayanad has got large plantations like Tea, Coffee, Rubber, Pepper and Paddy; Wayanad is considered as one of the backward district in Kerala.

Most of the tribal communities here are depending upon forest and agriculture for their living. They do not have any basic infrastructure and the literacy level is very low. Each of these communities lives in their particular colonies and has got their own languages, culture, believes and norms. Few tribes even do interact with the outside world, and this is the reason even governments became helpless in upgrading their living standard by preserving their cultural context.

Radio Mattoli is a community radio started in the year 2009 with an aim of socio economic and the cultural development of marginalized with the credible source of information within its transmission zone. It is transmitted in the frequency 90.4 FM with coverage of 85% of Wayanad District. The radio has got daily broadcasting of 17 hours from 6am to 11pm. It provides farmers, tribes, dalits, women and children with an opportunity to speak out, and be heard. Radio Mattoli serves as a catalyst for the integral development of individuals and societies, and operates as an avenue for the free flow of beneficial information aimed at bringing socio economic changes in the society.

Tribal Programmes in Radio Mattoli
Since Wayanad is having large tribal population, Radio Mattoli has put special effort in producing programs in tribal languages and dialects. Most of these programs are produced by tribal people themselves. Such programs includes information for the tribal listeners on topics such as government schemes/aids/special packages for indigenous people etc which are often neglected by mainstream media such as Television and newspaper to which tribal community has limited or no access.

Unarvu
Unarvu is weekly programs in tribal language which discuss about Government projects and found that are allotted towards tribal communities. Unarvu also talks about rights of tribal people, tricks and tips in framing etc along with other tribal programs for awareness such as drama or skit in tribal languages itself.

Thudichetham
Thudichetham is a daily program in tribal languages which deals with health, education and other issues which are faced by the tribal community. It not only provides information in their own languages but also helps in conservation of their traditional art and culture through awareness programs. Tribals from various communities present programs such as folk songs and stories in their own languages in Thudichetham.

Related Studies
Community radio is a medium by and for the communities perceived as a pro-people medium.(Dahal, 2013). There have been several studies done on different aspects of community radio in the past two decades. The major areas of social science research on community radio includes the content, its influence and impact on the targeted audience, participation of people within the
community and so on. Studies clearly supported that community radio can play a major role in developing and encouraging participation, sharing their opinion, developing their knowledge and skills, and its programming shows the involvement of the community and in catering to health and cultural needs of the rural communities, especially in the underdeveloped countries (Girard, 1992; Jankowski and Prehn, 2002; Kumar, 2003; Tacchi, 2003; Pavarala and Malik, 2007; Hallett and Hintz, 2010; and Patil 2010).

Community Radio for Disaster Management
The role of community radio in disaster management is very important and has proved that it could help people at the time of natural calamities. Lintas Merapi Community Radio started in the year 2001 in an area where people live under the threat of active volcano in Indonesia. Merapi Community Radio is an efficient tool for giving warnings and cautions to the people around the village when the volcano goes active and thus it could save lives of many people. (Mario Antonius Birowo, 2010)

Role of Community Radio in Education
The community radio stations design their program with factors such as educational and economical status of the audience, their age, gender and the place where they are living. Many of the people living in the Caribbean Island are poor and who could not possess a radio, but there have been studies that poor and less educated people listen to radio more than a rich highly educated person. Community radios are used for educating people with in a community and the main aim of this educational community broadcast is to give people a better understanding about themselves and the world they are living. (HUOH P. MORRISON)

Community Radio for Community Development and Democracy
Citizens radio or alternative radio’s are one of the few mediums which open ups demarcation of the society. Studies have been done not only in the rural villages to understand the effectiveness of community radios for reducing the marginalisation in the society, but also among poor urban dwellers in the cities of Latin America. These studies bring out role of radio in the formation of public spheres in poor urban communities. (Navarro, 2009)

Some people perceive community radio acts as a public space where people meet, exchange and share the thoughts. On the other hand it acts as a useful tool for promoting local culture and business. (Kanayama, 2007, 2011).

The participation of the Indigenous Community in the production of Radio programs are helping in re-establishing their ethnic identity. Active participation in the radio programs also make the think as a part of the nation and need of participation democratic procedures in NEW democratic Nepal (Dahal and Aram, 2013). Community radio created grassroots-level participation and horizontal circulation of ideas among rural communities (Aaditeshwar, 2009).

One of the major functions of Community Radio would apart from educating and entertaining people is circular communication or connecting the communities and binding it together. (Satheesh, 2010)

Language is found to be an important factor considering the listenship of the programmes in Radio Mattoli especially among tribal listeners (Deepthi, 2011). Thus programmes such as Thudichetham is having high popularity among tribal communities. The study also states that programmes on Radio Mattoli promote sustainable development of tribal community without compromising their culture and life style.

Radio Mattoli is the only electronic media in Kerala airing programs daily in indigenous dialects. It has given greater visibility, recognition and respect to tribal dialects, culture and identity. This study, aims to find out the reach and the impact of these programs on tribal community. Also, the researcher tries to understand how these programs are helping Tribal’s for their development activities.

Analysis

The researcher collected 60 samples from the tribal settlement of Kurumakkadu colony, Mananthavady, Wayanad out of which twenty are female and forty are male. Out of these sixty samples, twelve people (4 male and 8 female) are students and below 20 years of age. As they are students, they don’t listen to radio in early morning as most of them need to start early from tribal settlement to reach their school/college. They don’t listen during the evening time also due to their academic related activities. So
they listen to radio during the time slot of 7pm – 11pm.

The next section of samples is from the age group of 20-30 in which eight are female. The researcher couldn’t get any male samples during the time of his survey, as most of them have gone for work. Among the eight female members, four listen to radio during 9am-12pm and another four listen from 7pm-11pm. Most of these female members are housewives and they will be busy with sending their husband and children to work in the mornings. So they will be listening to radio at 9am-12 slots where ladies’ programs like “Vanitha Matoli” are broadcast and night slots from 7pm-11pm, when most of their works are over.

From the age group 31-40, there are eight people in which four are male and four female members. Among these, all listen to radio in the evening and late evening slots as most of them would be engaged with work like farming or going to forest for collecting products like timber, during day time. Four of them listen during the time slot 3pm-7pm and another four from 7pm-11pm. It is surprising to notice that people belonging to the age group of 40-49 (12 male members) do not listen to radio in the late evening slot.

Those who are above the age of 50 are twelve in number and eight among them listen to radio in the morning slot of 6am-9am. Rest of them listens to radio in the 12-3pm slot. Since most of them are aged they listen to radio either during early morning or afternoon.

With the help of the graph the researcher observed that, out of twelve people who belong to the age group of below 20, none of the female members listen to Thudichetham regularly whereas all male members agree that they are listening to the program regularly.

It is evident from the graph that, female members belonging to the age group 20-30 and 30-40 are listening to the radio regularly. Four males who are above 50 years of age are also regular listeners of Thudichetham.

With this graph the researcher is able to conclude that those aged below 20 are not regular listeners while the others are regularly listening to the program.

People who are less than 20 years of age are regular listeners of Unarvu. Few listeners who are between 30-40 are listening to the program in a regular manner. During the weekends the male members of 30 and above age, spend their time in alcohol consumption and hardly listen to radio programmes. Most of the male members who are aged 50 and above are regular listeners of Unarvu. On the other end all female members are listening Unarvu regularly.
Out of the sixty samples taken, only twelve people (8 male and 12 female) agree that they like Unarvu more than Thudichetham. Four male members from 31-40 strongly disagree the statement. At the same time eight male members agree that they like Unarvu more than Thudichetham. On the other hand, among the elderly people aged 50 and above, four people agreed and another four disagreed and yet another four took a neutral stand. This gives a clear understanding to the researcher that 40% of the people like both the programs and 33% of the people like Thudichetham more than Unarvu and other 27% like Unarvu more than Thudichetham.

This diagram gives an idea that most people listen radio with their families. However, male members who belong to the age group of 31-40 are not listening to these programs with their family because they spend their time with their friends during that particular time. Out of the twelve people, who are above 50 years, four of them do not listen to radio with their family members. On the other hand, mostly, all female members are listening radio programs with their family.

Eighty seven percent responded that they listen to Radio Mattoli daily whereas another thirteen percent do not listen to radio so often. Out of sixty, thirty two people listen to radio for 1 or 2 hours, while twenty four others listen to radio for 2 to 5 hours. Four people listen to radio for more than 5 hours from 11 hours of their broadcasting time. Ninety three percent of the People listen to radio program using radio sets whereas only seven present depend on other modes like radio in public library etc. It is noted that no one listens to radio using mobile phones.

Out of sixty, twenty four people agree that they like listening to radio when they are in job and another twelve people strongly agree to this statement. But there are other twenty people who do not like listening to radio while working. Majority of people disagree to the statement that they listen to Unarvu when they are at work. As per the survey conducted, twenty eight people do not listen to Unarvu when they are at work and twenty people took a neutral stand. Another twenty people listen to Unarvu even when they are busy with work and are mostly ladies, who work at home as the program is broadcast only at 8pm during weekends.

From the survey it was very clear that Tribals like listening to their folk songs through radio. Eight people strongly disagree and forty people disagree to the statement that they like film songs more than folk songs. Another eight do not have any comment on this whereas there were 4 people who like film songs more than their folk song who were mainly youngsters. Forty four people out of sixty agreed that they understood the importance of health care after listening to the programs in their own language. Eight people took a neutral stand and there were eight people who disagreed with this statement.

Even though people were having a general opinion to all other queries, to the question on their influence of radio in casting votes generated a mixed bunch of responses. Here four people strongly disagreed, four disagreed and twenty didn’t comment on it. But there were about twenty eight people who agreed to this statement and four who strongly believed that, radio programs in their own language, have influenced their voting behavior.

Most people responded that they will feel bad if these tribal programs are stopped for a month. A few suggested that they will even make enquiries to the radio station after discussing with their friends in the tribal colony.

From the given four options in the survey most people have opined that radio is helping them. Forty people quoted it as a helping tool in understanding government policies while another 44 people mentioned about its serviceability in getting news.
around Wayanad. Twenty eight people expressed their understandability in government projects and special allowances allocated for them while another twenty four said that radio made them aware about other local information.

As most of these people depend on agriculture, forty four out of sixty say that radio has helped them in agricultural related matters. In this part of the survey, people were allowed to choose multiple options and most of them have opted more than one choice among the given four. Thirty two people agreed that radio has helped them in health related issues and thirty six people say that it helped them to understand the importance of education. Twenty eight quoted its help in cultural and women empowerment while twenty four others mentioned that radio is helping to understand the importance of democratic participation.

Forty people agree that they sing along, when their tribal folk songs are broadcast through radio programmes. Among them, four said they will sing along with the broadcasted programme if they have consumed alcohol while another four said they sing and dance along with the folk songs when they are with friends. Twenty people told that they not sing along with the radio once folk song is played.

The majority of people are of the view that the most influential episodes of Thudichetham program was on anti-drug campaign and other educational related episodes. Forty people like anti-drug campaign and thirty six people like educational related programs. In this part of the survey also, subjects could choose more than one option out of the given four. Twenty four people like programs on herbal medicines and 16 like programs on importance of preserving their traditional cultures. Twenty four people like awareness programs and announcements on development activities.

All the tribal listeners agreed to the statement that tribal programs in radio Mattoli are useful to them and most of them quoted that it is helping them in uplifting their living conditions.

Majority of the people (44 tribal people) are of the view that programs in radio Mattoli are helping in their personality development. But another twelve do not have any comments on this and four think that it is not helping in personality development at all.

Forty eight people think that radio Mattoli is helping them in farming and agricultural related works whereas there also another twelve do not have any comments on this. So far, only four have participated in radio Mattoli programs from these colonies and they all are school children who got chance to present their program through Mattoli school club. Among those fifty six who have not participated yet, few are ready to present a program if they get a chance.

All sixty tribal people who have participated in the survey have unique opinion that these programs are helping them to get information about the developmental activities carried out and all suggest that there should be more programs on tribal languages. Majority of the tribal people do not give feedback after listening to the programs. However, there are twenty four people who try to inform feedback after both these programs Thudichetham and Unarvu. Few wrote letters and other few informed their feedbacks to the presenters directly. There are people who are so moved by the programs that even though they are illiterate, they ask their children to write a feedback letter to the radio station after listening to these programs.

The researcher identified that the reach of Thudichetham was very high among tribals as well as non-tribals. Ninety percent of total population of Wayanad listens to radio Mattoli and about seventy eight percent of the population thinks that Mattoli is helping in tribal development.

Many public places like hotels or public library plays radio Mattoli and Thudichetham is one of the most popular programs which got major listeners in all these plays. The tea stall near government hospital Mananthavady gets crowded at 8pm when Thudichetham goes on air. In most tribal settlements, people used to sing aloud and dance, when their folk songs are presented in Thudichetham. Most tribal men return to a point where they can access to radio by 8pm even if they are at work or engaged in some other activates.

Radio is their only communication medium for old and physically challenged people in Adivasi colonies. They often listen to Thudichetham as well as Unarvu so keenly and give feedbacks to the presenters. Tribal youth are fond of folk songs or film songs played in the program rather than awareness programs. They find it easy listening radio Mattoli as F.M radios are available in basic models of mobile phones.

There are many areas where Thudichetham has made some significant changes in the life of tribal community. It not only broadcasts the need of documents like election identity card and ration card for the tribal people but these presenters along with other volunteers have even taken initiative for accruing these documents to them.

Active participation of tribal people in discussions held in Thudichetham made them speak aloud against the exploitations done by others. Government could take essential steps in procures like fund allocation more accurately as Thudichetham collects opinion from the people and bring it directly in front of concerned authorities. Besides these there have been rapid increases in the number of people consulting hospitals, casting vote once Thudichetham start going on air. Tribals feel proud and happy when they listen to their language or dialect being broadcast. Thudichetham and Unarvu tell them the need of preserving their culture and passing it to next generations.

**Conclusion**

In the survey the researcher has conducted, he used similar questions on same topics in order to validate the responses of the people, but it’s interesting to note that they have strong opinion on their views which was not changing even with twisted questions. They support radio Mattoli and love listening to their own language in community radio.

Form the words of tribal presenters; we could conclude that these programs have a high impact in the tribal community. In the survey also the researcher could get a positive result on the reach as well as the impact of the community radio. Development of alternative medium for indigenous group not only helps in communicating local news and information, but it also helps in improving quality of life of the people. Thus it is proved that the community Radio Mattoli has a wide reach and great impact on
the tribal community. It is also proven that most tribal people think that radio is helping them in their development activities.

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Villamayor y Ernesto Lamas (Management of community and civic radio):


“Tribals In Kerala : A Case Study In Sulthan Bathery Taluk of Waynad District”.

According to the report issued by January 2015, it was determined that daily internet usage time in Turkey was 4 hours 37 minutes. Twitter with a rate of 17%; Google+ is in the third place with a rate of 14%, subsequently there comes Instagram with 12% and report. According to this, it is Facebook taking place on the top among the social networks with a rate of 26%. It is followed by approximately 52% of the population has active social media accounts. Ordering of used social media sites is also included in the report. There are lots of trolls in Twitter as with other internet based media. Twitter is one of the most used social media applications in Turkey. Everyday hundreds of users including ordinary people, journalists, artists or politicians become victims of trolling. Who are these trolls? Why and how they are trolling? What kinds of troll exists in Twitter? This paper examines how and why trolls use Twitter in Turkey to harm other people.

Keywords: Internet Troll, Twitter, Computer Mediated Communication

Introduction
Communication formats is changing due to the technological developments from the past to the present. Face to face interaction is still one of the basic elements of the social system but importance of mediated communication is increasing day by day. Today, computer mediated communication (CMC) allows to communicate us separated in place and time. CMC allows people to create and maintain social contacts in a positive way that would otherwise be nearly impossible. It can also allow users to research the details of others or even to contact them for the purposes of crime, bullying, and so on. “Further, CMC can encourage us to feel a stronger sense of commonality with others than we might experience face to face” (Thurlow et al. 2004: 54).

Researches on CMC focus on social media lately. Social media refers to activities, practices, and behaviors among communities of people who gather online to share information, knowledge, and opinions using conversational media. Conversational media are Web-based applications that make it possible to create and easily transmit content in the form of words, pictures, videos, and audios (Safako and Brake, 2009: 6). Social media uses web-based technologies to turn communication into interactive dialogues. Social media as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, which allows the creation and exchange of user-generated content” (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010: 61).

The nature of the Internet offers a favorable environment to exhibit aggressive behavior with anonymous identity. CMC users can exercise aggression against other real humans, with little risk of being identified or held accountable for their actions (Hardaker, 2010: 238). At the same time, online discussion forums provide a new arena for the enactment of power inequities such as those motivated by sexism, racism, and heterosexism. The relative anonymity of the Internet releases some of the inhibitions of a civil society, resulting in flaming, harassment, and hate speech online (Ess, 1996, cited in, Hering et.al. 2002: 371). The person exhibits behavior such as insulting, deception, harassment in a planned way in online environments is called internet trolls. Trolling performed quite extensively especially in social networks. After some political debates, trolling has become a very popular topic in recent years in Turkey. Due to Turkey’s political and social structure, social networks are quite suitable place for trolling. Before the definition of trolling, it will be useful to give a brief information about the internet and social media usage in Turkey.

We Are Social has published a report, listing the countries with the highest percentage of Internet and social media usage. According to the report issued by January 2015, it was determined that daily internet usage time in Turkey was 4 hours 37 minutes on average. Daily visit time to social media sites was determined to be 2 hours 52 minutes on average. It is said in the report that there are 40 million active social media accounts in Turkey. When compared to the general population, it is set forth that approximately 52% of the population has active social media accounts. Ordering of used social media sites is also included in the report. According to this, it is Facebook taking place on the top among the social networks with a rate of 26%. It is followed by Twitter with a rate of 17%; Google+ is in the third place with a rate of 14%, subsequently there comes Instagram with 12% and

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According to the report, Turkey is the ninth country which most spent time on social media. This data indicate that the use of social media in Turkey is how widespread. Can be seen Turkey on the same list of countries in internet penetration for Twitter. The report shows that 34% of Turkish internet users use actively Twitter and this rate makes Turkey the 8. country among countries with the highest penetration rate for Twitter, the most popular service of social media.

What is Internet Troll?
Despite public popularity of the term of trolling, there is little empirical research on trolling in Turkey. The concept of trolling has gained popularity with daily policy discussions. There is a confusion of what the trolling. Some concepts of the online world such cyber harassment, cyber bullying, flaming etc. are used interchangeably with trolling but it is a concept with different goals and motivations. Distinguishing feature of the trolling from the other online behavioral disorders are the deceptive and “pointless” aspects (Lenhardt, 2012).

Internet troll first appear on early online forum Usenet. Usenet trolls use several different strategies to disrupt discussions online. Online trolling is the practice of behaving in a deceptive, destructive, or disruptive manner in a social setting on the Internet with no apparent instrumental purpose (Buckels et al. 2014: 97). Wikipedia defines a “troll” as “someone who posts inflammatory, extraneous, or off-topic messages in an online community, such as an online discussion forum, chat room, or blog, with the primary intent of provoking readers into an emotional response or of otherwise disrupting normal on-topic discussion.” There are different definitions of trolling. There is some confusion about definitions trolling especially the early studies used interchangeably flaming and trolling although different concept (McCosker, 2013: 205). Hardaker accept that, this characterization may not be effectual for all types of online discussion but she proposed a comprehensive definition based on the analysis of a large CMC corpus:

A troller is a CMC user who constructs the pseudo-identity of sincerely wishing to be part of the group in question, including professing, or conveying ostensibly sincere intentions, but whose real intention(s) is/are to cause disruption and/or to trigger or exacerbate conflict for its own sake. Trolling can be:
(1) Frustrated if users interpret trolling intent, but are not provoked into responding,
(2) Thwarted if users interpret trolling intent, but curtail or neutralise its success,
(3) Failed if users do not interpret trolling intent to troll and are not provoked, or
(4) Successful if users are provoked into responding sincerely.

Finally, users can mock troll. That is, they may undertake behaviour that appears to be trolling, but that actually aims to enhance or increase affect, or group cohesion (Hardaker, 2013: 61).

Trolls want to attract others into a meaningless and wait for the emotional reactions of users. Turner (2005 cited in Hardaker, 2013:69) describe trolling as others into frustratingly useless, circular discussion that is not necessarily overtly argumentative, frustrates users with its pointlessness and circularity. According to the brief definition given above, trolls are quite effectively doing trolling in Turkey. Many reasons such as group clash, digital literacy level and social structure, prepares the ground for trolling.

“Trolls are engaged in intentional, repetitive, and harmful actions”. (Shachaf and Hara, 2010: 363). To understand the behavior of a typical troll will also help how to react. Every harmful action in online world cannot be considered as a trolling behavior. Behaviors such as insulting and threatening can be trolling, but such behaviors can be also other online behavioral disorders too. “For example, someone who threatens to find and harm you is not a troll, they’re a threat... Whereas someone who makes fun of your weight, hair, or whatever, Is not a threat, so just ignore or block them” (Magnanti, 2013). To understand the behavior of a typical troll will also help how to react.

Methods
Twitter is the second large social network in Turkey. The number of Twitter users in Turkey is above 11 million. The enormous size of the Turkish Twitter community and activities made it extremely difficult to identify trolls. Trolling behaviors were not easily tracked on the twitter. Data collection involved online interviews with trolls and online ethnographic observation of trolls on Twitter pages. Some keywords are set for this purpose and 36 troll account is verified. These 36 accounts was communicated to the online meeting request and just 11 has made a positive feedback. Within the framework of semi-structured interview questions the concept of troll were investigated.

Results
It is very hard to identify internet trolls who they are in real life. Dr. Philips who studies trolls, try to find out demographics of the

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4 http://computer.howstuffworks.com/troll1.htm
5 http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet_troll
6 http://sosyalmedya.co/14-maddeyle-turkiyenin-dijital-dunyasi/
trolls but could never verify any information.\textsuperscript{8} Education level, age, sex etc. didn’t ask to interweavers. The information obtained from the observation data about age, sex, education level etc. were ignored.

**General Information**

Interview and observation data has provided some general information about the trolls:

- All interviewers agreed that they are internet trolls.
- Digital literacy levels are higher than normal. They can generate digital content to fool people.
- Most of them closely monitoring the country’s agenda. So they are going to have content to create conflict between different groups.
- They generally have a high level of general culture.
- They spend much longer time on Twitter than the national average. They spend an average of four hours a day.
- They are not asocial. It can be seen from the tweets that how they are social. They have lots of experience about the social life.
- They are generally using the mobile phone to tweet.
- They change the profile picture and the name according to the current developments.

**Types of Trolls**

Although there are some similarities between the troll definitions, there are various types of trolls defined in the literature. As a result of observation on twitter following types of trolls are identified.

- **Haters:** This kind of trolls go straight for insults. They have not got any specific motivation. They attack everyone, regardless who it is, with inflammatory language. These trolls are easy to spot.

- **Funny Trolls:** Their primary purpose is entertainment. They are more cynical and ironic, not offensive. These trolls are easy to spot too. They want to procreate fun situations with tweets.

- **Elite Trolls:** They are trolls who proved themselves. They have specific fans and reputation. They have their own style. They have a troll style based on virtual personality they created. They seem to have knowledge about particular subjects in expert level. Generally, they have a high level of culture. They are technology literates in a high level. Their messages contain intellectual references. They follow the agenda closely. It is hard to understand whether they are troll or not by those who do not know them. A troll classified under this category said “I try to create a content what people like to follow. Content is the king.”

- **Copyist Trolls:** They imitate the elite trolls. Usually they take the style of one specific troll and behave like him or her.

- **Offensive Trolls:** They are trolls attacking and insulting anyone who are contrary to their beliefs and thoughts. Based on the reply obtained from a troll who was asked why he has an offensive attitude, it can be said that they feel themselves satisfied to the extend they use a firm hand against the users. It can be easily understand that they are trolls.

- **Ak Trolls:** This classification was created by country opponents. It defines the people who have an offensive attitude towards those who unquestioningly defend government policies and dissent the government. However; the definition came to a point where it is used for anybody who supports the government. Against such, a troll type can be identified which can be identified as opponent troll. There are also people who carry out all Twitter actions in order to attack those who represent the government or the supporters of such. Recently media gave attention to the twitter and trolls again. “Thousands of social media users who either supported or opposed the ruling Justice and Development Party (AKP) engaged in a “spamming” war, which started April 3 and continued for at least two days, leading Twitter to suspend the accounts of many users who had hundreds of thousands of followers.”\textsuperscript{9}

**Motivations of Trolls**

Following titles can be mentioned when the replies obtained from the trolls who were asked in the interviews why they troll were analyzed;

- **Spare time, Boredom:** it was observed that trolls are active up to 10 hours in a time period in a day. Trolls, most of which are university students stated that they have rather a big time to spend on Twitter. They use Twitter to remove boredom. One of the interviewers replied as follows; “I think I will give up Twitter when I have a job in the future, what I do now is quite purposeless to me.”

- **To draw interest:** A group of trolls answering the questions made expressions stating that they wanted to draw attention of the users thereby making successful trolls and be followed by much more people. “The more you entertain people, the more people will follow you,” this reply indicates that attracting attention is a substantial motivation. Reactions given by targeted person

\textsuperscript{8} http://ethnographymatters.net/blog/2013/01/08/ethnography-and-the-troll-space-workarounds-discipline-jumping-and-ethical-pitfalls-1-of-3/

or group can also be seen as a success criteria of the troll. Another interviewer replied as follows as regards drawing attention; “When I attack a person or a group, I start to wait for interaction messages. It even makes me happy to see the warning that there is interaction.”

**To be a phenomenon:** To draw attention and increase the number of followers mean to be a phenomenon for trolls. Successful trolls have got themselves and their styles through after a while and reached large number of followers. It can be said that it is the final purpose to be a phenomenon for all trolls.

**To have fun:** Another point coming to the forefront from the answers by the trolls negotiated is the fact that trolling is observed as an entertainment type. “I see trolling as an entertainment. I take great pleasure when I reveal out to what extent people can be idiot. I know that others also take pleasure from this. Ridiculous circumstances in which people are laughed may not be that much ridiculous in real life, but it is entertaining on the net.” Another participant said, “I’m not afraid to upset people, I am afraid to bore them. Anger is the short-term but boredom long…”

**To create conflict:** One of the most important motivation sources was determined to be creating conflict among the groups. Turkey is a country where polarization is experienced in many areas such as religion, politics, ethnic identity and sport. Trolls aim to make the groups conflict utilizing such polarization environment. For instance, one of observed trolls retweeted incoming reaction tweets thereby insulting the immigrants in the country all the time. There occurred a conflict among them when the troll and other users who have replied incoming reactions intervened in the incident.

**To gain reputation:** Another important source of motivation for Trolls is can be defined as online reputation. This is why, trolls try to carry out sensational and much-ballyhooed actions. It is viewed as the shortest way of this to target a famous person, a politician, a journalist rather than an ordinary person. One of the interviewers mentioning about his trolling of a journalist in the past highlighted that he has rather increased his reputation and the number of his followers after this action. A troll with the number of followers and reputation becomes person who has reputation in online world.

**To eliminate reputation:** It can also be a reason of motivation for trolls to eliminate reputation just as gaining such. With this in mind, they specify a person or a group that has gained reputation in any area.

**Psychological satisfaction:** In the light of data obtained from the negotiations carried out, it is seen that some of the interviewers gain psychological satisfaction from trolling.

**Conclusion**

One of the goals of the study is to identify the trolls. Trolling can be defined through several common properties. However, it can be said that there are types of trolls very different than each other when the depth of online world is considered. Accordingly, Twitter trolling in Turkey has a complex structure. Determining common characteristics of twitter trolls, this study aims to find out motivation sources of such trolls. Therefore, it will be facilitated to determine the trolls and prevent the damage likely to be created by them. The study was conducted through limited data. The fact that the identities of trolls are uncertain and that they do not respond to negotiation requests restricted the study.

It can be stated that general inclination of Twitter trolls in Turkey is to achieve recognition and increase the number of followers. Anonymity situation ensured by computer mediated interaction facilitates trolling. It was also commonly observed that people with different groups and thinking forms carry out trolling in order to insult each other. When it is considered that different social groups live together, this conflict can be seen as normal. However, trolling actions reaching up to hatred speech can direct even moderate persons towards excessive speech. Interviewees showed that most of the trolls just want to have fun with twitter while interacting with other users. It was found out that trolling was perceived as an entertainment by the trolls and the damages likely to be created by such were not considered.

One of the agreed definition of trolling is describe trolling as the posting of incendiary comments with the intent of provoking others into conflict (Mary, 2007: 22). Especially in group psychology, it is much easier to give emotional responses. Turkey has a very different social structure. Social groups is in a polarization in Turkey especially in recent years. It offers a very suitable environment for trolling. Twitter has become a political battleground in Turkey. Race, identity, religious etc. Everything can become a cause of conflict. Trolls using these sensitivities and having fun with the responds. Based on limited data obtained from research it can be said that, trolling in Turkey in Twitter is performed in accordance to the literature. The outstanding aspect of the Turkish trolling is entertainment by trolls to is to appear as the main motivation.

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Abstract

This study focuses on understanding ‘likes’ on Facebook. It is important to understand this phenomenon by studying how users would react to a post that is posted by a ‘friend’. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to understand what does it mean to ‘like’ a post on Facebook? Is there a preference for a picture post in a status update than the written word? Are there distinctive types of ‘likes’ that can be useful to understand ‘likes’ on Facebook? This is an exploratory study. Data was collected through Depth interviews and observing Facebook profiles. Twelve depth interviews were conducted and thirty nine Facebook profiles’ data was observed from August 2013 to August 2014. The results show that profile pictures get maximum likes followed by status updates and then cover photos. The respondents indicated a pattern in the likes on each post.

Introduction

Social media has become a power house as it provides for a democratic relationship. There is a need to understand this medium and its users on a continuous basis. Every new invention is a boon and a bane. Likewise, social media is one such powerful tool in marketing that is a boon and bane. Social media is clearly a boon because it is cheaper, faster and wider in its reach with added real time interactions. Everything is instant and it is enticing, new and generates excitement: whereas the same social media can be utilised cleverly to mislead masses. The speed at which one can be informed/misinformed, persuaded, impressed and form opinions through social media is scary. One can only repent later if there are no checks and balances.

Literature Review

‘Friend’ (n.d.) as a noun is a person known well to another and regarded with liking, affection, and loyalty; an intimate; an acquaintance or associate; an ally in a fight or cause; supporter; a fellow member of a party, society, etc; a patron or supporter: a friend of the opera; be friends, to be friendly (with); make friends, to become friendly (with). As a verb, ‘friend’ (n.d.) to add (a person) to one’s list of contacts on a social-networking website; befriend.

Facebook glossary of terms, defines friends as people you connect and share with on Facebook.

‘Like’ (n.d.) is used as a noun, verb, and adverb on social media to indicate one’s enjoyment of; agreement with, or interest in. noting or pertaining to a feature used to like specific website content: a Like button.
The glossary of terms on facebook help center includes the words: profile, profile picture, cover photo, and timeline. These key words will be used in this paper. A facebook user can post pictures and comment on his/her profile. A facebook user’s profile is a collection of the photos, stories and experiences that tell his/her story. Timeline is where the user can see his/her posts or posts where he/she has been tagged in, displayed by date. Timeline is also part of the user’s profile. Profile picture is the main photo of the facebook user on his/her profile. The profile picture appears as a thumbnail next to the user’s comments and other activity on Facebook. Cover photo is the large picture at the top of the user’s profile, right above the profile picture.

‘Like’ button feature on facebook was introduced to ‘like’ status updates, photos, shares and comments of friends (Kincaid, 2009). This feature, with an option to the user to like or not like was introduced to express ‘like’ or support the post. The number of ‘likes’ and the identity of each user who has liked the post are visible for each facebook post. When the user clicks the ‘like’ button, that post appears in the user’s newsfeed, and is visible to user’s friends. According to Glossary of terms on facebook, clicking Like is a way to give positive feedback and connect with things you care about.

Every page visited on internet is stored in cookies. Number of ‘click throughs’ has been a metric used to assess ‘reach’ on social media. Facebook ‘likes’ data is richer than ‘click throughs’ as it indicates positive feedback of the users who have liked the post. Definitely, ‘share’ option and ‘comments’ are richer than ‘likes’ since it captures users’ intention more than a ‘like’. It is seen that it is easiest to hit the ‘like’ button for a post or a comment than the other options apart from not doing anything. Could the responses be any different if facebook had a semantic differential scale instead of just a ‘like’ option? It is useful to understand why most users like a post or a comment.

There have been many studies on why users like facebook pages/posts of brands. Common shared values with brand and to keep a check on recent updates/products of a brand as it would appear in news feed once its page has been liked (Pelletier and Horky, 2013); Genuine preference for the brand or brand loyalty towards the brand (Wallace et al., 2014); Satisfactory performance of the brand though not being brand loyalist (Bunker et al., 2013); Interest in discounts offered, freebies, special offers (Murthy et al., 2013); Image Building – Engaging in image development by letting others know that one follows/ prefers a particular brand which would not have been possible to showcase in offline manner. More often such people are concerned about others viewpoint (Bunker et. al, 2013); Brand being promoted by favourite actor/actress (Budhiraja and Mhatre, 2011); Liking a post as it has been liked by one of the friends who shares common belief system (Lipsman et. al, 2012); TV Channels promoting online chat shows/ online videos / content (Budhiraja and Mhatre, 2011) are some of the reasons why people tend to like facebook posts/ pages of brands.

Users also tend to like facebook posts of other users if the post/ content carries similar brand/ personal experience, for social acceptance as the post has been liked by some of the members of the social group one belongs to, or just displaying belongingness - to let them know that one is concerned about others and their lives (Shoenberger and Tandoc, 2014). A study published in Communication Briefings (2013) showed that users who post content on facebook that is humorous, exciting, engaging, and/ or thrilling will receive more likes. It is also evident that, inspiration as content, showcasing brave, real life stories of real persons, increased number of likes. Liking a post as it has been liked by like-minded people in one’s facebook friend list (Lipsman et. al, 2012) is also another reason. Mariani and Mohammed (2014) found that the convenient facebook like button is a social endorsement influencing brand recall and future purchase intentions. Therefore, the studies above establish that a facebook like is an important metric for brands and marketers. Studies have shown different types of fan behaviour on facebook (Wallace et al., 2014).

The engagement of users on facebook is key to success of a like. The engagement of facebook users is through consumption of the social space on facebook. Why do facebook users post pictures and comment on facebook? What generates more likes - profile picture, cover photo, pictures on timeline or text on timeline?

Therefore, research questions for the paper are:
Why does one ‘like’ a profile picture, cover photo or a post on timeline/ status update on facebook?
What gets more ‘likes’: profile picture, cover photo, or post on timeline/ status update? And why?
What are the different types of likes? Are there a standard proportion of types of likes for each post?

Methods
This is an exploratory study to understand ‘likes’ on profile picture, cover page and status update of individual facebook users. Each respondent in this study is a facebook user below 35 years age, who has been active on facebook in the last two years and is a graduate with more than 200 friends on facebook. “Active on facebook” is defined by frequency of posts and time spent on facebook every week. Respondents for this study were recruited if they posted 3 to 4 posts every week and spent an average of 20 minutes every day on facebook.

Methodological triangulation is used to crosscheck information to produce accurate results for certainty in data collection. Data collection was through two methods. Twelve depth interviews were conducted. Thirty nine facebook profiles were monitored for a period of one year from August 2013 to August 2014. The facebook profiles of respondents were monitored through ‘Liken
Tweet’, a facebook profile created to study the posts and likes of friends.

Facebook users with at least 200 facebook friends, below the age of 35 years were invited to volunteer to be respondents. The respondents were invited by sending out inbox requests to friends on facebook and via email to the student group of a post graduate management institute. Thirty nine respondents become friends with Liken Tweet. The thirty nine facebook profiles were accessed to collect data on posts and likes on their profile posts, cover photo posts and status update on timeline from August 2013 to August 2014. Of the twelve respondents who were interviewed, six respondents were not friends on Liken Tweet. Therefore, total of 45 respondents were interviewed and observed (with six of respondents who were both interviewed and profiles monitored on Liken Tweet).

The respondents’ profile is as in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Depth Interviews</th>
<th>Friends on Liken Tweet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Respondents</strong></td>
<td>45*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home maker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate (completed/studying)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of joining facebook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2010</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2013</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of facebook friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upto 1000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000-2000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;2000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data not available</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*6 of the respondents Depth Interviewed were not friends on Liken Tweet

The average age of respondents was 25 years. Most of them were single. Fifty percent of the respondents were students and the rest were employed. All of them were at least undergraduates. There was a fair representation of men and women in the sample. Some of the respondents had blocked their facebook joining date and number of facebook friends through their privacy settings.
Findings

Research Question 1:
Why does one ‘like’ a profile picture, cover photo, or a post on timeline/ status update on Facebook?

A post on Facebook asking users: “What does one indicate through a like on a Facebook post? Acknowledge? Like (verb)? Fan? Love? Advocate? Friend? Share on newsfeed? wants to keep a tab?” got the following responses:

Quid pro quo! You dint like my post, I won’t like yours

All of the above

Approve, have been through that, appreciation, jealousy (since you are trying so hard let me give you one ‘like’)

Approval, personal preference or endorsement

A great discovery for the linguistically challenged

It is for the post-er to decipher

Many likes as a way to get more likes in return and feel great about one’s self.

Say ‘you are connected’ without actually bothering to see/read what the other person has posted

I’m there

I like YOU

Younger crowd may also use it as a gesture of group affiliation reinforcing affiliation and friendship

‘main hu na’ meaning - I am there for you.

From the literature, Facebook likes indicate the following:

Following someone seriously and making presence felt

More likes, more loved / recognized the person is

Respect/Love for the person who has posted

Oblige the person who has posted (friends/ Relatives)

Time pass i.e. like the pictures which comes across once one is logged in

Motivate/ appreciate the person to repeat the activity

Appreciate someone else’s sense of humor

Reciprocity/ Mutual admiration

Way to stay connected to the person/ social belongingness

Like reveals one’s interests to other friends in the friend list

Repeatedly the post comes in notification box

Supporting the cause/ shared content even when the person who has shared is not a close friend or acquaintance

When the content is Unique/ interesting/ Social cause/ emotionally appealing/ cultural issues/ religious issues

Considered a replacement of face to face meeting i.e. when a person is unable to meet an old friend on a regular basis then liking a post of them means the person still follows and is in the loop.

From the depth interviews:

To stay connected to person, to avoid commenting so hit like to show that I like the person, if other person has liked then even I will like, Feel good factor for others

Good videos, interesting ads, good intelligent articles, related to personal likes/ dislikes

Out of courtesy, Reciprocity, Interesting (funny), different or something unusual, news getting married, birthdays, events;

Mandatory/ out of courtesy for close friends/colleagues

Profile picture like; something related to personal taste eg. bikes; related to mood and emotions; marriage; awards; achievements

If I can relate to what is there in status then I would like their status; or if I can emotionally attach myself be it a picture or status.

The reasons for likes on Facebook can be explained using need for association. Liking a post might satisfy safety needs, belonging needs and/or self esteem needs from hierarchy of needs, Maslow (1943). Liking posts on Facebook does not follow the sequence as in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Nain (2013) explain a series of needs that can be used to understand the reasons for liking posts from the findings of this study.

Research Question 2:
What gets more ‘likes’; profile picture, cover photo, or post on timeline/ status update? And why?

Most of the respondents said that profile picture gets more likes compared to cover photo and status updates on timeline. The Table 2 below has a list of types of posts across profile picture, cover photo and status updates. Table 3 shows possible reasons why these posts get likes according to respondents interviewed.
Table 2: Types of posts across profile picture cover photo and status updates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profile Pictures</th>
<th>Cover Photos</th>
<th>Status Updates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal pictures</td>
<td>Personal Events</td>
<td>Personal Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventurous</td>
<td>Professional Events</td>
<td>Professional Achievements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likes/dislikes</td>
<td>Personal tastes</td>
<td>Favourite Brand Posts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posing differently</td>
<td>Likes/Dislikes</td>
<td>Interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Updates</td>
<td>Poster type pictures</td>
<td>Funny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage pictures</td>
<td>Family pictures</td>
<td>Posts with Pictures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling</td>
<td>Personality Linked</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awards</td>
<td>Adventurous</td>
<td>Travel Updates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashionable</td>
<td>Scenic Beauty</td>
<td>Emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Motivational</td>
<td>Knowledgeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Birth</td>
<td>Aspirational</td>
<td>Catchy /precise activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentimental Posts</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Socio Political</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close Friends picture</td>
<td>Long Shot</td>
<td>Controversial Updates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>Colorful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique</td>
<td>Cartoons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet Click</td>
<td>Quotes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funny</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful/Handsome</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Clicks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close-up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenic Beauty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Reasons for liking a post

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Image Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuinely liking me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unexpected picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligated to like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel Good Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Stay Visible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of Boredom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with few friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close Friends/Relatives/People interacting daily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Connect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive/Appealing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Bonding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip Related</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recently like friend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: The types of posts that get maximum likes in descending order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Posts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posing Differently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close Friends/Relatives/People interacting daily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To stay Visible/ connected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likes/Dislikes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuinely liking me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unexpected/something unusual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage Clicks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel Good Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Connect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenic Beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashionable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appealing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenic Beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledgeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Achievements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4a shows types of posts that get maximum likes according to the respondents who were interviewed and their facebook profiles observed through Liken Tweet.

Table 4a: Per cent of likes for types of posts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Posts</th>
<th>Maximum Likes in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Popular</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influencial</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funny</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trivial</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretty</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data from facebook profiles:
The table 5 below shows average posts, standard deviation, average maximum likes and average minimum likes across profile pictures, cover photos and status updates per user. Most of the facebook users get maximum likes for profile pictures, followed by status updates and cover photos. The number of posts by facebook users is highest for status updates followed by profile pictures and cover photos.
Table 5: Number of posts and likes per user across profile picture, cover photo and status update

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Profile pictures per user</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average profile pictures per user%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum likes</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum likes</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likes as a % of friends</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cover photos per user</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average cover photos per user%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum likes</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum likes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likes as a % of friends</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Status updates per user</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of updates per user%</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum likes</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum likes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likes as a % of friends</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question 3

*What are the different types of likes? Are there a standard proportion of types of likes for each post?*

Each of the facebook users interviewed could identify a pattern of likes on posts. Table 6 shows some of the responses of respondents.

Table 6: Generalisable types of likes identified by facebook users across profile picture, cover photo and status update posts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amongst the likes on your facebook posts, can you differentiate between likes on various posts? How?? Is there a pattern of like seen on each post?? Is it the same or different?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocity, Feel good factor, attracted towards me, Genuinely like you, Family friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New picture then batch mates would like more. If post carries intelligent ad/ article then random people would like because of genuine reasons, just to stay connected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a difference in liking pictures and difference in posting ads/articles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same proportion. Reasons are family members; close friends, colleagues; acknowledgment; sort of connect/stay connected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same pattern. It is different in the case when profile picture includes someone else also i.e. tagged photograph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same Proportion (Likes from Close friends, To stay connected)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Yes I feel the proportion is same. 20 % likes are from family (Out of compulsion and love), 50% likes are from friends with whom I talk regularly and the rest 30 % is from the teachers/ mentors

Conclusions
Research Question 1
Why does one ‘like’ a profile picture, cover photo or a post on timeline/ status update on facebook?
The reasons why a facebook user likes a post are exhaustive in this study. A facebook user likes a post to justify need for association through liking emotional and rational posts of facebook profiles/friends. A survey will be carried out to identify clusters and validate the types of likes across hierarchy of need for association.

Research Question 2
What gets more ‘likes’: profile picture, cover photo, or post on timeline/ status update? And why?
From the depth interviews and facebook profiles, it is evident that pictures posts garner more likes than textual posts. Among the profile picture, cover photo and status update, the profile picture catches maximum attention and gets maximum likes, followed by status update pictures, status update texts and then cover photos. The facebook user who posts plays a significant role in eliciting likes from friends on facebook. The reasons and number of likes are mostly based on multiple factors and could be generalisable based on need for association types via emotional and rational content. The responses are an interplay of emotion and reason that could vary with each situation.

Research Question 3
What are the different types of likes? Are there a standard proportion of types of likes for each post?
Each facebook user can identify a pattern among the types of likes across posts. A survey to validate the broad pattern will be carried out. Thus emerging pattern will be useful for marketers to assess the value of likes.

References
Increase your Facebook Likes (2013), Communication Briefings, 32(8),Jun 2013,6-6


Understanding the Passive Listeners of FM Radio Stations in South India

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Abstract
Radio Listeners could be grouped into two types: active and passive ones. The active listeners show a high level of involvement with the radio station. They demonstrate their loyalty towards the station by actively engaging themselves with the station’s activities. Besides listening to the station’s shows regularly, the active listener keeps in touch with the On-air talents by calling and messaging them quite frequently on radio shows. The active listeners are considered to be an asset to any radio station. The radio programmers place a lot of importance to the programming needs of the active listeners. On the other hand, the passive listeners are the ones who tune in to any station on and off. They do not stick to any one station in particular. Their level of engagement with the station is also very less when compared to the active listeners. They may or may not listen to the station on a daily basis. Previous studies have indicated that Station and Frequency recall ability seems to be very abysmal among the passive listeners.

With the much-touted and much delayed Indian Government’s deadline for the third phase of FM radio bidding fast approaching and with market report warnings of declining radio listenership, it becomes imperative to understand the needs and aspirations of the listeners. In this context, the FM Radio programmers face the mammoth task of converting the passive listeners to active listeners, which is crucial for the survival of FM Radio industry in general. While there are listenership and audience reception studies in abundance, there were hardly any scholarly works on passive listeners. Considering the dearth of empirical evidence in this area, this paper using the Uses and Gratifications theory attempts to understand why the once active listeners have turned passive over the years and to examine the reasons for their low/no involvement with the radio stations.

Keywords: Passive listeners, FM Radio listenership, Audience Receptivity

The rapid technological advancements that have taken place off late in the Indian media industry have changed the way we consume media. Radio, being one of the oldest medium is constantly re-inventing itself to stay relevant in these times. Facing severe competition from its glamorous cousin Television, Radio continues to evolve and it thrives amidst speculation that the new media might sound the death-knell for terrestrial radio.

Radio Listeners can be classified into two types: Active Listeners and Passive Listeners. Active Listeners have a very high engagement with the radio station. They listen to the FM radio station for a longer duration on a daily basis. They would be aware of the shows and the Radio Jockeys of the shows. They keep in touch with the station constantly. They would keep in touch with the station by calling and texting the station frequently. They would keep track of all the events and contests conducted by the radio stations and keenly participate in those events. Active listeners would also connect with their fellow listeners and dedicate songs to them. The fellow listeners could also be unknown to them. They may or may not have seen each other. They would’ve connected with them just by hearing their voices and names over radio. While the passive listeners are the ones who may not take the initiative to call or text the radio stations. They would not also be regular listeners of the shows. Their time spent listening to radio station would be very minimal. Previous studies have indicated that Station and Frequency recall ability seems to be very abysmal among the passive listeners. Most of the active listeners would also be part of Radio lovers clubs. Radio Lovers Club would consist of FM Radio fans that would gather and conduct monthly meetings regularly, wherein the listeners discuss various radio shows, about their favourite RJ’s, and the music content of the stations. Radio Lovers Club meetings would also be attended by the Programming Directors (PD’s) of radio stations. PD attaches importance to such meetings as they can get direct feedback from the listeners. It helps them to evaluate their shows and the performance of the RJ’s to a greater extent.

The producers work tirelessly every day to create show promos to catch the attention of the listeners. The listeners also wait eagerly for the refreshed show promos just as they wait for the shows. The creative promos tempt the listener to an extent that the listener would never want to miss the show. Spikes are designed by stations in order to build the TSL and generate buzz and excitement among the listeners. The listeners also receive vouchers and other gift items as gratification from these stations. Much of these contests also take place in the social media platform. Stations were also contented with the instant response that they received from their listeners on the social media platform. FM radio stations were quick to use the social media to their advantage.

With the much-touted and much delayed Indian Government’s deadline for the third phase of FM radio bidding fast approaching and with market report warnings of declining radio listenership, it becomes imperative to understand the needs and aspirations of the listeners. In this context, the FM Radio programmers face the mammoth task of converting the passive listeners to active listeners, which is crucial for the survival of FM Radio industry in general. While there are listenership and audience reception studies in abundance, there was hardly any scholarly work on passive listeners. Considering the dearth of empirical evidence in this area, this paper uses the Uses and Gratifications approach to understanding passive listeners. The study attempts to understand why the once active listeners have turned passive over the years and to examine the reasons for their low/no involvement with the radio stations. Radio Stations in India are showing an increased inclination towards social media like Face book and Twitter to...
promote their content and build connect with its listeners. This paper also seeks to understand why FM radio listenership is on the decline despite its heavy reliance on Social Media.

**Fm Radio and Social Media**

The way Social media is connected to conventional radio is also an interesting phenomenon that is under studied in the Indian context. This integration of new media into the conventional radio is largely seen as a way to “create new forms of audience engagement” and understood by programme managers as a “key strategy for survival.” (Stiernstedt 2015). The technological context. This integration of new media into the conventional radio is largely seen as a way to “create new forms of audience engagement” and understood by programme managers as a “key strategy for survival.” (Stiernstedt 2015). The technological innovations in Radio are also changing the nature of its audiences. Audiences are not mere listeners but are “no longer invisible, silent, and disconnected” (Bonini, 2015). The technological innovations and the integration of social media into radio are encouraging them to become active. Monclus etal (2015) argued that through social media, the radio listeners have discovered a “communication space” and it “serves as a megaphone for listeners.” The medium that was erstwhile known only as a local medium, today, transcends the boundaries to become a ‘glocal’ medium. The social media led to a scenario where the content receivers also emerged as content producers. The stations post their best links and other promos/contests on their social media pages on a daily basis.

As Bonini (2015, 2 ) puts it “ Listeners post comments on social media, where their feelings and opinions are public, searchable, accessible and measurable.” The level of interaction among the listeners and the station increased. The stations could elicit instant feedback from their listeners. Tracking the number of listeners who are following the stations becomes an easy task and Social Media also assists in strengthening their brands. The exposure the links received also increased manifold. This led to some links of RJ s going viral on the social media sites and some local on-air talents shot to fame overnight. The advantages of this local medium metamorphosing into a ‘glocal’ medium have its own merits.

Pinseler (2015) in his study of Radio listeners and Participation observed that most often the voices that are heard on radio are tamed. The programme managers present the voices of the listeners in a pre-defined manner and the selection of the voices to be aired are at their discretion. Voices of the listeners are pre-recorded, edited and tailored to suit the editorial requirements of the show. He calls it “orchestrated impression of listeners speaking their mind on radio programme.” He also adds that social networking sites simplify it by “selectively quoting posts.” Only selective posts posted by the listeners on social networking sites are aired.

Moyo (2012) as cited in Monclus etal (2015) in his study of radio audience concluded that the infusion of internet and other new media technologies into radio has not increased the audience participation to a significant level inspite of integrating audience content into the shows of the radio stations. Further confirming Moyo’s observations, Willens(2013) argued that the integration of internet and mobile phones by radio stations is not “inherently participatory.” The Author adds that the new media technologies while providing opportunities also restrict the “involvement of audiences in content production.”

In their views on audience participation, Monclus et al (2015) observed that gender plays a key role in “understanding the behaviour “ and finds male listeners to be “more participative” when compared with the female listeners. The male listeners actively use social networking sites like Face book to post their views “whether or not solicited by the broadcaster.”

Stiernstedt (2015) in his study of the new working conditions of DJ s in automated setup, points out that the listeners who interact with the radio stations on new media are mostly seen as “informants” and warns that “ information gathering was done without the informants knowledge.” He further notes that the Automated On-air software supports more of ‘format radio’ types that in turn lead to “De-skilling.” In his research on Media and Participation, Carpentier (2011) as cited in Monclus etal (2015) argues that achieving “ideal participatory model is not so easy.” He classified participation into two types “content –related participation” and “decision making participation.” He argues that the User Generated Content is an essential element that provides the “possibility of participation” and it should not be “equated with participation itself.”

Based on the literature review, the researcher set out to explore the study with the following objectives

**Objectives**

To examine the nature of FM radio listenership among passive listeners.

To understand the reasons for passive FM Radio listenership.

To understand the attitude of passive FM radio listeners towards radio & social networking sites.

**Methodology**

A combination of Quantitative and Qualitative techniques (Triangulation Method) was used for this study. Qualitative technique involved the use of personal interviews. 5 FM Radio professionals and 10 passive listeners of commercial radio stations in Mangalore (South India) were interviewed during December 2014. The Professionals interviewed were On-air talents and Show producers. Only the On-Air talents and Show producers were chosen mainly because of their constant interaction with the station’s listeners. The Quantitative Approach involved the use of a survey with the help of a questionnaire. The inputs gathered from the qualitative interviews among the listeners and radio professionals were used to form the survey questionnaire only and are not analysed in this paper.
Purposive Sampling was used to select the sample. Passive listeners were only selected as respondents for the study. These passive listeners also had to be active listeners before. This criterion was set for the respondents. Acquaintances at FM Radio stations helped the researcher to locate the active turned passive listeners, from their databases. 230 such respondents who fulfilled the set criteria were selected as respondents for the survey. The questionnaire was administered to the passive listeners of FM Radio stations in Mangalore (South India) during the month of January and February 2015. Among the collected filled-up questionnaires, only 200 questionnaires were complete and used for this study.

**Data Analysis & Interpretation**

**TABLE 1 Showing distribution of passive listeners by Age and Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE GROUP(yrs)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15- 25</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26- 35</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36- 45</td>
<td>33.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46- 55</td>
<td>28.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GENDER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MALES</th>
<th>FEMALES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicates that the majority of the passive listeners 33.98% belong to the age group of 36 to 45 followed by 28.52% in the age group of 46-55 of which 62% of the respondents were males and 38% were female respondents.

**TABLE 2 Showing Passive Listeners’ Time Spent on Radio Listenership**

Table 2 indicates the time spent listening to radio of the passive listeners. A majority 56.5% of the respondents listen to radio only up to an hour.23.1% of the respondents listen to radio for 1-2 hours.
Table 3 shows the content that the passive listeners would want to listen to on FM Radio stations. 39.4% of the respondents prefer to listen to news. Unfortunately, in India, commercial FM radio stations are currently not being permitted to broadcast news by the Government.

Table 4 Showing Passive Listeners’ Attitude towards FM Radio Stations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>SDA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel the show formats of all the FM Radio stations are alike</td>
<td>47.35</td>
<td>35.23</td>
<td>13.28</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to listen to FM radio promos / Shows on Facebook / Twitter</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>12.55</td>
<td>28.52</td>
<td>51.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I follow the Facebook and Twitter page of my favorite FM Radio Station regularly</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>12.55</td>
<td>31.18</td>
<td>33.84</td>
<td>17.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe Social media page of FM radio stations are created only for the station’s publicity</td>
<td>39.30</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>28.79</td>
<td>15.56</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to interact with my favorite RJ on Facebook / Twitter</td>
<td>12.05</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>28.85</td>
<td>48.04</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer listening to my favorite radio station on the internet</td>
<td>8.84</td>
<td>14.62</td>
<td>28.85</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>27.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to listen to brand mentions during songs</td>
<td>13.57</td>
<td>12.79</td>
<td>23.64</td>
<td>24.03</td>
<td>25.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to have live telephonic calls with the RJs during shows</td>
<td>23.63</td>
<td>38.58</td>
<td>11.81</td>
<td>23.62</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel the callers views are edited before being aired</td>
<td>21.09</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>22.66</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel Jock Talks should have a connection to the tracks that the RJ plays</td>
<td>49.61</td>
<td>27.52</td>
<td>17.05</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio Jockeys of FM Radio are friendly and informal</td>
<td>27.63</td>
<td>46.69</td>
<td>17.12</td>
<td>8.17</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I prefer to form my own image of my favorite RJ (RJs should remain anonymous) 30.20 44.71 18.43 5.49 1.17
There is a lot of repetition of songs in FM Radio these days 37.36 28.30 20.75 9.06 4.53
I prefer RJs to talk after every song 36.26 30.53 22.14 8.40 2.67
FM Radio makes possible communication between people at different levels 30.30 41.67 20.08 5.68 2.27

Table 4 shows the passive listeners attitude towards FM radio stations. A majority of 47.35% of the respondents feel that the shows of all the stations are alike. This indicates that there is lack of content differentiation among stations. 49.61% of the respondents prefer their favourite RJ talk should be connected with the songs that they play. It can be inferred that the on-air automation software selection of songs could also be a reason for this as songs scheduling is done prior to broadcast by Music Managers and not the concerned RJs. Only 3.80% of the respondents prefer to to listen to FM radio promos / Shows on Facebook / Twitter. While only 8.84% of respondents prefer listening to my favorite radio station on the internet. A majority 30.20% of the respondents prefer to form their own image of their favorite RJs’. Until recently, Radio stations never use to expose their RJs to the public and they used to remain anonymous. The listeners form their own images of their favorite RJ and would enjoy that association with voice. The need for generating alternative sources of income by radio stations has forced the RJs to visit malls to conduct events and conduct games where the anonymity of an RJ is lost.

A majority 37.36% of the respondents feel that there is a lot of repetition of songs in radio stations. 43.75% of the respondents ‘agreed’ that the callers views are edited before being aired and are being played out of context according to the editorial needs of the station. Among the passive listeners only 12.05% of the respondents prefer to interact with their favorite RJ on Facebook / Twitter.

Findings and Discussion
The study reveals that audience expect much more than the current entertainment format. The Breakfast show, which is considered to be the flagship show of the station and which largely, determines the success of any station also seems to be having the same format in all the private FM radio stations. It clearly indicates the lack of willingness among the radio programme managers, to take initiatives for show innovations.

Since its inception, all the private FM radio stations followed more or less the same pattern of programming. An active listener of private radio stations in India would not be able to differentiate the content between the radio stations. Most of them follow the 4 hour show format barring a few i.e. Suryan FM in Tamil Nadu, India which has a 1 hour show format. However, the slight variation that one experiences in one hour/ one RJ show format even gets blurred with its content.

Although there is a dearth of innovation in On-air programming, the on-ground content or the activations have evolved very significantly. The increasing number of off-air events conducted by these radio stations in association with several clients stands a testimony to this. One of the reasons for this could be the way the Radio audience measurements are being carried out in India. The IRS (Indian Readership Survey) and also some in-house audience measurements in India are mostly seen as brand recall measurements. The sample size of these rating agencies is also a matter of concern considering the huge Indian populace. The other reason could be commercial interests that these stations have explored over the years as earlier they only had the option of ads for revenue generation.

The commercial consideration of the private FM radio stations in India today has reached a new level. The ads that were once relegated to their space are now peeping into the content of the shows directly as well as indirectly. The so called ‘Content Integrations’/ ‘RJ Mentions’ and Sales led contests can be heard even on prime-time shows. The programming space, which was once considered sacrosanct, is now being adulterated with innumerable mentions of brands. It is made to sound so subtly, which the listener considers it part of the show.

The recent trend of personnel unrelated to programming donning the hats of programming directors could also be one of the reasons for commercialisation. The programme or content policy is mostly over-looked or are re-aligned keeping commercial considerations in mind. Marketing and Sales have taken precedence over programming.

The major chunk of the programming content of any radio station forms the music. The music is also being adulterated by brands in recent times. Song tagging is a new phenomenon where the programming managers are not willing to free even the songs of brands. Branding has also touched the songs in the form of ‘Power Intros’ even to the extent of killing the songs, which used to be a crime in radio until recently.
The selection of songs, which once used to be a time consuming process with AMT (Auditorium Music Testing) is hardly being conducted by radio stations these days in India owing to resource crunch. With the arrival of the air-check mechanism, upon subscription, it lists out the name and the number of spins a particular song gets in other stations. This process helps many stations to blindly follow the same music format of the No 1 station without any effort.

The real strength of the radio once was the unpredictability factor when it came to songs. The listener gets surprised all the time with the line-up of songs that the RJ plays. The radio stations were known for their music and their RJ s. The Jock Talk also always had a connection with the song that the RJ is about to play. The involvement of the listener to such shows was also high, with the ‘theatre of the mind’ at play. The thrilled and excited listener responded to such shows trying to guess the song, that is about to be aired by the RJ. The variety of songs that was played by the radio stations was also a reason for this high listener involvement.

The importance that radio stations assign to activations / on-ground activities requires the RJ s to be present at various malls / high footfall places to host such shows. This practice breaks the anonymity that the RJ of yester years enjoyed. The listener and the RJ used to experience the thrill knowing each other only through each other’s voice. The nature of the aural medium is such that it encourages the listener to form an image in his mind of an RJ through his voice on radio. The listeners are no more entitled to such experiences as they just get to see their RJ s at every other event conducted by the radio stations. The competition for reach among the radio stations has reached an extent where some programming managers are resorting to setting targets for RJ s for the sms es they earn during their shows. This unhealthy practice pressurises the RJ to keep reminding the listeners in every link about the sms es. This repetition about the sms es becomes monotonous, sets in boredom for the listener, and in turn affects the image of the RJ as well as the radio station.

The interviews with the radio professionals reveal that they believe strongly in social media integrations into the traditional radio format. Fan Pages of RJ s are assessed for its likes and comments. However, the findings of the survey with the listeners indicate that social media integration has not done enough to radio stations in terms of converting passive listeners to active ones. SNS integrations into radio has attracted a new generation of young radio listeners. However, for these young radio listeners, faced with a variety of entertainment options, listening to radio is treated as just another leisure activity. Today, the automated on-air software decides the kind of songs that are played by the radio stations. The RJ has no control over the kind of song that gets aired in his show. This disconnects the listener. The listener is unable to experience the real charm of the aural medium, which he cherished once. Basic music knowledge about the song, the name of the composer, the name of the singer, lyricist’s name, and name of the movie/ album were considered essential for an RJ until a few years back. It was also a quality that the RJ s was once too proud to flaunt it on air. The automated on-air software’s no longer necessitates the RJ s to possess such special skills today as the details of the songs are displayed on the linkers of the automated on-air software.

The findings of the study indicate that Repetition of songs on FM Radio stations is yet another concern for their passive listening. In order to attract many new listeners and for converting passive listeners into active ones, FM radio stations will have to take a re-look at their music policy and avoid repetition of songs.

Conclusion
The study conducted among the passive listeners of FM radio stations in South India who were all active listeners until a few years ago reveals that the FM radio show managers would have to reflect upon the current format of shows. It may be noted from the findings of the study that boredom has set in among the listeners especially among the once active listeners, who have turned passive now. The content that one gets to hear irrespective of any FM radio station in India is almost the same. The language, dialect changes from one city to another but the format of the shows largely remains the same. There is very little or no content differentiation at all among the various FM radio stations in South India.

The FM Radio show managers will have to consider the needs and wants of once active turned passive listeners (middle aged and senior listeners) along with a new generation of listeners. There seems to be a tendency to focus only on the needs of new generation listeners who are connected to social networking sites. With the multitude of entertainment options available before the younger generation, radio listening becomes just another leisure activity. While integration of new media technologies like the Social networking sites into radio are inevitable and are a part of the changing dynamics of media, the programme managers should exercise care not to rely on SNS overtly. The needs and aspirations of the listeners who aren’t connected to the internet and other SNS should also be considered while promoting their shows in order to build the listenership. The essence of memorable shows and the importance of creating powerful radio with passion are the need of the hour, which is very crucial for the survival of this magical medium in the future.

References


Understanding the Turkish Cypriot, Self-Employed Petty Entrepreneur Women’s Differences and Unites through Exploring Their Innovative Space Making Processes

Ipek Halim
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Men entrepreneurs’ or traders’ sex has not been made clear in most of the studies. Thus, men themselves as men entrepreneurs and traders become invisible as men. This provides the illusion of genderlessness and creates a myth where entrepreneurs gender are seen as unimportant. Via the illusion of genderlessness, the standards, rules and the motivations are forced to be the same for both genders. Such genderlessness brings limitations for understanding women’s lives and also it prevents the recognition of ‘women’s experience’ and supports the disappearance of women and the ‘others’.

The article argues for the irreducible differences and multiplicity of the knowledge and generates its ‘reality’ from women’s experiences. It argues that by inclusion of women’s experiences the study area and knowledge will expand, improve and change positively (Narayan; Wylie; Maynard and Purvis; Skeggs; Code; Harding). Therefore, it aims to make gender visible.

The study aims to explore Turkish Cypriot, self-employed petty entrepreneur women and integrate their different stories into the illusion of genderless patriarchal mainstream story. The recognition of the petty entrepreneur women can be very useful as they might produce different knowledges which can challenge to disturb the fixed practices, ‘realities’ meanings, values, spaces ...

On the other hand, while aiming to identify why and how petty entrepreneur women are different from the men entrepreneurs, it starts to be more visible to recognize the different stories of the each entrepreneur women. Due to their genders, men and women show differences but petty entrepreneur women’s; class, educational background, age, marital status, having family support or not, usually result in producing many significant differences among them as well. It is important to recognize these differences as they all might affect women’s motivations as well as the ways they practice their businesses. Above all, their different story’s can tell different ‘realities’. Although gender can be a useful category of analysis, it might not be a concrete differentiation system as well. If we define women as a coherent group, women are constructed as a stable, partial, ahistorical, homogenous group, within which the differences between women are forced to reduce and to generalize one type of experience which again produces one/fix example (Moya; Mohanty; Gambl; hooks; Flax). In other words, trying to create a universal women identity can ignore some of their differences. Like many other contemporary feminists, Gamble (2001) argues “… for a pluralist epistemology dedicated to disrupting universalizing patterns of thought…” (p.50). Like Gamble; Mohanty also underlines the importance of recognizing the differences and says that women are constructed within complex interactions, ideological structures and frameworks (1988, p. 34).

Therefore, although gender might be a useful category of analysis, women are so full of differences that it becomes very difficult to be able to form any universal, simple or comfortable categories. Haraway takes our attention to the house of differences. She quotes from Lorde and says that;

Being women together was not enough. We were different. Being gay-girls together was not enough. We were different. Being black together was not enough. We were different. Being black dyke together was not enough. We were different…. It was a while before we came to realize that our place was the very house of difference rather than the security of any one particular difference (138).

Mouffe and Young work on understanding differences as well. They argue that there are not only different women groups who have different practices such as; black or old women but every single individual woman has different experiences throughout their lives. As Mouffe puts it, “it is impossible to speak of the social agent as if we were dealing with a unified homogeneous entity. We have rather to approach it as a plurality, dependent on the various subject positions through which it is constituted within various discursive formations” (1993, 77). That is to say, “…. any individual subject is a play of differences that cannot be comprehended” (Young, 1997, p.310). Such an understanding of the concept of difference forces us to rethink over gender and unity. As McRobbie says “…there must be a redefining an invention of new categories” (1998, p.606). So, then the crucial question is how can one build unities? What is there between Turkish Cypriot self employed petty entrepreneur women that can make them a group? And can gender still be a useful category of analysis or not?

Women Identity is Highly Discursive and Contingent

Allen and Truman (1993), Carter and Cannon (1992) and Kutanis (2002) indicate that depending on the women’s social economic conditions they built different kinds of businesses. In the case of the Turkish Cypriot petty entrepreneur women1, we see many examples how their class and capital cut cross their unity as well. The ones who have limited capital usually use their houses as their work place and their businesses depend on the domestic/tacit knowledge as well as the domestic furniture/objects/ environments. They use their kitchens like a small atelier. Their customers might easily witness their private life. Their products are usually homemade pies, cheese, traditional desserts, and/or embroideries which they have made. Usually they do not have separate offices, employees, office telephones, internet access, or business cards. Mostly, their work is not registered or recognized

1 For this study 35 self employed , petty enterprenuer women have been interviewed many times.
The petty entrepreneur women who belong to the middle or upper class usually had graduated from high school or university. Their businesses fit more into ‘modern’ standards. Their work places are mostly separated from their homes and they usually have employees or assistants. They have fixed working hours. They run restaurants, coffee-shops, holiday villages as well as embroidery, accessory shops, boutiques and beauty salons. They pay their tax and unlike the ones who work at home, they are recognized by the state.

Apart from the social economic conditions age/generations produce some significant differences in the lives and experiences of petty entrepreneur women too. Besides the fact that age might affect the speed and the mobility of the working women, it is also an indicator of different pasts and experiences. It is very much related with having different educational backgrounds and skills along with different daily experiences. As each generation had experienced different educational systems and had practiced different levels of engagements with technology and mass media they show significant differences. For example, many older petty entrepreneur women usually have more practical skills in cooking, sewing and embroidery than the younger ones. However, they have limited or no opportunity to attain general academic knowledge of math, technology, foreign languages or marketing. Due to their limited formal educational background, most of them do not like using tills or are not willing to use computer and internet. Since they mostly do not know how to drive they usually experience transportation problems and they either become dependent on others or need to construct their workplaces at home or alternatively find a place that is close to their home.

It is evident in this study that petty – entrepreneur women’s experiences do not only show differences depending on their class and capital but their age; in other words their own life stories affect their businesses too. Even the reason why they start working are very much connected to their life stories. Whereas some petty entrepreneur women start working as their husbands do not earn enough or passed away; some others start working because they want to. It is interesting to learn that Melek started working as it was her doctor’s recommendation. For her working has been a part of her healing process.

As Mouffe (1993) and Young (1997) argue; a single woman’s life is a play of differences. A woman by marrying, becoming older, pregnant, mother or by divorcing; her life therefore her business get affected and show changes. A woman by marrying or by becoming pregnant or a mother, usually shifts her responsibilities. Her main duty becomes the housework and taking care of her children as well as the husband. I like to remind what Yaşayan had said; After she married her husband allowed her to keep working only if she would not neglect the housework and would not need to go out of home.

By becoming a mother woman usually needs long breaks or stop working. Sevim -who used to sell kitchenware in Girne/city for 6 years-, Güven -who used to run a boutique- and Sibel -who runs a boutique in Çatalköy/village since 2005- point out that they started their businesses after their children reached a certain age. Melek -who for more than 30 years runs an embroidery shop- said that, she passed the responsibility of her shop to her husband for a certain period of time and stayed at home in order to take care of her daughter. These women had experienced shifting identities from working women towards being housewife and becoming mothers and again being working women.

Such life stories show us that the difference is within and between women. Plus to this, there also could be intersections of the differences. A woman can be old, divorced and might come from low class, or be pregnant, disabled, and a mother at the same time. It is very possible that a young woman who belongs to the low class would experience much more oppressions than a young woman who belongs to the upper class. That is to say, there are great varieties of categories which one can simultaneously move and engage.

The differences are embedded in petty entrepreneur women’s life stories and they all are able to cut across their commonality. Their shifting identities construct different responsibilities, networking capacities and different social environments which interplay with their businesses. Like any other group, petty entrepreneur women are so full of differences that it becomes very difficult to be able to form a complete, peaceful category from them.

Gender might be seen as a useful category but it also captures complex set of problems. Thus, gender categorization cannot be a simple one. We need to consider other classifications as well. While studying such a fluid identity of the Turkish Cypriot self-employed petty entrepreneur women one needs to recognize the differences among them and at the same time need to find their commonality. As Mouffe (1993) suggests, such a unity can be fluid, blurred and difficult to read. It needs to be formed by looking at relations, links, ‘articulations’ through which gender is shaped, produced and reproduced (pp.76-78).

After having several meetings and in-depth interviews with 35 petty entrepreneur women who had different age, geographical locations, educational backgrounds and belonged to different classes, their strong connections with the private space and domestic laboring takes attention as their common link. However, while suggesting the private space as a unity builder there is no intention to suggest that women’s unity drives from their limitations or oppressions.

2 A self employed woman who did lace works and later run a boutique.
Turkish Cypriot Women’s Tight Connections with the Private Space

The tight connection between women and private space and the limitations of the Turkish Cypriot women’s visibility and mobility in the public space comes from different sources such as, the education systems, media, cultural structures as well as the historical and political conditions. One of these sources that need to be highlighted is the way how Turkish Cypriots practice the Mediterranean culture. Within this practice women’s unfaithfulness has usually been considered as a shame for the whole family. That is why women’s contact with unrelated men has been discouraged (Josephides, 1988).

Although Mediterranean culture shows different practices in regards to honor and shame dilemma depending on the different historical, social, cultural and geographical characteristics, still we can trace the connection between the family honor and the women’s faithfulness in the contemporary culture. The myths, proverbs during the daily conversations support the idea that every gender has specific space and women should prefer to stay at home. Such as; ‘evinin kadını olmak’, ‘elinin hamuru ile erkek işine karşımamak’; a woman’s place is her home and you should not be interested in a man’s work/business with pastry on your hands.

Within such a culture, women, are asked to limit their mobility, communications and presence. Münise who runs an embroidery shop at the capital city of the North Cyprus says that she never prefers to spend time in front of her shop. She says, “this is my work; I like to be serious at the work. I only concentrate to my work. There is no need to communicate with everyone or smile. I do not want to do anything that could give a rise to any kind of gossips that will suggest I am having affair with men” She also says that “a woman should know how to act in order not to have problems for running a shop...”. Like many other petty entrepreneur women Münise has a restricted area and to cross into this public space only given temporary, conditional tickets. The other very important source that associates women with the private space is related with the near past of the island. Cyprus which is a 9251 km² island on the east of the Mediterranean Sea has a vivid history. It was invaded and ruled by Egyptians, Assyrian, Romans, Byzantines, Phoenicians, Louisianans, Venetians, Ottomans and Britain. The Ottoman Empire ruled the island from 1570 to 1877. From that date until 1960 it was ruled by the British. In 1960 Cyprus became independent and the two major communities of Cyprus, Turkish and Greek Cypriots, built the Republic of Cyprus. However, the conflicts between the two major ethnic groups did not end.

EOKA, the National Organization of Cyprus Fighters which was formed by the Greek Cypriots had a strong wish to unite the island with Greece. In response Turkish Cypriots called for separation of the two ethnic communities and formed TMT. Whereas during some periods because of EOKA or TMT it was very dangerous to travel from one place to the other, during other periods it was strictly forbidden to go out at night. In those days lot’s of people were kidnapped, murdered or had gone missing. As Papakadis quotes from Patrick (46, 119) … during the period of serious ethnic conflict, from 1963 to 1974, 219 Greek Cypriots were killed by Turkish Cypriots and 420 Turkish Cypriots by Greek Cypriots. During the same period around 25,000 Turkish Cypriots (20% of the total Turkish Cypriot population) became refugees along with a few hundred Greek Cypriots. (Papakadis 2005).

In both ethnic community civilian men were becoming ‘freedom fighters’ and many civilians were killed. The conflicts did not occur at one street or at one city; it was all around the island. The displacements due to the conflicts, long military services, and a militarized culture inevitably have strongly affected the ways of livings, especially the division and the allocations of the spaces. Women say that they neither had privacy at the home nor had freedom to get out.

The self- employed petty entrepreneur woman, Seriye says that, they were showing great efforts to help men to succeed in the conflicts. Gökçen and Emine point out that, in 1963 as their houses had a strategic location were, captured by “freedom fighters” (müjçahid). The ones whose houses were in Lefkoşa; at the border line between the Greek and the Turkish Cypriots all had similar experiences. They took care of the freedom fighters in their homes. Gülven says that when their fathers, brothers, husbands had become prisoner of war, they every day cooked and sent food to the camps. Within this discourse ethnic identity became the most important category which does not leave place to think, develop or raise any gender issues.

During all those fiery conflicts the public space was becoming or presented as an uncanny sphere, and it was in a way almost prohibited for the women. As Cockburn (2004) suggests “Military culture excludes women” (107). The ethnic conflict strengthens the military, in other words the patriarchal culture sustains more authority to control women’s mobility (Cockburn). Like Cockburn, 2004, Thompson, (2005) and Peristianis, (2006) suggest that, the ongoing conflicts between the two ethnic groups normalized the invisibility or the voicelessness and the restrict limitations on women. In this discourse while men are defined as active, fighting for their countries, women are symbolized signifiers of reproduction and transformers of the ethnicity who need to be protected (Yuval – Davis and Anthias, 1989). Therefore, the safest place for women was once more hinted and approved to be
home.

In 1974 the island was divided into two. Most of the Turkish Cypriots migrated to the northern part of the island. In 1983 the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus was established. For 30 years there was very limited interaction between two major ethnic communities. After the separation there has been no fiery conflict however still there is no peace. Today, there is a buffer zone and abandoned buildings with bullet marks which still carry the traces of the conflicts.

Still each ethnic group insists on their own rights and the sufferings they experienced by the acts of the other group. The education system (Bryant), museums (Papadakis; Peristianis, and Welz), media (Azgın; Papadakis; HAD Statement) United Nations Peace Keeping Force, obligatory duty for military, UN’s negotiation attempts and many monuments, encourage and teach the ‘enemy’ relations between Greek and Turkish Cypriots. They also keep the fiery conflicts alive in minds and remark the fact that there is no peace.

Cockburn (2004) studies the interlinks between the unsettled peace, militarism and patriarchy in Cyprus and says that, “men control the line-border-, power and ethnic differentiation and military in both sides” (122). Hadjipavlou (2002) supports Cockbrun’s argument and says “the dominance of the ‘national question’ has left no space for Cypriot women… to become involved in their own struggles. She also adds that ‘politics and business life are stamped with masculine cultures’” (112).

For challenging the discourses such as the ‘Cyprus Problem’ which built and rebuilt militarized patriarchal culture in 2002, Hands Across the Divide, an multi ethnic women’s NGO was established. They declared their aims as; “calling for a permanent peace, working for gender equality, and sharing the values of democracy, inclusion and non-violence” (http://www.peacewomen.org/news/Cyprus/newsarchive/hands.html). These women coming from different nationalities, ethnicities and religions found their commonness through their gender identity and started to challenge against the masculine militarist culture.

However, the dominant male culture have not accepted the idea that Greek and Turkish Cypriot women could have similar problems and could form any kind of unity. As such a gender base unity could weaken the strength of the ethnic identity. Cockburn says that “HAD members in North received serious threats from nationalist journalists” (186). There have been strong critics as they were not faithful to their national identity.

As one can assume within such a culture when we look at important forms of the public spaces such as political and economic platforms we see that the representation of women have always been lower than men. In the TRNC there are no women mayors, political party leaders or rectors. Always the MP candidates and the selected MP members have been much less than men. Furthermore, “despite improvements in education, the participation of women in economics… is still very limited…” (Lisaniler, p.8, 2003).

Hadjipavlou (2002), in her study, ‘Women in Cypriot Communities’ conducted group in-depth interviews with Turkish Cypriot women and some Turkish Cypriot participants expressed their experiences by saying that, “there is a sequence in what we should do as women: we go to school, then get married, have kids, get them married and so on. If you don’t behave in the way community wants you to do, then the pressure starts” (126). According to the same research, the majority of Turkish Cypriot women; 83.8%, “…believe that women have more responsibilities in housekeeping than men” (Hadjipavlou, p. 74). Similar to Hadjipavlou’s study, according to Lisaniler’s research 34% Turkish Cypriot women indicated that when women work it gives a rise to many problems in the family. And 40% of women are not looking for work as they are fully occupied with the housework (Lisaniler, p. 9, 2003).

All these studies show that, private space either blocks the public space or produce new burdening structures for women. As many scholars argue, the “shadowy interior” produces double burden for the women who want to get a place in the public space. The working women hold two jobs: reproductive work together with their job/work. In other words, working women are usually squeezed between the dilemma of public and private spaces. This position is mostly suggested as one of the most important reasons for women’s limited successes within the public space. Therefore working from home or combining the spaces is unlike the men entrepreneurs, for women is not a question of preference.

Whereas for men working from home is seen as a symbol of prestige (Eraydın, 1999) for women it generates from the necessities, limitations, from the pressures, from their tight connections with the private space. As with many different cultures within Turkish Cypriot culture it has been difficult for women to detach themselves from gender division of labour and the private space.

Self-employed petty entrepreneur women have been experiencing the effects of the nationalism, ethnic conflicts, division of the island and the Mediterranean culture. They are facing with different sorts of difficulties and many limitations. However, they develop some creative ways for negotiation with all of these restrictions and sanctions. Since the burdens and limitations of the separations of the spaces are experienced by them, they become the ones who search and produce the articulations, make rearrangements and new ways of existences. It is these resistances, negotiations, oppressions and their innovative coping methods that make them different than men and unites them under their gender identity.
Innovative Hybrid Spaces as Unfixed Commonality

As Ardener (1993) puts, “… space defines the people in it…” (3). Due to the disposition of that particular space people usually share similar conditions. Therefore, the people who live within the same boundaries have something common that connects them to each other. However, as it has been indicated before, in the case of the petty entrepreneur women space should not be considered as a simple condition. By recognizing the complex connections between the private space and that space’s duties with the women there is no intention to suggest that women are trapped in the private space or to say that they are victimized. There is also no intention to see space as a fixed, simple concept. In other words, neither gender nor space or their relations are seen as one way or simple.

Self-employed petty entrepreneur women’s commonality rises from their individualistic creative challenges. Their unity can be traced through studying how they develop ways to work while they are strongly attached and associated to the private space and the reproductive work. The ways they find to combine public and private spaces in physical and mental sense produces their unity. They do not make re arrangements within a single space, do not create completely new spaces but rather reproduce complex, in-between, grey, hybrid, discursive, blurred, and overlapping spaces.

Their business practices become examples that subvert the binary opposition structure and their challenges make it possible to consider them as a group. However, their commonality is not always visible, clear and continuous. In their case, not the private space itself but their unique, innovative ways of constructing different models of bridges between the private and the public spaces become their shared space which has multiple faces that are able to build a particular disposition through which their communalities are produced.

Turkish Cypriot self-employed, petty-entrepreneur women have mainly developed 3 different coping models/categories to transfer themselves to the public by manipulating private sphere. 1st category: It can be titled as Extended Private Spaces where the self-employed, petty-entrepreneur women work at home. Produce embroidery or cook. They do their lace work while they wait for lunch to be cooked, or they do knitting after putting their children to bed. Their kitchen or the sitting room acts like an atelier where cooking or textile works are carried out. Their customers are usually neighbours, relatives, local people. As Keziban says, her customers are her friends and after shopping they like to spend time together, have coffee and chat. Thus, all the private spaces’ duties, objects, relations and responsibilities intertwine with the public spaces’.

In the 2nd category, petty-entrepreneur women convert their garage or a room of their home into a working/public space. In this category women entrepreneurs businesses are more open to strangers. Such category can be defined as Public Spaces Attached to the Private. A corridor, a garden, a short path or even a door connects/separates the working area to the private space. Such businesses are usually restaurants, coffeehouses, embroidery, accessory shops, beauty salons and boutiques… For example, Güven, who was running a shop dedicated to sell baby goods, transformed one room of her house into a shop. The room’s window was converted into a door, so instead of having a window which looked over the street she had a door that opened onto the street. In addition to this, as she points out, the inside door which separated the shop from the house was open all the time. She was mostly at home doing her daily duties, such as cleaning or cooking, and when she hears a customer coming into the shop, she would pass onto the shop side of the house. She was in between the spaces and practicing both spaces’ duties. She was both a housewife and a business woman under the same roof.

In the 3rd category, petty-entrepreneur women make the public personal in different ways. They have a shop or a separate working space detached from the house but still somehow they are connected with domesticity. In such Blurred Public Spaces they usually have small kitchens at the back of the shop. Sometimes they prepare coffee or tea, or they may even cook for dinner or all the family members can get together at the shop for lunch. When a customer enters a petty entrepreneur women’s shop s/he can smell that day’s dinner or she could be found helping her kid(s) to complete her/his homework’s. Their work places usually have private spaces’ substances or practices.

3rd category seems to be very different than the other types. According to the other self-employed petty entrepreneur women these women have more capital and mostly have better educational background. Unlike the other groups here the petty entrepreneur women have no physical connections with the private space or that space’s objects. Their work places are completely separated from their homes. They have registered brand names and from time to time use ‘modern’ marketing communication tactics, such as advertising, sales promotions, attending trade shows, related conferences and so on. They usually have many employees, use technology but still, have some connections with their private life. In such Blurred Public Spaces petty entrepreneur women still make the public personal but in this category it is more hardly visible. They are usually forced to bring their families into their business spheres. They become partners with their sons or husbands. Thus, the intimate relations penetrate into their public lives as well. Meltem who has a beauty salon also runs a beautician training Centre. She points out that when she had a male student she also asked her husband to join the courses. The aim was to prevent any unwanted gossips. Later, when she became the general wholesaler of one of the cosmetic brands, she started to attend some seminars and educational programs which held abroad. As she indicates; although there were no complaints from her husband or daughter her mother told her that a ‘good’ wife needs to be with her husband, at home otherwise the marriage may not last. So in one or the other; women must hold on or ask to hold the connection with the home. Like Meltem, Zekiye has preferred to bring
her family into her business too. As she says, it has been 17 years that she has been working with her son at her pancake with spicy meat filling shop. The reason why she works with her son is not only related with expenses it is very much connected with the patriarchal culture where it is not very appropriate for woman to be alone, free, be in contact with men without related man’s surveillance in the public space.

In each category all petty entrepreneur women have different motivations for starting their business; and their educational level, capital, working hours, products, and work places show differences. Although there are many differences in these women and the production of differences becomes complex and continuous, petty entrepreneur women’s multiple challenges against the burden of private space unites them.

Conclusion

The study argues that within the dominant patriarchal ‘reality’ women experiences have been neglected. White male’s knowledge and experiences are considered as true for all. The study insists on recognizing the gender differences and like many other feminist researches it aims to produce different kinds of knowledge. The study suggests that self-employed petty entrepreneur women are able to bring new knowledge based on their gendered experiences. In other words, by recognizing different genders’ advantages, limitations and challenges, makes it possible to read different stories/realities. Therefore, studying petty entrepreneurs’ women does not only tell us who they are and what they are doing but also allows us to expand the fix meanings.

Wome entrepreneurs unlike the men entrepreneurs are more responsible for the domestic work and have tighter connections with the private space. Therefore, they are expected to continue their private space duties along with their businesses. Whereas their connections with the private space built their communality it also becomes their characteristics that differentiate them from the Turkish Cypriot men entrepreneurs. They cook, take care of the children, clean beans, mints… and work at the same time. At their shops there are small kitchens, sink, cooker, even a washing machine. Plus, extra chairs for relatives and friends. Some other petty entrepreneur women use their kitchens or sitting rooms as their displacing and production areas. Even if petty entrepreneur women have good capital and loosen their physical connections with the private space they might need to call their brothers, sons or husbands’ presence or partnership to their work. Otherwise, they could not sustain a comfortable existence in the public space.

Although it is very important to recognize the differences it is also significant to form groups, unities where group identity can be forward and aim to achieve certain goals. Mouffe, Mohanty and Spivak are some of the scholars who suggest the vitality of recognizing the differences but also argue for the necessity of projecting groups/unities. Whereas Mouffe names such a unity as ‘partial fixation’, Mohanty and Spivak call it ‘strategic essentialism’. They argue for temporarily ‘essentialism’ through which nationalities, ethnic groups, minority groups, women, or any oppressed people can form a unity to pose a political demand. While strong differences may exist between the members of these groups, it is sometimes advantageous to bring forward their group identity in order to get recognition and a stronger voice.

These strategies fix the identity by knowing that the fixation cannot last for long and reading the classification in that loose manner helps to recognize the groups and also to be aware of their different expansions. In order to be able to keep that multiplicity and to be able to form a unity between the Turkish Cypriot petty entrepreneur women the paper gives significant importance to ‘partial fixation’ and ‘strategic essentialism’. It looks at the relations, links, ‘articulations’ through which petty entrepreneur women are shaped, produced and reproduced. While studying such ‘articulations’ and aiming to understand such a fluid identity of the Turkish Cypriot self-employed petty entrepreneur women, space and making of a space has become a very significant concept that assists to trace the differences and unities.

All through the study it becomes clearer that gender by itself is not a concrete differentiation system. However, this should not be understood as the end or the decline of feminisms. It can be very complex and difficult to study gender but it allows coming up with many different readings/realities as well. It makes it possible to recognize different oppressions and to be able to develop different political challenges against them. Plus, by aiming to understand how unities can be constructed one can also recognize many different conditions and platforms where others can come together. Communality does not only refer to neighbourhood, ethnicity or race. Today identification of as a member of a community can occur in many different ways. In other words, such a practice is an endlessly re-visitatable political process.

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Social Media and the Dissemination of Information at the Grassroots: Power and Challenge

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Abstract
The fundamental right to information has global and national concerns and provisions because it is considered paramount and essential to people’s participation in democratic governance. The media is the tool through which this right is attained. In Nigeria, the right to information (access and sharing) suffers serious setback especially under the military administrations. With return to civil democratic rule, a little shift was witnessed through the establishment of more private owned media organizations. Still with this development, access to media and information is restricted to less significant percentage of the populace. With the advent of the social media, more people currently have more access to certain information and can even share it with more diverse members of the society. Based on the Democratic Participant Media and Mediamorphosis theories, this paper reviews secondary data and examines how the pressure and the need for information dissemination at the grassroots prompted the quick transformation and shift brought about in Nigeria where citizens regardless of their political, educational and economic status become more active in sourcing and sharing information via face book, Twitter, etc. This development made the conventional media to strive to change their pattern and the government to revisit its attitude and become more liberal in information dissemination. However, with the role played by Social Media in accessing and sharing information, Internet access and affordability is still low among citizens. Considering the power and relevance of the social media and the level of Internet access in the country, the paper recommends for improvement in Internet access and affordability to citizens to enable people participate actively in accessing and sharing information for a better democratic governance.

Keywords: Social Media, Information Dissemination, Power

Introduction
Information has to do with facts and details about something. Communication as seen by Hasan (2013) is a process of sharing or exchanging ideas, information, knowledge, attitude, or feelings among two or more persons through certain signs and symbols. Communication is a universal phenomenon, the relevance and importance of which cannot be over emphasized. Freedom to secure information is one of the fundamental human rights that is also enshrined in the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria section 39(1).

Every person shall be entitled to freedom of expression, including freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information without interference.

Generally information/communication is important to human beings at individual, organizational and societal level. It is indeed a critical requirement for social existence and a resource required in exchanging and sharing ideas and thoughts among people which in turn leads to development. It also provides easy way for the propagation of learning and invention. It helps in the protection, preservation and dissemination of cultural heritage and maintenance of law and order. Important life skills like critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, conflict resolution, team building etc are only learnt via communication (Pearson, et al 2003).

Information and communication generally is one of the indispensable ingredients in democracy. It is through communication voters are educated on the electoral process, political advertisements are made; special jingles and programmes are used to inform the electorate on candidates’ manifestos among others. This may be why different media of communication are evolved and used.

Mass Media
The media according to Baran (2009) is a technology that carries messages to a large number of people as newspaper carries printed word and radio conveys the sound of music and news just like television/film conveys both sound and vision. It is subdivided into traditional and new media. The traditional media consists of Broadcast (Radio/Television/film) and print (newspaper, magazine, books etc). The new media otherwise called Internet is the focus of the paper.

All these forms of media function properly to gather, process and disseminate information/messages of different sorts to their respective audience that are scattered, heterogeneous and anonymous. They educate, enlighten, socialize, mobilize and correlate.

Social Media
This refers to the form of media technology brought about as a result of the information super highway that delivers all kinds of electronic services: sound and video, text, data to household and business (Hasan, 2013). Social media is a means of interacting among people in which they create, share and exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks. It is an internet based application that is built on the ideological and technological foundations that allow the creation and exchange of user generated content (Kaplan, 2012 in Balarabe, 2014).
The impact of the more sophisticated, more glamorous and more “powerful” electronic media (Hasan, 2013) is gradually transforming society, thus, making more complex compared to the traditional media system. The introduction of films helps to convey contemporary messages visually; radio programming sends messages to farmers, rural dwellers and civil servants more efficiently. And now the new media crowns it all by making it more individual, on the spot and efficient especially doing away with censoring “bottlenecks” (Usman, 2014). The use of the internet (via personal computers) by individuals both at home and work places made people (having the skills) to use computer in their daily life activities. The old message for large, heterogeneous, anonymous and scattered audience is gradually replaced by people connecting themselves via network of computers to share information and ideas with less/minimum official interference.

This worldwide accessible Internet consists of or houses different domestic, academic, government and business networks providing information and services (e-mail, online chat, file transfer etc).

**Features of the Internet as Social Media**
The social or new media is unique in its features. Akinfeleye (2011) citing Professor Martin Iruke of the Georgia University USA described the Internet as:

- a global network of computers ….a worldwide electronic computer system using a common means of linking hardware and transmitting digital information;… a country of people using a common electronic communication technology … a globally distributed system of electronic communication.

According to him, features of this medium include;
- A twenty – four hour nonstop global electronic form of communication
- An online library and international communication system
- A business and corporate global communication medium
- A distance and remote education system and
- A multimedia and commercial delivery communication system for news and entertainment.

Again the social media articulates a list of other users with who they share a connection. More so, individuals and communities share, co-create and modify user generated content, construct a public or semi public profile within a bounded system. Users of the social media also traverse their lists of connections and those made by others within the system. It is also free of conventional media control.

**Forms of the Social Media**
Users of the social media the world over have wide range of options to choose and use from the social media. Among the commonly used forms include:

- **Facebook**: This is a free social networking website which allows registered users to create profiles, upload photos and videos, send and receive messages thereby remaining connected with friends, families across the world. It is the leading form of social media used in Nigeria enjoyed by even the least literate individuals.

- **Twitter**: This is another social network and micro blogging service that allows users to send and receive/read short character messages known as “Tweets”.

- **WhatsApp Messenger**: It is a cross-platform mobile messaging application that allows a person to exchange messages free of any SMS charge. This service is available and accessible via iphone, Blackberry, Android, windows phones and Nokia.

- **YouTube**: This is used for posting videos especially in marketing business or clients.

- **Blog or otherwise called web blog**: is an informational or discussion site on the worldwide web. It consists of posts (discrete entries) where the most recent appears first.

- **Google+**: It consists of group of friends/colleagues who are interested in thought leadership and technology and not purely friends or business contacts (as in facebook or LinkedIn respectively).

- **LinkedIn**: This allows registered users to maintain a list of contact details of people with whom they share some level of relationship or connections. The users can also invite other people (site users or not) to be in the connection.

- **Instagram**: It is one of the ruling visual images and photos platform that offers stylized filters for photographs and images. These among other forms of the social media are used by people to post, share, comment, invite, upload, tweet etc different kinds of information, ideas and opinions on different topical issues especially during the political/democratic dispensation.

**Theoretical Framework**
This paper is based on two theories: Mediamorphosis and Democratic Participants Media Theories. According to Fidler (1997), Mediamorphosis refers to the transformation of communication media as a result of the interplay of perceived needs, competitive
and political pressures, and social and technological innovations. To him, the new media grow out of the metamorphosis of the traditional media. This emergence is as a result of the perceived inadequacies and denials of opportunities to the citizens and the pressing need of their participation in democracy. Thus the new media become a solace for them to satisfy their information and communication urge.

The Democratic Participant Media theory, (McQuail, 1987) assumes that individual citizens and minority groups should have right of access and right to communicate through the media according to their determination of need, and that media organization and content should not be subject to centralized state or political bureaucratic control especially in democracy where popular participation is necessary for good governance.

These two theories are relevant to this paper because the perceived needs of people are not satisfied by the media and denial of access to the media in Nigerian democracy necessity the popular acceptance and resort to utilize the social media in having and sharing information which a necessary catalyst to participation in democracy.

Information Disseminated Via Social Media
The social media as a platform is used to disseminate different kind of information and issues. Those among others include:

**News:** Daily events and occurrences in the society especially political developments are quickly passed/shared among people via social media. This helps to close the wide information gap left by conventional government owned media especially concerning the opposition parties.

**Commentaries:** Peoples’ comments on issues unfolding in the society; political activities, political party candidates, government performance and the likes are discussed freely and people giving their opinions on the social media. This greatly facilitates political discourse and opinion sharing among people.

**Rejoinders:** People especially those having no or those denied access to the conventional media find solace in the social media as they use it to make rejoinders and pass their views on issues they heard from political leaders or candidates. In fact, the one way flow or top - down flow of information that characterized the conventional media in Nigeria was broken where the social media takes the lead in the bottom – up flow thus truth and falsehood were allowed to grapple (Egbon 1996).

**Analysis:** The social media was also used as a forum for issue analysis. Issues of governance, politics, health, and other social issues having direct bearing on the people and country were freely analyzed based on the understanding of the analysts.

**Videos/Photos:** Real videos and photos of some scenarios, activities and topical events are posted/shared among people thus checking the impact of self censored media.

**Announcements:** The social media also greatly assisted in public announcements/publicity of social issues: Wedding and naming ceremonies, parties, symposia, conferences and political rallies among others.

Other information sent via social media includes: obituaries, congratulatory messages, condolences, goodwill messages, reminders and so on.

The social media has actually facilitated the dissemination of information at the grassroots owing to its availability and accessibility to most of the people. Unlike the conventional media in which participation may be limited to a few, people can participate in discourse through the social media in one way or another depending on their interest.

Power of the Social Media
Media generally is considered to be powerful due to the trust and confidence audience have in it. Media command pervasive influence on its audience (Bitner, 1987). Neumann (1973) believes that the mass media can have a significant effect on a large number of people. The social media is currently building its strength on this global power phenomenon to impact on the people in all facets of life. Its power and impact is seen in the growth of world network population from millions to billions since the rise of the Internet in the early 1990s. Social media has become a fact of life for Civil Society the world over involving many actors: regular citizens, activists, Non-Governmental Organizations etc.

With the social media, communication landscape is fast becoming denser, more complex, more participatory, and networked population is gaining greater access to information and enhanced ability to undertake collective action as demonstrated in Manila during the 2001 impeachment trial of Philippine President Joseph Estrada where a protest was arranged via text messages reading: “Go 2 EDSA, wear blk”. Similar incidence also happened in Spain where the Spanish Prime Minister Jose Maria Aznar was ousted, (Shirky, 2011). In fact, social media serves as the coordinating tool for almost all the world’s political movements because it increases freedom and poster participation. Its power is demonstrated in uprising that occurred in Egypt, Syria and the likes. Discussing the power of the social media, Hasan (2013) views it especially through the following use angles:
The worldwide web – The Internet has facilitated the access to sharing of information to millions of people through search engines like Google. Information is now decentralized and more available. The power to access information is key to democratic participation and societal development.

Remote access - The power of the social media is also easily discerned due to its remote accessibility. Many people that are remotely connected via the Internet world over can work collaboratively from home and office: share information, audit accounts, conduct business etc.

Streaming media - Internet connected devices like the computer are used to access online media (broadcast and print) just like receivers. This makes it easy to listen, view, read or review media content before and after scheduled time.

File sharing – is another area showcasing real power of the social media. Files through the computer can be shared (e-mailed) to many partners, colleagues etc as attachments. They subsequently download and use it. Through these software products, publications, office and business documents are all shared.

Collaboration among different individuals, groups and corporate organizations is another power of the social media. Collaboration is easier and cheaper via the Internet’s wide coverage. You can chat through chat rooms or channels or use instant messaging that is quicker and more convenient.

E-mail is among the common usage of the internet that shows its power. Electronic mails/texts are sent between individuals and corporate groups easily and efficiently. One can send even a single mail to many recipients at a time.

The importance or power of the social media cannot be over emphasized. Previously people relied on the conventional media, currently there is sharp transformation seen with the use of the computers that could be termed as radical shift especially in terms of control of information. This transformation is even at the verge of clarity that the distinction between mass communication and interpersonal communication.

The power of the new media can also be seen in the way it alters the meaning of geographic distance, allowing for the increase in the volume of communication, opportunity for interactive communication and allowing different forms of communication separated before to overlap and interconnect.

Challenges of the Social Media
The social media though powerful and useful have posed some challenges on the users and the society. Among the common challenges is the credibility of sources. Information on the social media can be posted by any person. Nowadays people with Internet connection have turned into journalists. Thus, it becomes difficult to establish source credibility concerning information found on the social media forums.

The credibility and trust worthiness of the source (individuals, organizations causes regular trafficking on the Internet (James et’al 2009). Due to this freedom and opportunity created by the social media (the coverage and openness), uprising in some countries (Egypt) and toppling of rulers (Philippines, Spain) occurred. With the use of mobile phones, people create fictional identity (facebook name) and post information and visuals with long lasting damages on the net.

Fate of personal privacy is another challenge of the social media. In an environment within which diverse type of information can be disseminated, personal privacy could not be guaranteed.

Authenticity of content is another vexing challenge. With source’s credibility doubted, the authenticity of the content may also be doubted. How true are facts discussed? True facts could be distorted on the net.

There is also security concern posed by the social media especially considering the increase in the occurrences and number of cyber crimes. Political messages initiated by insurgents/terrorists can be spread via social media.

Sense of diversity/complexity is another challenge paused by the new media. The traditional media provides some homogenizing trend previously to all age categories. Young and old shared experience reflecting on accepted social patterns, but today’s social media cleared this veil and provide more individualistic vogue alien cultures. This partly led to sexual objectification of women and sexualization of media images having consequential effect of sexual revolution.

Displacement of rugged and reliable media sources (Newspapers, magazines, TV shows) is being displaced. In fact, desk top computers suffer similar impact. People spend less time on conventional media and concentrate on the social media, (Pogue, 2015).
There is also the shake weight challenge paused by the social media according to Eisenberg (2013). This form of media and mobile revolution is about data, real time velocity and variety of data sometimes unstructured (pictures, videos, sentimental analyses, etc) from desperate sources which causes indigestion and confusion. Sorting out the information and acting on it so as to meet up the demands of the public an organization serves is actually a concern.

On the part of the users, Internet access is the major challenge. In Nigeria, some people avoid the social media because they do not have access to the internet. In some areas, no internet access is available thereby making it impossible for them to use the social media.

The users also may find it difficult to retrieve information from the social media especially where not downloaded and saved. This affects subsequent storage and reference.

Misuse of the forms of social media is another challenge. Users of the social media especially politicians have abused the networks by posting insults and attacking personalities in most cases contrary to the constitutional provisions. Again, its use in pornographic postings pause a serious challenge to moral values.

Conclusion
The social media is currently an indispensable tool and companion to the people. Through it, accessing and sharing information to many people have become easier. It has also greatly assisted people to publicize their opinions and participate in social issues without hindrances. However, the powers of the media forms have led to over throwing powerful leaders. Currently, some people to abuse it by posting some pornographic and anti-cultural issues.

Recommendation
Despite the powers of the social media, access to it still remains a mirage in some communities. To minimize or check this challenge facing the social media, there is the need for providing Internet access to all nooks and crannies of the Nigerian nation. People need to be reoriented to understand the implication of posting unnecessary videos or information on the net in order to check some of its negative consequences.

Media regulatory agencies like National Broadcasting Commission (NBC), Broadcasting Organization of Nigeria (BON) and other international regulatory agencies should devise means of checking and censoring content of the social media.

Media professionals need to brainstorm so as to come with possible means of minimizing the negative effects of the social media

Undue self and official censorship bedeviling traditional government owned media should be revisited to enable them satisfy the need of their audience so as to check the solace people find in the new media.

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Visual Arts, Activism, and New Media

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Abstract

The Olympia-Rafah Solidarity Mural bridges the distance of space and culture as it presents a symbolic mediation of the Israel-Palestine conflict. The mural is located far from the conflict region, standing in the hometown of Rachel Corrie, an activist who died defending a Palestinian home from Israeli demolition. The mural is rich in visual symbol, as more than 150 individuals or organizations have a presence in the imagery. Each symbol reflects the values and concerns of the participating group; some of these are not directly concerned with the Israel-Palestine controversy, yet the message is coherent and unified. The mural’s outreach is greatly extended by its presence online, where each detailed entry is explained and separately viewed. This paper explores how the mural’s varied symbols provide a sense of Burkean identification, common pieties and shared substance amongst the activists crossing both distance and diversity.

Introduction

In a small parking lot at the corner of State and Capital Streets in downtown Olympia, Washington, the wall of a modest brick building is covered with a mural of a gnarled olive tree with dozens of large leaves—each with a distinctive image. Behind the tree large waves are crashing through a barrier wall of cement blocks. This four thousand square foot mural is a cooperative project of the Rachel Corrie Foundation for Peace and Justice and Art Forces, previously known as Break the Silence Media and Art Project. Over one hundred and fifty diverse organizations and individuals are represented on the wall as participants in the Olympia-Rafah Solidarity Mural Project. This multimedia art project has an additional presence online designed to extend the outreach of the activists who developed the mural. The mural honors the work of a hometown martyr-hero: Rachel Corrie. At the same time the mural provides a place of intersection and unification for local, national and international participants ranging from the Buddhist Temple on Bainbridge Island and the Committee in Solidarity with the People of El Salvador to Books to Prisoners and the Pomo Indians of Point Arena California. About one-third of the listed participants are directly concerned with Israel-Palestine in some way, providing a solid foundation directing attention to the issue that was at the center of Corrie’s activism. The remaining two-thirds are thematically interwoven through visual symbols in the mural and thematic explanations on the website so the message of the mural is coherent and unified. The project website affirms: “The mural tells the tale of two cities, Olympia and Rafah, linked through tragedy and resilience. It is the tale of people coming together across a wide range of borders, using advancements in technology to bridge physical and financial distance and to include the artwork of Palestinians, who are forbidden to travel (http://olympiarafahmural.org/about-us/mission-goals/).” This paper explores how the mural’s varied symbols and accompanying online explanations provide a sense of Burkean identification, common pieties and shared substance amongst the activists crossing both distance and diversity.

In March 2003, while the Israeli government was still directly occupying Gaza, volunteers with the International Solidarity Movement were protesting the planned demolition of several Palestinian homes in Rafah, Gaza. While she was trying to protect the home of a physician, an Israeli military bulldozer crushed Rachel Corrie; the driver of the Caterpillar D9 kept advancing even though the 23-year-old peace activist with a megaphone and a fluorescent vest was in his path. She died of massive trauma several minutes later. Both the Israeli Defence Force and the Israeli High Court of Appeal cleared the bulldozer driver of any wrong doing, asserting that he could not see Rachel. Eyewitnesses from the activist group claimed that she was clearly visible to the driver until the earth crumbled beneath her as he progressed. Her death brought her martyr status. A martyr’s funeral with a mock coffin was held in Gaza City. Vernacular memorials were set up in Olympia, at her alma mater—Evergreen State College, and in San Francisco. In Gaza graffiti celebrated her work. Three years after her death the Olympia-Rafah Solidarity Mural Project began; the mural, which includes an image of Rachel as a child on the Rachel Corrie Foundation leaf, was formally dedicated 8 May 2010.
Cyber-Activism

The mural was designed as an interdisciplinary, interactive, multimedia project. It exists on the wall in Olympia, but it also exists online. The website extends the reach of the mural to people who will never visit that small parking lot. It also provides viewers with extensive and varied background information to deepen their understanding of the mural. The home page presents the entire mural as it now exists; the two hands reaching to touch reminiscent of Michelangelo’s Adam and God hands, but here painted by noted Palestinian artist Suleiman Mansour, are no longer visible on the wall. The leaves and other notable contributions of local, national and international participants are represented with individual linked images on the home page, enabling viewers to connect immediately with background information on a selected image. What is found at each of those pages varies. Some sites include links to videos related to projects or issue concerns of the participant. Occasionally there are transcripts of interviews or news reports. Frequently there are links to the home page of the group itself. Sometimes there is an explanation of the images on the leaf, but often that understanding must be drawn from the varied background information. There is a related “Call the Wall” feature. Each leaf or other key element has been assigned a telephone extension number. Individuals can call that extension and hear about the art element and/or the organization. This gives the viewer a further sense of involvement as one hears a participant voice sharing their concerns; the mural is no longer simply flat images on a wall or words and images on a computer screen: there are real people connected to that wall and the caller can hear them. This program is currently being updated, so not all of the audio links are functioning. Nonetheless, the call in feature adds valuable richness to the project, easing identification between the mural participants and the viewers.
Identification and Shared Substance

Burke (1969) explains identification as the foundation of persuasion. He contends that while persons or groups may not be identical, “as long as their interests are joined, A is identified with B” (p.20). This identification may be grounded in “some principle they share in common” (p.21), so two people may identify on one level and maintain their uniqueness and separation on another. An individual’s identity is thus “its uniqueness as an entity in itself and by itself” (p. 21), but “in acting together” the paired individuals “have common sensations, concepts, images, ideas, attitudes that make them consubstantial” (p. 21). Persuasion relies on diverse groups or people acknowledging (whether correctly or incorrectly), that they share interests and concerns, that their motives have some common grounding, that they in some ways share substance.

The Olympia-Rafah Mural could be seen as an exercise in demonstrating the shared substance of quite disparate activist groups, more specifically establishing a series of connections between Palestinian activism and other activist causes. Much of the mural works to establish essential elements of Palestinian identity. The dominant motif, the olive tree with its leaves, is a core symbol for Palestinians. The trees are noted for their age and endurance in the land; the trees could be understood as the quintessential example of Palestinian sumud, resistance and survival in the land. The oil produced from their fruit is a basic commodity and central to diet. The tree itself represents the Palestinian life and survival. All of the leaves on the mural will thus establish in some way their relationship to that tree. Many of the leaves in image 2 delineate elements of Palestinian identity. Some, like the dancer holding a woven platter and wearing a traditional village dress, focus on heritage. The leaf above it provides an artist’s installation depicting a woman, again in traditional dress, surrounded by the flat bread that is eaten daily. The very complex leaf below the window includes core symbols of Palestinian heritage: the white horse, the olive tree as a person, a young girl reading a book banned by the Israeli authorities, Suleiman Mansour’s well known resistance image of the peasant bearing Jerusalem on his back, young dancers in traditional dress, a bird in the colors of the Palestinian flag. A nearby leaf presents an oft quoted Darwish resistance poem. Other leaves in this image provide contemporary culture: hiphop and soccer. Still others portray occupation oppression: checkpoints and the Gaza siege. Palestinian identity is set as rooted in the past, rich in culture, suffering and resisting in the present, with commitment to the land and to the children of the future.

The leaves in images 3 and 4 explicitly establish shared substance between Israeli Jews and Palestinians. Image 3, the leaf of the International Jewish Anti-Zionist Network, is a carefully structured visual argument asserting similar sufferings have been experienced by both groups. Half of the leaf is a photograph of Jewish prisoners in 1944 Warsaw; the other half is Palestinian mourners in 2009 Gaza. The images focus on the faces, arms, and hands of the sufferers. Both photographs are rendered in a muted leaf-like green tones. The two halves of the leaf are connected by the phrase associated with reaction to the Holocaust—never again. Here, however, the sponsoring organization adds two words “for anyone,” thus asserting visually and verbally that the sufferings of both groups are similar, and implying that the horrors experienced by one group should not be used to justify further horrors for the other. The experience of trauma is shared across time and ethnicity.

closed lips, and half-shadowed faces. The Palestinian wears a headscarf and a small image of the Palestinian flag is painted on her cheek. The Israeli Jew wears a Star of David earring, while her cheek bears the slogan, “I refuse to occupy.” Each woman’s face is presented in the colors of her national flag. The visual asserts shared aspirations: a hope for two nations. In that context, the shared “hope” is


**Pieties: Caring For Children, Peace, and Land**


**Pieties: Activism and Social Justice**

Mapping Conditions

Shared substance also is found in unexpected juxtapositions and unfamiliar form applications. On the mural this occurs with mapping. The naïve expectation that a map is a simple representation of some geographic truth may have subsided, but people can still be startled by mapping manipulation that confronts them with an unexpected reality. Maps rely on commonly accepted, highly formalized visual cues: color, size, symbolic references for rivers, borders, towns, and the like. Map outlines can be a marker of identity, both indicating a place by its recognizable shape, and sometimes staking ownership of that space by the details of the shape. The Media Island International leaf uses the outlines of Washington State and Israel/Palestine as figurative shirt cuffs; these cuffs are simple identity markers for two groups of people who are reaching across the world through the media to interact “on critical issues at strategic times” (http://olympiarafahmural.org/2010/03/30/media-island/). Two leaves in the mural go further, with less obvious visuals, using mapping traditions to startle the audience and argue incongruous truths. The first, image 7, in bright red and white on grey compares two maps each of the USA and Israel/Palestine over a progression of time. In each case the earlier map, respectively 1775 and 1946, is predominantly red with only small areas of white, while the second maps, representing 2005, are almost entirely white with splatters of red. The artist, Gail Tremblay, is a member of the Onandaga and Micmac nations. Her maps visually portray the transformation of land possession under conditions of occupation—as the Native American groups lost land to European settlers and were forced into widely separated reservations, and as the Palestinians continue to be removed from the land they had possessed and sequestered in small detached areas. Whichever history the viewer comes to the mural understanding, the juxtaposition is surprising. The disproportionate size (with the countries represented as of similar size) seems incongruous. The reason for the color shift is not visually explained, but consideration of the dates of the first map set clarifies that this is a study of comparative land dispossession—colonialism is attached to each case. The red blood drop like splatters of the separated populations visually implies the violent character of that dispossession. The maps present an unexpected visual analogy, an example of what Kenneth Burke (1984) terms a “perspective by incongruity” (p. 102-103). The juxtapositions cut across our classifications based on prior knowledge and personal interest. Such seemingly inappropriate connections bring new knowledge, new understanding (Burke, 1984, pp. 102-103).

Image 7. Mural leaf by Gail Tremblay. Photo by Catherine Collins.

Image 8 may not be immediately recognized as a map. This image looks like a butterfly in soft blue, white, yellow and brown, with detailed spot patterns scattered across the wings. Closer examination reveals the image as a map of the territory of the West Bank with the Israeli settlement blocs, areas of Palestinian control, and regions of Israeli control outside the blocs presented in different colors. It is one of the quintessential maps depicting the clear separation of Palestinian controlled areas—a map sometimes used to argue for the impossibility of two-state solution. What seems at first like an airy butterfly, becomes a closer inspection only an illusion of beauty. The reverse doubling of the map used to create the butterfly effect, also turns the image into something closely resembling a Rorschach inkblot, and that would seem to be what Sinnekrot wants his audience to recognize. The doubled map/butterfly is a test of perception asking the viewer whether they see this map as a thing of beauty or a deceptive creature of stone and steel. Is it a butterfly of hope and renewal, or a butterfly that feeds on death? This image again defies the usual classification boundaries as it is examined. It challenges the viewer with incongruity.

Breaking Barriers


Conclusion: Unity in Diversity

What Matters for Assuring Radio Program Quality

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Abstract
Radio broadcasting is one of the most widespread electronic mass media. The competition among incumbent radio stations grows drastically due to the market change and environmental evolution. Managing program quality becomes a critical issue to a radio station to sharpen its competitive advantages. Quality management of radio programs is intertwined with complicated factors. In order to identify the primary factors affecting radio program quality as well as explore the impact level these factors bring, this study adopts modified Delphi method, which is based on total quality management theory to develop the questionnaire.

According to the outcomes of the pilot test, the factors can be categorized into four dimensions: operation, coordination, structure and improvement. The coordination dimension comprises four sub-dimensions while the rest respectively comprise two sub-dimensions. Each sub-dimension includes six to nineteen indicators for measuring radio program quality. In total, there are 71 indicators. The quantitative data of the pilot test, which mean 5.0, mode 5.0, standard deviation 0 and quartile deviation 0, indicates that the questionnaire just suits this study based on three pilot experts’ input. However, four indicators should be phraseological modified according to the qualitative responses of the pilot experts.

Introduction
Radio broadcasting is one of the most widespread electronic mass media. Its service, which comprises numerous program providers, transmitters and receivers, is so available and timely comparing to other information communication technology (Hoeg & Lauterbach, 2004). Nowadays, strict challenges occur in the market for incumbent radio stations due to technological, economic, regulatory, global, and social change (Albarran, 1997). Managers of radio stations, like the other media managers, face intensive competition. Management for this industry should be more resourceful and advanced.

To be successful in managing a radio station does not just appear spontaneously. It needs to put innumerable factors into consideration, rather than overnight sensation only, to attain long-term success. Radio managers have to develop extensive plans for ultimate achievements. In order to make sure the validity of the plans, managers cannot ignore any of influential factors which importance are varied (Leblebici, Salancik, Copay, & King, 1991; Keith, 1987). It is a complicated process to materialize and implement the plans. Development, production, distribution and exhibition are the primary tasks that a radio station should do during the process. Assuring each task well becomes a critical issue for a radio manager (Albarran, 1997).

In terms of media management, total quality management (TQM) is one of the modern approaches. It is prevailing and well applied to the media industry in regard to producing products and serving customers. This approach aims to combine strategies to deliver the best products and services by continuously improving every part of an operation (Albarran, 1997). Unlike the quality of general goods, service quality is difficult to measure in precise manufacturing specifications. It is revealed that service quality is highly dependent on the performance of practitioners, organizational resource, and interaction between administrators and employees (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1988). In the radio industry, the quality of radio programs is associated with individual level and organizational level. Radio managers can adopt various approaches based on TQM to encourage and demand high quality in the products as well as in the process. A radio program is involved with various factors in the production process. Each factor with its importance can differently influence a radio station due to its market, position, programming and so on. In order to help the mangers of this industry, this study aims to develop a framework to systematically integrate the factors. In addition, all the factors can be specifically illustrated for practical operation.

Literature Review
Defining quality is difficulty due to its multiple dimensions. In addition, quality cannot only refer to objects and goods, but also to tangible/ intangible performance and service. According to International Standard Organization, quality is considered to be the competence which satisfies specific needs by its features or characteristics from goods or service. The definition of quality can be identified by five approaches (Garvin, 1984):
1. The transcendent approach of philosophy;
2. The product-based approach of economics;
3. The user-based approach of economics, marketing and operations management;
4. The manufacturing-based approach;
5. The value-based approaches of operations management.

These approaches reveal four major coverages of quality issues. Philosophy focuses on its definitional issues, while economics pursues profit maximization and market dynamics. Marketing emphasizes the determinants of purchase behavior and customer satisfaction, but operations management focuses on practical operation and manufacturing control. It results in various perspectives of quality management based on the terminology. Total quality management is a prevailing management approach in many fields, including business, engineering, health care, education and administration (Dean, & Bowen, 1994). The meanings
of total quality management have been discussed by various scholars. Crosby (1979) focused on controlling cost through quality improvement and stressed that both high- and low-end products can have high quality. Deming’s (1986) emphasizes the systemic nature of organizations, the importance of leadership and the need to reduce variation in organizational processes. Juran’s (1989) framework indicates three sets of activities-quality: planning, control, and improvement, which also emphasizes the use of statistical tools to eliminate defects. Sallis (1993) considered it a kind of philosophy which focuses on continuous improvement. It is also a series of practical tools to satisfy and surpass needs and expectation from current and future customers.

According to the definitions or explanation above, total quality management is involved with all stakeholders. Everyone is responsible for quality. From inputting to outcomes, it takes appropriate strategy and methods to meet specific standards or customers’ needs. In a word, the concept of total quality management is associated with practitioners, process and product. In the media industry, these three aspects also work for product quality. In a radio station, the control process of program production has to be established and developed. Radio practitioners are supposed to be well trained in techniques of program production as well as appropriate mindsets for excellence. Programs are the products of a radio station, which have to meet audience’s needs or interests. Graphic 1 below illustrates the application of total quality management theory to radio program production.

Methods and Procedures
Methods
Modified Delphi method is the method used for data collection in this study. Delphi method is a group decision-making technique, which was developed by Rand Company, USA, in 1950. By structurally communicating in an expert group, the specialists involved can participate and express their voices, and reach final agreements without face-to-face interaction (Wang, Gao & Guo, 2012). This method is applied to various fields of social science, such as management, industrial design, education, politics and marketing (Keeney, Hasson, & McKenna, 2006; Uhl, 1990). Its qualitative nature can allow diverse viewpoints of experts for comparing, exchanging and integration, which is expected to result in some consensus for complicated issues (Wang, Gao & Guo, 2012; Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007). Even though there is no big sample explored in the process, this method can bring up effective decisions or solutions based on recurring expert discussions, in which the experiences, insights and judgements of the experts are interacted and exchanged (Hsu & Sandford, 2007).

Delphi method owns some advantages, such as free input from experts, free dialogues without time-space limits, and no complicated calculation, but its shortcomings should be also noticed: time consuming, control difficulty and contradictions over time. In 1995, Murry and Hammons developed modified Delphi method. Unlike the old method using open-structure questionnaires to create conversations among experts, the new approach develops its questionnaire by organizing relevant literature in the very beginning. This difference can not only save time, but also help experts focusing on the issues (Scarcella, Stewart, & Custer, 1999, Delbecq, Van de Ven & Gustafson, 1975).

This study aims to explore the factors which influence radio program quality in Taiwan. The factors are associated with various aspects other than a single process or simple ideas. In order to identify these valid factors, this study needs to recruit experts to
analyze and cope with the internal and external environments of a radio station. At last, the experts can collaborate to recognize all critical factors as indicators. In order to achieve the research objectives in time, this study adopts modified Delphi method. The questionnaire is developed based on total quality management theory. Then nine experts, who are media scholars and radio practitioners, will be recruited in recurring discussion based on this.

**Procedures**

Modified Delphi method starts from developing a questionnaire based on literature, and, then, is followed by conveying the questionnaires to experts involved. The experts provide their opinions and insights without personal interaction by rounds. Each round, the researchers collect the responses from the experts and pass the responses back to them after reorganization. Group discussion among the experts should continue going on until they reach consensus in opinions (Scarcella, Stewart, & Custer, 1999; Delbecq, Van de Ven, & Gustafson, 1975).

The following is the steps for implementing Modified Delphi method (Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007), which is also the procedure this study adopts for research design:

- **Verify research questions and methods:** a study can start from literature review, practical observation or realistic phenomena for materializing research questions and objectives. Then, research design is followed, such as developing tools for data collection, scheduling research timeline, arranging resource and so on.
- **Recruit appropriate participants:** in order to recruit appropriate participants, researchers need to make sure their will of participation as well as understanding of issues. Also, participants should agree the method used by researchers and make time for involvement. Then, contacting and communicating with these potential participants for official recruitment. It is advised that five to nine participants are ideal for forming an expert group.
- **Developing questionnaire based on literature:** researchers can conduct questionnaires by reviewing relevant literature. This questionnaire is used for collecting opinions from the participants involved.
- **Start recurring survey among experts:** when officially starting data collection, researchers deliver questionnaires to participants by rounds. Each time, participants are required to provide their input. The responses from participants, afterwards, are organized as feedback for revising questionnaires. Those questions that participants all agree will be sent back to all of them for confirmation, while the contradictory questions need more discussion based on diverse voices from participants.
- **Form consensus among participants:** participants keep inputting their opinions until all responses are consistent. The process sometimes takes more rounds for group discussion among participants because participant cannot reach agreement. Researchers should revise carefully questionnaire and have participants answer or provide more details.

**Results**

So far this study is in the pilot stage. The researchers have complete two tasks: the development of the questionnaire and the pilot test. The questionnaire is developed based on TQM literature, in which a three-layer structure framework is created. Four dimensions, 10 sub-dimensions and 71 indicators were categorized in the framework. Also, three experts, tow are media scholars and the other is a radio practitioner, were invited to join the pilot test. After evaluation, they provided quantitative data as well as qualitative data for revision. The findings of the pilot test were presented in two sessions:

**Framework Of Indicators**

According to literature, the potential factors which influence radio program quality are categorized into 4 dimensions: operation, coordination, structure and improvement. The operation dimension refers to formal procedures and documents of quality control in a radio station. The coordination dimension defines believes of program quality plus communication among radio practitioners. The structure dimension is relevant to internal and external factors which are put into consideration for managing radio program quality. The improvement dimension focuses on evaluation mechanisms and progress strategies for quality control.

The coordination dimension comprises four sub-dimensions while the rest respectively comprise two sub-dimensions. In the operation dimension, the two sub-dimensions are standard procedures and organizational design. The coordination dimension includes administrative promises, practitioner attitudes, professional training and communication mechanisms. The structure dimension is dealing with external and internal factors. Two sub-dimensions in the improvement dimension are performance evaluation and continuous reform. Graphic 2 shows the framework of the questionnaire. Each sub-dimension includes six to nineteen indicators for measuring radio program quality. In total, there are 71 indicators within this framework.
Pilot Results

Three experts were recruited in March, 2015 to join the pilot test of this study. They went through the questionnaire for phraseological revision. Meanwhile, they also checked the weights for each indicator. In general, the quantitative data of the pilot test indicates that the questionnaire just work feasibly for this study. However, some indicators should be phraseological modified according to the qualitative responses of the pilot experts.

In terms of dimensions, the experts reached agreement on these four categories. There is no suggestion for structural modification. The quantitative data, which mean 5.0, mode 5.0, standard deviation 0 and quartile deviation 0, also argued that the experts have no contradictory opinions on sub-dimensions. According to the qualitative response, there is only one suggestion for modifying the definition of the sub-dimension, standard procedure, which should include tracking long-term improvement for quality management.

Due to only 3 experts involved in the pilot test, the researchers evaluated the application level of 71 indicators by the mean of three experts’ input. The indicators with the mean over 4 are retained, while the rest were selected for modification in wording or operational definition. Only four indicators are advised for revision, which means are between 3.33 and 3.67. The qualitative responses from the experts also indicate that the four indicators should be rephrased. Furthermore, one expert recommended adding an indicator to the last sub-dimension, which is relevant to practitioners’ continuous input for quality management of radio programs. Therefore, the researchers just modified wording of these indicators and sent them back to the experts for confirmation.

Conclusions

According to the findings above, this study has finished preparation for survey. The completed tasks and future development are concluded as the following:

The framework of radio program quality management has established. This study has organized the critical factors from literature and form a framework for the factors. Four dimensions and 10 sub-dimensions have obtained agreement from the pilot experts. In the aspect of indicators, 90% of them are all verified well by the experts. The systematic framework is valid in a level. The problematic indicators will be modified after evaluation. According to the qualitative response from the experts, only one sub-dimension needs to be modified in its definition. In addition, four indicators are selected to be revised. The researcher decided to rephrase operational definition of these 4 indicators after analyzing the qualitative responses. Plus, the recommended indicator, which is attached to the last sub-dimension, is added.

Continue to have more input to increase the validity of these indicators. Building up the framework for the quality management indicators of radio stations is just the start. In the future, the researchers will enhance this system by involving more experts in this study. Hopefully the results can benefit radio stations in Taiwan as well as worldwide for program quality management.

References


Withe the Impact of Celebrity Endorsement

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Abstract
The advertising and entertainment industry have changed radically over the years. Celebrities today are much more influential and enjoy a much higher public profile than in the past. This includes not just actors or singers, but sports personalities and reality show stars. This ongoing public fascination with celebrities offers advertisers a wide range of creative ideas to attract audiences and has established celebrity endorsement as a popular promotional tool. This research seeks to evaluate the impact of celebrity endorsement on young adults in Malaysia. It examines the relationship between the key attributes of celebrity endorsers, based on the TEARS model, and consumers’ purchase intentions. These attributes are: trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, respect and similarity. The study adopts a quantitative approach, with a structured questionnaire as the main tool. Based on a survey of 318 young adults, the findings show that four of the five TEARS attributes significantly influence consumers’ purchase intentions; only one, expertise, does not.

Introduction
Companies have long used characters of note to help promote their products. Given the rise in product diversity today this has led to an increase in the amounts spent on promotional initiatives by many organizations. One way to achieve this is through celebrity endorsement, which has become one of the most popular advertising strategies for promoting various types of products, services or brands (Biswas, Hussain & O’Donnell, 2009). Companies sign deals with celebrities in the hope and expectation that this will help them stand out from the clutter and give them a unique and relevant position in the minds of consumers (Temperley & Tangen, 2006). These celebrities then act as spokespersons to advertise and promote the company’s products, services or ideas. Celebrity endorsement has become very popular in modern marketing (McCracken, 1989; Choi & Rifon, 2007). For example, the famous footballer David Beckham endorses the sports brand Adidas; Korean actress Soon Hye Kyo endorses the cosmetic brand Laneige; American singer Beyoncé endorses Pepsi and the fashion brand H&M; American actress Nicole Kidman endorses Omega watches; and many more.

In fact, companies in Malaysia spend millions on celebrity endorsements (Tan, 2011). For example, Chef Wan endorses Yeo’s products; badminton player Lee Chong Wei is a brand marketer for Yonex badminton shoes, Samsung Galaxy S3 mobile phones, Cafe 99 and Kaspersky; and Rozita Che Wan endorses Safi’s products. With the world of modern marketing communication becoming increasingly inundated with advertisements, this has made it harder for any one advertisement to get noticed. It is an uphill task for advertisers to differentiate their campaigns and attract viewers. According to Kambitsis et al. (2002), this has led to not only the increased use of celebrities in advertising strategies, but also their use in increasingly sophisticated and complicated ways. Advertisers are willing to pay huge salaries to celebrities who are liked and respected by target audiences and who will favorably influence consumers’ attitudes and behavior (Shimp & Andrews, 2013). Forbes Magazine (2014) lists the top 100 celebrities by measuring how much they earn, as well as their web hits, press clips and TV/radio appearances. Today, almost all of these top celebrities have exclusive endorsement contracts.

Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann (1983) claimed that unlike anonymous endorsers, celebrities add value to the image transfer process, sustaining brand communication and thereby achieving a higher level of attention and recall. Research has shown that the use of celebrities in advertising can have a positive influence on the credibility of and preferences for advertising, and ultimately on purchase intentions (Farhat & Khan, 2011). Conversely, Tom et al. (1992) concluded that non-celebrity endorsers were more effective in creating a link to the product as their characters could be developed and molded to fit the brands and target audiences. Mehta (1994) too found no significant differences between celebrity and non-celebrity endorsements in regard to attitudes towards the advertisement, attitudes towards the brand, and intentions to purchase the endorsed brands. In spite of any arguments against celebrity endorsement, this type of advertising remains one of the most popular advertising strategies. Indeed, it is a “ubiquitous feature of modern day marketing” (Biswas, Hussain & O’Donnell, 2009).

Adding to this complexity is information derived from the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) developed by Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann (1983). ELM states that a person’s existing attitudes can be changed, i.e. they can be persuaded by a message or advertisement, but, there are two possible routes that can be taken to that change. Under conditions of high involvement, consumers’ attitudes change through the central route to persuasion. This central route consists of “thoughtful consideration of the arguments (ideas, content) in the message” (Benoit et al., 2001). In this case, consumers are more likely to be influenced by a particular product’s true qualities rather than the impact of any celebrity endorsement. Under conditions of low involvement, consumers’ attitudes change through the peripheral route to persuasion. Messages sent via the peripheral route are not processed cognitively. In such cases, consumers are far more likely to be influenced by celebrity endorsement. A substantial amount of such research has been conducted in the U.S., UK, Canada, India, Hong Kong and Taiwan. However, there has been only limited research in Malaysia specifically investigating the relationship of the specific attributes of endorsers and their impact on consumers’ purchasing intentions.
Literature Review

Celebrity Endorsement

Roll (2006) described celebrities as people who are widely known to the public for their accomplishments in their respective fields, be it the movies, sport, music or politics. In a market with a very high proliferation of local, regional and international brands, celebrity endorsement is thought to provide a distinct differentiation. In his study, Mustafa (2005) states that, although it would be possible to employ anonymous models for a fraction of the price celebrities hold special qualities. Anonymous models offer demographic information such as gender, age and status, but these meanings are blunt and imprecise. Celebrities offer a variety of lifestyle meanings and personalities that anonymous models cannot provide. Moreover, celebrities are more powerful media than nameless models. Unlike anonymous endorsers, celebrities add value to the image transfer process, sustaining brand communication and achieving a higher level of attention and recall (Song, Chaipoopiratana & Combs, 2008).

Nevertheless, as with any dynamic advertising/marketing communication efforts, there are some elements of risk. Endorsement relationships can turn sour and perceptions can change if celebrities face negative publicity (White, Goddard & Wilbur, 2009). For example, the Mike Tyson jail sentence, the O.J. Simpson murder case, the Tiger Woods sex scandal, and actress Zhang Ziyi’s charity fraud. When the negative image of a celebrity is exposed, the organization’s brand image is in turn tarnished, causing a fall in consumer trust and confidence (Nelson, 2010). Additionally, celebrity endorsements are susceptible to other risks, such as a drop in the celebrities’ popularity or a sudden change in their personality and image (Johansson & Sparredal, 2002 and Ericsson & Hakansson, 2005). In sum, celebrity endorsement efforts, can work against an organization.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

According to Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983), understanding attitudes is a key area in consumer behavior research. Researchers and advertisers have devoted a great deal of time and effort to determine how to change buyers’ attitudes so as to sell their brands. As a result, ELM has become an influential tool in studying attitudes and persuasion. Under conditions of high involvement, the attitude change is processed through the central route. If people are motivated and are able to think carefully about a message, then they are likely to follow the central route to persuasion. In the central route, individuals carefully consider the elements of the message in order to determine whether its proposal makes sense and will benefit them. The central route is used to process information that the viewer finds to be vital to the true qualities of a particular attitudinal position (Wagner & Petty, 2011). In sum, under conditions of high involvement, arguments and not celebrities influenced attitudes.

Attitude and therefore even behavior change can occur even if there is little or no consideration of the arguments contained in a message. In ELM, such processes are categorized as the peripheral route to persuasion. This involves mechanisms where message recipients use simple cues or mental shortcuts as a means of processing the information in a message (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). For example, a cue might involve an emotional state (e.g., happiness) that becomes associated with the message’s advocated position in a positive way; or, a recipient simply agreeing with a message because it is delivered by a perceived expert (activating a mental shortcut which says that “experts are generally correct”). In such cases, “consumers’ attitudes are based on a more tangential or superficial analysis of the message, not on an effortful analysis of its true merits” (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007).

Race and Gender

There are three major ethnic groups in Malaysia – Malays, Chinese and Indians. Rashid, Nallamuthuet & Sidin (2002) found that there is a significant difference between Malay, Chinese and Indian consumers attitudes’ towards advertising by celebrities. The Malays and Chinese were more familiar with certain celebrities. In another study between two countries, Wang (2006) concluded that the more attractive and the higher the expertise of a celebrity athlete endorser, the more likely that consumers in China will purchase that product; whereas, in Canada it is the expertise of the celebrity endorser which determines whether consumers are likely to purchase the product.

In regard to gender, Elliott (2006) found that males are more likely to make emotional buying decisions based on partially digested information. They do not require a lot of information or details when making a purchase decision. Besides, males view shopping as a purchase-driven activity, i.e. they go shopping only when there is a need. Brown (2011) claims that males are easily hooked by humor, by distinctive creative styles, and by sexual imagery in advertisements. Further, they prefer messages which are to the point and not complicated, and the research also found that colors and pictures in advertisements can better grab a male’s attention. In addition, males like women featured in advertisements more than females do. All this suggesting that a male’s attitude towards advertisements tends to change through the peripheral route. Females, on the other hand, tend to be more sensitive to and mindful of the details of the information contained in advertisements, and so their attitudes more often change through the central route. Females therefore prefer more detailed advertisements with a clear message. They also favor objective over subjective claims, although they are most susceptible to a combination of emotional and rational factors (Elliott, 2006).

The TEARS Model

Many studies of celebrity endorsement look at the ‘endorser effect’ construct based on endorser characteristics. These endorser characteristics influence the persuasiveness of the communication conveyed to the target audience. Shimp (2003) stated that the endorser effect has two general attributes, credibility and attractiveness, which contributes to an endorser’s effectiveness, and that
each consists of further distinct sub-attributes. The acronym TEARS is used to represent five discrete attributes: trustworthiness and expertise are two dimensions of credibility; whereas physical attractiveness, respect and similarity (to the target audience) are components of the general concept of attractiveness.

Credibility
Credibility refers to the extent to which the source is recognized as possessing significant knowledge or experience to offer an unbiased judgment (Carroll, 2008). If information comes from a credible source, consumers’ attitudes, values, opinions and behaviors can be influenced through ‘internalization’ (Ohanian, 1991; Daneshvary & Schwer, 2000). Internalization happens when consumers allow a source to influence their personal attitudes and values. As stated by Daneshvary & Schwer (2000), an individual accepts the influence of the source not only because it offers a solution to a problem but also because of the source’s own credibility. Therefore, the endorsement of a product by a credible source may affect consumers’ behavioral intentions. Pornpitakpan (2003) and Belch & Belch (2003) stated that, when celebrities are credible, this can positively affect the acceptance of the message and the degree of persuasion. In addition, endorsement by a credible source is effective when used on consumers who initially have negative perceptions towards the product (Daneshvary & Schwer, 2000). The credible source can neutralize these perceptions, resulting in greater message acceptance (Bryne, Whitehead & Breen, 2003). Generally, two important sub-attributes underline the concept of endorser credibility: trustworthiness and expertise (McCracken, 1989; Liu et al., 2007; Chen & Huddleston, 2009). In fact, according to Toncar et al. (2007), trustworthiness and expertise contribute independently to endorser effectiveness.

Trustworthiness
Trustworthiness is the first dimension of endorser credibility (McCracken 1989); and the T term in the TEARS model (Shimp, 2003). Erdogan (1999) defined trustworthiness as a consumer’s perception of the honesty, integrity and believability of an endorser. Further, Shimp (2003) argues that a celebrity endorser is trusted by the target audience due to the life he or she lives professionally and personally, as revealed to the general public through the mass media.

As O’Mahony & Meenaghan (1997) showed, source trustworthiness is a basic attribute underlying source credibility that fundamentally affects attitudinal change in consumers. Without trustworthiness, the other attributes possessed by the endorser are unlikely to be effective in changing consumers’ attitudes. This is consistent with Atkin and Block (1983), who postulated that celebrities are perceived to be more trustworthy than non-celebrities, since consumers are more easily influenced by someone they perceive to have higher standards. Priester & Petty (2003) noted that if a celebrity endorser is perceived to be highly trustworthy, a consumer might not scrutinize the advertising message as much and may unthinkingly accept the conclusion as valid. Part of this effectiveness is also derived from explanations of the ELM.

Expertise
Expertise is the second dimension of endorser credibility (McCracken, 1989); and the E component of the TEARS model (Shimp, 2003). According to Erdogan (1999), expertise in endorser credibility refers to knowledge, experience, and skills with regard to the advertised brand. Endorsers are considered to be ‘experts’ when they endorse products related to areas that have made them popular (Biswa et al., 2006). For instance, athletes are considered to be experts when it comes to endorsing sports-related products. Models are similarly perceived as possessing expertise with regard to beauty-enhancing products and fashion items. Shimp (2003) stated that an endorser who is perceived as an expert on a given subject will be more persuasive in changing audience opinions pertaining to his or her area of expertise than an endorser who is not perceived as possessing the same characteristic.

Silvera & Austad (2004) found that the expertise of an endorser correlates with the validity of the claims concerning the product, and is thus an important factor in increasing the persuasiveness of marketing messages. In addition, the expertise of a celebrity provides consumers with more concrete information on the product offering, which can then lead to a favorable attitude towards the brand (Magnini et al., 2008).

Attractiveness
The second general attribute that contributes to endorser effectiveness is attractiveness (McCracken 1989; Shimp, 2003). When consumers find something in an endorser that they consider attractive, persuasion occurs through identification. Identification occurs when “individuals conform to the attitude or behavior advocated by another person because these individuals derive satisfaction from the belief that they are like that person” (Friedman & Friedman, 1979). Identification is related to likeability and attractiveness, and is arguably the process that best explains persuasion by a celebrity endorser. The TEARS model identifies three sub-components of the general concept of attractiveness: physical attractiveness, respect, and similarity (Shimp, 2003). Perceived attractiveness is achieved via any one of these attributes, and does not require that a celebrity encompass all of these simultaneously.

Physical Attractiveness
Physical Attractiveness is the A component in the TEARS model and is a key consideration in many endorsement relationships (Ohanian, 1990). Physical attractiveness includes any number of virtuous characteristics that consumers may perceive in an
endorser: intellectual skills, personality properties, lifestyle characteristics, athletic prowess, and so on (Shimp, 2003).

Research has supported the intuitive expectation that physically attractive endorsers generally produce more favorable evaluations of advertisements and the brands than do less attractive communicators (Kahle & Homer, 1985). However, Bryne, Whitehead & Breen (2003) found that their influence on repeat purchase intentions is ambiguous, as attractiveness alone may not be sufficient. There is also a risk that celebrities may overshadow brands. Nevertheless, Belch & Belch (2003) contend that companies spend huge amounts of money to have celebrities endorse their products because celebrities have what they call ‘stopping power’ – they can make advertising messages stand out in a cluttered media environment. Furthermore, Till & Busler (2000) found that there is a “physical attractiveness effect” on individuals’ attitudes to brands and purchase intentions.

**Respect**

Respect, the R in the TEARS model, is the second component of the overall attractiveness attribute. Respect refers to the quality of being admired or even esteemed due to the endorser’s accomplishments. Celebrities are respected for their acting ability, athletic prowess, appealing personalities, their stand on important societal issues, and other qualities. Celebrities who are respected are also generally liked, and likeability arises from a fondness for the endorsers because of their behavior, physical appearance or other traits (Bryne, Whitehead & Breen, 2003).

When respected/liked celebrities enter into endorsement relationships with various brands, the respect/liking of the celebrities may extend to the brands they are linked to, thus enhancing the brand’s equity via positive effects on consumers’ attitudes toward the brand (Shimp, 2003). Charbonneau and Garland (2005) found that using a credible and respected celebrity or athlete as the ‘voice’ (message carrier) is more effective than using an ordinary model. Celebrities can deliver meanings to advertisements with extra subtlety, depth and power. While anonymous models can represent certain positive demographic information (gender, age and status) celebrities can offer these elements with greater precision (McCracken, 1989). Celebrities are usually associated with high status due to their recognition, and the extra qualities and power that they gain via repeated media exposure (La Eerie & Sejung, 2005).

**Similarity**

Similarity, the third attractiveness component and the S term in the TEARS model, represents the degree to which an endorser matches an audience in terms of characteristics pertinent to the endorsement relationship – age, gender, ethnicity, etc. (Shimp, 2003). In addition, Erdogan (1999) defined similarity as a supposed resemblance between the source and the receiver of the message. Desphande & Stayman (1994) found that endorsers’ ethnic status affects perceptions of trustworthiness and as a result brand attitudes. The researchers hypothesized that this occurs because people trust individuals who are similar to them.

These findings support the claim made by Cialdini (2007) that we like people who are similar to us and that “this fact seems to hold true whether the similarity is in the areas of opinions, personality traits, background or lifestyle”. Meanwhile, Shimp (2003) claimed that similarity between the endorser and audience is especially important when there is a wide range of products or services on offer and where audience members are heterogeneous. In such cases, a spokesperson perceived to be similar to the audience is likely to have the greatest effect in influencing attitudes and choices.

**Purchase Intentions**

Purchase intentions are the probability of consumers buying a product, or a consumer’s conscious plans to make an effort to purchase a brand (Spears & Singh, 2004). According to Kwek (2010), they are also a component of consumer cognitive behavior, i.e., how and why consumers intend to buy a specific product, service or brand. The higher the purchase intentions are, the higher a consumer’s willingness is to buy a given product.

Furthermore, Sheu (2010) found that consumers’ purchase intentions are easily affected by many external factors during their decision-making processes. For instance, during the purchase process itself, their purchase intentions can be affected by the product attributes, price and the performance of the endorser – as perceived by the consumers. Just as consumers’ purchase intentions are easily triggered by promotion strategies, so their attitudes towards the promoted products, services or brands are also easily affected by the popularity and image of the celebrity doing the promoting. Moreover, when consumers treat celebrities as their reference group, they very often want to imitate them in an effort to feel successful too (Forbes, 2011). Research has shown that the use of celebrities in advertisements can have a positive influence on credibility, message recall, memory and likeability with regard to advertisements, and ultimately on purchase intentions (Pornpitakpan, 2003; Pringle & Binet, 2005; Roy, 2006). In sum, consumers’ purchase intentions can be positively influenced by celebrities they admire. Based on prevailing literature, this study draws on five hypotheses where the trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, respect and similarity all have a significant and positive relationship with consumers’ purchasing intentions.

**Methodology**

As part of the questionnaire, four categories of color print advertisements were selected as the stimulus material, which included advertisements for beverages, sports goods, perfumes, and mobile phones. Before giving out the questionnaires, the stimulus advertisements were shown to the respondents. The first section of the questionnaire adopts a five-point Likert Scale to determine respondents’ feelings towards the five attributes of celebrity endorsers (trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness,
similarity, respect). The second section consists of questions about consumers’ purchase intentions based on the impact of celebrity endorsement while the third section is designed to gather demographic data. The target population is Malaysian young adults aged between 18-25 years and comprising the three major races in Malaysia, namely, Malays, Chinese and Indians.

The calculated sample size of this study is 385 respondents based on the target population of 5,000,000 young adults in Malaysia (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2013). A pilot test comprising 30 respondents was conducted to ensure that the questionnaire was suitable for Malaysians. A second pilot test was run to test its reliability.

Results and Discussion

An Independent T-test was run for the purchase intentions by gender. The F value of 0.140 (sig.= 0.708 >0.05) indicates that there is no significant difference in the purchase intentions of males and females. Meanwhile, a One-Way ANOVA Test for differences in purchase intentions by race shows that the results is statistically significant (sig.= 0.11 <0.05), so equal variance is not assumed. The Robust Tests of Equality of Means shows that both the Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests are statistically significant (sig.=0.000). These results point to significant differences between groups. Since equal variance was not assumed, Dunnett’s T3 test was conducted to determine which groups were different. Also, with the ANOVA results, the F value of 35.981 (sig.= 0.000) indicates that race has a significant influence on purchase intentions at the 1% level. Each group is significantly different from the other groups at the 5% level. In addition, the purchase intentions of the Chinese (mean = 15.65) are significantly higher than those of the Indians (mean = 13.66) or Malays (mean = 12.27).

Table I shows the fairly high Cronbach’s alpha values for all variables ranging from 0.868 to 0.939. The reliability of all the independent variables was also measured in the same way. The resulting Cronbach’s Alpha value for all items produced a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.924, denoting reliability.

The research model in this study consists of five reflective constructs: purchase intentions (dependent variable), trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, respect and similarity. Table II shows the outer model evaluation for the reflective constructs.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Attractiveness</th>
<th>A1</th>
<th>0.858</th>
<th>0.927</th>
<th>0.720</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A3</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A5</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A6</td>
<td>0.922</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>R1</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>0.702</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.751</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R3</td>
<td>0.918</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R4</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R5</td>
<td>0.925</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R6</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>0.947</td>
<td>0.747</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>0.877</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S4</td>
<td>0.850</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S5</td>
<td>0.891</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S6</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>0.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P2</td>
<td>0.758</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P3</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P4</td>
<td>0.935</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table III: Correlations of Latent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Expertise</th>
<th>Physical Attractiveness</th>
<th>Purchase Intentions</th>
<th>Respect</th>
<th>Similarity</th>
<th>Trustworthiness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>***0.911</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Attractiveness</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>***0.848</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.564</td>
<td>***0.861</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>0.190</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>***0.838</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>0.568</td>
<td>***0.864</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.460</td>
<td>0.498</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>***0.837</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: ***Square Root AVE

According to Hair et al. (2013), outer loading indicators should be higher than 0.708. Indicators with outer loading values between 0.40 and 0.70 should be considered for removal. All the indicators were higher than 0.708 except for indicator A4, at 0.656. After removing this item, the outer model was re-evaluated and Table II shows the composite reliability, indicator reliability and convergent validity of the remaining reflective constructs. The composite reliability value of all six latent variables was higher than 0.708, so these variables can all be considered acceptable for testing the model. For convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be higher than 0.50. In fact, the AVE values ranged from 0.701 to 0.831. This indicates that, on average, these constructs explain more than half of the variance of their indicators and that there is therefore a good fit between the constructs and their underlying indicators.

Table III shows the results of the discriminant validity test, based on cross-loading values, which is the correlation between the variables and the Square root AVE values. Using the Fornell-Larcker criterion, discriminant validity tests were conducted on each pair of correlations by comparing the square root AVE of each construct and the correlations between the constructs. As suggested by Hair et al. (2013), the square root of the AVE of each construct should be higher than its highest correlation with any other constructs; moreover, every indicator’s outer loadings on the constructs should be higher than all its cross-loadings with other constructs. All the constructs emerged as valid and reliable. As such, the selected measurements are valid and reliable enough for further testing.
The results show that the physical attractiveness of celebrity endorsers has a positive and statistically significant relationship with consumers' purchase intentions ($\beta = 0.312, t = 6.054$). Indeed, they suggest that physical attractiveness is the most important determinant in predicting consumers' purchase intentions. The physical attractiveness of celebrity endorsers was evaluated via five indicators and based on the t-values, A6 (91.15) emerged with the highest score, which implies that the attractiveness of endorsers has the most influential effect on consumers' purchase intentions. This is followed closely by A2 (88.30), i.e. charisma; then some way behind by A1 – beautiful (44.45) and then A5 – good looking (26.22). Many studies have shown that people respond favorably to endorsements if the endorsers are attractive and desirable (Bryne, Whitehead & Breen, 2003). In fact, Liu et al. (2007) found that consumers usually require endorsers to be physically attractive if they are to increase the recognition of and purchase intentions towards a product or service. In sum, the physical attractiveness of endorsers undoubtedly has a significant effect on consumers and is a very important factor for Malaysian consumers.

The respect for celebrity endorsers was evaluated using six indicators. The overall empirical results show that respect for celebrity endorsers has a positive and significant relationship with consumers' purchase intentions ($\beta = 0.200, t = 4.183$). In fact, respect emerged the second most important determinant in predicting consumers' purchase intentions in this study. Statement R5 ($t = 4.912$) shows that the expertise of celebrity endorsers is not statistically significant and does not significantly affect consumers' purchase intentions. The impact of the expertise of celebrity endorsers on purchasing intentions was evaluated using six indicators. The results ($\beta = 0.312, t = 6.054$) show that the expertise of celebrity endorsers is not statistically significant and does not significantly affect consumers' purchase intentions. The t-statistics show that the expertise of celebrity endorsers received the lowest score of all the indicators, suggesting that this factor was the least influential on consumers' purchase intentions. These findings contradict most prior literature. Most research present expertise as an important factor in increasing the persuasiveness of advertising messages and contends that the expertise of a celebrity endorser can lead to a positive attitude change and thereby generate purchase intentions. In fact, Evans (1988) found that celebrities who endorse products and services perceived as far from their own fields of expertise can indirectly hurt consumers' perceived images, resulting in negative purchase intentions. Presumably this is because respondents do not think the endorsers are experts on the products they are endorsing, or, by extension, have a good understanding of, or, are knowledgeable about the product in question. Nevertheless, this study has found that expertise is not a critical factor in influencing Malaysian consumers' purchase intentions. It can be concluded that young adults consider other factors of celebrity endorsers as more important compared to their expertise.

The results further show that the similarity of celebrity endorsers has a positive and significant relationship with consumers’ purchase intentions ($\beta = 0.266, t = 4.912$). The bootstrapping procedure produced the highest score for S5 (68.75), indicating that respondents felt they had a lot in common with endorsers and that this indicator has the most influential impact on consumers’
purchase intentions. This was followed by S6 (56.54) and S1 (52.92) respectively – indicating that consumers who feel they share similar opinions with celebrity endorsers and identify with the endorser can have a significant effect on their purchase intentions. Overall, similarity emerged as the third most important factor and this is consistent with earlier studies. In sum, if consumers perceive themselves to have a greater similarity with a celebrity or feel they have something in common with him or her, then they are more likely to purchase the product in question.

**Purchase Intentions**

Overall, the findings of this study support the contention that celebrity endorsers produce more positive attitudes and greater purchase intentions. More specifically, over half of the respondents (56%) surveyed in this study said they were likely to purchase a product endorsed by a celebrity; 61% were likely to try a product endorsed by celebrity if they saw it in a store; 55.3% were likely to actively seek out a product endorsed by a celebrity in a store; and 54.7% were overall happy to purchase products or services advertised by celebrities. In fact, Xu (2008) found that celebrity endorsers can help boost the effectiveness of advertising, and are most effective in influencing the attitudes of consumers because they are respected by and are highly identifiable with young adults. It would seem that young adults are more readily persuaded when a celebrity is linked to a product, possibly because they are at still at an impressionable stage of development. In sum, endorsement by a celebrity can have a meaningful and impactful influence on many young adults’ evaluation of advertisements and products.

To further understand consumers’ purchase intentions, this question was posed: “How likely are you to buy a product if there is ‘negative publicity’ about the endorser?” A fairly large number of respondents, 41.8% were neutral about the impact of negative publicity on their purchase intentions. While this reply is not as strong as an outright negative or positive response, the hesitance of respondents to indicate positive purchase intentions does suggest that they may possibly lean more towards not purchasing the product. Meanwhile, 32.4% of respondents said they were unlikely to purchase products if the celebrity is associated with negative publicity; while 25.8% said they would. Using the mean value (2.88) to derive a conclusion, it is clear that most respondents were unlikely to purchase a product endorsed by a celebrity facing negative publicity. This is clearly a risk for advertisers.

A test on purchase intentions by gender produced no significant difference. This result contradicts earlier literature and ELM studies. One possible explanation for the surprising results of this study is the age profile of the respondents in this research: young adults between 18-25 years, who are more exposed to the media, and more aware of and familiar with many celebrities. Therefore, both males and females could be similarly influenced by celebrities and have notably more favorable attitudes towards products endorsed by them.

The tests in this study for race, in contrast, showed significant differences in purchase intentions as a result of celebrity endorsement. The Chinese were the most likely to purchase a product endorsed by celebrities, followed by the Indians and Malays. This is consistent with a study by Rashid, Nallamuthu & Sidin (2002), which suggested that there are significant differences between Malay, Chinese and Indian consumers’ attitudes towards advertising by celebrities, with the Chinese being most familiar with certain celebrities. As such, race is an influential factor with regard to celebrity endorsement. This may be due to cultural differences among the three races particularly their beliefs and religious traditions. This study also suggests that Chinese consumers’ attitudes towards celebrity endorsement experience more changes through the peripheral route than those of Indian and Malay consumers.

**Conclusion**

This study found that the physical attractiveness of a celebrity has the highest impact on consumers’ purchase intentions, followed by respect and similarity. The least influential attribute is trustworthiness. However, advertisers need to bear in mind that celebrity endorsers cannot be selected on the basis of one attribute only; they also need to consider the other influential attributes of celebrities, as these attributes can collectively strengthen the positive impact of a celebrity on consumers’ purchase intentions. Interestingly, the expertise of a celebrity endorser is not an important factor in influencing Malaysian young adults’ purchase intentions. Another significant finding is that over half of the respondents were likely to purchase products endorsed by celebrities if they saw it in a store – reflecting perhaps the fact that the young adults are more familiar with and influenced by celebrities. And finally, Chinese consumers’ attitudes tend to change via the peripheral route more than those of the other races, indicating that they are more susceptible to the influence of celebrity endorsements compared to the Malays and Indians.

The outcome of this study is particularly valuable with regard to the relationship between the specific attributes of endorsers contained in the TEARS model and consumers’ purchasing intentions. It also supports the validity of the persuasion process in the ELM theoretical framework.

**References**


Young People’s Engagement of Social Media for Social Transformation: Study of Nigerian University Students

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Abstract
This study using a sample size of 400 for survey and 12 focus group participants drawn from the population of a federal University in Nigeria, investigates the practicality of thinking about social media as online public sphere that offers Nigerian youth opportunity for such meaningful civic engagement and agenda setting. It investigates the level of access and social media literacy inherent in these youth, the uses they make of it, the extent of exposure and use and whether these translate into a culture of social transformation among these youth. Using the Uses-and-gratifications and public sphere theories, the study combined the use of survey and focus group discussions. The study finds that the level of awareness, exposure and use of Facebook among these youth is quite high. It is however found that the youth tend to make more personal, trivial and entertaining use of Facebook. The youth’s social media usage thus disengages rather than makes for active engagement with their expected role in social transformation and development. The youth, with reasons, have never used Facebook or indeed any other social media to advocate or win support for a cause geared towards social change or social development of the society. It is concluded that Nigerian youth should be challenged to embrace serious online activism through the positive, prudent, informed, literate, and better appropriated use of the social media as both a socialisation and an empowering tool.

Introduction
“By the year 2015, there will be 3 billion people under the age of 25…They are the future…they are also the now”. James D. Wolfensohn (Former President of the World Bank, 2003).

It is no longer in doubt that the youth of any society, going by their growing population, are very critical to its existence and survival. They are judged as the future of that society. Little wonder then that they oftentimes are associated with being the colloquial “leaders of tomorrow”. United Nations (2011) has reported that nearly 50% of the developing world population is youth and children and there are 1.2 billion 15 to 24 year olds in the world and one billion of these live in developing countries. This “youth bulge” has clearly demonstrated that young people constitute not just a high and peaking segment of many populations across the world, but especially in Africa.

In Nigeria, the population of the youth is estimated at being about 65% of the overall 165 million citizens (Amadi, 2012, p.3). This figure is the largest alongside that of women (49 percent) (British Council, Nigeria 2012). For a country that boasts of such population of youth, it should not be a happenstance to think of the youth as having a pivotal stake in national development. The concept of youth engagement is increasingly apparent in international and national agendas, marking a shift in thinking about young people as resources that benefit society as well as key partners in development (Policy Forum, 2012, p.1). Sadly though, the country has over the past decade been negotiating unfortunate bends in terms of insecurity of lives and property, crime, terrorism, vandalisation of oil pipelines, militarism, political thuggery, all sorts of educational fraud and other social vices. The more worrisome fact is that the Nigerian youth have often been fingered as being instrumental to most of these challenges facing the country. They are a large and steadily growing population who undergo changes and also influence changes as the society itself keeps transforming. Thus, youth demographics and their desire for broad social changes can no longer be wished away.

The media remain one of the most powerful avenues for helping people and minorities contribute to social transformation, at least ones that concern them. Hitherto, the mainstream media seem not to have been successful in evolving any new and ready platform that encourage youth to participate much in development and social transformation. However, with the arrival of the new media and the growing ubiquity and widespread use of these technologies, and social media, various scholars have pointed to the hope, opportunity and platform which the new social media offers the youth the world over [Dhaha & Igale, 2013, Chan-Meeto & Rathackaren, 2010, Al-Jenaibi, 2011, Adaja & Ayodele, 2013, Steinfeld, Ellison & Lampe, 2008, Ufuophu-biri, 2013]. Indeed, the Internet has become the most essential medium for youth across most countries (see My Media Generation, 2005). Particularly, as Nigerian youths are seizing the new technology of the Internet to satisfy core needs, it’s not too surprising that their perceptions of so-called mainstream traditional media are evolving fast (Omenugh, Ndolo & Uzuegbunam, 2012; Obijiofor, 2009). Today, critical studies scholars view youth culture as a creative, contested, and complex process of social reproduction involving the youth of societies. Youth thus are seen as actively shaping society through strategies and means that are purely peculiar to them. For the Nigerian youth, these strategies could be the invention of new forms of language; creative contributions through popular culture (music, movies, fashion, etc.); reconstitution of political movements through participation in armed rebellion (kidnapping and the Boko Haram insurgencies); non-violent demonstrations and the reshaping of public discourse through social media and expressive culture, among others. The case of the “Arab Spring” which focuses on the power of social
media in upturning regimes in Tunisia, Egypt and Libya and other places such as in Moldova and Turkey, is a good case in point here. As Safranek (2012, p.1) would share:

In the spring of 2011, the world watched as revolutionary fervor swept the Middle East, from Tunisia, to Egypt, to Syria and beyond. Startling images captured by civilians on the scene were viewed by people around the world, courtesy of distribution via Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and even mainstream media. There can be no doubt that information and communication technologies, in particular burgeoning social media, played a part in the upheavals.

With youth at the forefront of such revolutionary public protest that have led to regime changes in these places, it is becoming clear that through activism sparked by this generation’s increasingly interconnectedness brought by social media and technology, these youth, like many of their contemporaries in other parts of Africa and the world, are responding to the reality of social issues such as low wages, high unemployment, poor governance and other factors that threaten to stifle their future.

The use of social media such as Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Blogs and others as a new means to disseminate messages and engage the audience in participatory communication has created a new dimension in social mobilization making it easier to organize and disseminate ideas. It has been suggested that using social media tools in recent times, has become an effective way to expand reach, foster engagement and increase access to credible messages on issues of development (Dunu & Uzochukwu, 2011). Other scholars agree that social media, especially social networking sites (SNS), enable users to present themselves, establish and maintain social connections with others, and articulate their own social networks (Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007, Weinberg, 2009; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Meerman Scott, 2010). The one significant thing about the social media is the fact that it:

[Expands] the extent to which once-passive audiences are able to engage with media producers and fellow consumers. This is commonly linked to a “democratisation” of the media: the expanded interaction of members of the community through the media, and the ability of user communities to have greater editorial roles in shaping the content they consume, and recommend to peers in their social networks. (Chen & Vromen, 2012, p.1)

To advance the foregoing argument, Facebook, among other social media and social networking sites, has grown exponentially over time to become the biggest and most popular social networking site today with online population of above 1 billion active users, as at the end of 2012 (Facebook, 2012b), and still counting. Its introduction has become one of the most important social trends of the past decade. Available in over 70 languages, Facebook sure has become a global phenomenon and experience. This singular social media according to Marichal (2012) has been useful site for micro-activism and the formation of alternative spaces – or counter publics – for democratic discussion (Dahlberg, 2011). However though, scholars bemoan the apparent decline in the rate of youth civic engagement even on the Internet (Putnam, 2000; Wu, 2009). Online civic engagement here means the active participation of young people in their community – in government, in decision-making, in development etc., using social media as empowering tools.

It is thus argued that youth are conveniently disengaged from the more serious matters such as politics, much more than their older counterparts; and this invariably could explain the kind of uses they would make of Facebook and indeed other social media. Still, borrowing from the monumental Arab Spring revolution spurred by Facebook social media, Costanza-Chock (2012, p.4) argues that young people, especially immigrant youth, are often directly connected to social movements in other parts of the world, and are inspired by movements that they encounter via social media or television. How and to what extent this statement rings true for Nigerian youth as they negotiate the social and national transformation bend, however remain questionable and a subject of serious enquiry.

Research Questions
The following research questions were investigated:
To what extent do youth have access or are exposed to the social media, Facebook?
What are the predominant uses which youth make of Facebook?
To what extent do youth use Facebook to engender a culture of social transformation?

Delimitation of the Study
Social media generally comprise mainly of Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and blogs. Nevertheless, this study has its scope on Facebook, being the most popular and exponentially growing social media among young people both in Nigeria and elsewhere. Similarly, the study is delimited to the undergraduate students of Nnamdi Azikiwe University, a federal university in the eastern part of Nigeria.

A Discourse on Youth Engagement, Social Media and Social Transformation
The term youth refers to persons whose identity lies between being children and being adults. In a strictly legal sense, the term is typically applied to persons from the time of their early teens until a point between the age of 16 and 21, after which time the person is legally an adult (Heaven and Tubridy, 2007). Used colloquially, however, the term generally refers to a broader, more ambiguous, field of reference – from the physically adolescent to those in their late 20s. The United Nations, for example,
defines youth as people between the ages of 15 and 24 years inclusive (United Nations, 2011). This goes to show the difficulty in explicitly defining the term. Large (2005) quoted in Ahn (2011) suggested that defining such social categories such as adolescents, children, and young adults in concrete terms is always problematic in research, due to the fact that they are socio-culturally constructed entities. And so, traversing both sides of the legal distinction between childhood and adulthood, the youth identity presents those in their teens and their 20s as participants in a shared social experience that is dissimilar from that of other age or cultural groups. However, for our discussion of young people, this study chooses to place its definition of youth as young people between the ages of 18 and 25. Ordinarily and ideally, youth when viewed in terms of their role in constituting a force for social change for themselves and society, should be actively involved in any development process. The rights of young people even in Nigeria, in this regard is unequivocal. Youth engagement is synonymous with youth participation. Meaningful youth participation involves a genuine opportunity for young people to influence decision making and bring about change. This obviously equates to a shift of power. Participation is a commonly used approach and concept within development discourses. Through active participation, young people are empowered to play a vital role in their own development as well as in that of their communities. The United Nations has long recognized that young people are a major human resource for development and key agents for social change, economic growth and technological innovation (United Nations, 2011).

The coming of the new [social] media on the communication scene opened up the third phase of the Internet revolution consisting of email/computer systems and the arrival of the Web. Social media thus is still the newest and most celebrated communication and technological innovation today. Juxtaposed with the more conventional mainstream media, the social media tools offering new and powerful ways to communicate, share and create information, collaboratively and more creatively, is different in a number of significant ways; marking a change from a unidirectional to a multidirectional model of communication. Control of information has been ceded to the users themselves, meaning that social media users have become both users and producers of media. Bruns (2009, p.3) quoted in Evers, Albury, Byrom & Crawford (2013) has called them ‘produsers’. And so, user generated content is the mainstay, as most social media sites have no editors. This has made every social media user both a publisher and a critic of information.

Social media, write Mayfield (2008) and Abubakar (2011, p. 447) is online or electronic media which have the capacity to facilitate participation, openness, conversation, community, connectedness and at the same time, foster textual and audio-visual characteristic appeal amongst online users. The core of social media as explained by Trusov et al. (2009) lies in the fact that users can have individual profiles and personal images; users are able to communicate their thoughts, feelings, interests (music, hobbies, preferences) and link to affiliated profiles (friends or professional fan pages). Furthermore, it is one of the new media networks which provides users with the mix of interpersonal and mass communication capabilities that have not existed before, and which place emphasis on interactivity and mobility (Paxson, 2010, quoted in Adaja and Ayodele, 2013).

A Look at Social Media (Facebook)

Various social media applications exist that allow the creation, modification and exchange of online content. Globally, Facebook as the most popular social networking site has grown exponentially in name and in use. It has continued to arguably change the world of communication, online connectivity and information sharing and access. Writing about this significance, Time magazine quoted in Fletcher (2010, p.22) reported that: Sometime in the next few weeks, Facebook will officially log its 500 millionth active citizen. If the website were granted terra firma, it would be the world’s third largest country by population, two-thirds bigger than the U.S. More than 1 in 4 people who browse the Internet not only have a Facebook account but have returned to the site within the past 30 days.

Today of course, statistics show that Facebook has successfully logged over 1 billion users and still counting. The remarkable thing is that as the population of Facebook users continues to grow even more than the size of most countries of the world, these users are becoming online citizens of sorts. These have been metaphorically termed “netizens” (Hauben & Hauben, 1997). The manner in which Facebook has continued to grow and its global reach perhaps symbolizes that we have entered the era of what Barry Wellman and Caroline Haythornthwaite (2002) have called the “networked individual” – an individual who has become highly online-connected and is used to create ties and networks with other people. This corroborates with what Boyd and Ellison (2007) said that what makes social network sites like Facebook unique is “not that they allow individuals to meet strangers, but rather that they enable users to articulate and make visible their social networks”.

This process of articulating and making users’ social networks visible perhaps involves young people [as one of the significant users or citizens] being ‘active’ online.

Nigeria, Young People, Online (Social Media) and Social Change

Facebook and Twitter rank among the most popular social networking sites in Nigeria and indeed Africa. The Internet World Statistics reports that there are 48,366,179 Internet users in Nigeria, as at June 30 2012, i.e. 28.4% of the population, and over 11 million Facebook users as at December 31, 2013 according to CP-Africa; thus making Nigeria Facebook’s largest user base in Sub-Saharan Africa. Meanwhile, Asuni & Farris (2011, p.4) has also reported that 87 million Nigerians own mobile phones that can send and receive SMS messages and that 60,000 Nigerians are on Twitter. In Nigeria, young people appear to be increasingly seen to be part of the online activism that has brought about considerable amount of social transformation or social change. This
is seen in the trend of activism generated especially during crises or critical times in the political life of the nation. Visit blogs and news sites and the social networks and you would be met with stark criticism and agitations calling for attention. By social transformation, I mean a large scale social change occurring in an individual’s life or externally, in the social system. It also means in this context, any changes in the existing parameters of a societal system, including technological, economic, political and cultural restructuring.

Broadly speaking, Nwonwu (2011) enthuse that while the rest of the world was still paying heed to the use of new media innovations as a tool for furthering interpersonal relationships in the office, classroom or community at large, youths in Africa have come to see them as an invariable tool in the furtherance of the quest for freedom, justice and a better, well administered society. Perhaps this might be because such things as freedom, justice and order are much-needed in the continent.

The level of activism experienced first during the 2011 General elections in Nigeria opened up a unique platform for debate and discussion on Facebook social media which was not privileged by the mainstream media. This perhaps was the motivation for Goodluck Jonathan’s presence on Facebook. Again, its use during the fuel subsidy saga remains pivotal to this discussion. When on New Year’s Day, January 1 2011, the Federal Government of Nigeria announced the decision to implement full withdrawal of petrol subsidies, the decision was met with a backlash as enormous as expected. For the couple of weeks that followed, the mainstream media, the social media and public discussions were awash with the fuel subsidy imbroglio and all the politics and economics surrounding it. However as Nigerians waited for the official authorities, the usual opposition group – the organised Labour group – to take action, a new force emerged. This time, it was engineered by young people via the social media, using tools that they were at home with – Facebook, BBM, Twitter, blogs, etc. These were used to share pictures of the adverse effects of the skyrocketed petrol prices in various parts of the country, opinions and relevant information and updates regarding the crises. The level of activism inspired by these young people also led about 1 million Nigerian youth to sign an e-petition against the fuel subsidy issue [See http://myspur.com.ng/index.php?do=/petition/1/1-000-000-youth-sign-against-complete-removal-of-fuel-subsidy/]. Inspired by the Occupy movements of America and Europe, the online movement was christened the Occupy Nigeria Movement. Amaza (2012) puts it more succinctly:

…the Occupy Nigeria movement was like them, a leaderless movement. You could not point to a specific person and say that he or she was the top leader. It was just composed of individuals who had long bottled up their anger and frustration with the state of affairs in the country. They used social media to organize themselves, bridged ethnic and religious divides in a way like never imagined and braved the odds to even stage sit-ins that lasted the whole cold harmattan nights. They also broadened the struggle from being about just fuel prices to being about the size and cost of the government to corruption. One characteristic of the Occupy Nigeria movement was within the larger movement, there were different opinion groups and smaller movements especially with regards to what was the best approach to solving the fuel subsidy crisis…

Here, we could see how Nigerian youth were able to use social media to form strong ties that culminated in the ‘movement’ that saw the government reverting back the pump price of petroleum products in Nigeria to at least a manageable minimum and de-exacerbated the crisis. Further, another incident in Nigeria which has indeed illustrated how active Nigerian youth can be was the killing of the four UNIPORT students. This happened at the last quarter of 2012. The pictures and videos of the barbaric killing of the youths who were alleged by the villagers to be robbers, in a remote Aluu settlement in Rivers State by unwholesome native miscreants, went viral on the social media. Eye witnesses of the account, especially young people using their Blackberry and other smart phones, got Nigerians aware of the incident that generated heat for a long time. The fact that the victims were young people also gave electricity and popularity to the discourse, as more and more aggrieved youth used the social media platforms to vent their disapproval. This had a ripple effect of stimulating the sympathy and condemnation of the act by other Nigerians. Eventually, the government and the civil authorities had to wage in and conduct investigations that saw some people connected with the gruesome killings being brought to book.

The growing power of new media as a tool for social change in Africa was again exemplified in September 2012, when a story that was initially carried by at least one national newspaper a month before and largely ignored, was picked up by popular Nigerian blogger, Ms Linda Ikeji and thrust into national and international prominence, forcing the government to alter its usual approach to issues that concern the citizenry. Attempts to sweep the issue, which involved the gang rape of a teenage girl by youths who videoed and circulated the event, were rebuffed by majority of Nigeria’s growing army of internet savvy youths, who kept highlighting the issue, vowing to keep at it until the case is resolved and the perpetrators are in jail. Unlike what holds in Nigeria, where several high profile cases in the past have been left unsolved, the efforts of citizen investigators working through the internet, as of the time of writing, led to some arrests and alleged identification of the victim. There was also the case of the Nigerian ambassador to Kenya, whose career was brought to a sudden closure some months earlier, largely due to the flurry of condemnation that followed the publication of a story of alleged wife battery by a Kenyan newspaper. Though the Kenyan newspaper that ran the story lacked the capacity to give the story much coverage, a single posting of the story to a site favoured by young Nigerians was enough to grant it the massive exposure that caused the usually unreachable Nigerian diplomatic community to issue statements and for the Nigerian President to recall the ambassador. Or what do we say of the amount of youth backlash on social media against the Federal government and the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) during the recent six-month old strike action by university lecturers that halted the academic life of Nigerian students? More recently also, in the tail end of the
year 2013, Governor Adams Oshiomhole of Edo State was in the eye of the storm over his careless and disdainful treatment of a widow in Benin, the state capital, where he sits as Governor. Oshiomhole was supervising an environmental cleaning exercise, and there, at the roadside on Mission Road, was one Mrs Joy Ifijeh, with her goods displayed for sale. The governor ordered that her wares be removed, and when the woman tearfully pleaded that she was a widow, Oshiomhole would have none of it. In an obvious fit of anger, he spoke some very harsh words, and asked the woman to “go and die,” if she wanted. For this action which many Nigerians, young and old, described as inhumane and undeserving of a leader, the Edo State governor received a lot of criticism and or condemnation, particularly from the online media community (Social network sites, blogs and news media sites). He was called all sorts of names, from wicked to dictatorial, arrogant and overbearing. In a quick move to salvage his image which was at a critical point, following the counterattack from the online community, the governor invited the woman over to the State House, apologised, dined with her and gave her a job with the War Against Indiscipline squad, and the sum of N2 million. He also promised to see her son through university whenever he gained admission. Meanwhile, the People’s Democratic Party (PDP) also cashed in on the opportunity and also offered the widow the sum of N250, 000. The point to note in all this is that hitherto, injustices and neglect such as this could have taken place and no one gets to hear about them, but not in today’s world of the Internet, social media networks, smart mobile phones and growing online communities.

**Theoretical Framework**

Two theories have been found suitable to anchor this present study on. They are the Uses-and-gratification theory of Mass Communication and the Public sphere theory.

**The Uses-and-Gratifications theory:** Earlier research on the Uses-and-gratifications theory focused on audience motives for selecting traditional media sources and the gratifications they obtained from them. However, as the new media technologies evolved, attention began shifting on these technologies and how Uses-and-gratifications approach could be applied to them, hence further strengthening the theory as it relates to our understanding of mass communication. From the empirical literature review attempted above, very many scholars from various parts of the world have sufficiently used this theory to study how young people especially, use the social media. Thus, this approach is one of the most cited communication theories as best tool for analyzing new media technologies (Ebersole, 2000).

With the increasing adoption of social media, for this present study, the Uses-and-gratifications approach seems promising in providing a theoretical framework from which to examine Nigerian undergraduate students and their Facebook use – firstly, the actual and predominant uses and gratifications sought and obtained from the use of Facebook, and ultimately to investigate the extent to which they put Facebook to engineering social transformation and change in their societies.

**The public sphere theory:** The public sphere theory originated from a second-generation German sociologist, political scientist and critical theorist, Jurgen Habermas who emerged in Europe around 18th century from the social enquiries of Frankfurt School. It was an offshoot from his seminal work in a monograph titled The Structural Transformation of Public Sphere (1962), in which he viewed public sphere as various avenues where citizens can freely express, participate, communicate and share their understanding, ideas and information that involve political, social issues and other diverse things that affect their social coexistence (Abubakar, 2012). Traditionally, earliest notions of the public sphere comprise of public spaces such as clubs, coffee joints and saloon joints, assemblies and hangouts and in Nigeria, motor parks, viewing centers, tea joints, market places and indeed any other public forums that has the potentiality to bring people together on common grounds to debate about issues. With the advancement in information and communication technology and society at large, the basic tenets of the Habermas’ public sphere have also been advanced from an easily physical, locational stage to a more sophisticated, online–based but complicated communication space where concerned members of the society could gather, in a virtual world and “exchange opinions regarding public affairs” and deliberate sometimes in a critical and analytical manner ((Abubakar, 2012; Allan, 2010, p.10; Ubayasiri, 2007, p.2). For the present study, this theory becomes very pertinent in helping to gauge the practicality of assuming that social media can be used as a public space by young people to engender a culture of social transformation and change in their societies.

**Methodology**

This study is designed as both quantitative and qualitative. In other words, it privileged triangulation – combining the use of survey and focus group approach. For the survey, a sample of 395 undergraduate students was drawn from the population of study totaling about 36, 000 students from Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, a Federal University in Nigeria. This was done using the formula worked out by Taro Yamane, for determining study sample sizes. Analyses were computer-assisted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data were presented in statistical tables and percentages. The research objectives were tackled by interpreting the statistical relationships among the relevant variables.

For the focus group discussion, two separate group discussions were held. Each comprises of six undergraduate students aged between 18-25 years, drawn from different departments of the University. The choice of six participants each is based on Liamputtong’s (2010) assertion that FDGs “involve a group of 6–8 people who come from similar social and cultural backgrounds or who have similar experiences or concerns”. The discussion/interview was transcribed into full text and the contents thematically analysed, albeit in direct comparison with the quantitative data.
I. Use of Social Media: Facebook

Table 2: showing data on the respondents’ use of social media, Facebook

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondents with Facebook Presence</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>97.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How long since being on Facebook</td>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 – 3 years</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>47.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 – 6 years</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 – 9 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of visit to Facebook</td>
<td>Everyday</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Several times in a week</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once in a while</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much time spent ‘Facebooking’</td>
<td>Average of 1–2hrs</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>39.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average of 3-5hrs</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less than 1 hour</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>49.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium used to access Facebook</td>
<td>Mobile phones</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>67.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal computer</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cybercafé</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A &amp; B above</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A &amp; C above</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B &amp; C above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on observation, what respondents’ friends do more on Facebook

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading friends’ comments/messages</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uploading photos/personal thoughts</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chatting</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading updates from friends</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging friends in discussions via posts</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making new friends</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All of the above</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kind of content respondents usually upload

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of content</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment stuff</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>27.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious stuff</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political stuff</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared contents</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On serious societal issues</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All of the above</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: What respondents spend more time doing on Facebook

Unlike in the survey, participants in the focus group interview were asked to say, in their own words, what ‘Social media’ means to them as young people. What came out from their responses is that these young people have a considerable knowledge of what it is all about. Majority see it mainly as opinion media as well as an interactive media. Thus, their answers include definitions such as: “it is kind of an opinion media where people merely air their own personal views about particular things”; “a place to meet people and share information and seek the opinions of others”; “a platform where you can express your thoughts about the things that are bothering you”; “has to do with interaction”; “is synonymous with young people because they are trend-setters”; “an interactive platform… that helps to foster user-generated content, with characteristics of interactivity and participation” etc. One of the youths in the discussion gave a rather robust definition of social media thus:

I see social media as a social arm that links people all around the world; a place where you can get in contact with people that you have never seen; and of course it is very seamless and anonymous, meaning you can say anything. It is just like when we talk about the democratic experimentation, freedom of access to communication and the media – that’s just what
social media is about: to give everybody a voice where all of us can have a stake. If I feel anything now, in fact before I even think about a thing, am already typing away because it is a way of expression. It is way of thinking… It gives me that idea that I can actually say something and anybody can know what am thinking right now; that yes, am somebody and people will be there to listen to what I have to say and comment on it, people I don’t even know, even foreigners. You feel like you belong to the global system somehow. Even though you may not have money, you may just be in your corner in your village but you have a voice… (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).

It is remarkable to note that the young people’s ideas about social media emanate strongly from the uses they and their friends make of it. Another thing that came out from this social media question is the fact that many of the participants agree that social media has become “a combination of the print media, broadcast media, public relations and advertising joined together online and it makes it faster”. They again maintain that social media is a kind of media that has come to give people the opportunity to participate, unlike what obtains in the traditional media paradigm. According to them, unlike the traditional media, SM give people room to give feedback and to be co-creators of media content. One of them said “we see things portrayed as news in the traditional media, but they are rarely discussed there. It is now on this social media that they are actually discussed by people”.

The direct implication of this trend has called for yet another common trend today: “That is why you see newspapers having online Facebook accounts. They now have social media accounts because they know that is the source of the interaction purpose of every media”.

From quantitative data above, Facebook ranks as the social media that majority of the respondents (67 percent) make the most use of. Also, 97.1 percent of the survey respondents aver to having Facebook accounts. This finding is sustained in the focus group discussion, as the participants unanimously agreed that Facebook is their most preferred and most used of all the social media, which ranges from Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Blogs, Wiki, Instagram, Badoo, to mention a few. This claim is further substantiated with various reasons given by the participants: “Because it is where you make new friends and are updated on so many things”; “It helps me to lighten up especially when am bored”; “Because I get to discuss with my friends in their various locations scattered all over, get information from them and use those information to adapt to where I am”; “Because it has this multi-media approach – it has a section for chatting, a section to upload and share things and a section to air your views”; “It helps in spreading information between friends and others, faster”; “Because it is a place you can meet influential people and learn from them”, and so on…. The participants all agreed that Facebook is not just a user friendly medium; it is, according to them, “a multi-purpose media”, where hard-core news and current information could be found, where entertainment abound, where educating pieces are at reach, and where one can get personal, such as letting the world know how/what you feel at any moment and interact with friends. They however observe that the ability of a Facebook user to utilise all these effectively largely depend on “how many friends you have, how many pages you LIKE, how many groups you belong to and the kind of pages you like as well”.

The youth engaged in the discussion were also found to be Facebooking “everyday”, “on daily basis”, and “all the time”, falling in line with the results from the survey where respondents who facebook every day and several times in a week are 65 percent. Since Facebook is adjudged the most preferred and used social media, it is worthy of note to state that Facebook use is found to be highly prevalent in the lives of the young people I engaged in the focus group interview. Most of them consider it a ‘hide-out’ where they go to meet their friends whenever they are physically bored stiff or in need of diversion. It was commonplace then to hear some of the participants saying that “Facebook is a place where I go to when I don’t have any other place to go to. Sometimes it’s kind of a defense mechanism for me when I feel awful or something; I just go there to say anything I feel”. Another participant, who had been tagged “Facebook” by his family as a result of his constant Facebooking habit, has this to say:

Most of the time, due to the fact that I facebook often, my mum and my siblings call me “Facebook”. Yes, they name me facebook because at a point when they wake up around 8 am before they go to work they will be like “Mike [not real name], have you heard? Did you hear that maybe the President said this or did you hear this and that about the ASUU strike?” I will tell them “see I’ve read all these things online before you guys woke up, so I already know them” And they will be like “Wow, okay”. So they will say this is one of the benefits I derive from Facebook. (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).

Further revelations from the focus group interviews also hinted that adolescents are also found to be making heavy use of Facebook. The participants recounted how their 12 – 14 year old siblings and neighbours are making heavy and disturbing use of Facebook. This degree of the participants’ Facebook use is further exemplified in how long they have been registered Facebook users and the number of friends they have. They, like the 82 percent in the survey that claim they have been on Facebook for the past1 – 6 years, have been active Facebook users between 2004 – 2010, just as the number of their Facebook friends ranged between 150 – 1, 500. The participants were divided among those who believe they should not have many friends and so, should censor their friends; and those who simply add anyone that requests their friendship and in turn requests anyone they “thought looked cool and everything”. Moreover, some of the participants admitted to having two or more Facebook accounts, bearing different names and sometimes even pseudo-names. They were however hesitant to say the real reason(s) why they do this. One of the participants who personally find the act distasteful offered a possible answer:

It means the person has a vice stocked inside of the person. It’s becoming rampant nowadays; you know. You just give yourself another name that doesn’t exist in order for you to express the other side of you. It means you have an animalistic tendency (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).
On a cumulative scale, almost 90 percent of the respondents in the survey spend between [less than 1 hour] – 2 hours facebooking. This finding is in line with that emanating from the focus group discussion where the participants spend between 5 minutes – 3 hours facebooking whenever they are logged on. This finding presents a somewhat undecided position on the issue of how long young people stay online facebooking. This is because a good number of the respondents still allege that they stay as long as they are interested while some say they stay for 24 hours. It was found that this is seen among those of them who have Blackberry or Android phones. With such smart phones, they “can stay online for even one week; that means [I] can always appear online to people and my status will be showing am online for one week”. Another said “some of us use Blackberry phones and we get notifications alerts every second. But sometimes, it doesn’t mean you are active, like making use of it, even though you are receiving the notifications from Facebook”.

It came as no surprise that mobile phones are the predominant, most preferred and readily-available medium used by participants to facebook. One of them quipped “when I am with my phone, am always online because anywhere I am, even in class sometimes, I am tempted to know what’s happening in the online world”.

Already, in the survey, 67.6 percent of the respondents declare that mobile phone is their main medium of accessing their Facebook accounts. The focus group discussions afforded the opportunity to elicit from the participants the reason why this is so. According to them, “it’s an easy way to facebook, it goes everywhere with you”; “it is very portable”; “it has ease of access; you know, you could just play with it anytime”; “the cost is cheaper”. On the contrary however, some participants pointed out the fact that using laptop or the computer system to facebook could be more gratifying in the sense that “things are larger in size with the computer system”, “it’s easier to use some Facebook applications and features when facebooking with your computer than with a phone” and “you can chat with someone else and at the same time scroll down and look at other people”.

Still on the uses they make of Facebook, their responses on the particular activity(ies) that take(s) more of their time on Facebook, were in no way similar, unlike the data from the survey which suggested that 30 percent of them spend more time chatting and another 26 percent spend more time merely reading their friends’ updates and comments.

What could however not be hidden from the whole discussion about the particular uses young people make of Facebook is the fact of the obvious frivolity inherent in these uses. One of the participants confessed off-guardedly:

“There’s also one thing am fond of doing: if I get dressed and about to go out, I snap pictures with my phone and post them with something like “Off to school; how do I look?” And you find out that more than 27 persons will comment and tell me “you look good, you look this, you look that…”

**Moderator: now do you get more comments for picture-posting than for your motivational and serious talks?**

**Speaker6:** Yes it’s different. If I share my motivational stuff, I can get like 7-8 comments but when I post an “Am off to school” picture for example, I might end up getting like 28 or more comments. Sometimes they even tell me to go and change to different attire that the one I was about going out with didn’t fit. And I would do that; then snap and post again… Then everyone will just laugh and I will then be like “Bye guys, am off to school”… It’s always as though I am seeing them and they are seeing me… (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).

If the youth from the survey and the participants of the focus group discussions agree that Facebook ranks as their most loved, used, and preferred social media, the question at this moment is: how much critical knowledge do they have about the Facebook? How literate are they about it? These questions become important because, commonsensically, the extent of one’s use about something could be dependent on the extent of the person’s knowledge and literacy about that same thing.

For this, 59.7 percent of the survey respondents affirm their awareness of other Facebook applications/features aside the most common ones like News feeds, Timeline, Wall, and Notifications. In furthermore of this finding, participants in the focus group discussions were asked to name, off-heartedly some of the Facebook features or tools aside the most common ones mentioned above. As a result, they named Facebook Chat, LIKE, SHARE, COMMENT, Facebook Notes, Facebook Pages, Facebook Group, Tags, Message Inbox and others as the Facebook tools and features they know. Their answers showed that they, to a very significant extent, are aware and knowledgeable about most Facebook features and or tools. However, survey data also suggest that a good number of the youth do not make use of some relevant Facebook tools such as Facebook Notes and Facebook Question. This could be as a result of low literacy about them.

The youth were brazen enough to equally say that they would equally advise such ‘illiterate’ persons about some dangers inherent in the way people tend to misuse the Facebook social media. These include the danger of being exposed to what they called “rubbish, pornographic and nude pictures”; identity falsification that are used for fraud, sex commercialization, sexual harassments, blackmails, extortion of money from online victims and all sorts of other nefarious acts. Most of them were also quick to mention the fact that Facebook could be quite addictive. One of the participants was rather conclusive: “I will simply tell her the truth: it is simply a distraction”. When probed further on the issue of distraction, the youth concluded that Facebooking sometimes pose disturbing challenges to young people’s academic growth by encroaching into their study times. These findings
inevitably create a paradoxical feeling of whether to allude blessing to it or a curse, instead.

II USE OF FACEBOOK FOR SOCIAL CHANGE AND TRANSFORMATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of Arab Spring revolution</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>66.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>33.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Facebook to advocate or win support for a cause that brings social change and national transformation</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of group/organization on on Facebook which champions using youth for social change</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership of group/organization on on Facebook which champions using youth for social change</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>55.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>44.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section discusses the extent to which young people have been able to use the social media, Facebook in this instance, for any social change or social transformation in their societies. This was evaluated through a series of questions. Firstly, the participants in the focus group discussions were asked whether they are aware of the popular case of the “Arab Spring” where young people were part of the population that used social media to cause revolutions in Iran, Tunisia and Egypt in recent times. Almost all of them confessed to their only having heard about it from the grapevine but neither have an in-depth knowledge nor taken time themselves to look up/read up on the incidences. Their responses were no different from what one of them said “People have told me about it but I have not gone to check it out. Right now, I just made a note on my jotter to remind myself I have to go check this thing out…” Only a very few were able to recount at least a brief story of how the Tunisian revolution, for instance, began.

Meanwhile, 66.6 percent of the survey respondents have said they are not aware and knowledgeable about the Arab Spring revolution in these places. What however came out strongly from the focus group discussions was the fact that the respondents did not mince words in saying that social media, with the help of smart phones in vogue today, are giving even Nigerian youths opportunities to bring to the fore societal injustice and other issues and upheavals that could make Nigerians better informed, just as the young passer-by who got the video clip of Mohammed Bouazizi, the Tunisian who set himself on fire and caused the upheaval that led to the revolution, did. This goes to show that social media with the help of smart and digitally updated mobile phones are fast becoming avenues whereby even the very ordinary citizens could practice amateur or citizen journalism and bring to public glare some nefarious happenings in their immediate environment, just as is the case in Tunisia (via YouTube) and other places. According to them, even the attention of necessary authorities, are by the virtue of social media tensions and activisms, drawn to such social cases. In Nigeria, the youth in the discussion mentioned about three main incidences where young people used social media to air their grievances, namely: the period of the fuel subsidy removal, the killing of the four undergraduate students in Aluu settlement in Rivers State and the period of the prolonged ASUU strike action. While 69 percent of those surveyed acknowledge they have never used Facebook to advocate or win support for a cause that will bring about social and national transformation, those engaged in the group interview with me also, without trying to impress me, agreed to having done little or nothing in this respect. But some of them who insist they do, reveal that the best and the littlest way they do so is to “to talk about it on [my] personal Facebook page”, “commenting and contributing to conversations online”, “dishing out information and letting people talk about it” and “stressing more on people’s attitude, reading and sharing lots of motivational pieces too”. On the other hand, there appears to be a major reason why the effort is reduced to this rather run-of-the-mill level. One of the participants was bold to have said:

I use more of words because the truth is that we are in a country that is not secure.
That is why most of us are afraid that you don’t know what you will upload and tomorrow they will start tracking you.
You are all aware of what happened in USA when Mr. Snowden exposed the CIA. In America people’s phone lines can
be tracked. In such a location you don’t know what and when to upload certain statements or pictures for the fear of the unknown. But even at that, they have security to protect the citizens. Mr. Snowden today is being protected by Russia and China. But in Nigeria today where are you going to hide? Who will protect you? So I use more of words not pictures, because of fear of the unknown. I streamline whatever I say on the social media. (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013)

“Everybody is pro-joke, pro-entertainment, pro-fun…”; “I have this feeling that it’s just us young people reading these things on Facebook and that we will just see the thing and it will just end there”; “I feel as if nobody will do anything, so I don’t even bother myself to do anything more”; “In Nigeria, we are entertainment conscious; we really want things that could just excite us…”

Still on the reasons why it seems young people do not use Facebook for any social change agenda, such revealing ideological statements above are found to run through the discussions. Their capitulations range from the fact that:

1. They do not believe people will take them seriously. There is a feeling of hopelessness on the part of the young people. One of them said, “Even if you post such things that you think will be good for social change, somebody will be like “who told you”, “na you sabi” (that’s your business), “dis amebo sef (you are a busy-body)”…They just think you are one of those people that like to bother themselves”. This shows some youth even subject those who try to speak social change and social transformation, to ridicule.

2. There is a feeling that no one is interested in doing anything with what they have to say or agitate about. One participant opined “some people see Facebook as a voiceless voice, where you just keep talking and ranting and nothing is done about nothing”.

3. There is a general pandering towards the more entertaining, fun and informal side of Facebook than the serious things. This gets some serious Facebook users among them, discouraged. One participant recounts rather bitterly “when you sit down and write reasonable things you want to share with others to start a reasonable conversation, you might just end up seeing only 1 comment but then you see someone else share a stupid joke, you could see like 500 hundred comments for that alone. So this gets you discouraged”. Little wonder everyone agreed that young people on Facebook all seem to be pro-joke, pro-entertainment, and pro-fun. They posit that “in Nigeria, we are entertainment conscious; we really want things that could just excite us…”

4. Another reason for this situation among Facebook users in Nigeria could be what the participants have described as the fact of our being “at the receiving end of the new media revolution”.

One of them had no hesitation in describing the situation thus:

In fact we are comfortable to be at the receiving end, you know. Everybody just wants to receive. This co-creation of contents we are talking about, it doesn’t apply to Nigeria because we are always like “these things are already there, why should we bother ourselves?” And then we are almost everywhere on social media whereas people like us are the ones creating Twitter, 2go, Facebook, blogs and the rest. Nobody seems to be thinking of creating one; we just want to be there and receive. Once we hear of a new one, we just enter… (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).

5. The attention span of people on social media such as Facebook is quite limiting. Hear one of the participants: “I think it’s because people don’t like things that sound serious; things that will take much of their time, they just need something that they can just take a quick glance at, something short, concise, straight-forward…”

Additionally, data from the survey suggest that majority of the respondents, even though aware of certain organisations on Facebook that champion social change, are not members of such organisations or groups. The points provided above might be used as justifying reasons why this is so. This therefore solves the puzzling observation earlier made in the quantitative analysis, on the reason why their level of awareness about such organisations/groups did not match their membership of such organisations. A few of the participants however mentioned some Groups they think champion using Facebook to bring about social change and transformation, but which they are not necessarily members of. They include: Abia State Awakening, Imo State Youth, Ndigbo, Nationalist Forum, One Love Keep Us Together, Feynolds Associates, Arise Network, Elites Visionaries’ Congress, African Internet and Radio Biafra.

If these young people are doing little or nothing to critically engage the social media of Facebook in things that could bring about social change and transformation, it was important then to explore the kind of agenda they are consciously or unconsciously setting on Facebook. The participants allege that there appears to be a common feeling and attitude among young people that critical things such as social change, transformation and national development are not really for them. As one of them confesses:

Predominately, I think that we are setting the agenda that we don’t amount to anything; that we are not part of the system. That we are not part of the decision-makers in the country. So we often feel like we should leave the burden of thinking about the future to the leaders – those in the House of Assembly and in politics. Those are the ones who are thinking but oftentimes they are not thinking right. But we young people just feel like “let’s just play, it’s not our business”. (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013)
This speaks volume about their general attitude and disposition. This also suggests that these young people might be petrified, uncomfortable, unprepared, flippant or generally not confident in seeing themselves as change agents for their society. Perhaps this is why the respondents further allege that young people’s agenda on Facebook smacks of frivolity, “just to waste time”, “for lies and deceit”. The overall kind of agenda which youths are using Facebook to set appears not to have any prospects of helping in any way to contribute to the so-called social transformation.

As a way to stimulate the young people whom I engaged in the focus group discussions, I attempted finding out what they thought is the inclusive role of youth in social and national development of Nigeria. Their responses are summarized below:

- Talking – The youths in the discussion believe that merely talking about our social and national needs in regards to development is one way youth can contribute. This talking could be online or offline as the case may be. They believe “our role is just to keep advising, to keep on talking. Even if they don’t listen, I feel that if we keep saying it among us young people, we are changing our own orientation because many of us are ready to go and do worse things tomorrow”.
- Young people should start with themselves – looking inwards and changing attitudes and mind-sets that need changing and imbibing new, better ones.
- Being innovative and creative, according to them is another way young people can assert themselves in the society. This way, their contributions will speak for them.
- Aspiring to do greater things and not having a limiting mind-set about achieving goals and aspirations. The youth in the discussion believe that the first thing for the youth in Nigeria to do before worrying about contributing to social and national transformation is to become great and successful in their chosen careers and fields. They argue that the reason why it seems as though youth are not talking or not being heard is because they are still “no-bodies”.

Conclusion

Vallor in 2007, before Facebook was officially made public in 2008, argued that people need to learn to cultivate certain ‘virtues’ that will help them realise the potential of socially and personally satisfying forms of communicative interaction online. In today’s world of the Internet, digital technologies and the social media, as McDonnell (2011, p.6) would later point out, “it is the ‘networked individual’ who has to learn the skills and virtues that will make human flourishing possible in the hugely more complex communities of the online global polis”.

In looking at the Nigerian youth that have been studied in this research, there is an apparent lack of these virtues as evangelised by the above authors. For technology and its inherent power not to become defeated in the future, it is important that critical questions about such technologies be asked and answered by this generation before diving into an uninformed use of such. Again, technologies should be studied in view of their inherent power and how such powers could be appropriately harnessed. What boyd (2010, p. 99) said about youth of this generation becomes relevant here:

By default, online we are nothing more than a series of bytes. In other to exist in any meaningful way, we must write ourselves into being. We must tell others who we are so that they can see us, so that they can interpret the signals that we give, as well as those we accidentally give off. This requires us to question who we are.

This questioning of “who we are” must entail Nigerian youth asking such questions as “what kind of a democracy are young people inheriting?”, “what challenges face them as they acquire the rights and duties that come with democratic citizenship?” Perhaps this would be the first task any purposeful and determined-to-achieve-social-change Nigerian youth should take on. If he or she merely relies on the apparent and theoretical nuances of social media like Facebook, as having the power to give voice to the voiceless and powerless and creating a dialogic space or public sphere for young people and others to converge and fight for rights or cause revolutions such as was evidenced in Egypt, Tunisia, Moldova and Iran, then he or she might run into an illusion. Or, he or she merely relies on the apparent and theoretical nuances of social media like Facebook, as having the power to give voice to the voiceless and powerless and creating a dialogic space or public sphere for young people and others to converge and fight for rights or cause revolutions such as was evidenced in Egypt, Tunisia, Moldova and Iran, then he or she might run into an illusion.

The talk of Twitter and Facebook revolutions is “a naive belief in the emancipatory nature of online communication that rests on a stubborn refusal to acknowledge its downside” (Morozov, 2010, p. xiii). Pointing, clicking, uploading, liking and befriending on Facebook would be “slacktivism” – “feel-good online activism that has zero political or social impact. It gives those who participate in ‘slacktivist’ campaigns an illusion of having a meaningful impact on the world without demanding anything
more than joining a Facebook group” (Morozov, 2009). This is the reality of the use of social media for engendering a culture of social transformation by youth in Nigeria and even elsewhere. Studies have also affirmed that the so-called social media revolutions witnessed in Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Moldova, Iran and the rest did not solely start online (Fuchs, 2014; Valenzuela, 2013; Safranek, 2012; Harlow, 2011). They point to the fact that there has to be first, an effort by some group to form together offline, develop strong ties and then move online to get more followers and to further use the social media for easier, faster and uncensored dissemination of critical information. Lovejoy & Saxton (2012) were referring to this method when they shared that “by enacting individuals’ offline networks online, social media can facilitate access to a large number of contacts, thereby enabling social movements to reach critical mass”.

Indeed, the potentiality and dimensionality of Facebook and other social media regarding their enabling interactivity between people of various backgrounds, giving access to relevant information, as well as creation of a dialogic public space where citizens can congregate on common grounds to champion and engineer social transformation agenda for the society, cannot be denied. In this, the public sphere theory has proven very relevant and sustained. Though some of the postulations of the theory are increasingly being challenged by the inappropriate and disturbing uses-and-gratifications that young people derive from social media, arising from lack of critical knowledge, lack of a focused goal and conducive environment, yet, the power of social media cannot be easily ignored. Valenzuela (2013, p.922) further directs us to three main mediating mechanisms that explains why using social media can engender a collective action toward social change. First, social media is a veritable source for news, which this present study attests to; social media creates a space for political expression, and social media could be a tool for joining causes and finding mobilizing information. Indeed all hope is not lost, and as Johnson (2011, p.18) concludes, “the mere fact that nearly all youth use social networks shows that social movements would be foolish to ignore them”. As one of the youth I engaged in focus group interview enthused, “Facebook is a market and [we] should try our best to utilize this market. It is a place where you don’t need to know someone one-on-one to make an impact. You have a chance to impact a big crowd and Facebook is making it easier for us to get to that crowd” (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).

The case of Malala Yousafzai, a Pakistan 16-year old who at a young age started advocating for the rights of young girls in her community, thus represents a challenge for the 21st century Nigerian youth. She was said to have defied the national order for “No education for girls” in Pakistan; was once shot in the head and left to die; but fortunately survived the attack and went on to use the blog she created as well as her articles in papers, to garner support for giving back the girl-child her rights in Pakistan. Today, she is reputed to have succeeded in sending many Pakistani girls back to school. One of my young discussants in the group discussion, challenged us all thus:

Today, 12 June has been named Malala Day by the United Nations; her birthday. Even before she addressed the UN, you can imagine that more than 3million young girls in UK signed to support her cause. Her father is not rich; he is just a school teacher/owner so if she can do what she did, then all of us in developing country of Nigeria can too. The problem is that we talk more on the Internet and do less on the outside world. Malala of course started with just a blog which she owns. She writes and sends to BBC, and they publish. (Focus group discussion, 20 July 2013).

As a democratic entity, Nigerian youth should not just be encouraged, but thus challenged to embrace online activism through the positive, prudent, informed, literate, and better appropriated use of the social media in their daily lives. This is not just a democratic clarion call, but a matter for urgent civic education, knowledge and enlightenment.

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document published by Shehu Musa Yar’Adua Foundation.


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The Representation of Bandits in Turkish Cinema

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Abstract
The banditry cannot be considered independent from the state which is used as a power and an apparatus of coercion against oppressed class by the ruling class. In this respect, for the existence of banditry or the bandit, it needs to be a political and socio-economic system to be against it. In different regions of the world historical process, the banditry has emerged and then tales and stories of bandits have been reflected as a subject into the art, cinema and literature. In the history of literature and art, the definition of bandit and how it is defined can vary. They can be presented as thugs, thieves or robbers by the ruling class and by the supporters of the founded system whereas they can also be seen as heroes or savours by the oppressed class. The banditry is, in Turkey too, an issue has processed in the art and literature. The banditry themed movies in Turkey started in 1948 (with Şadan Kamil’s Efe Aşkı) and ended with Yavuz Turgul’s Eşkıya (The Bandit) which was filmed in 1996. In this study, it is aimed to reveal how the bandits are represented in Turkish cinema through the concept of Eric Hobsbawm’s term of social bandit.

Introduction
The etymological origin of the term bandit that spread to many languages starting from English dates back to bandito in Italian that means someone, one way or another, outside the realm of law (Hobsbawm, 2011: 15). As it is also implied in the etymology of the concept, the existence of bandits requires order and laws that are bound to regulate them. It is in that sense that Hobsbawm states that we can only talk about bandits within the context of a socio-economical and political order they are to oppose; the history of bandits is a part of the history of power; it is only possible to better grasp bandits with respect to those in power and their relations with societies under their rule (2011: 8, 14, 16). Hobsbawm also indicates that bandits dwell in places where power cannot assume dominance (2011: 21). Similarly, Ruff (2011: 258) argues that bandits gained power in places where the political authority collapsed due to ongoing wars. Historians state that bandit gangs, in early modern times, were mostly comprised of young people, while today’s criminologists believe that youth is a period prone to criminal behaviours (Ruff, 2011: 271).

Supporting this argument, Hobsbawm also believes that bandits are mostly young males from adolescence to the age of marriage, as they have a certain freedom of movement not having yet undertaken the responsibility to raise a family (2011: 47). Lastly, Hobsbawm (2011: 36-37) adds that bandits came to end because capitalist economy removed both agricultural societies and peasantry; it has become history although we still witness the existence of bandits in some regions.

Social Banditry Concept of Eric Hobsbawm
Hobsbawm classifies social bandits under three groups: nobel thieves, primitive resistant fighters he calls outlaws and reverger guerilla units. According to him, social bandits do not have an alternative intellectual structure than that of the peasant society they are a part of, that’s why it would not be true to expect a new social or political alternative from them. Social bandits stand against inequity and do not let injustices, but they aspire the re-establishment of the traditional order by ignoring riches’ exploitation of the poor. In this sense, social bandits are not revolutionaries but reformists. Their most noteworthy characteristic is that the sovereigns see them as criminals, while the oppressed peasants see them as savors, heroes or defenders of justice. Social bandits do not unjustly kill people and they continue to live at peace in their respective villages again as respectful persons once they come to terms with the power (2011: 25-70).

Hobsbawm’s arguments on banditry and social banditry have been criticized in many respects. One of the main criticisms is Blok. Blok (1972, 494-503) stated that Hobsbawm, ignoring social relations and structures, gave too much importance on banditry and peasantry; the myth of banditry and banditry itself prevented peasants to fight for themselves. Hobsbawm, in return, stated that the myth of banditry was based on the demand for justice and re-distribution of wealth at a social scale and accepted that this myth served as a means to console peasants or distort their zeal for change (2011: 228, 230). Carsten Kühter, criticizing Hobsbawm, stated that it was not true to classify banditry under different groups, as all types of crimes already imply social protest and rebel (Kühter in Hobsbawm 2011: 232-233). Hobsbawm, further worked on this idea and argued that petty criminals were considered to be more revolutionary than social bandits, as they had the courage to challenge authority and the very existence of state, while social bandits did not have a similar role, thusly differentiating social bandits from petty criminals (2011: 240).

Banditry in Anatolia
In Anatolia, lack of order and peace, accordingly banditry has always been present during the time of Ottoman Empire. Although we have a lot of official documents regarding banditry cases in 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, we do not have many official documents regarding banditry in Anatolia in the 19th century, the period when banditry was considered to be the most prevalent (Yetkin, 1996: 49). Banditry and the myth of banditry have a significant place in different regions of Anatolia. There are variations of the same bandit histories in different regions. Köröglu is the most common bandit myth. It is possible to come across with various stories on Köröglu from the west to the east of Anatolia. Although it is not clear where and when he lived, documents from the prime ministry archive prove that a bandit called Rusen but known as Köröglu actually lived in Bolu region in 1579-1582 (Ince, 2004: 11). According to the most common story, Köröglu heads to mountains and becomes a bandit when his father’s eyes were cauterised by the lord (bey) of the region. Since then, he fights against those oppressing people, starting from the lord
Bandits known as *zeybek* or *efe* in Aegean region also have an important place in the history of Anatolian banditry. Each member of the bandit gang is called Zeybek, while *efe* is the leader of them (Yetkin, 1996: 53). Çakırcalı Mehmet Efe is the bandit that is most widely known in Aegean region. Çakırcalı Mehmet Efe was born in 1872 and lost his life in 1911 out of a random bullet during a fight against the forces of the government. He was a bandit from 1899 to 1911 for 12 consecutive years; killed around thousand people and greatly troubled the Ottoman Empire (Dural, 2005: 56). Yetkin (1996: 83, 86). It is said that Çakırcalı became bandit to revenge his father and purge severe aspersions cast against his mother. The Europeans called him “Robin Hood of Turks” or “King of the Mountains,” he was covered by the press of many countries like Italy, France, Britain and Switzerland and there were even discussions about him in Britist lower house. Çakırcalı distributed the money he robbed from wealthy people to poors; forced the wealthy to make charities and build fountains. People loved him due to his bravery and gallantry (Meydan Larousse, 1980: 123).

Atçalı Kel Mehmet Efe who lived before Çakırcalı is quietly different from the other bandits and Hobsbawm’s concept of social bandits due to its actions. Atçalı Kel Mehmet, who started his banditry adventure as an ordinary “efe”, becomes a leader of a major insurgent against the Ottoman State in the years of 1829-1830. Uluçay (1968: 6-9) describes this insurgency as a people’s revolution and he adds that Atçalı Kel Mehmet removes arbitrary taxes, especially war taxes, he becomes the governor by toppling the states’ governor, and many provinces in the Aegean region are ruled under his authority. Also, he adds that the public adopts Atçalı’s ideas and supports him. It is stated that a new view point in terms of a social and political manner is not expected by the social bandits as they defends continuity of the traditional order. Atçalı Kel Mehmet, on the other hand, tries to form a new system so it is separated from the social banditry.

### Bandits in Turkish Cinema

Bandit films had a significant place in Turkish cinema especially in 1950s till the beginning of 1980s when there was a considerable migration from the rural parts of the country to cities. The first bandit film was *Efe Aşkı* (*The Love of the Efe*) that was shot in 1948. While *efes* were the heros who populated Turkish cinema the most, Çakırcalı Mehmet Efe had a specific place among them. The life of Çakırcalı Mehmet Efe has been adopted to cinema for seven times. The most noteworthy of all Çakırcalı films is *Dokuz Dağın Efesi* (*The Efe of Nine Mountains*) directed by Metin Erksan in 1958. The film was criticized for its resemblance to *Viva Zapata* and the actors’ attitude resembling Marlon Brando. Although all of the bandit films shot in 1958 to 1965 were about bandits rebelling against the Ottoman Empire, all were basically under the influence of western movies. Around 60 movies under banditry theme were screened from 1948 to 1977. The last bandit movie of Turkish cinema is *Eşkıya* (*The Bandit*) directed by Yavuz Turgul in 1996 (Özgüc, 2005: 163-169).

#### Research Model and Sampling

The research aspires to find out how bandits have been represented in Turkish cinema based on the “social banditry” concept of Hobsbawm. The films thusly selected will be evaluated based on descriptive analysis method. Following three films have been chosen based on judgement sampling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>The year when it was screened</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dokuz Dağın Efesi</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atçalı Kel Mehmet</td>
<td>1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Köroğlu</td>
<td>1968</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To serve the purposes of the research, films about the lives of bandits that actually existed have been chosen. Among the movies dealing with lives of real bandits, we have chosen the ones that are about those bandits that have a prevailing existence in popular legends, stories and songs.

#### Findings and Comment

When the films are analysed in accordance with the real stories of bandits, and Hobsbawm’s concepts of bandits and social bandits, it is seen that three of the bandits in a younger age start to banditry, without getting married and so without taking family responsibility. In all films, the leading characters fall in love with a woman and got married after they started to banditry. In *Atçalı Kel Mehmet* and *Dokuz Dağın Efesi*, the spouses of the bandits always demand the leading characters to stop banditry. The most affected banditry character by the marriage is Çakırcalı Efe. In *Dokuz Dağın Efesi*, the wife of Çakırcalı accepts the marriage as long as he leaves the banditry.

In all films, the reason of starting to be a bandit is injustice and cruelty of the lords (bey) in the places where the leading characters live. In *Dokuz Dağın Efesi*, Çakırcalı become a bandit after his father is deceived and unfairly killed and her mother is insulted by a soldier.

When he clashes with military units that include a soldier who killed his father, Çakırcalı reveals that his intention does not to kill other soldiers and his aim is to take his personal revenge. His comments about leaving banditry after he killed the murderer of his father is also demonstrates this. However, other bandits persuade him and he continues to banditry. Later, he struggles to maintain justice for the peasants that suffer injustice. In the film of *Atçalı Kel Mehmet*, all the banditry is illustrated as if he made those to
come together with the women that he falls in love. Also, in the film, Efe’s being a governor is attached to this. When the women that he falls in love told him the impossibility of their marriage, he says that he can shift the impossible into possible and if it is necessary he could be a soldier or a governor to marry with her. In a conversion with a lord (bey) he says he makes the banditry to meet the women that he loves. In this sense, the movie distorts the reality about the social side of Atçali Mehmet Efe and it makes unclear the social reality of the leading character. In Köroğlu, on the other hand, the leading character starts banditry after his father is tortured and made blind and then killed by the lord (bey). To take his revenge, Köroğlu joins the bands in the mountains. Then, he takes the leadership by overwhelming the petty criminal leader. After that, he changes the system and he does not touch the goods of the poor caravan owners and he just robs the goods of rich caravans.

In three films, it is seen that the leading characters are not different from the peasants and they do not have an intention to form a new political or social order. As it is stated previously, although all the bandits have an intention to provide justice, they do not have any attempts to change the current class relations. In Dokuz Dağın Efesi, Çakırcalı, demands not to kill the soldiers and not to touch the government property from the bandits that want to join his gang. Thus, this illustrates that he does not have any problems with the state or the current system. In Köroğlu, the father of the leading character says that the lord (bey) tyrannizes over the people and does not do the things that are prescribed by the sultan. In this sense, the father of Köroğlu implies that the problem is not stems from the state but is stems from the local lord. Also, he gives messages that the struggle will be continued against the local lord not against to the state.

In Atçali Kel Mehmet, different from the other two films, the leading character announces his own governorship and he has an attitude against the state and thus, he become out of Hobsbawm’s social bandit concept. However, according to the film, that anti-state attitude is unconscious and it is done to meet with a woman that he loves. Eventually, the bandits in films are not revolutionist but they are reformist.

By helping the poor people and struggling for the justice against the cruel lords, in Dokuz Dağın Efesi, Çakırcalı, in Atçali Kel Mehmet, Mehmet Efe, and in Köroğlu, Köroğlu characters represent the social bandit. By making alliances with the lords, theyrannize over people and seizes the goods of them, in Dokuz Dağın Efesi, Kamalı Efe, in Atçali Kel Mehmet, Uzun Efe and Kara Efe, and in Köroğlu, Cidali Kenan represent petty criminals. It is previously stated that Kühter says dividing bandits into different groups is false since all banditry actions include social protests and revolts. Hobsbawm’s argument about the division of social bandit and petty criminals that is against Kühter’s argument is obviously seen in all analysed films. When the petty criminals in the films commit a crime, they do not seek to realize social protests or riots as opposed to Kühter’s argument. On the contrary, they conform Hobsbawm’s petty criminal defining since they tyrannise over the people under the service of the cruel lords.

Conclusion
In the historical process, banditry has existed as a reality of the countries where the capitalist economy has not affected them yet. When the state does not provide the justice for the areas under its sovereignty and when it tyrannizes over its people, the banditry always exists as a social fact. In the studied films, it is observed that the banditry is subjected to a clear division as a representation of social bandit and petty criminals. As a criticism of Hobsbawm’s concept of social banditry, it is argued that since the petty criminals have an anti-state attitude, they are more revolutionist than the social bandits. In the studied films, petty criminals do not have an anti-state attitude; in fact, they make alliances with the state and the lords in return of getting money. Among the three films, in Dokuz Dağın Efesi, social bandits’ critical attitude against injustice and the mission of helping the poor people are relatively highlighted. However, in the Köroğlu and Atçali Kel Mehmet, the mission of banditry is just a motif that nourishes the love story in the film. Especially, the movie of Atçali Kel Mehmet, explicitly abstracts the real identity and social attitude of Atçali Kel Mehmet Efe whose character has the most obvious social aspect annuls the states’ laws and realizes people’s revolution.

References
PERCEIVING MIGRATION IN EMİRDAĞ: A BAUDRILLARDIAN PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract
By 1970s, Western societies have entered a new phase marked by a cultural, economic and political transformation. These transformations in the economic realm as decrease in the demand on human labor and flexibility in the mode of production also have serious implications on the social, cultural and political areas, particularly on the volume and the nature of migratory flows. Post-modern school of thought provides the basis for the most of the arguments on the fore mentioned economic restructuration and its implications on contemporary social phenomena. The macro level theories that explain the labor migration from East to West and from South to North in the Fordist era, fall short in elaborating the multi-faceted flows of different forms of migration. Desires for different life style and opportunities, the images of the receiving societies and how the actors perceive the destined lands, play important roles in individual choices for migration. These images and information of various forms and kind are conveyed through mass media and Internet, which shape the perceptions and identity formation of the prospective migrants. From this standpoint, the main aim of this paper is to analyze the role and the way that perceptions, aspirations and images play in actors’ decision making for migration. Within this context, by employing Baudrillard’s conceptual framework, it will be argued that, in the universe of simulations, migration and factors of migration become hyperrealities and images that have lost their realities. By referring to Baudrillard’s concepts of simulacrum and simulation, it is intended to explicate whether or not and how perceptions, desires, images constructed by individuals stimulate migration. Within this context, the impact of direct personal communications, the communication with symbols through material ownerships, and the impact of perceptions of material symbols on individuals will be analyzed. Furthermore, how these perceptions effect the decision making process for migration will be elaborated. For that purpose, an explorative research was conducted in Emirdağ district and its surrounding villages. Emirdağ used to be an important source of labor migration up until 1970s, still continues to be a major source of migration in the form of chain migration especially to Belgium even though economic labor migration to European countries has been halted for last three decades. In order to understand the main motives of the individuals and how the receiving societies are being perceived and the images of the receiving lands are being constructed by the actors of migration in the town, a series of semi-structured in-depth interviews are conducted with 44 participants, 24 women and 20 men from Emirdağ and its periphery.

Keywords: Inter-cultural communication, interaction of inter-group communication, simulacra, migrant imagination, life opportunities

Introduction
By the 1970s especially in the western societies, cultural, economic and social change have entered a new phase. This process corresponds to the emergence of the postmodern thought which has an impact on most of contemporary debates. At present, the instrumental rationality, universality, grand theories, reality and universal moral understanding of modernity is replaced by locality, the refusal of grand theories, subjectivity, deconstruction (Derrida), power and discourse (Foucault), and language games (Lyotard) of postmodernity. On the basis of collage, diversity, pluralism phenomenon the postmodern discourse was formed around the denial of all de facto propositions, language games, acceptance of plurality and diversity by scientists; application of linguistic transformation that opens the understanding of reality and truth to discussion, objecting to the hegemony of absolute truth (Kumar, 2010, Sarup, 2010, Rosenau, 2004). In this discourse what is important is no longer the question of truth but rather how truth is constructed. General moral understandings and principals have lost their legitimacy; now the sources of the moral principals are the living circumstances and the necessities of our current age. The macro level theories that explain the dynamics of migration, have evaluated the roles of production, distribution, the state principals are the living circumstances and the necessities of our current age. By referring to Baudrillard’s concepts of simulacrum and simulation, it is intended to explicate whether or not and how perceptions, desires, images constructed by individuals stimulate migration. Within this context, the impact of direct personal communications, the communication with symbols through material ownerships, and the impact of perceptions of material symbols on individuals will be analyzed. Furthermore, how these perceptions effect the decision making process for migration will be elaborated. For that purpose, an explorative research was conducted in Emirdağ district and its surrounding villages. Emirdağ used to be an important source of labor migration up until 1970s, still continues to be a major source of migration in the form of chain migration especially to Belgium even though economic labor migration to European countries has been halted for last three decades. In order to understand the main motives of the individuals and how the receiving societies are being perceived and the images of the receiving lands are being constructed by the actors of migration in the town, a series of semi-structured in-depth interviews are conducted with 44 participants, 24 women and 20 men from Emirdağ and its periphery.

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haven’t migrated yet.

**Simulacra, Simulation and Migration within Baudrillardian Framework**

For elucidating the efficiency of the consumer society debates in explaining the current social order, it could be referred to Baudrillard and his conceptualization of signs and images. Having the opinion that the consumer goods are the system of signs that differentiate the society, Baudrillard takes consumption as the consumption of signs rather than the use value (Sarup, 2010: 230, Baudrillard, 2015). Baudrillard evaluates the transition from modernity to post-modernity as a historical scheme such as early modernity, modernity and postmodernity (Sarup, 2010: 228, Baudrillard, 2015). Within this historicity, he writes about simulacra, which have no relation with anything except its own, self and mentions three phases of simulacra. (Baudrillard, 2014: 158-165; Baudrillard, 2008; Sarup, 2010: 228, Adamr, 2010, Aydoğan et. al., 2005, Öker, 2005). The first one is the Law of Natural Value that encompasses the era between the Renaissance and the Industrial Revolution. The form that designates this era is duplication. It is being stated that, the duplication of reality is remained at the art level such as painting, sculpture, theatre, (Baudrillard, 2008: x-xi).

The dominant form of the second phase of Industrialisation was production and the simulacrum of this stage was the Law of Commodity exchange value. In this phase production that was materialised by machinery were the simulacra, and the reproduction of the reality were shifted to movies, photography and the production of Industrial simulacra were in the form of mass production based on technology (Baudrillard, 2008: 97; Aydoğan et. al., 2005).

In this stage the simulacra are determined according to their Law of structural sign value and replace the hiper-reality. The goods are replaced by simulacra, which are the images that are to be perceived as reality, codes and simulations which are described as images that replace reality. What is important now is the images that took place of goods. From this standpoint, the organization of social life is around consumption and what is consumed are the images. In this capitalist development, production left its place to consumption and image and this destroys the reality. For instance mobile phones are far away from its original function of communication and become an image that are “connecting people”. What is important is not the need for a phone but the desire for simulation that replaced the phone, in other words, they consume the image of the brand. This is very similar to Disneyland: the material goods become vague and blurry in a universe that is surrounded by delusive colors and visions. Accordingly, a system of signs as simulacras has come into being which are independent of materials. In parallel with this, social relations also are carried out through images, symbols and brands.

Baudrillard mentions in his book The Transparency of Evil that we have passed from the third stage to the fourth stage of fractal stage. The definition of fractal stage as the contemporary scheme of our culture in his own words (Baudrillard, 1995: 11-12):

“For after the natural, commodity and structural stages of value comes the fractal stage. The first of these stages had a natural referent, and value developed on the basis of a natural use of the world. The second was founded on a general equivalence, and value developed by reference to logic of the commodity. The third is governed by code, and value develops here by reference to a set of models. At the fourth, the fractal (or viral, or radiant) stage of value, there is no point of reference at all, and value radiates in all directions, occupying all interstices, without reference to anything whatsoever, by virtue of pure contiguity. At the fractal stage there is no longer any equivalence, whether natural or general. Properly speaking there is now no law of value, merely a sort of epidemic value, a sort of general metastasis of value, a haphazard proliferation and dispersal of value. Indeed, we should really no longer speak of value at all, for this kind of propagation or chain reaction makes all valuation impossible. Once again we are put in mind of microphysics: it is as possible to make estimations between beautiful and ugly, true and false, or good and evil, as it is simultaneously to calculate a particle’s speed and position. Good is no longer the opposite of evil, nothing can now be plotted on a graph or analysed in terms of abscessas and ordinates. Just as each particle follows its own trajectory, each value or fragment of value shines for a moment in the heavens of simulation, and then disappears into the void along a crooked path that only rarely happens to intersect with other such paths. This is the pattern of fractal and hence the current pattern of our culture” (Baudrillard, 1995: 11-12; http://www.teoretisketirsdage.net/files/gimgs/Baudrillard%20-%20After%20the%20Orgy%20-%20Transaesthetics.pdf)

In defining the fractal stage Baudrillard uses the term After the Orgy. In this context Baudrillard declares that modernity and all the meaningful goals of the processes that are believed to emerge with modernity have been reached and at this stage of satisfaction the relations with reality have been disrupted (Baudrillard, 1995: 10):

“If we were to characterize the present state of affairs, I would describe it as ‘after the orgy’. The orgy in question was the moment when modernity exploded upon us, the moment of liberation in every sphere. Political liberation, sexual liberation, liberation of the forces of production, liberation of the forces of destruction, women’s liberation, children’s liberation, liberation of unconscious drives, liberation of art. The assumption of all models of representation, as of all models of anti representation. This was a total orgy. We have pursued every avenue in the production and effective overproduction of objects, signs, messages, ideologies and satisfactions. Now everything has been liberated, the chips are down, and we find ourselves faced collectively with the big question: What do we do now the orgy is over? Now all we can do is simulate the orgy, simulate liberation. We may pretend to carry on in the same direction, accelerating but in reality we are accelerating in a void because all the goals of liberation are behind us (Baudrillard, 1995: 10).”

The above-mentioned state is a state of simulation; all scenarios real or virtual have occurred so nothing left to do except replaying the already occurred scenarios. The reason for continuous reproduction is that the signs and practices are liberated from their ideas, concepts, essence, values, referents, roots and goals. Idea has already disappeared but things continue to process. The liberation started with modernity while reaching its goal, everything that liberated beyond its envisaged level liberated to enter the
sheer cycle (Baudrillard, 1995; Adanır, 2010, Aydoğan et. al., 2005, Öker, 2005). Even though all utopias are substantiated, oddly enough, there is nothing left to do but act as if they haven’t been substantiated yet (Baudrillard, 1995). The idea of development has disappeared but development continues. The idea of prosperity as the basis of production has disappeared but production continues. In the realm of politics idea has disappeared but game of politics with its own goals continues in a secret recklessness. Nothing disappears by coming to an end or dying; but disappears by rapid reproduction, extensionally, by way of satisfaction and transparancy; there is a diffusion in the form of fractal (Baudrillard, 1995, s.13).

Within this theoretical framework the constructed reality in the course of the migration process in general and the process of migration from Emirdağ to Europe in particular can be explained by, for example, Baudrillard’s analogy of Disneyland. With the existence of all kinds of games and toys Disneyland entertain individuals in a fantastic universe, while this hides the fact that the world outside of Disneyland which is believed to be the real is deceptive, what is perceived to be real belongs to the universe of simulation (Baudrillard, 2014: 26; Jacobi, http://essex.ac.uk/sociology/documents/pdf/ug_journal/vol7/2012SC224_ChristopherJacobi_FINAL.pdf Date: 28.31.2015.). Disneyland as a fictitious world is there to prove that the outside world is real and the underlying idea that Disneyland is to be so dreamy is to make people believe that the outside world is real. Whereas Baudrillard argues that California surrounding Disneyland doesn’t belong to the reality but belongs to the simulation World (Jacobi, http://essex.ac.uk/sociology/documents/pdf/ug_journal/vol7/2012SC224_ChristopherJacobi_FINAL.pdf Date: 28.31.2015). The main thesis of this article, in parallel to this analogy, everything in the simulation world has disappeared but continues to act as if they still exist such as the process of migration and the idealization of Europe as one of the sources of migration Migration as we know is in fact disappeared, migration to different cultures are not possible anymore since the cultures become homogenic like everything else. At the same time, the process of migration should seem to be continuing, the undocumented migrants should die in the Mediterranean, anti-migration laws should pass in order to pretend that the idealized Europe still exist and the idea that Europe is worthy to migrate continues.

From Baudrillardian point of view, the migration perceptions of people of Emirdağ, their strategies can be considered as reflections of simulacra. While the symbolic commodities of consumptions such as luxury cars, foreign plates, conspicuous consumption, gold could be regarded as pertaining to simulation order, it could be stated that the Europe constructed in the imaginations of people function as Disneyland in Baudrillardian sense. The desire for reaching a Europe that is like Alice’s Wonderland in the imaginations of people of Emirdağ as a result of communications through simulacra, and reaching a Europe that is completely the opposite of the imagined in fact hides the fact that the idealized Europe and the process of migration is a simulation universe and does not belong to the reality.

Within this theoretical framework and in order to analyse the migration process in the light of post-modern theories; the transformed consumption relations, the phenomenon of real and reality are examined. How the consumption patterns and expression of their life styles both verbally and in practices of the European Turks visiting the district of Emirdağ facilitate the construction of migration and Europe in the imaginations of the townspeople of Emirdağ and its surrounding villages is explained in reference to Baudrillard’s simulation universe and the concept of simulacra. The images, which were firstly represented by materials than replaced the materials and finally became the materials themselves, are an object of prestige and identity representation in social relations. When taking the images that became materials within the contest of Emirdağ, a foreign plate attached to a luxury car may embody the idealized life style for youth in Emirdağ. From a Baudrillardian framework, the idealized Eurocentric life styles that enter into the homes through mass media, come into existence with the commodities as simulacra brought by Turkish people from European countries who visiting their hometown of Emirdağ. The symbols of desired lifestyles appeal to the Emirdağ youth while becomes means of prestige and status for the European Turks visiting Emirdağ.

Methodology

Purpose

The purpose of the study as follows,

To analyze the role and the way that perceptions, aspirations and images play in actors’ decision making for migration.

In the universe of simulations, migration and factors of migration become hyperrealities and images that have lost their realities. By referring to Baudrillard’s concepts of simulacrum and simulation, it is intended to explicate (explekeyt) whether or not and how perceptions, desires, images constructed by individuals stimulate migration.

Within this context, the impact of direct personal communications, the communication with symbols through material ownerships, and the impact of perceptions of material symbols on individuals is analyzed.

Research Design

The main purpose of this research is to understand the dynamics of migration process in Emirdağ a district of Afyon central Turkey with forty thousand populations while two hundred thousand of its former townspeople live in several European countries. (http://Emirdag.gen.tr/haber/Emirdag-nuefsu-her-guen-2-kisi-azaliyor-4856, date: 12.05.2015; Bir Gurbet Türkışi Emirdağ Belgesel, 2008). For his purpose, a research was conducted in central Emirdağ and its surrounding villages in 2014 June and July-the months when the visitors from Europe come to Emirdağ for vacation. As a qualitative research the study that intend to analyze the perceptions of people from Emirdağ on migration, conducted in the frame of case study.

The research design consists of five stages, the definition of the question, entering the research field, selecting the participants, collecting the data and data analysis. Case study having the basic feature of indepth analysis of small number of cases serves as an efficient background to analyze the Dynamics of migration from Emirdağ to European countries and how this process was perceived with regard to the views of individuals who are directly affected by migration (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011; Büyüköztürk
Study Group

Study group of the research is determined by criterion sample one of the type of purposive sample. In this context, following criteria used to select the participants; people who are directly affected by migration process thorough their occupations, family ties and those who are studying in Emirdağ but strongly considering to migrate. The study group consists of 24 women and 20 men in total of 44 participants. The main criteria are that the participants are close witnesses or directly effected by the migration process, voluntary participation and confidentiality. Any information like names, communication and address information, detailed informations on occupation or any other information that would reveal their identities weren’t obtained during data collection and analysis stages and participants guaranteed full anonymity. Fort his purpose codes were given to participants with the combination of the first letter of their names, their age and the first letter of their dwelling like center –C- or village –V-.

Table 1: Education level and gender distribution of the study group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Primary Dropout</th>
<th>Secondary Dropout</th>
<th>Highschool Student</th>
<th>Highschool Graduate</th>
<th>University Student</th>
<th>University Graduate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Dwelling and gender distribution of the study group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Village</th>
<th>Town</th>
<th>Center</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Means of Data Collection

Semi-structured interview form developped by the researchers, used to collect data. This form consisted of open ended, interpretative questions. The participants were reached by snowball method and interviewes were conducted in the center of Emirdağ and its villages. Interviews took about 40 minutes and recorded and transcribed.

Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis is used to analyze the data. The findings expressed with quotations and interpreted in the light of the literature. At the first stage of descriptive analysis, a framework was determined for data analysis. The second stage the data were organized according to the framework and at the third stage the data were defined and lastly they were interpreted (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011).

Findings and Discussion

In this section, the findings of the research are analyzed with referans to Baudrillard’s arguments on simulation universe. The results are analysed under these three topics: The future and carrier plans of the participants; dynamics of the migration process; the reality of migration to Europe vs. the imagined migration to Europe.

In our contemporary world, every dimension of the social existence is in fact a complicated form of simulation, which is especially designed for the fragile reproduction of the political, economic and cultural (Luke, 1991, s.348). If migration taken into consideration within this context, it could be argued that migration is nourished with the dreams of reaching a land of prosperity, liberty and luxury and shaped by an imagined–European- lifestyle (Sahin Kütük, 2012; Marcus, 2009; Dominguez, 2014). However the previous researches reveak the fact that, the dreamed Europe and the actual social and working conditions the migrants find themselves in are completely the opposite (Şahin Kütük, 2012; Marcus, 2009; Dominguez, 2014). Hence the Simulation Theory of Baudrillard provides a unique basis for such an approach.

Each stage of simulation world has its own peculiar simulacra and values. Like all other social constructs, migration process is also shaped by these simulacra and values. In this context, from Baudrillard’s frame work we can say that in fractal stage the approaches and practices that shape the migration process have no any value, they do not take their roots from any real culture and does not have any certain equilibrium. Thus, as a result of these approaches the migration process creates strategies that contribute to the continuation of simulation order.

It could be mentioned that some of the concepts and statements that Baudrillard used for defining the fractal stage may find its reflections on the current developments of the migration process. Some of the peculiarities of the fractal stage that is functional in the analysis of migration could be as follows (Yaylacı and Göktuna Yaylacı, 2015):

- It is not possible to talk about the existence of value anymore; the law of value does not exist
- After Orgy; the perpetual reproduction
- Operational liveliness that hides the fact that everything have disappeared but act as if still exist
- Spread of the simulacra by technological dissemination

ve et.al., 2010).
Discourses without any basis

Plans and constructs for an order that doesn’t exist

Future Plans of the Participants

In order to understand the future and carrier plans of the participants, their carrier plans, how they perceive their own socioeconomic conditions and how can they picture themselves in 10 years are questioned. When their answers to these questions are analyzed it became clear that the participants who have a limited opportunity of carrier and education and little prospects in terms of occupation are in the process of migration to Europe. Senior year high school students, university students and the participants who have a stable job have negative views towards migration. Five of the participants are secondary and high school graduates with occupations like owning small size entrepreneurs, fifteen participants are senior year high school students who plan to continue their university education. 11 participants finished their primary school education but didn’t continue to high school or dropouts. They are either farmers in the rural areas or jobless. The same 11 participants whose spouses are third or fourth generation immigrants in Europe, indicate that they don’t see any future in Turkey. To quote from the 18 years old female participant whose husband is from Netherlands: “I wanted to go the secondary school. It didn’t happen because of my mother, father, brother.”

Another participant 30 years old female who is a primary school graduate and works as secretary, her husband is from Belgium mentions that she has no prospects of carrier here in Emirdağ.

The fact that participants don’t see any prospect in Emirdağ and as will be seen in the coming discussions, the illusion that the standards that could only be reached with a good education and hardwork would easily be obtained in Europe with no pain could be explained by Baudrillard’s Disneyland analogy. The rosy Picture of Europe with all promising opportunities in the cognitive imaginations of individuals attracts the youth in Emirdağ. The constructed Europe, which becomes the reality itself instead of replacing it also exists in Marcus’s (2009) study analyzing the Dynamics of Brazilian migration to US. Marcus uses the term “geographical imagination” in explaining the Dynamics of migration which is not solely economical basis but with basis of combination of various factors of curiosity, education, adventure, escape, family reunion (Marcus, 2009: 481). Marcus defines the concept of “geographical imagination” as “the abstract or concrete information about space that enables people to construct that space”, and considers it as the most distinctive non-economic component of factors of migration (Marcus, 2009: 481). At this point, the notion of “geographical imagination” could be functional in understanding the imagined Europe in the minds of youth in Emirdağ and the circumstances of Emirdağ at the opposite side. The US in the imaginations of Brazilians which is identified with the “life they see in the movies”, adventure, liberty as in Marcus’s (2009) study coincide with the imagined Europe in the minds of Emirdağ people. In his argument Marcus (2009: 487) quoting from one of the participants mention that the participant had a magical US in his childhood imagination. As will be seen in the following discussions, in the imaginations of the Emirdağ people, Europe is an enchanted land from a fairy tale, a heaven full of all opportunities. However, as mentioned before, from Baudrillardian perspective, just like the Disneyland analogy, it could be claimed that the constructed heaven functions as hiding the fact that the idealized Europe and migration does not actually exist and perpetuates Europe as a desired object.

Factors Effective in the Decision Making Process for the Participants

In the theoretical framework while discussing the postmodern discourse, it was mentioned that the main question is not what the reality is but how it is constructed. In parallel, in understanding how Europe is constructed in the minds of Emirdağ people, which reasons become important in their discourses is and how these reasons point to their imagined Europe are analysed.

When the factors that are effective in their decision making for migration are asked, in parallel to the answers to the previous question, the main factor turned out to be the lack of job and carrier opportunities in Emirdağ. In relation to this, the participants who decide to migrate emphasise that, the idea to obtain better economic conditions, better social services were the significant in their decision-making. Additionally, the participants indicated the luxury cars, consumption patterns and especially the stories told by the individuals who come to spend their holiday from Europe as effective.

The participants whose spouses are from European countries and they migrated to Europe with them mention that theirs was a love marriage they also admit that most of the young people in Emirdağ with no education and carrier opportunities migration seem to be the only alternative and with their families’ support and encouragement they choose to get married to their fellow townspeople in Europe and migrate with them. For instance female participant at the age of 17 state that: “they come in the summers for vacation. They visit us, saying your daughter at the age of marriage. For example they come from abroad to our house and talk like that. This is annoying.” At this point it is also important to state that in addition to the illusion European perceptions of Emirdağ people, the Europeans of Emirdağ origin also have the same illusive perception that the authentic Turkish culture still exists in Emirdağ and it could be preserved by marrying to Emirdağ people which is a subject of another study and also could be explained through Baudrillardian framework.

One of the young female participants from her experiences mentioned those who come from Europe to Emirdağ come to ask for young girls for marriage, which is highly common in summers:

“They come very often to my family this summer for arranging marriage. I tell them politely that I will continue my education. The woman only asks me ‘what are you going to do with education? How will you live in this dumpster? I was very angry if this is a dumpster why they come here for vacation, don’t come! They are chicks that don’t like their egg shell’”

In the documentary movie filmed in 2008 named “Bir Gurbet Türküsü: Emirdağ” (A Ballad for a Foreign Land: Emirdağ) it was stated “gold are kept for Emirdağ when they are revealed they whet appetite of young people.” To make it more concrete by examples from the interviews to quote from 30 and 36 year old female participants: “Turks here are wannabes, I’ll wear short skirts or wear gold, they buy these cars there but they are indebted. They buy the car show it off here in Turkey and when they are back they start paying their debts. They are always in struggle. It is not nice but people still want to go.”
“For example you study here to become a state employee to have a future, you work hard. Then you see them they go to Europe, they do not study or work hard just with simple jobs they buy their house, car. It is hard to see that they have all with no effort.” From these statements it can be asserted that, the perceptions that education leaves you empty handed, that Emirdağ is a ‘dumpster’ whereas, Europe is regarded as a heaven to getaway and for emancipation is perpetuated by the cars, gold jewellerys, holiday practices and consumption patterns of those who visit Emirdağ from Europe. The fact that Emirdağ is constructed as “dumpster” by the visitors from Europe, and those of Emirdağ people regarding their town as “dark” reveals the dimensions of the delusion.

The ideal Europe that is depicted in the interviews is symbolically a simulation universe where one can reach luxury and prosperity with very little or no effort. However whether or not these imaginations are based on concrete lived experiences is highly questionable. How these images are imbedded in the minds of young people in Emirdağ and how these images are tempting can be seen from the statements of the 39 year old female participant:

“Even my little daughter at the age of 10 asks ‘if I should get married to go to Europe? They come here and have vacation, they go to beach but we never do that. We cannot go anywhere. They come here and live differently not like us.’ Even a little kid thinks of going to Europe”

43-year-old female participant also mentions that from the young ages individuals are influenced by what they see and hear from their fellow townspeople who live in Europe with the following words:

“Now my kid goes to high school. Her grandmother already brainwashing my son don’t worry if you don’t continue school we’ll send you to Europe. He looks at his close relatives they live in Europe, when they come back they bring fine cars, go to nice places for holidays. So he thinks ‘I should go to Europe too’. Her grandmother presents the life in Europe as a salvation for him as if he is stuck in swamp.”

The young participants often mention that unemployment and impossibilities in Emirdağ and its villages are paradoxical with the life styles they witness in the summers. Therefore, they see migration to Europe as an alternative to hard works of farming and livestock in the villages.

Just as individuals consume the image that the goods represent instead of the goods themselves as in the case of many brand consumer goods, in the process of migration, the desire for car in other words, the image of the life style that the car represents is being consumed. On the one hand Turks coming from Europe, express in Emirdağ their idealized Eurocentric life style with images embodied in consumer products. On the other hand their fellow towns people living in Emirdağ glorify their life style and migration to Europe. This kind of glorification and overrepresentation of Europe as a destined land is quite similar to Marcus’s (2009:487) findings of his study on the Brazilians who dream of migrating to US. Marcus from referring to his interviews with participants who had lived in the US for a certain amount of time, states how individuals influence by the movies and the tales told by their relatives living in US, glorify the American Dream from the early ages. Similarly during our interviews a 21 years old male participant who went to Belgium with his wife mentioned that: “I wanted to go and see their situation there they come and show off all the time and I wanted to see what they are like in Belgium.” 64 year old male participant also indicates that: “They come here with beautiful cars it is easy to buy there. Here when kids start to talk they say ‘I’ll go to Europe’. It is just a desire for car nothing else.” From these statements it is obvious that a serious decision like starting a new life abroad takes its roots from ‘desire for car’ and reaching a life represented by ‘desire for car’. Just like the image that the mobile phone represents is consumed instead of the material phone itself, during the migration process not the car itself but the symbols and images that the car represents are desired to be consumed as mentioned.

Just like the 46 year old male participant indicates, the young people in Emirdağ grow up with the dreams of reaching to Europe which is told to them as if it is a Wonderland: “Before they migrate, they think that they will be migrating to a dreamland. After the plane lands, they get very much surprised”. As understood from the participants’ remarks, even though it is known by the young people in Emirdağ that the bright picture that the people coming for vacation does not represent the truth, with the eagerness to reach prosperity in an easy way they tend to believe the bright picture and try to find the ways to reach it which ends with disappointment. What is meant by disappointment is that even though the migrants come back with a lot of luxury back homes in Europe instead of living the idealize European life. They continue to live their old small rural life.

About what happens after reaching European countries, the statements of 61 years old male participant is highly striking: “I regret that he is gone (referring to his son). I don’t like his life now. He works but his earnings are not satisfactory. Can you believe that I send clothes, food from here?” Similarly in the documentary A Ballad for a Foreign Land: Emirdağ the comments of a young man who has migrated to Belgium summarizes the situation: “Do you ever ask yourself I wish I hadn’t come here? Almost every day. The realities are not like what we had thought of before. But it is perceived differently in Emirdağ”. As it is seen, however the delusion in the perceptions of individuals have a significant role in their decision making process for migration, awareness of the simulation universe manifest itself during the interviews.

The hard truths in contrast to the imagined constructs often took place in the responses of the participants. For instance, a female participant at the age of 18 who migrated to Belgium stated that: “I saw from my elder sisters, they didn’t like it there. When they compared Turkey they said here it is better than Belgium.” Another 29 years old male participant also mentioned that: “go tell a guy to live in Istanbul instead they would see Istanbul or any other city in Turkey as dark and gloomy. Tell him go to Europe he would see it as bright. He doesn’t know language can’t even ask for water there but still Europe is bright to them. They go to Europe buy a car with bank loans show their car here in Emirdağ and then go back to Europe to wake up at 4 in the morning for work. I’m 29 years old never got that early in my life.”

As can be seen from the responses of the participants, even if the picture of Europe drawn by the individuals spending their vacations in Emirdağ does not represent the reality, for the sake of reaching prosperity in an easy way and escape unemployment
and economic constraints in Emirdağ people still believe to the imagined lands and try to reach for it. In parallel, Eastwood (1983) in his study on immigration in Venezuela discusses that, to what degree the beliefs that some regions promise better opportunities and the individual perceptions of better opportunities correspond with the realities is questionable and in many cases these beliefs are nothing but delusions (Eastwood, 1983: 452).

**Imagined Migration to Europe and Real Migration to Europe According to the Participants**

In order to better analyse how the migration process is perceived, the positive and negative aspects of migration to individuals and to both societies are asked. Among the positive aspects to individuals, the economic conditions, value given to people and liberty became prominent. Such as 43-year-old male participant regarded migration as a salvation for young people. When the negative aspects were discussed, the participants emphasized the hard working conditions, expensiveness and the problematic marriages.

The paradox of the constructed Europe and the real life in Europe is reflected in their responses to the negative impacts of migration. For instance 53 years old male participant: “They leave here with great expectations but most of them are just disillusionments. Once they leave they cannot come back because they burn all the bridges.”

Adverse economic conditions and unemployment in this case is not totally explanatory since in several interviews it was mentioned that those who have occupations such as teachers, also quit their job for Europe. For instance according to 27 years old male participant: “He is a teacher here but he saw the situation of those visiting from Europe and wanted to be like them. So he quit his job at the school and went there now he is just a non-qualified worker there.” It can be inferred from this case that, the constructed ideal Europe is much more effective than the material economic conditions, when it comes to migration to Europe. Continuation of education and language learning after migrating to Europe constitutes another paradox between the imagined Europe and the real life in Europe. Referring to Sahin Kütkük’s (2012) fieldwork on the conditions of immigrants of Turks who work at the ethnic small enterprises of Turkish origin in Frankfurt, it was mentioned that the new comer Turkish migrants who are employed in these enterprises cannot even take language courses because of the long working hours let alone continuing higher education. One of the most significant problems of the newly arriving Turkish migrants who can only find jobs in the ethnic Turkish enterprising in these enterprises are the long hours of work that exceeds the legal work hour limits, low wages, not having enough time for private life and for any educational activities for self-development (Kütkük, 2012: 188). Because of lack of proper language skills they could only find jobs in the ethnic enterprises, because of the constraints and hard work they couldn’t have the time and energy to develop their language skills so within this vicious circle they are left no chance but to work in these adverse conditions in the same sector.

Another significant finding from the interviews is that, when the positive impacts of migration to Europe is asked the participants mention de facto universal values and concepts such as, social rights, freedom, economic prosperity however when the negative impacts are asked they respond with their own observations and experiences. From there it can be inferred that, when discussing the positive aspects the participants just the features of the simulation universe is repeated, namely the features of the imagined Europe.

The hints of the paradox between the real and imagined Europe can be seen from the following responses to the negative and positive aspects of migration to Europe which is also the reflection of discrepancy in the minds of the participants created by this paradox. According to the 30 years old female participant quoting from her relative lives in France: “I came to these days but don’t ask me how? I am at ease here for 15-20 days at most when I go back there I suffer. How we look here in Emirdağ shouldn’t mislead you.”

Another female participant at the age of 35: “My sister while she was leaving Emirdağ she was so exited and enthusiastic. She called us as soon as she got to Belgium crying to us as here it is so disgusting, not what I’ve expected, not even slightly. But when you ask others who left like my sister would tell you, it so nice in Belgium, houses are so nice, etc.”

As mentioned in the theoretical discussions, imagined Europe which is transformed into a form of simulation universe with the positive features of liberty, prosperity and so on, functions as hiding the fact that the ideal Europe for the migrants does not exist anymore. The fact that the participants base their responses on the experienced realities for the negative aspects shows that the participants present a realistic and pragmatist attitude in their evaluations and also in a sense they are aware of the fact that the simulation universe does not represent the reality. This evaluation based on individual experiences partially affects the constructed positive image of Europe in the minds of the participants.

An additional paradoxical situation is that especially those participants who have recently migrated or will be migrating to Europe stress out the social service, health care, employment opportunities in Europe as factors for their decision making process. However when their information on the social conditions, health care services, labour market conditions and social policies of the European countries they live/will live are asked, the participants hardly give any satisfactory answers and their answers mostly based on what they hear from their relatives and friends who live in European countries. Not having solid objective information on the current conditions of the European countries and constructing an image of Europe based on what is being heard from the relatives and friends who tend to posit a rosy picture of their lives in Europe perpetuates the simulation universe and disillusionment. 64 years old male participant for instance: “It is very very wrong what they tell us. My old childhood friends when they come visit Emirdağ from Europe we sit at the coffee houses, cafes and they treat us with the beverages. I went there one day and go to the coffee house owned by our townsmen. Saw my friends there but they pretended they didn’t see me and sneaked out. I asked another friend there what happened why did they sneak out like that? He said they don’t have any money and they were ashamed because they could not offer you anything. They don’t work in Europe live on unemployment benefit, and they can only spend on their vacations in Turkey. Not the same life there.”
Similarly another 53 years old male participant: “They now nothing until they set their foot in Europe. After they enter the house they understand where they migrated. When they see the small old houses their disillusionment starts. They expect to see the nice big mansions, large luxurious streets and those who come from Europe in summers don’t give any clue about the realities.” 27 years old female participant who refers to his brother as “victim because of his friend” mentions that her brother who quitted his university education and migrated to Netherlands now regrets his decision everyday. Similar disillusionments also experienced by the Brazilians who have migrated to the US as mentioned in Marcus’s (2009) study. He discusses how individuals experience the disillusionment as a result of not fulfilling their expectations of American Dream whereby everything is magical and possible and the disillusionment of arriving to a land, which is completely the opposite of what they have dreamed of (Marcus, 2009: 487).

In summary, from the experiences and responses of the participants it can be asserted that, especially the young people in Emirdağ construct an ideal Europe where they can reach all their desires, based on the tempting pictures drawn by their visitors from Europe. After migration to Europe in pursuit of their dreams they face the solid truth that the bright and prosperous Europe that they dreamed of does not exist in reality. From this standpoint, the discourses on wealth and richness, the conspicuous consumption and luxury function in pretending that the fictitious order of the simulation universe, which does not refer to any truth and reality, still exists. Those individuals who still have some ties with reality, the simulation universe is meaningless, whereas those individuals who had to face the truth in one way or the other find themselves in a deep disillusionment. Trying to perceive the realities with surreal visions impacts individuals in a very powerful way.

Conclusion
In the article, with reference to Baudrillard’s simulation theory, within the framework of the migration process to Europe, it was argued that the migration process and the European Ideal as the basis of this process as a simulation universe seem to continue as if it still exists. As mentioned in the theoretical discussions, Baudrillard refers to the concept of simulacra in explaining the cultural system, “as if”ness or appearance of reality. These appearances organize the social life. Simulacra, presents the principles of reality together with the categories of how society perceives itself. The simulacra organize institutional practices in order to maintain and reproduce the status quo (Palermo, 1992). Consequently, simulacra in the form of migration from Emirdağ, provides for the reproduction of the current order of migration.

At the beginning of the discussions, it was stressed out that, the within the Baudrillardian conceptual framework, the migration perceptions of Emirdağ people can be considered as reflections of simulacra. Symbolic consumption goods and the idealized European life style identified with those commodities make Europe an object of desire for Emirdağ people as the participants often mention the richness and vanity. In other words, luxury cars, gold and conspicuous consumption as simulacra, continues the current status quo of migration and reproduce it via certain tools like marriage. Within Baudrillardian framework, in his analogy, Disneyland actually hides the fact that the outside world is a simulation. This image of Europe as paradise hides the fact that the Ideal Europe and migration per se does not exist anymore. Migration in cultural sense has disappeared; the phenomenon of migration to a prosperous free society is replaced by a migration that is homogenous with the hometown of Emirdağ itself. As a result, the Ideal Europe that was depicted in the interviews can be considered as a simulation universe in Baudrillardian sense whereby individuals reach luxury, prosperity and comfort with little or no effort.

This study explains the decision making process for migration to Europe as we know, from the Baudrillardian perspective. How the individuals who are remained in the hometown of Emirdağ perceive migration and life in Europe and how their perceptions are shaped. For future research, how the life of newly arriving immigrants change, how the discrepancy between the imagined and real Europe affects the individuals can be investigated.
References:


Belek, İ. (1997), *Postkapitalist Paradigmalar*, Sorun Yayınları, İstanbul, s. 139-163 ve 231-247


