AKNOWLEDGEMENT

We are holding the fifth International Conference on Communication, Media Technology and Design and the second International Conference on Contemporary Issues in Education in Zagreb, Croatia. This is going to be a great and significant event as the experience will be shared and actions will be explored.

This ICCMTD Conference is organized by Anadolu University - Institute of Communication Sciences - Turkey and powered by Eastern Mediterranean University – North Cyprus, University of Rome "La Sapienza"- Department of Communication and Social Research – Italy, Online Journal of Communication and Media Technologies, Journal of Contemporary Educational Technology and Online Journal of Art and Design.


Around 70 well-known colleagues and audiences from 27 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, University of Rome and Eastern Mediterranean University to all the colleagues and audience that have participated in the conference.

These international conferences provide a very good opportunity for all the participants to share experiences and cooperation with international colleagues.

International Conference of Communication, Media, Technology and Design and the International Conference on Contemporary Issues in Education aim to gather academicians who are interested in communication, media studies and design and the new issues in education 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 conferences a complete success, and wish all the participants and the international friends a good time in Zagreb.

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A Case Study Examining How the Use of a Module-Specific Hashtag Can Enhance Student Engagement among Journalism Undergraduates

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Abstract
The incorporation of smartphones and social media into teaching is entering the mainstream in Higher Education institutions as interactive e-learning becomes a key strand of universities’ pedagogical strategies. The use of such technologies is particularly relevant for journalism students, given the social media-driven context in which much contemporary journalism is produced. The purpose of the study was to explore whether social media could be used to encourage both in-class and out-of-class module engagement among first-year Journalism undergraduates at the University of Gloucestershire. The study focused on the use of a module-specific hashtag on Twitter throughout a single-semester journalism studies module, and the extent to which students used the hashtag in their own tweets. At the beginning of the study, a questionnaire was used to collect data about students’ news consumption habits and their preferred social media platforms for news. The findings show that the majority of participants use their mobile phone as the primary means of accessing news, with Twitter the most frequently used social media platform. Quantitative research on students’ use of the hashtag was then gathered by monitoring Twitter, with tweets subjected to content analysis. The study showed that the use of the module hashtag produced significant levels of both in-class and out-of-class student engagement, with engagement continuing after teaching on the module had ended. The findings are supplemented by autoethnographic reflections by the module tutor. The findings of the study provide insight into how social media-based teaching techniques could be used to enhance engagement among media students. In the course of the study, the pedagogical positions of augmented reality teaching and pedagogy-industry alignment are delineated and explored.

Introduction
The potential of digital technology, particularly the so-called social web, to enhance Higher Education teaching has been a central feature of pedagogical debate in the UK ever since universities recognised that a shift in young people’s “online lifestyle” necessitated a change in teaching strategy (Melville 2009). The capacity for new technologies to deliver improved learning outcomes has subsequently been highlighted in a number of studies (Junco, Elavsky & Heiberger 2013; Junco, Heiberger & Loken 2011). The emergence of e-learning strategies and technology-infused teaching has given rise to a debate about whether Higher Education institutions (HEIs) are undergoing a “reinvention of the campus” (Cochrane 2014), with the consequent demise of traditional teaching methods (Dawson 2014). While reports of the death of the traditional university may have turned out to be exaggerated, there is a general acceptance that digital technology – particularly the use of social media – has engendered what Williams, Brown and Benson call a more “egalitarian nature of interaction” between lecturer and student (2013: 120). While Williams, Brown and Benson’s focus is on how such technology affects feedback – extending “the boundaries of how both synchronous (real-time) and asynchronous (delayed-time) feedback can be implemented and provided” (ibid.) – their point can be broadened to apply to teaching more generally, with the social web facilitating both the sharing of, and the interaction with, course-related material. This study seeks to apply this insight to a specific module at a UK university, and focuses on how the semester-long use of a module-specific hashtag on the social media platform Twitter served to enhance journalism students’ engagement with the module. The use of Twitter is particularly relevant for journalism students, given the social media-driven context in which much contemporary journalism is produced, distributed and consumed.

It is important to state at the outset that this study was prompted by the author’s own interest in how technology can be utilized to enhance student experience, and as such the study has an autoethnographic strand in which my own experiences, and my in-depth reflections on those experiences, are a significant element. As well as being informed by an autoethnographic paradigm, this study operates from a number of conceptual premises which have been influenced by my teaching experiences “in the field”. Firstly, it is assumed that Higher Education should regard itself as operating as a part of what has been called the attention economy, in which attention – defined as visitors/viewers to a piece of content – in a media-saturated world is a scarce and valuable commodity.
which everyone from businesses to celebrities aspire to obtain (Chayko, 2017; Ingram 2015; Marwick 2015). If attention is the most valuable currency in the contemporary media world, then HE teaching, particularly of media subjects, should seek to trade in that currency and compete with the other media content trying to attract eyeballs. Secondly, the study is underpinned by Jurgenson’s rejection of ‘digital dualism’ (2012). Digital dualism is the binary distinction between the offline and online, which regards the two spheres as being entirely distinct and experienced separately. Applying Jurgenson’s concept to teaching, this study contends that it is bogus and unhelpful to think of offline and online teaching spaces as clearly separate. Current undergraduate students, with the exception of some mature students, are what Williams, Brown & Benson (2013) refer to as ‘Generation Z’ or ‘the net generation’. Digital natives, they have never known life without the web. They are highly connected through the social web and have a lifelong familiarity with digital applications, a familiarity which means their offline and online worlds continually collide. A contention of this paper is that future e-learning strategies should reject crude distinctions between online and offline teaching, and embrace the ongoing – and inevitable – collisions of digital and non-digital spaces.

Augmented Reality Teaching and Pedagogy-Industry Alignment

The emergence of a pervasive digital culture and the manner in which this has affected interactions between people has led to some media theorists arguing that the way in which reality is experienced has been fundamentally altered (Chayko 2017; Jurgenson 2012). The online and the offline are now elaborately interwoven, or, as both Chayko and Jurgenson phrase it, “ennmeshed”:

Individuals often have experiences that are not neatly categorized as digital or face-to-face, as online or offline. They may use digital technology in combination with more traditional means of interaction in forming and maintaining relationships. Binary categories have serious limitations as we attempt to understand modes of interaction that overlap and intersect one another... the online and offline are generally experienced in combination with one another. They are enmeshed. People are often so deeply, so comprehensively affected by the infusion of technology into their everyday lives that a highly useful way to think about these lives – these spaces and experiences and relationships and communities and societies – is that they are techno-social.” (Chayko, 2017: 4-5)

Jurgenson (2012) describes the tendency to regard the online and offline as distinct spaces as “digital dualism”, a binary concept which he regards as spurious. He contends that “the new technologies in question – especially the highly interrelated mobile web and social media – effectively merge the digital and physical into an augmented reality”, with ‘augmented’ defined by him as “a larger conceptual perspective that views our reality as the byproduct of the enmeshing of the on and offline” (Jurgenson 2012: 2). By ‘augmented reality’, Jurgenson is referring not to software applications but to a theoretical perspective which “holds that our reality is the blurring of the on and offline” (Jurgenson 2012: 3). As such, it is inaccurate to say of a particular experience that it must necessarily be either digital or offline; a blunt either/or dichotomy is misguided. “The online and offline are not separate spheres and are thus not zero-sum. Dialectically related, one can be used to bolster the other” (Jurgenson 2012: 3).

This dialectical process is arguably one which goes unrecognized by digital natives whose lives are conducted at the intersection between online and offline. This is a point articulated by Chayko, who follows Jurgenson in rejecting any notion of digital dualism. “Those who have grown up immersed in the internet and digital media use may see the online and offline as melding seamlessly. Youth may be ushering in an era in which distinctions between the online and offline, and the real and the unreal, are becoming deeply blurred, if not obliterated” (Chayko, 2017: 67).

The contention of this paper is that learning and teaching strategies should be similarly non-binary, with an explicit rejection of any hard and fast distinction between e-learning methods on the one hand and standard (or ‘traditional’) teaching methods on the other. Adapting Jurgenson’s concept of augmented reality, it contends that pedagogical strategies should be underpinned by an approach of augmented reality teaching, where the online and offline are not regarded as separate spheres for teaching but are instead regarded and used as co-existing, concurrent and overlapping realms. As well as making this general pedagogical claim, the paper also makes a more specific claim, namely, that for journalism students, it is important that the platform for educational delivery mirrors the platform(s) on which the students’ subsequent professional work will take place. Given Twitter’s ubiquitous use by professional journalists as a newsgathering, dissemination and promotional tool, it is
vital for journalism courses to prepare students how to use Twitter, and indeed other social media platforms, with professional sophistication. Using Twitter to teach first-year journalism students – even for a theoretical module – thus immediately immerses them in a technology that they will be required to master. This harmonious alignment between the platform on which students are taught and the platform which they will be required to use in industry can be termed pedagogy-industry alignment.

Hashtags, teaching and Twitter

A hashtag is a means of enabling social media content to be grouped together and discovered. Using the hash (#) symbol followed by a key phrase, the intention of a hashtag is to make social media content about a particular topic rapidly searchable and discoverable. Hashtags are used both by those posting a piece of content and by those searching social media to find content about a particular topic. A powerful example of a hashtag was the use of #JeSuisCharlie following the massacre at the offices of the *Charlie Hebdo* magazine in Paris in 2015. The module which is the focus of this study was a first-year introduction to journalism studies called The Power of News, and on students’ timetables the module had the code of MD4101. Consequently, the code MD4101 was made into the hashtag ‘#MD4101’. Students on the module could post content to Twitter using the hashtag #MD4101 knowing that both classmates and the tutor would also be using the hashtag and searching for content that featured the tag.

The application and development of hashtags as an educational tool is not an original idea. Jimerson (2015) describes how she used Twitter and a module hashtag in an effort to make an art history module at a university in the United States “more interactive and relatable to a 21st century audience”. In an effort to stimulate uptake in the use of the hashtag, Jimerson offered the incentive of two bonus assessment percentage points for those students who used Twitter as part of the module. Her study concluded that about 50% of students participated to a greater or lesser extent in the use of the hashtag, and emphasised how the option of using the hashtag brought some quieter students forward. “In a large lecture hall, it can be intimidating for some students to participate. Twitter allowed everyone in the class to express their ideas while simultaneously strengthening the classroom community” (ibid.). Elsewhere, the deliberately unstructured pedagogical approach of rhizomatic learning – which contends that “the community is the curriculum” – has encouraged people to use a hashtag to share their thoughts on a topic (Cormier 2014). Rhizomatic learning emphasises how sense-making and knowledge-acquisition is a collaborative practice, and from this starting point the use of a hashtag is regarded as a means by which multiple voices can contribute to a process of organic discovery, in something of an analogous way to how a rhizome plant stem propagates organically by sending out roots into its surroundings.

Twitter was the first social media platform where the device of the hashtag was developed and established, and it is relevant for the purposes of this study to make it clear that the author had used Twitter as a significant teaching tool on other modules prior to the commencement of the current study. Previously, I had used Twitter to remotely deliver synchronous feedback to sports journalism students who were producing content from the press box of a live football match. My prior teaching and use of Twitter had also suggested to me how monitoring media students’ social media output could be used to gauge whether or not a skill or concept had been properly grasped by the students. If, for example, a student’s tweet suggested that a technique discussed in class had only been half-understood, then that would prompt me to return to that topic and address the misapprehension, a process referred to by Williams, Brown and Benson (2013) as “responsive adjustment”. These experiences helped provide the impetus for the case study.

Method

The case study is of a compulsory first-year undergraduate journalism studies module called MD4101 The Power of News. The module consisted of 12 weeks of teaching, with each week comprising a two-hour lecture and a one-hour seminar. The number of students enrolled on the module (the sample) was 73, comprising 44 BA Sports Journalism students and 29 BA Journalism students. The author was the module tutor responsible for the design, teaching and marking of the module. The research aim of the case study was to gain insight into how the use of a module-specific hashtag, namely #MD4101, could enhance journalism students’ engagement with the course.

As outlined in the Introduction, the study has an autoethnographic current running through it and is underpinned by the interpretivist ontology and epistemology implicit in Jurgenson’s theory of ‘augmented reality’, where reality is regarded as being constructed from the interweaving flow of digital and non-digital experiences.
Autoenthnography is developing a growing role in education research (O’Reilly 2012) and can “help humanize emotionally sterile research projects” (Ellis and Adams, 2014: 255) by providing “rich and nuanced insights into personal lived experience and situating these within a wider socio-cultural context” (Allen-Collinson, 2012: 208). My own experiences as a university lecturer and my efforts to engage students using digital technology constitute both the backdrop and the impetus to this research, and my ongoing reflections on my teaching practice provide the humanization and nuance to the case study that Ellis and Adams, and Allen-Collinson, refer to respectively. Throughout the module I acted as a reflexive practitioner, monitoring the students’ and my own use of Twitter and reflecting on how the hashtag could be incorporated into the delivery of module content without becoming over-used or dull.

The case study is also informed by quantitative and qualitative data. A questionnaire about students’ media consumption habits was handed to all attending students at the start of the module. The purpose was to collect data about the students’ preferred social media platforms for news content, and to also discover what media platforms more generally were most popular among the journalism students. The questionnaire was distributed at the end of the first lecture in September 2015 and students were asked to complete it in their own time and return it at the start of the following week’s session. Forty-two questionnaires were returned, providing a completion rate of 57.5%.

During the module, tweets from the tutor using the #MD4101 hashtag were made from the @BASportsJourno Twitter handle – the course Twitter account for the BA Sports Journalism programme. The ‘terms of use’ for the use of the hashtag and Twitter during the module were verbally outlined to students in the first week of the class; these emphasized how students would find content from the tutor posted on Twitter both during class and outside of class time, and how they were encouraged to post their own thoughts and links to third-party content. In keeping with the principles of augmented reality teaching outlined in the Introduction, the use of smartphones and tablets was actively encouraged in class. Unlike Jimerson (2015), no bonus mark incentives were used to try and induce students to use Twitter as part of the module, as it was felt that this could be an artificial inducement that would skew the findings into the research question of how successful a Twitter module hashtag can be in improving student engagement.

At the end of the module, tweets were categorized in three groups depending on who had posted them – students, module tutor and tutors not teaching on the module – and subjected to content analysis. This content analysis considered the different types of content (e.g. links to relevant online articles, in-class comment) which were posted using the module-specific hashtag. Triangulating this content analysis with the autoethnographic data enabled a rich picture of student engagement to emerge.

Results
Overview
The findings show that journalism students arriving to study the module already had a high level of engagement with Twitter, with mobile devices the most popular means of students accessing news content and Twitter the most popular social media platform for such activity. A total of 93 tweets were made using the module-specific #MD4101 hashtag, with the majority (68) coming from students themselves rather than the module tutor. As discussed in the Introduction, this suggests that social media does indeed foster what Williams, Brown and Benson call a more “egalitarian nature of interaction” (2013: 20) between lecturer and student, with a significant number of students embracing the platform as a means of module communication. Examining the content of the students’ tweets suggests that students used Twitter to engage with the topics covered in the module with some sophistication and in some surprising ways. For example, one student used Twitter to conduct her own piece of mini-research following on from a topic debated in class. Highly relevant content for the module was shared by students, and students’ personal positions on issues were conveyed and explored. Students also used Twitter synchronously during classes while face-to-face debates were taking place, thereby blurring the boundaries of digital and non-digital pedagogical reality in accordance with the theory of augmented reality teaching expounded above.

In addition, content posted by students using the hashtag was in some cases then incorporated into subsequent teaching sessions by the module tutor. For me as module tutor, the experience of using a module-specific hashtag on Twitter enabled me to modify future sessions in light of ideas and content posted by students; thus, content that appeared in the later stages of the module was to some extent guided by students’ earlier activities.
using the module hashtag. This was both energizing as a tutor and engendered a sense of a collaborative
endeavour. As tutor, it also became apparent that some students who were usually quiet in class were more
forthcoming and vocal on Twitter, echoing Jimerson’s (2015) experience of a Twitter hashtag being a means by
which more timid students could be encouraged to participate in module debate. However, some students who
were prominent in face-to-face discussions at lectures and seminars also actively used the module hashtag, so
Twitter wasn’t solely used by introverted students seeking a less intimidating forum to debate course content.

Start-of-Module Questionnaire

The questionnaire had several key findings in relation to the issue of how relevant it is to integrate a social media
platform into the teaching of journalism students. The survey found there was a universal use of social media by
the respondents to obtain news, and Twitter was – by a significant margin – the most popular social platform
through which journalism students accessed news content, with Facebook second. The survey found that 83.3%
(35) of respondents said a mobile device was their most common means of getting the news, with television
second with 14.3% (six). Every participant (100%, 42) answered ‘yes’ to the question ‘Do you use social media
to get the news?’, confirming the ubiquitous nature of social media-driven online news consumption among
journalism students.

Participants were asked to list all the social media platforms they used to get the news. Twitter was listed by
95.2% (40) of students, Facebook by 78.6% (33), Instagram by 23.8% (10) and Snapchat by 16.7% (seven).
Reddit, YouTube and Flipboard were all listed by one student (2.4%). Twitter’s dominance as the most popular
social media platform for accessing news was reinforced by the students’ responses to the question ‘Which
social platform do you use most frequently to get the news?’ Twitter was named by 76.2% (32) of participants,
with Facebook a distant second with 16.7% (seven). The answers of the remaining participants (7.1%, three)
could not be counted because they either listed more than one platform or named a non-social media app (e.g.
BBC News).

Analysis of Tweets Using Module Hashtag

Twenty-seven students actively produced content using the module hashtag, producing 68 tweets in total. The
module tutor tweeted 20 times, with a further five tweets being posted by other tutors not teaching on the
module. This gave a total of 93 tweets using the module hashtag. Of the tutor’s 20 tweets, nine were replies to
students’ tweets and one was a retweet (the sharing to one’s Twitter followers of somebody else’s tweet). The
tutor’s tweets received 31 ‘likes’ and 17 retweets. The tutor’s tweets can be broken down into three sub-groups:
A, B and C. Group A consists of those tweets that encouraged students to contribute using the hashtag or were
an acknowledgment/comment on a student’s contribution. There were 12 such tweets. Group B consists of those
tweets that were the sharing of a webpage ahead of a seminar or lecture, or of content relevant to the module’s
assessment. There were seven such tweets. Group C comprises the result of a poll of students’ opinions about a
journalism studies debate that had been held in class. There was one tweet in this group. Examples of A and B
will now be presented.

Acknowledging students’ contributions via Twitter was important to ensure they did not feel like they were talking into a
void. As such, as module tutor I would ‘like’ students contributions or reply to them. One such example of a Group A tweet is:

Sports Journalism @BASportsJourno – 23 Oct 2015 “@x Thanks for the fab input into #MD4101
seminar on Facebook’s Newsfeed algorithm – and for conducting your own research too!”

The tweet was intended to both acknowledge the student’s effort and reinforce the topic that had just been
debated. Another example of a Group A tweet was this response to a student’s example of how two different
outlets could cover the same ‘facts’ in very different ways:

Sports Journalism @BASportsJourno – 7 Nov 2015 “I love this @x and might just have to ‘borrow’ it
for future classes! #MD4101”

This tweet was intended to foster a sense of collaboration between the student and me, and was indeed used by
me in a future class to illustrate a point about how different media organisations can add layers of interpretation
or ‘spin’ to facts.
Group B tweets from the module tutor were those tweets that shared relevant links and materials ahead of pending classes. These were usually in the form of a link to a URL accompanied by either a question or a summary of the article that was intended to draw in students. Two examples are the following:

Sports Journalism @BASportsJourno – 1 Oct 2015 “Check out these front pages: www.bbc.co.uk/news/blogs-the-papers-34408817 Why have different papers selected different stories for their front page? #MD4101”

Sports Journalism @BASportsJourno – 8 Dec 2015 “HuffPo’s new chief on the ‘post social’ mobile era | Media | The Guardian #MD4101 #digitalrevolution http://www.theguardian.com/media/2015/dec/06/huffpo-jared-grusd-facebook-huffington”

While the module tutor’s tweets arguably set the tone for Twitter communication during the module, it was the students’ tweets that were key to assessing engagement. Of the students’ 68 tweets using the module-specific hashtag, four were retweets. The students’ tweets received 41 likes and five retweets. In no instance was the hashtag misused by a student to post irrelevant or inappropriate content. An important caveat is that in some instances students engaged with the module on Twitter but without using the module hashtag. These instances have been excluded from the data because of the difficulty in being certain that all such tweets have been captured. As with the analysis of the module tutor’s tweets, the students’ tweets can be broken down into sub-groups (A-G). The sub-grouping of tweets is summarised below, along with the number of tweets that fall into each category:

A  tweets made during class responding to material that had been delivered: 16
B  sharing articles/clipsthat are relevant to the module: 25
C  commenting on media issues/media decisions: 22
D  research: one
E  sharing details of their own media consumption activities: two
F  commenting on their assessment: one
G  replying to lecturer’s reply: one

The variety of posts was one of the most interesting and, from my position as the module tutor, one of the most rewarding aspects of the use of the module-specific hashtag. A post by one journalism student consisted simply of a cartoon about Facebook’s power unaccompanied by nothing other than the hashtag – a post seemingly designed to provoke a thoughtful response among classmates; another post using the hashtag was made almost a month after the submission date for the module’s assessment and was done to share the breaking news about the London-based newspaper The Independent becoming a digital-only publication. The fact that a student opted to use the module hashtag four weeks after the module had ended was a strong indicator that the use of the hashtag had succeeded in engaging the students about journalism studies. Another rewarding aspect of students’ use of the module hashtag was to see them wrestling with an issue as they tried to come to a conclusion, as one student did through two tweets about the future of the BBC license fee.

During one session at the beginning of the course, I asked the students to take part in a ‘counter-factual’ thought experiment and consider what would have happened if major events in world history had been able to be reported using social media. In another session, I asked them to consider whether the omnipresence of 24/7 news was good or bad for democratic society. These in-class debates prompted simultaneous input on Twitter (Group A tweets), with students contributing both face-to-face and in real-time on Twitter using the hashtag. This was an example of the “enmeshing of the on and offline” (Jurgenson 2012: 2) and an illustration of what I have termed augmented reality teaching, which involves the blurring of the distinction between online and offline teaching. On 30 September 2015, for example, one student posted “Some interesting ideas about what would happen if JFK’s death was reported in the 21st century… #MD4101” while on 21 October 2015 another tweeted: “I’m torn - it’s positive in that we’re better informed as a society, but negative as we’re desensitized to the news #MD4101”.

One example of a Group B tweet was the sharing on 16 November 2015 of a BBC radio show in which the student also helpfully provided the timings of the relevant audio: “Henry Winter on how the digital revolution piles more pressure on managers 53:14-54:45 @BASportsJourno #md4101”. Such content was useful not only
for fellow students but for me as module tutor, as it alerted me to potential debating points for future seminars and lectures. The successful engagement of students through the use of the module-specific hashtag was also indicated by tweets such as one on 19 November 2015 in which a student provided a link to an article in The Independent about a terrorist attack in Paris and said: “Following on from Wednesday, this really struck me #md4101”.

Students were also prepared to voice their own views on important journalism studies topics by using the module hashtag. On 7 October 2015, for example, one student commented on the issue of news values and story selection, which had just been covered in class, by saying “Think England out of the (rugby) world cup being before a young boy died (sic) in bus crash shows maybe news lists on BBC should be changed #md4101”. And on 1 November 2015, another commented on the debate about the BBC licence fee by tweeting “Agree with Greg Dyke, BBC has invented British television and it would be bad for the country if it didn’t exist in any form #md4101”. The voicing of such out-of-class opinions using the module hashtag was another indicator of the hashtag being a powerful way of engaging the students. Another indication that the use of Twitter helped foster student engagement came through a student’s decision to use the hashtag to share a mini ‘experiment’ she had done. Following a seminar in which the mechanics and ethics of Facebook’s newsfeed algorithm were discussed, the student conducted her own rough experiment to see whether the use of certain words in a Facebook status update lifted her update to the top of friends’ newsfeeds. Her findings were shared with classmates on Twitter when she tweeted on 21 October 2015 “#md4101 so I do an experiment and apparently I’m on the top of 34 peoples (sic) Facebook news feeds! Interesting!” The hashtag was used in other diverse ways, too, with students occasionally using it to share with their classmates the media they were reading or listening to, as when one student posted a photo of the front page of the London Evening Standard on 29 October 2015 accompanied by the words “#md4101 on the tube so why not!!” Although a perhaps trivial post which little bearing on module content, it nevertheless served to suggest that the student was engaged with the module and thinking about it even when off campus, and as module tutor it was vindicating to witness this.

Limitations

The case study was of a small sample of journalism students at a single university. To broaden its scope, future studies could be done with a larger sample of journalism students across a number of institutions, or with students from a wider pool of subjects at the same university (for example, media courses more generally). A post-module focus group that gathered qualitative data on students’ experience of the module hashtag might have added greater richness to the findings, and a future study could focus on the assessment performance of those journalism students who engage with the use of the hashtag compared with the performance of those who do not. As previously mentioned, another limitation of the study is that a number of module-related tweets did not use hashtags and were therefore ‘lost’ and not accounted for in the data.

Conclusion

This case study of first-year journalism students’ engagement with a module-specific hashtag has shown that the students’ use of the hashtag was varied, creative, always ‘on topic’, and both synchronous and asynchronous with face-to-face teaching. It also revealed the central role of Twitter in journalism students’ news consumption. Content analysis of the tweets posted by students suggested that Twitter facilitated considerable levels of engagement with the module across both time and space; students contributed both during classes and in one case long after the module had officially ended, and they also contributed through Twitter when geographically highly remote from the physical classroom. From the module tutor’s autoethnographic perspective, the use of the hashtag enriched the teaching of the module by enabling students to contribute content that could be incorporated into subsequent teaching sessions. The use of the hashtag also facilitated the kind of “enmeshing” of the digital and non-digital spaces that Chayko (2017) and Jurgenson (2012) describe. Brenton (2015) contends that e-learning is unlikely to work when it is somehow bolted-on to the core part of the module. The teaching strategy deployed in this module was intended to avoid this ‘bolting-on’ phenomenon and instead integrate the use of the Twitter hashtag into the heart of the module, thereby cohering with the theories of augmented reality teaching and pedagogy-industry alignment.

References


A Theoretical Analysis of the Gezi Resistance: Implications for Political Communication of New Social Movements

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Abstract
On 28 May 2013 a peaceful demonstration by environmental activists who were protesting against the demolition of Gezi Park –one of the few green areas left at the heart of Istanbul- and construction of a shopping mall along with a mosque instead was suppressed by excessive and aggressive police intervention. In response to the police suppression, thousands of individuals in Istanbul gathered in Taksim and Kadıköy followed by other big city centers in Turkey, which subsequently evolved into a resistance movement throughout the country. Particularly the peak days of the uprisings generated so much interest both in domestic and international public opinions, it was even perceived as the biggest political resistance in the history of modern Turkey. Although the government side tried to portray the incidents as "demonstrations" to degrade its impact, the opposition side presented the incidents as "riots" to boost participation. This paper aims to look from three years back at the Gezi Resistance in terms of its nature and grass-roots mobilization of masses and where it stands from the perspective of the New Social Movements Theory. Comparisons are made with similar social movements in other countries and implications for political communication of such movements are discussed.

Keywords: Gezi Park resistance, New Social Movements, Social Dissent, Political Communication

Introduction
The main argument of this paper revolves around the assumption that the current New Social Movements that have been taking place since the early 2000s differ from the previous New Social Movements such as feminist movements, minority movements, ethnic and cultural movements. The main difference of these movements lies in their objectives and agendas: The previous New Social Movements were mobilized by particularized interest groups such as environmentalist movements or abortion rights movements. These movements were issue-specific and mutually exclusive in terms of participation. However the new social movements of the post 2000s encompass diverse interest groups that gather to form web of ties. Generally, the main issue that the diverse groups gather against is the globalization of capital, the neo-liberal economy and adverse impacts of globalization. It can be suggested that the common denominator of these participant groups that they are excluded members of the society from the current socio-economic order who are severely affected by the economic restructuration processes. Furthermore the previous forms of new social movements were mostly regional; however, the new social movements of the past few decades are global movements. That is to say, through networks and communication technologies, participants of the new social movements interact and influence one another throughout the world. This is seen from the similar repertoire and organizational structure of the movements.

Within this framework, the present paper analyzes the Gezi Park Resistance in a comparative fashion from a theoretical perspective. When the actors, dynamics and modes of activisms are considered, the Gezi Park Resistance show resemblance with other resistance movements happened in USA, Egypt, Spain, Ukraine etc. Subsequently the main question revolves around the issue of whether there is a transformation of the new social movements since the late 1990s in terms of values, issues, actors, repertoire and structure. Thus, a theoretical analysis New Social Movements as bourgeoning resistive and reactionary movements against the outcomes of the neo-liberal policies is crucial for unraveling the dynamics of the Gezi Resistance. The course of the argument is as follows: First, the nature, dynamics and actors of new social movements with regard to neoliberal order and globalization will be elaborated. Following this, the Gezi Park Resistance will be analyzed within this framework in a comparative perspective. Finally, implications of the Gezi Park Resistance for political communication of New Social Movements will be highlighted. Before continuing the theoretical discussion on New Social Movements, it would be helpful to briefly explain what happened on the 28th of May 2013.
On 28 May 2013 entered the construction machines to raze Gezi Park- located at the heart of Istanbul it is one of the few remaining green areas open to public- and to build a shopping site and a mosque as part of the neoliberal gentrification projects. Against the demolition, a small group of environmental activists occupied the area starting a peaceful action. Police attacks with tear gas and water cannons to the peaceful group and finally setting their tents to fire at the dawn of 30th of May, triggered the 20 days long massive protest and initiated a chain of protest movements countrywide.

The high level of police brutality, as the reflection and resemblance of the ruling Justice and Development Party (Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi-AKP) authoritarianism, instead of intimidating the people increased the number of activists and their determination. After a certain point, the issue was no longer the local demand for Gezi Park but it was more about the oppressive and authoritarian AKP policies and politicians’ discourse affecting every aspect of social and individual lives in general. By Gezi Park resistance, it is referred to the nationwide chain of protests, spontaneously formed by a wide variety of social groups with different problems and varying agendas, which held a long list of grievances against the government. The uniqueness and importance of the Gezi Resistance in Turkey’s recent history lies in the fact that, it was the first time that a social movement encompassed a massive group of activists from different and conflicting ideologies, different identities and with different agendas. Therefore, the Gezi Resistance resembled the gathering of differences in Turkey that are collaborating and struggling in solidarity against the police brutality. The public celebrated this peculiarity of the Resistance with the expression of “Gezi Spirit” which has become a symbol of encounter and collaboration with the others in solidarity, whenever such solidarity is needed in the society.

Mirroring Gezi Resistance with other “occupy” and “take the streets” movements throughout the world, it would be helpful to analyze the phenomena in light of the New Social Movements paradigm.

The new form of capital accumulation regime namely neo-liberalism and the transformations in the mode of production resulted in the commercialization of all areas of life, emphasis on symbolic production rather than material production, emphasis on individualization and transience. The neo-liberal dynamics are crystallized with privatization of public assets, high security, laws that concentrate power and promote neoliberal institutions, use of justice system to suppress and discourage dissent from authoritarianism, huge gap between the social economic strata disappearance of social welfare. The governments, while opening their doors to neo-liberal economies and to the necessities of foreign investments, couldn’t achieve political transformation. This led people to suffer poverty and authoritarian rules. As will be seen in the following discussions, the dissent to the neo-liberal economy in the form of social welfare cuts and commodification as in USA and Spain or dissent to authoritarianism as in Arab countries, Ukraine and Gezi Park Resistance all suppressed by strong police forces.

Evaluating Gezi resistance within this theoretical framework, the construction of a commercial building as a part of urban transformation project at the heart of Taksim Square, other commercial transformations at the historical and natural urban settings of Istanbul and a chain of gentrification projects for significant neighborhoods involve a hegemonic struggle over the urban public spaces. The new middle classes started to raise their voice and claim rights over the urban areas that they inhibit as the urban transformation projects became a tool for government to determine and impose a certain lifestyle over people (Palczewsky, 2001: 204; Coşkun, 2007: 135; Kurtuluş, 2014: 274).

New Social Movements: Theories and Actors
For analyzing and providing a theoretical background to Gezi Resistance, theoretical approaches to the New Social Movements will be summarized, with reference to the literature, the contemporary social movements, their actors, the identity belongings of these actors and their post-materialist concerns will be discussed under this section.

Within the framework of post-industrialist, post-capitalist paradigm the discourses that take working class as the sole and central unit in explaining social movements and social struggles have been losing their validity. However, it is also important to mention that, as long as the mode of production that is based on private property and profit based exploitation continues the notion of “class” will exist.

The fragmentation of classes in the post-industrial societies as well as inherent diversification of class (Public service workers, undocumented workers, organized workers, sub-class workers) complicates the development of
a common class-consciousness. This case of the current class structure as reflected in the anti-systemic movements, the conventional working class with its revolutionary objective is replaced on the streets and squares by diverse groups that are organized around various identities and ideologies.

The New Social Movements paradigm flourished in Europe as a criticism to Marxism. The “newness” of the social movements lies in its formation around struggle for culture and identity politics. The participants of these movements do not struggle for material ends and/or seizing state hegemony, instead their main struggle is to be accepted with their own identities and life styles. Scrutinizing the peculiarities of the new social movements, Melucci (1996: 102-103) emphasize the diversified objectives and the weakness of the bargaining power of these movements. Additionally the new social movements have their peculiarity as they do not claiming control over power mechanisms within the political system, they challenge the private/public distinction with the famous feminist chant “personal is political”, are particularistic, emphasize solidarity and direct participation (Melucci, 1996: 102-103). According to Cohen new social movements are different from their previous counterparts by their approach towards cultural and individual identities, advocating civil society against the technologic state, democratic decision making process, adopting democratic and participatory styles (Cohen, 2007: 53-61). As will be discussed further, the new social movements after the 1990s have lost their emphasis on culture and identity but focus on inequality, deteriorating living conditions, exploitation and economic austerity as well as increasing authoritarianism.

New social movements are defined as the reaction of the professional middle class against the states’ and market’s colonizing power over the everyday life (Carty, 2011). In another definition of Offe (1985: 828) they are “those movements that do make a claim to be recognized as political actors by the wider community… and who aim at objectives, the achievements of which would have binding effects for society as a whole rather than just for the group itself”. They are the movements that the “fusion of political and nonpolitical spheres of social life” is observed and where the dividing line between the political from private is blurred (Offe, 1985: 817). Furthermore, the denial for all kinds of representation by official political parties and conventional institutionalized civil society organizations is explained by Offe as follows:

“The politics of new social movements, seeks to politicize the institutions of civil society in ways that are not constrained by the channels of representative-bureaucratic political institutions, and thereby to reconstitute a civil society that is no longer dependent upon ever more regulation, control and intervention.” (Offe, 1985: 820).

Clearly speaking, our daily life is under bureaucratic and technologic domination by states’ intelligence and surveillance mechanisms additionally market opens every aspect of individual and daily space to consumption (Crossley, 2002). In that case new social movements can be stated as the resistance of the new middle class of different identities against the rising intervention of the state and the market and commodification of the social life as well.

Offé (1985: 820) while comparing the new social movements from its “old” counterparts, he focuses on its four principal components, namely the issues, values, actors and institutional practices. For the purpose of the discussion Offe’s analysis will be utilized for evaluating Gezi Park Resistance and how it is situated within the broader context of geopolitical landscape of the contemporary new social movements.

According to Offé (1985: 828) the main issue of the new social movements involves “the concern with physical territory” that he defines as “space of action, or life world”. The problems that are raised in the new social movements as Offé (1985: 829) mentions include any physical environment as the city, the neighborhood; cultural heritage and identity; and physical conditions of life as in the case of environmental issues. As will be seen in the further discussions the Gezi Park Resistance that started as a resistance for the preservation of a significant green space became a part of a larger issue of claiming right to the city, demanding respect for difference and challenging authoritarianism.

As for the values, according to Offé (1985, 829), the “most prominent ones are autonomy and identity” the represented in their decentralized, self-governed and self-help organizational structure.

The third component of the new social movements is the mode of action. Offé (1985: 829), divides the mode of action into two aspects: the action of individuals towards forming a collectivity and their actions in confronting
The glorification of a lifestyle that consist of changing jobs, cars, houses, cities every two-three years, the images

The employment regime based on prekariazation imposes individuals a myth of constant change and renewal. memory (Standing, 2011: 29). with their fellow class members since their occupation are mostly unpromising and excluded from the collective individuals do not have a sense of belonging to an established occupational community, a sense of solidarity the individuals of precariat do not hold an occupation based identity (Standing, 2011: 29). That’s to say, these defined as Precariat (Bora, 2014; Bora, 2010). As labor become decentralized, Precariat presents the profile for unemployment is structuralized, the class condition characterized by temporary insecure employment can be (Bora, 2014; Bora, 2010). Another factor that differentiates the precariat from the worker or middle class is that, the white-collar workers, subcontracted workers and the plaza workers whose unionization became impossible post-World War II era: Labor market security; employment security - protection against arbitrary layoffs, regulations on recruitment and layoffs; job security; security in the workplace; security on the reproduction of qualifications; wage security; security of representation. In the contemporary capitalist system where massive unemployment is structuralized, the class condition characterized by temporary insecure employment can be defined as Precariat (Bora, 2014; Bora, 2010). As labor become decentralized, Precariat presents the profile for the white-collar workers, subcontracted workers and the plaza workers whose unionization became impossible (Bora, 2014; Bora, 2010). Another factor that differentiates the precariat from the worker or middle class is that, the individuals of precariat do not hold an occupation based identity (Standing, 2011: 29). That’s to say, these individuals do not have a sense of belonging to an established occupational community, a sense of solidarity with their fellow class members since their occupation are mostly unpromising and excluded from the collective memory (Standing, 2011: 29).

The employment regime based on prekariazation imposes individuals a myth of constant change and renewal. The glorification of a lifestyle that consist of changing jobs, cars, houses, cities every two-three year, the images
of plaza office is highly contradictory with the realities of actual workers who try manage their livelihood with limited income. The discrepancy between daily routine and the overrated lifestyle of the wealthy white collar professional, provoked competition and the isolation it brings, unemployment, insecurity and low wage comprise the problems of the white collar workers (Bora, 2014; Bora, 2010). For the defined precariat class to struggle against these problems within the capitalist system, they need to organize in a flexible fashion and the field for political struggle pluralizes. The empirical studies on Anti War on Iraq demonstrations, Seattle Protests, the Occupy movement in New York, reactions after the Madrid bombings, demonstrate that, the majority of the participants seem to be the white collar workers that can be identified as precariat who are non-regular workers, plan all their lives for their career but at the end face a precarious future, mobilize through cell-phones and social media, present a creative form of reaction with humorous slogans and performance shows (Palczewski, 2001; Boutreau, 2002; Carty, 2011; Fominaya, 2013).

However, different from the previous new social movements, people start to realize that these problems are all different dimensions of the neoliberal economic system. The people of different identities, varying concerns and agendas gather in the central urban settings to point to the main source of the problems. These recent movements not only forming connections between the groups and individuals but also influence and connect similar movements in other geographies. Therefore while discussing the new social movements of the post 2000s we can talk about a global civil society that mobilize with similar concerns, raise similar questions and employ similar strategies.

At this point it can be assumed that as the issues of women rights, human rights, unemployment, environmental problems become sensitive issues within the international arena; new social movements based on identity and heterogeneity become a new form of societal force. While some of these movements try to introduce a survival strategy, more radical anarchic groups display a role similar to the revolutionary role of the previous working class. Looking from this prism, the new modes of exploitation of the neo-liberal system paved the way for new forms of reactiveness and the ground for these reactions to be managed under the leadership of one group (namely the working class) has been eliminated. As the various interest groups unite against the different hitches of the current system, join the social movements and raise their voices for the transformation of the system. This shows that the subjects under the exploitation of the hegemonic system, despite all the fragmentation can take a common action.

**Mapping Gezi Park Resistance: Issues, Values, Actors and Mode of Action**

This section entails a comparative analyses of Gezi Park Resistance in terms of its beginning, the main issues and objectives that drive the protestors to the streets, who the protestors are and the means of the Resistance with regard to Tahrir Square Demonstrations, 15th of May Movement in Spain (15M), Occupy Wall Street (OWS), EuroMaiden in Ukraine within the perspective of New Social Movements as a paradigmatic category.

Melucci (1996: 102-103) theorizes the new social movements common characteristics in a tripartite fashion. His first emphasis is on the variety of the issues addressed in the movements. In fact as observed during the Gezi Park Resistance, there was a wide variety ranging from environmentalists peaceful and environment focused actions to conflict oriented actions of identity and political groups. Secondly, these new movements are indifferent to the political system and reluctant to claim political power. As seen in the discourses put forward during Gezi Park Resistance, the participants kept their distance from formal party politics, party representations and ideologies, however the slogans were calling the government to resign the objective of the activists was not to seize power but the main issue was the neo-liberal politics of the government and their environmental, socio-economic implications. According to Konda (2014: 14) statistics, 78,9% of the protestors stated that they do not have any affiliation with any political parties, associations, foundation and any other civil society organizations. Furthermore, 93,6% of the protestors stated that they are present as an ordinary citizen and only 6,4% was at Gezi Resistance representing a group and/or organization. Research on the social portrait of Euromaidan participants conducted by the Democratic initiatives foundation and Kyiv International Institute of Sociology on 7 and 8 December among randomly selected 1037 participants (Bekeshkina and Khmelko 2013), revealed that 92% of them did not belong to any political parties or NGOs. Only 5% came to the protest following the call of opposition leaders. Thirdly, the new movements challenge the public/private division. Issues that are considered to be in the private sphere and not included within the scope of high politics such as gender rights, child abuse, environmental problems, abortion, and alcohol ban are carried to the public sphere during the social movements. Particularity, solidarity, participation, direct action and refusal of representation are the common characteristics
of the contemporary new social movements that also Gezi Park Resistance shares (For more information on contemporary collective actions see Melucci (2002), Challenging Codes pg: 71-103).

How the Resistance Started: Backgrounds and Beginnings

In this section, the street resistances that started at the Taksim Gezi Park and spread to central neighborhoods of Istanbul and other important urban centers throughout Turkey between 28th of May and 19th of June 2013 will be analyzed. The discussion will revolve around how the Turkish government’s neo-liberal policies constitute the dynamic for these actions. From this point of view the main argument is that, the AKP government privatized the urban settings, public spaces under the so called “gentrification projects” in pursuit of establishing a presence in the neoliberal order. The citizens and urban stakeholders who do not have a say in these transformation processes, with the demand for right to their city and urban life turned their oppositionary voices into a social reaction that has been previously experienced in Seattle, Wall Street, London, in major cities of Spain and Ukraine.

The entrance of construction machinery to Taksim Gezi Park and the demolition kick off originated a massive resistance movement that hadn’t been witnessed before in Turkey. The course of events that resulted in raising these anti-governmental sentiments started with the regime becoming more openly authoritarian and sociality conservative (Önal, 2015: 15). “Pressures on organized labor, legislation that limit women’ rights, increase in the killings of women and transgendered people, increase in the number of political arrests from 60 in 2012 to 400 in 2013, increase in hate crimes, increase in police brutality, top down planning” disseminated dissent across the half of the society (Önal, 2015: 15-16). In fact the hints and signals of Gezi Park Resistance were hidden in the previous demonstrations against hydroelectric power plants (HPP), the demolition of the movie theater Emek Cinema, also a historical landmark in Beyoglu, Istanbul, reactions against the construction of Third Bridge and the Third airport, and reactions against the gentrification projects, demonstrations of teachers, medical sector employees and doctors. Up until the 1980s the movements organized by student groups and strong unions mobilize around left-right dichotomy, having mostly macro level political demands and struggle for political domination in their agenda. After the 1980s, limited, local and isolated reactions draw the attention, which are based on ethnical, religious, gender, and environmental issues. The novelty of Gezi Park resistance in the Turkish social and political landscape lays in the fact the identity groups with differing agendas and even conflicting interests collectivized and mobilized an extensive movement. The clues of this movement are hidden in the pathway of globalization and neoliberal accumulation of capital; therefore it can be useful to briefly mention this process’ reflections on Turkey. In that case Gezi Park Resistance presents divergence from previous forms of new social movements.

The expansionist character of global capital manifest itself in the construction of shopping centers and residences, subcontracted and unregulated mines, HPP constructions which contain the power of destruction of their surroundings and destroy the lives. The neo-liberal accumulation process also directs the government towards homogenizing and totalitarian social engineering (Sinir, 2014: 228-229). The metropolitan areas of Turkey have been going through a gentrification process led by TOKI. This gentrification process is a dimension of commodification by the free market rather than beautification of the urban settings. In this process, the long established settlement areas, historical, cultural and geographical landmarks are transformed and opened to the use of the global capital despite the inhabitants’ opposition to the process (Ergun, 2014: 2076-278). The historical buildings, especially in Beyoglu and Taksim as in the case of Emek Cinema all turn into shopping centers or hotel after the renovation. The last green areas at the surroundings of Istanbul, are being destroyed for the Third Bridge and airport construction, the historical neighborhoods are being evacuated from its inhabitants and opened to the service of the capital owners. All these transformation are the result of the efforts for joining the neo-liberal competition with Istanbul. However, the urban dwellers and the stakeholders of the city are being excluded from all the decision-making mechanisms while the decisions directly intervene their own everyday spaces (Ergun, 2014: 282).

In fact what triggered the Gezi Park Resistance is the hegemonic discourse and practices that constantly intervened the life-styles and altered the living spaces of the city residents. The last straw was the construction project of shopping mall-mosque complex replacing the last remaining park of Taksim which was a part of a massive urban renewal project. The capitalist group that would benefit from this project agreed with Prime Minister on the transformation project of Taksim, also supported by the liberal Islamic discourse that stigmatized Taksim and the lifestyle it represents with crime and immorality. After the start of the project urban planners,
students of architecture, professional groups and various democratic initiatives camped in the park for its preservation. On 28 May 2013, without official permission, the construction machines entered the park and started the demolition illegally. At the dawn of the 29th of May, while the camper protestors were far asleep in their tents, the police attacked with tear gas and water cannons setting the tents on fire. The excessive brutality against the peaceful environmental groups as the “good kids” that are not very common actors in the street demonstrations, far passed the tolerance limit of the people and at the evening of 29 May 2013 thousands march on the streets. Then Prime Minister’s provocative discourse and the increased violence by the police spread the resistance to other cities of Turkey.

Issues, Objectives and Values
When the diversity of the participants to the Resistance and the variety of their agendas are considered the Gezi Park Resistance involve some parallels to the New Social Movements discussion. For a better elaboration, it would be useful to refer to the findings of Gezi Report conducted and published by research institution Konda. The survey conducted with 4411 participants to the Resistance of only those who were within the territories of Gezi Park. Even though the survey excludes the wide range of street demonstrators in Istanbul and from other cities still gives a certain understanding as to the nature and dynamics of the movement. According to the findings published by Konda (2014: 18), 58% of the protestors came to the park to protest against the limitations to liberties, 37,2% to resist against AKP and its policies, 30% to show their reaction to Erdogan’s declarations. Taking EuroMaidan movement in Ukraine for instance, “Research on the social portrait of Euromaidan participants conducted by the Democratic initiatives foundation and Kyiv International Institute of Sociology on 7 and 8 December among randomly selected 1037 participants (Bekeshkina and Khmelko2013 ), while the three most common reasons for coming out on the streets were police repressions and in particular – the beating up protesters on the night of 30 November (70% of respondents), the president’s refusal to sign the Ukraine–EU association agreement (53.5%) and a desire to change life in Ukraine (50%)”(Ryabchuk, 2014: 131).

When Hardt and Negri’s notion of Multitude is taken into account, environmentalists, secularists, Alevis, homosexuals, those who are against the alcohol and abortion limitations, unemployed, students, Kurdish people, football fans are in fact singularities carrying the fragmented identities of the postmodern society. According to Konda statistics (2014: 19), 34,1 % of the protestors came to the park for liberties, 18,4% to claim rights and to protest against violations, 9,7% to protest against dictatorship and oppression, 9,5% for the resignation of the government, 8% for peace and democracy, 6,2% to protest the police violence, 6,1% for support and solidarity, 4,6% to protect the trees and the Gezi Park Square to avoid the construction, 3,2% to challenge the system and for revolution, 2,5% to be heard. When this diversity of the participants of the Resistance and the variety of their agendas are considered the Gezi Park Resistance involve some parallels to the contemporary New Social Movements. As can be inferred from the statistics, the Gezi Park Resistance provided the arena for these singularities to engage in a common action (Hardt&Negri, 2004). As Konda’s Gezi Report findings suggest, 87% of the protestors consider themselves among those groups who are faced with human rights violation (Konda, 2014: 15). Furthermore, according to Keyder, “Almost all the protesters in Gezi Park were young people with no direct experience of military rule or state repression. They were the beneficiaries of economic growth and greater openness to the world. They now wanted the basic rights that they knew existed elsewhere: they wanted to be able to defend public space against neoliberal incursion, and they refused to live under the authoritarian guidance of a self-appointed father of the country” (Keyder, 2013: http://www.lrb.co.uk/blog/2013/06/19/caglar-keyder/law-of-the-father/ Accessed on 11.11.2015).

Taken into account within the framework of New Social Movements, The Resistance became an arena in which the actors preserving their own singularities and demands engaged in a collectivist and solidarist form of activism. This solidarist character of the Resistance manifest itself in the cases where different contradictory groups protect each other from the police brutality, leftist student groups forming human chain around the anti-capitalist Muslim groups against the police attack during the groups do their prayer, rival football fan groups’ solidarity and collaboration behind the barracks against the police attacks and earth tables where Revolutionary or anti-capitalist Muslim groups and seculars, atheists shared their food. Kingsnorth in his work entitled “One No, Many Yeses”, define the notion of multitude in the New Social Movements as the groups with multiple baggages and claims gather around one “no” to the neo-liberal order and its all cultural, political, economic and environmental dimensions (Özatalay, 2014: 172).
From this perspective, the Gezi Park Resistance can be considered as the gathering point of multitude of yeses to “right to city”, “right to liberty and security”, “existence of different ways of living”, “freedom of expression”, etc. (Önal, 2015: 15) under one no to the government’s patronizing policies, increased authoritarianism and neo-conservative discourses that are shaped according to the expansionist capitalist order that is paving the way for the economic, social, cultural and environmental deterioration. This one “no” in a way reflecting the common enemy is key to formation of solidarity between the actors with diverse affiliation. As also pointed out by Önal (2015: 16), the discriminatory discourse by the government officials and then Prime Minister Erdogan, who claimed during a public speech that they “hardly keep 50% at home” threatening the other 50% of the population reinforced the “we-feeling” among the protestors while widening the polarization between “us” (referring the pro-government strata of the population) and “them” (the dissident strata of the population).

Tahrir Square demonstrations started on 25 January 2011, and after 18 days of revolt, resilience and occupation, former president Hosni Mubarak resigned from the government. As Shwartz (2011: 35-40) mentions in discussing Tahrir Square, the demonstrations were against the authoritarian government that exhausted brutal police force against the people throughout its rule. Authoritarian regimes nurture the financial standing of the major capitalists interests, Egyptian business groups through privatization of public assets, structural reforms (Mahmoud, 2015: 11). The course of the demonstrations and the events led to the demonstrations reveal that the mafia-like police structure and its extreme oppression on the people played a vital role in the mobilization of Tahrir Square Uprisings (Shakr, 2011; Northedge, 2011; Ghosbashy, 2011). The police served not as providing the public order and the security of the people but served for the government’s well-being as repressing every dissent against the authority and its pro-capitalist policies. Similar to Gezi Park, gentrification projects of Tahrir and Cairo to drive out the poor for the elites and consumption patterns were one of the objective of the participants. Therefore it could be assumed that the Tahrir protests also gathered people with many yeses only for one no to the government that represented and protected the neo-liberal interests of the capitalists.

Similar to Tahrir Demonstrations, anti-austerity 15M movement on 15th of May 2011 in Spain, people were drawn to the squares because of lack of confidence in politician, political corruption, inability of government to handle economic crisis (Castaneda, 2012: 310). According to Eurobarometer Survey, 86% of the Spanish respondents stated that the government handled the economic crisis poorly (Castaneda, 2012: 310). As Hughes (2011: 413) argues, the conflict was directed towards the two pillars of globalization namely the neo-liberal economy and the liberal democracy as well as the institutions that promote it. To illustrate better the objectives and values of the M15 movements, the proposals adopted by the movements actors could be helpful: “Elimination of the privileges enjoyed by the Spanish political class; a series of labor market reforms; the right to housing; high quality in public services; public regulations; reform of the tax system; participatory democracy and cuts in military spending” (Hughes, 2011: 412). So it can be suggested that the main issues mobilized the M15 movement were economic ones.

During Occupy Wall Street (OWS) that started on 17th of September 2011 in Zucotti Park, New York people were also united by focusing on economic inequality and political system that serve the few 1% at the cost of the Many (Milkman et al, 2013: 196). Just as Gezi Park and M15 OWS had no specific objectives and demands so that anyone can come into the movement to see that many share similar problems and grievances: unemployment, debts, lack of housing, lack of health care, environmental problems and so on (Milkman et al, 2013: 195). The main focus on OWS as well as M15 was reclamation of land and housing (Choy, 2012: 43). The main problem behind the OWS and M15 was generally the financial sector and real estate market that dubbed people into deep debt and in times of crisis put people on the streets, closing the family homes (Choy, 2012: 43).

The main idea behind both three movements (Gezi Park, M15 and OWS), people who live in the area are the best keepers of that area. The struggle was for that not the big corporations, capitalists and politicians determine how people manage where they live and how they live (Choy, 2012: 43).

The EuroMaidan protests started in Ukraine as a civic initiative. Being distrustful to the existing political parties and leaders, protests directed at the government for pursuing pro-Russian policies which represented authoritarian communist order of the past (Ryachbuk, 2014: 127-130; Önal, 2015: 22). All in all, for the Ukrainian protestors, the pro-Russian policies and government’s distance to Europe, distrust to opposition parties and dissent to authoritarian rule mobilized people to take action against the government.
The question is “what do protestors want to get rid of and bury in the past” (Ryabchuk, 2014: 4, Önal, 2015: 22). Quoting from Önal:

“Although there is a tone of revolution in both Gezi Park and EuroMaidan, the focal point of these protests was their anti-authoritarian and anti-governmental characteristic. Their aim was not to overthrow the system altogether, but to change power relations in favor of a civil society that is capable of integrating a plurality of voices, vis-à-vis, a corrupt and authoritarian government together with a demand for viable political institutions and egalitarian and pluralistic representation. The demand for engagement and autonomy and the demand for the transparency of the state unite these protests and connect them with the regional and global frameworks as NSM that are organized around identitarian politics and consensual social relations.” (Önal, 2015: 22)

From the brief analysis of the five movements it can be suggested that “the unifying frame for the mobilization: the simple and straightforward focus on inequality united people who disagreed on other issues” (Calhoun, 2013: 33). The distrust to politicians and governments derive from the realization that they serve to corporations and the wealthy not the ordinary people (Calhoun, 2013: 33). The economic aspect of these movements lie in the fact that the governments facilitate in the concentration of wealth through tax breaks, bailouts, using common assets for private profit (Van Gelder, 2011: 3). What is more, instead of investing this wealth and profit to provide jobs and produce goods and services they invest in mergers, acquisitions and speculations (Van Gelder, 2011: 3). This system make people find themselves in low wage jobs without prospects for a secure future (Van Gelder, 2011:4). This is what is being observed in these five Occupy movements, that the participants agree on the fact that the guaranteed life standards of the middle class way of life is being eroded, uncertain future with the high risk of poverty is awaiting (Van Gelder, 2011: 4).

If Gezi Park protest were compared with the M15, OWS and Tahrir Square movements in terms of objectives and values, it could be suggested that the main focus was on equality and good life. The participants all voice that every area of life is being captured by the capital. ON that case New Social Movements in the form of Occupy movements of the late 1990s and 2000s are different from the previous ones. The participants don’t mobilize according to their identity and the movements are not particularistic and fragmented. On the contrary, different groups gather together to protest against the current economic system and its social, environmental and political impacts.

**Actors, Organizational Structure and Repertoire**

When the social composition of the protestors are considered, it can be claimed that, “the protestors are representative of a newly emerging middle class, dissatisfied with the ‘neoliberal authoritarianism’ of the ruling AKP and look for new guarantees for their way of life, for their environment, for their right to the city; and they resent violations of their personal and social space” (Önal, 2015:10; Keyder, 2013: http://www.lrb.co.uk/blog/2013/06/19/caglar-keyder/law-of-the-father/ Accessed on 11.11.2015).

In scrutinizing the social composition of the Gezi protests, Konda’s Gezi Park Report based on the survey research conducted during the Resistance would give useful insights as to the nature and composition of the Resistance. According to the statistics published by Konda, 78,4% of the protestors were between the ages of 18-35 (Konda, 2014:6), the gender distribution was slightly in favor of women with 50,2% to 49,2% male (Konda, 2014:6). In terms of education level, 55,7% of the were university or master’s graduates whereas the percentage of university and master’s graduates for Turkey is only 12,9% (Konda, 2014: 9).

When the class positions of the contemporary New Social Movements’ actors in general and Gezi Park Resistance actors in particular are assessed, it can be claimed that the major unions and organized working class to a large extent stayed distant to the resistance (Özatalay, 2014). According to statistics published in Konda Report, the percentage of workers within the Turkish society is 15% whereas the percentage of workers present in at the Gezi Park Resistance was only 6% (Konda, 2014: 11).However it should also be noted that the Konda Survey was conducted only at the Gezi Park whereas riots, rallies and resistance was spread all other central districts of Istanbul where the members of the worker class might be actively participating the protests. As mentioned earlier rather than an organized massive workers rally, the resistance movement was mostly composed on those who object the social assertiveness of the government authorities, the white collar workers
who suffer the current socio-economic system, who want their lifestyles and personal preferences to be accepted, those who are unemployed, environmentalists and so on.

So when the Gezi Park Resistance activists are considered, it could be asserted that it encompasses the victims of the neo-liberal system, the plaza employees whose socio-economic conditions are similar to those of the industrial workers but they also face a precarious future despite their qualified labor and good education, service sector workers, students and those groups that politicize the issues related to lifestyle, identity belongings and environment. Similarly, the participants of Tahrir Square Demonstrations, 15M and OWS were propelled by excluded groups such as students, unemployed, underemployed, low waged, precarious, young people, retired, ordinary citizens, intellectuals, etc. (Hughes, 2011: 409; Schwarz, 2011; Choy, 2012; Milkman et al., 2013).

The strategies for mobilization through the internet and mobile phones, passive resistance strategies like Standing Man, young man reading a book against the police barricades, the guitar player, the piano player at the heart of the square, the humor on the graffiti and on the slogans are highly similar to their counterpart movements that flourish in other geographies. Strikingly, the same pianist with the same piano performed in Taksim Square during Gezi Park Resistance also performed in Ukraine during Kiev protests.

“There was a worldwide wave of protests that gave added weight and significance to each. Visual media shared images of urban occupations that brought inspiration and circulated tactical ideas” (Calhoun, 2013: 28).

As Castells puts it, modern social movements are global, leaderless, collective and virtual before occupying streets (Castells, 2013:11). When we look at the way that how Tahrir Square, M15, OWS, EuroMaidan and Gezi Park movements all started and developed, it is pretty obvious that they share the same basic structural features. In Egypt, “We are all Khaled Said” –who was brutally beaten to death by the police for posting a footage on police corruption on June 6, 2010- group organized the Day of Rage on January 25. Their call to take stand against torture, corruption, poverty and unemployment mobilized thousands of young Egyptians (Northeidge, 2011:6). The way to resist was convened through social media. 15M movement of Spain for instance, was organized through a web-site platform “Democracia Real Ya” supported by 200 organizations (Hughes, 2011: 408). This website was key in the framing the action, developing a common sense of identity and purpose (Hughes, 2011: 408-409). Furthermore by definition the 15M movement was grassroots, non-party, non-violent citizens’ movement, adopting a decentralized structure whereby the decisions were reached collectively through free exchange of information and respect for diversity (Hughes, 2011: 411-412). Inspired by 15M and Tahrir protests, there was a call from Adbusters magazine to show up at Wall Street on September 17th and bring a tent. Few thousand people gathered to name and point to the source of the crisis of our time on Wall Street (Gelder, 2011: 1). OWS also identified itself as a “leaderless resistance movement with people of many political persuasions, refusing to articulate policy demands or to embrace old ideologies” (Hartcourt, 2011: 1).

In terms of repertoire and mode of action, three common features of the five mentioned movements come up: setting up camps and occupation of city squares; emphasis on non-violent resistance; theatrical and artistic performances.

As in the cases of M15, OWS, Tahrir as well as Gezi Park, occupation of significant urban settings for days and weeks, setting up tents and camps engender a sort of exchange and solidarity between the activists (Shakr, 2011: 16). Occupation turned the urban settings into non-commodified spaces where activists and participants to the movement relate to each other outside of the market (Milkman et al, 2013: 196). Occupation was a strategy for claiming right to public spaces that are gradually reducing especially in high profile urban centers. On the one hand Tahrir Square and Cairo was undergoing a series of gentrification processes similar to Istanbul and Taksim region which was also driving its inhabitants to the outskirts. On the other hand in Spain and USA, the real estate sector and financial crises made many individuals who are unable to pay their debts become homeless, driving them out of their family homes and neighborhoods. Hence the occupation of spaces with tents and camps can be regarded as reclamation of land that once belonged to the fellow citizens and now taken over by the capital (Calhoun, 2013; Milkman et. al., 2013).

The occupation tactics also facilitated in forming connections, webs and mutual awareness between different groups and different people (Calhoun, 2013: 30). To give an example how occupation movements facilitated in forming these connections, Shokr (2011:16) depicts his observations from Tahrir square:
“Over the course of 18 days, the plaza had turned into a veritable polis, where people were bound together by more than a common political demand. Together, the people of Tahrir forged a society, marked by interdependence and collective decision-making- at times even hierarchies. They were preoccupied with everything necessary for the smooth functioning of a social order, from basic necessities -food, shelter, security -to questions of political strategy. Even the most mundane acts- sweeping the streets, preparing food, pitching tents -became moments of inspiration that proved the people’s ability to sustain themselves, despite the regimes attempts at sabotage. Daily struggles to hold the space and feed its inhabitants, without the disciplined mechanisms of an organized state, were exercises in democratic process. It was through these everyday practices that Tahrir became a truly radical space.”

15M presents a striking example of how thematically organized camps facilitate in the development of the common sense of awareness between the people. These occupations and camps provided the excluded to raise their voice in series of debates on various issues (Hughes, 2011: 412). Protestors in organized commissions formulated proposals to be voted on in daily assemblies. Decisions then e-mailed to the main camp in Madrid (Hughes, 2011: 412). A similar organization was tried after the movement was dispersed in Gezi Park. After the Occupation was dispersed by the police, people took it to the local parks of their neighborhoods and held forums in major cities of Turkey. However these forums were not effective and did last only for few weeks. These structures can be considered as efforts of especially the young citizens who are frustrated by the liberal democratic system and distrustful to the current political structure to find an alternative way of governing.

The second common aspect of the five movements as mentioned was their emphasis on on-violent, peaceful passive resistance. In all these movements, Tahrir Square, M15 OWS, EuroMAidan and Gezi Park resistance, police brutality was the key mobilizing issue. For instance, many photographs disseminated among people who became furious to with the images where peaceful young individuals were attacked by police, setting their camps on fire, attacking with tear gas and water cannons the peaceful crowds also including children, disabled people and elderly. The findings of the Gezi Report by Konda reveal the fact that 49,1% of the protestors entered the ranks of the Resistance after they saw the police brutality. Calhoun (2013: 32) also mention that for OWS, “police efforts to disperse the crowds provide the most influential images in protest mobilization”. Similarly the M15 movement, OWS and Tahrir Square movements, police response to non-violent groups revealed the excessive police violence that legitimized the movements in the eyes of the general people and increased the support and participation to the movement (Calhoun, 2013; Castaneda, 2012: 315-316; Northedge, 2011; Shokr, 2011). The police brutality meant to the people that state power was there to protect the interests of the corporate capital against the citizens (Calhoun, 2013: 32). People who were reluctant and kept distance to the previous movements because of the destructive acts of the activists, felt the need to support and participate in the peaceful protests.

Implications of Gezi Park Resistance for Political Communication

For considering the implications of Gezi Park Resistance for political communication, three main points unfold; conventional mass media appearing with its incapacity, ignorance and the voice of the hegemonic governing power; the emergence of new media for conveying the political demands and strategies of the resistance movement and finally new tools and performative acts for claims making of the protestors. Online communication and internet are focal to the organization of the new social movements. As Langman (2005: 54) mentions media has an essential role in social movements, in the dispersion of news, ideas, planning strategies and coordinating with other groups and influencing wider publics.

Before elaborating the role of media during Gezi Park Resistance in relation to political communication, it would be useful for the sake of the argumentation a brief discussion on the role of media in new social movements. Communication as interchanges between individuals produce and reproduce the common experiences, grievances and sense of injustice. If people accept the existing order as legitimate and as long as there is collective ignorance, individuals would not form a collective movement to challenge the existing order no matter how much they are victimized by it (Das, 1981: 130). In other words, realization by the people of shared experiences through exchange of ideas engenders the foundations of collective action. Accordingly, the role of communication in the emergence and formation of collective action is of considerable importance. As Das (1981: 139) suggests, the development of mass communication may have facilitated the growth of social
movements in various ways such as creation of diffuse collectivities, creation of solidarity and disseminating undiscovered social issues (Das, 1981: 139).

Similar to Das’s emphasis on the role of communication in the genesis of social movements, Castells (2013: 200) underline the fact that the struggles, actions and organizations of 1990s anti-neoliberal movements are developed by means of online communication. In fact as Langman (2005: 43) suggests, technologies of communication have long been integral to new social movements and the global character of these movements and worldwide proliferation is made possible by the Internet. Divergent groups through the internet conveyed their messages, opinions and discussions to a wide range of audience (Langman, 2005: 42). As for the information communication technologies’ (ICT) relationship with social mobilization it can be asserted that, it provides low-costs, easy access to networks as well as immense flow of information. Furthermore, technology enables participation to social mobilization structures by promoting a collective identity. As mentioned earlier, individuals from various walks of life realize their common grievances and grow a sense of belonging to a larger community based on adversity and grievances. The speed and flexibility of the ICTs, enable to foster a collective identity across a dispersed population (Garrett, 2006: 205).

In elaborating the anti-globalization movements Castells (2013: 203) mention that the main activists of these movements target to reach the mindset of the general people. Media is the main vehicle for reaching the masses. Concomitantly, those movements, which attract the attention of the media, achieve disseminating the values and ideas to the public. ICTs are also producing changes in repertoires of contention, allowing activists to engage in new forms of contentious activity and to adapt existing modes of contention to an online environment (Langman, 2005: 55). So the New Social Movements actors adopted strategies that are worth for media to news report such as occupying public spaces, theatrical performances and peaceful resistances. Examples of festivals, street parties, street theaters, civic disobedience acts that are also a manifestation of global youth culture becomes a way of collective use and sharing of public spaces through creativity and performance (Castells, 2013: 204). The colorful, witty, creative images from these movements become iconic and spread to wide range of people especially through social media. Therefore more people could familiarize themselves easily with the movement.

In the manifestation of ICTs and social media in particular as the medium for mobilization, the incapacity and hegemonic aspect of conventional mass media is also important. For instance, Carroll and Ratner (1999) refer to the asymmetrical relationship between social movements and mass media. Production of the news in the mass media is described as hegemonic system of power and media at the center of mass communications network have a wide range of options for making news whereas movements have limited options for conveying their messages (Carrol & Ratner, 1999:2, 28). This asymmetry puts media in a favorable position in contrast to the movements. Within this asymmetrical relationship, movements need the media for three main purposes: “to mobilize, to validate their existence as politically important collective actors, and to enlarge the scope of conflict” (Carroll & Ratner, 1999:3). To reduce or reverse the dependency, movements present dramatic events to attract media attention or making use of alternative media (Carroll & Ratner, 1999: 28).

The argument put forward by Carroll and Rattner (2009: 28), that the asymmetry in movement-media relation resulting in making use of alternative media outlets is prevalent in Gezi Resistance. The salience of conventional mass media to the Resistance had an unprecedented consequence of generation of a new consciousness of a counter-hegemony (Kurtuluş, 2014: 270). This counter-hegemonic consciousness manifest itself in stigmatization of media as “penguin media” for broadcasting documentary at the time of the climax of the protests, by the protestors and supporters. Furthermore, the discussion programs broadcasted on mainstream media that give space to repressive, ignorant and pejorative discourses of the representatives of hegemonic political powers, as well as giving space to misinformation and provocative voices, drove people to alternative media sources. In these alternative media sources a new language of political communication challenging the hegemonic discourses emerged. Meanwhile in the hegemonic mass media, organic intellectuals in Gramscian terms in their analysis and comments presented the resistance movements by alienating the movement from its political context and referring the protestors as apolitical (Kurtuluş, 2014: 270).

In order to posit a better picture of how media has facilitated in the perception of Gezi Resistance and shaped its implication on political communication, it can be referred to the findings of the survey conducted by Konda during the Resistance. As in the case of Gezi Park Protests, one way stream of the mass media, their hegemonic position in producing and constructing news, deciding which information to convey and how, frustrated the
protestors as well as shaped the dominant public opinion. According to Konda statistics (2014), 70% of the participants to the survey obtained the first information from television broadcasts and about 20% of them obtained the first information on the internet and through social media (Konda, 2014: 25). For elaborating the role of media in the formation of public perception and attitude towards Gezi Resistance, the statistics are quite striking. The news sources highly facilitate in perception formation about the events of Resistance, for instance those who follow the pro-government media agree that the protestors were at fault from the beginning and shouldn’t have resisted the government by 60% (Konda, 2014: 40). Furthermore 84% of those who agree that the protestors were wrong from the beginning follow the information from television whereas only 11% get informed by the internet and social media (Konda, 2014: 42). From the statistics, the asymmetrical relationship between the mass media and social movements specific to Gezi Resistance is quite apparent. However it should be noted that, the audiences cannot be considered as passive subjects that are only shaped by the one way communication of information and ideas from the media. Rather, individuals chose to follow the media representing similar world views and ideologies reinforcing and reproducing their own mindset. So the statistics only state the fact that, the mass media predominantly represent the hegemonic order and followed by those who are not critical and/or in opposition to the hegemony.

Gezi Park Resistance in various aspects bring novelty in terms of political communication. For the discussion of Gezi Park Resistance’s implications for political communication, the role of internet and conventional mass media appear to be the key elements. First of all reactions to conventional mainstream mass media gained impetus and more people come to realize that the information conveyed through conventional mass media are questionable. Many participants to Resistance who have lived in the western provinces and of middle class youth have questioned the information they have obtained from mass media on the previous movements and police interventions. Some alternative television channels and social media, which are believed to convey true and up to date information, gained popularity and increased its followers. Main stream media and popular channels were discredited and strongly criticized for broadcasting irrelevant documentaries and programs during the protests and being indifferent to the massive protests of the people and the violent clashes with police taking place a step away from their building. Hence, from the attitude of mass media towards the Resistance, it was realized that the media that claimed to be free was not so free either. So a new way of free communication emerged and Gezi resistance revealed the importance of new communication technologies as political demands were made on social media. This implied the importance of effective use of social media in political communication. Furthermore social media especially twitter was defined as troublesome by the then prime minister who does not have the means to control and censor as he does for mainstream conventional media. The protestors organized at the micro level, call for help and solidarity, words spread through twitter to hundreds and thousands of people. Images of protests, lists of requirements, images of injured and lost, proves of police brutality and other means for the movement spread through social media, otherwise would be impossible with mainstream media. While the mass media for some exceptions was blind and deaf to the police brutality, people watched the current happenings from different cities from live stream domains on the Internet.

Gezi park protest also revealed the misappropriation of social media as the excessive misinformation conveyed through various channels, irrelevant images, and false announcements for provocation was not possible to prevent. Individual warnings were some limited attempts for common sense and not falling for misinformation and provocation.

**Conclusion**

Three main concluding points can be drawn from the brief analysis of the five new social movements of Gezi Park Resistance, Tahrir, 15M, OWS and EuroMaidan. First of all, it can be inferred that the social movements that are based on claims for rights on identity and culture has shifted by the late 1990s and 2000s the new social movements mobilized by social and political concerns based on economic austerity. Therefore the main objectives and concerns of the people participating in these movements basically voice the social costs of the functioning of neo-liberal economic system in the forms of economic crisis, spreading of poverty, erosion of social welfare and middle class security, widening gap between the wealthy few and impoverished many. Also people held common grievances to the governments and political elites who serve for the well-being of the capital at the cost of the well-being of the people. For protecting the interests of the capital the governments turn into authoritarian rules using excessive police power in times of dissent.
Secondly, the recent New Social Movements are highly global, inspiring each other in terms of strategies, objectives and tactics. As Castells mentions (2013: 196), these social resistance movements are connected to each other through Internet webs, media and discussion forums. Quoting from OWS’s official website; “

Occupy Wall Street

is a leaderless resistance movement with people of many colors, genders and political persuasions. The one thing we all have in common is that We Are The 99% that will no longer tolerate the greed and corruption of the 1%. We are using the revolutionary Arab Spring tactic to achieve our ends and encourage the use of nonviolence to maximize the safety of all participants” (http://occupywallst.org, accessed on 17.11.2015). From the self definition of the movement summarizes the overall discussion presented in terms of the structure, objectives, actors of new social movements and their interaction at the global level.

As seen in the analysis, the participants of the five movements are those who are excluded and adversely affected from the functioning of global economic system, namely the neo-liberal order and its social and political implications. The common issues in both movements were the inequality, poverty, claiming right to public spaces, neighborhoods, authoritarianism and abuse of the police. The diversity of the participants also reveal the fact that, people are drawn to the streets not based on identity and cultural politics. These recent movements are not issue specific and fragmented but gathering of many “yeses” against one “no”. According to Castells (2013: 197), in understanding these movements it is important to look at the sources, values and objectives that make these movements happen rather than the characteristics of the participants.

Thirdly, from the theoretical analysis of Gezi Park Resistance that occurred between the 28th of May to 19th of June it could be concluded that, the Resistance share similar characteristics with other new social movements mobilized in other geographies. Therefore the Resistance movement cannot be analyzed independent of the phenomena of globalization in the new capitalist order. Briefly, the neo-liberal order of capital accumulation introduced new modes of domination and stratification. This new order commoditize all areas of life also introduce a flexible, decentralized mode of production, disseminating precariousness and insecurity to different geographies. The nation-states that want to articulate this process generate policies regardless of the interests, demands and desires of the individuals and the society.

The victims of this expansionist globalization develop a new mode of social mobilization. These movements essentially bring everyday issues to the realm of politics; they can be characterized as temporary, not durable, distant to party politics, leaderless and unorganized movements. Considering the class position of the activists, they are different from the worker class whose actions are based on economic concerns and have a class consciousness, rather the activists considered to be from different fractions of New Middle Class who demand recognition of their life styles and direct representation.

From the analysis of the five New Social Movements the following assumption can be put forward:

- The main emphasis of these movements are on the economic austerity and deterioration of living conditions of the people.
- The main target is the global corporate capital, its neo-liberal order and their collaborating authoritarian political elites.
- The occupation as a movement strategy is vital for these movements
- Occupation and camps create a sense of solidarity between different groups and peoples.
- The movements’ structure is composed of networks of loose ties.
- The movements from different geographies are deeply inspired and influenced from one another.
- The non-violent character of these resistance movements reveal the extremes of police brutality which also became a climax for the movements.

Consequently, evaluating the Gezi Park Resistance within the New Social Movements paradigm, the Resistance is significant in the Turkish social and political landscape by its unorganized, contextual and heterogeneous structure. These resistance movements were idealized by several academicians, journalists and politicians with the idioms of “Nothing will be the same as before”, “Gezi Park Spirit”, “Disproportionate Intelligence” regarded the movement as a transition point for the society, reinforcing their belief in the youth who are blamed as being apolitical. However while evaluating the Gezi Park resistance, one should also not ignore the social, political and economic developments after 2013 the reactions to these developments. Some efforts were made by organizing local platforms to continue the Gezi Park Resistance after the 19th of June 2013, it should not be cast aside that the negative developments occurred after June 2013 did not generate a similar social reflex. The voice records
that reveal a serious corruption scandal on 17th December 2013, the mine catastrophe caused 300 deaths which was a result of deregulation and pro-capitalist policies of the government, the government’s inaptitude in preventing the bombings in Suruç on 20th of July 2015 and Ankara on 10th of October 2015 that caused the death of hundreds of people did not evoke the “Gezi Spirit”. The reason that the revival of the “Gezi Spirit” did not happen lies in the very characteristics of the resistance movement that the movement itself is flexible, unorganized and heterogeneous prioritizing momentary daily issues. From this perspective, the issues that caused the resistance movement such as the interventionist and totalitarian discourses of the government, increased insecurity and exploitation especially in the labor market, the environmental destruction are all amounted over time since the Resistance ended. Therefore for the future research on the new social movements it is highly important to evaluate the underlying dynamics of the fact that a second “Gezi Park Resistance” did not occur despite the amounting problems.

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Big Social Data Analytics: Opportunities, Challenges and Implications on Society

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Abstract
Big social data analysis is an interdisciplinary domain that uses advanced analytics to identify the key influence in a communication network that shrinks and grows rapidly in a near real-time fashion. It brings together various disciplines such as social media analysis, information retrieval techniques, reasoning, natural language processing (opinion mining), graph mining and analysis, linguistics, machine learning, multimedia management and big data processing. The role of big social data analysis in the growth of a business is larger than what meets the eye, but many enterprises are unaware of how this data influence their expansion. The analysis of information gathered from consumer transactions, communication devices, online activities and streaming devices are used to uncover hidden patterns. The right tools and a foolproof strategy are highly important to utilize information from social data to the fullest. The power of social media along with the emerging big data technology offers abundant opportunities for achieving business growth and if channeled properly, it could be leveraged for the betterment of society. The main goal of this paper is to emphasize the opportunities and challenges provided by dynamic social network data with its implications on the society

Keywords: Big data, Communication, Online social networks, Society

Introduction
In this iconic age of social media, people are transforming into data agents who share even the tiniest detail of their daily activity on social media. Online Social Networks (OSNs) churn out data in large volumes with every passing second. Globally, people are responsible for multiplying the data into twice as much for every 1.2 years. Statistics reveal that 5.1 billion people own mobile phones or cellular devices which are used to share billions of texts, stream numerous videos and search exhaustively on the internet every single day. To analyze the volumes of data shared on the Internet and to channel them in the right direction is the most intriguing topic of research in the near future. Borko Furht (2010) presented a collection of research articles on the importance of analytics on social networks.

What Is Big Social Data Analytics?
To simply put, big social data is the data generated by social networks. There is about 2.5 Exabyte of data being shared every second, loaded with endless stream of information. Big social data analytics is an important tool which can be used to understand the insights behind the information revealed by a person through social media. It is an approach which combines various statistical methods, machine learning, sentiment analysis and data mining techniques in forecasting, predicting people and analyzing trends. The Fig. 1 is a word cloud of the terms highly cohesive with social networks and its analytics using big data.

Big Social Data Characteristics
Online social networks (OSN) are one of the most important sources of big data as described by Min Chen, Shiwen Mao and Yunhao Liu (2014).

Volume: OSNs pour out huge volumes of information continuously and the information gathered instantly becomes the source for better business growth. Big social data does not just imply terabytes, petabytes or exabytes of data, but the context in which the gathered data are utilized.
Velocity: OSNs also has a high rate of data generation due to the exponential increase in streaming of social data in online networks based on the capacity of systems.

Variety: The data produced online is vast and the greatest challenge lies in categorizing the large quantity of data and processing them to retrieve potentially useful information. The data generated is of different types such as Structured data (data stored in a pre-defined schema like relational databases), Unstructured data (data which do not fall into any format or pattern like photos, images, audio and videos) and Semi-Structured data (does not have any prescribed data format, but arranged in some common pattern like emails, log files and word documents).

Social Media is important for companies and institutions. The value of social media data lies in,

- What do most people do? -> Indicating behavior.
- How do the people feel? -> Indicating their sentiment.

Big social data contains three practices, namely monitor, predict and share. Monitoring includes listening, filter, sort, search, analyzes, action and refinement of social data. Predicting includes past, present and future findings. Sharing includes network visualization with simulation of information flow.

![Fig.1. Terms highly correlated with big social data analytics](image)

Analytics Tools
Apache Hadoop [1], the leading technology used for big data analytics is an open source, powerful and reliable tool which comprises of two components, namely, Hadoop Distributed File System and Map Reduce framework [2]. Apache spark [3] and Apache storm [4] are used for real-time distributed computation. Facebook uses presto, which is an open source SQL query engine that helps in querying data at their sources using Hive, Cassandra, relational databases or any other software. Twitter acquired Gnip, a social data company which collects the tweets, filters and resells the data which is valuable for advertisers and marketing campaigns of companies. IBM collects the data distributed on Twitter and Facebook regarding human thoughts, complaints and comments over a specific topic to derive real-time insights. This will help people to improve their marketing campaigns, promotions, discounts and pricing offers. Agreste, De Meo, Ferrara, Piccolo, and Provetti [5] created aNobii, a heterogeneous structure, analyzing the user interests on tag based, group based and wish-list based
profiles. The Fig.2 Infographic depicts the various tools and their solutions given for analyzing big social data with different social networks.

Fig.2. Big social data analytics tools of OSNs

**Opportunities**
Big data analytics techniques can be used by companies to understand their customers, find hidden opportunities, mitigate frauds and inspire millions of startups for analytics.

**Business Opportunities**
Marketing through social media creates lots of opportunities by attracting customers with engaging content and creating communities to leverage their products. It attracts more customers with campaigns and promotions within the communities, thereby increasing the product exposure. The strategies employed through the social media explosion results in gaining of customers at a highly exponential rate. It is vital to compare the campaigns made by an organization against their competitors in social media to take necessary steps to promote their products better. Analytics over the social data make clear discussion on the current trends followed by the people.

Social media makes money out of its data. The post or tweets shared about a product will provide a Return On Investment (ROI) by visiting the product’s site and purchasing it. Social data are vital in analyzing the possibilities for customer retention. It is challenging to retain a customer amidst of growing competitors in the market. Keen analytics on social data helps in tackling this challenge. Personalized recommendations for users are made possible based on the analytics over their social data. People feel contented with their preferred products being recommended and they would in turn suggest the product to somebody else, step by step increasing the sale of a product. Providing customer support through social media is highly rewarding for the business and the option seems attractive for a customer as well. But, as in Fig.3, revealing the Personally
Identifiable Information (PII) on social networks makes them vulnerable to many attackers which leads to the misuse of identity in all kinds of malpractices. Krombholz, Hobel, Huber and Weippl (2015) described about the kinds of social engineering attacks possible in online social networks.

Recent Activities
- **IBM** provides a wide variety of services such as,
  - Social media analytics as a service - consuming social media data and understanding the trends, opinions and attitude of the user over online
  - Predicting the likeliness of user and recommend their satisfactory products
  - Creation of campaigns and promotions of preferred products in order to attract and satisfy customers
  - Identifying most dominant influences on social networks
  - IBM also partnered with Twitter to do big data analytics to derive insights from their user’s information. This will largely improve decision making. Different domains of various industries can refer across boundaries for large set of social purposes
- **Twitter** has a streaming visualization tool which reveals the firehouse of information from Twitter
- On **Facebook**, based on semantic analysis of data, regressions and predictions of trends about the products are done
- Retailer databases are used for logistics, financial and health data analysis

Research Opportunities
Due to increase in usage, spread, and adoption of cloud computing and Internet of Things, along with the integration of social network platforms, there is an overwhelming data. There is a scarcity of tools used for structuring the social data and inferring knowledge out of it. Researchers face challenges in understanding the conceptual tools available for big data. The biggest opportunity in social media revolution is that the availability of free large open data sets for all kinds of research projects including text classification and graphical analysis. Data Science has reduced the works of agencies in social media. Each organization has their own analytics research team to analyze social data for their own benefits. Chen, Chiang and Poor (2013) described about the opportunity for new research directions towards technological networking through social networks.
Many researchers around the world are claiming that they are doing big data analytics. But, many of them lack enough subject knowledge of. The major aspects considered for social data analytics: how to get the data, what to get out of those data and how to put the information to use. Some people specialize in collecting data from various resources. Some are skilled at analytical processing over the data obtained. Some are good at identifying the right channel for the information retrieved from the data. Companies struggle to have all the three aspects of big data to make good sense out of it. Social media companies try to acquire data from those sites and offer it for sale to other analytical companies. Dean and Ghemawat (2008) described about the programming model with mapper and reducer to ease the work on processing large scale social networks. Facebook has started collecting data from users on acceptance of new terms, including personal data, photos, locations, smart phone travel locations and like interests on Facebook server for the purpose of providing personal interests over a specific thing to the companies.

In order to unleash the positive outcomes of social big data, researchers need to uplift their skills, including the learning of statistical analysis, machine learning techniques like association rules, classification, clustering, time series analysis and regression analysis to identify the social and behavioural changes. Al-Jarrah, Yoo, Muhaidat, Karagiannidis and Taha (2015) reported the overview of machine learning techniques with respect to experimental aspects, large scale data intensity, energy efficiency and computational requirements. Researchers need to make sense of the data by utilizing the complex relationships between nodes in a social network, their platform, third party systems and databases. It is also needed to face the challenges arising due to geo-spatial and spatio-temporal data from OSNs as they are represented in different formats. The location of the user in the earth can be inferred from the geo-spatial data and (Global Positioning System) GPS data can be obtained from GPS enabled ubiquitous devices. Embedded sensors connect physical world and the digital world with a timestamp and spatial location. Analyzing the spatio-temporal data provide a particular pattern of a user at a certain time interval. This will be helpful in identifying their future actions and anomaly behaviour. Vision recognition extracts meaningful information from image data sets.

Natural Language Processing (NLP)

Many researchers do natural language processing of social media data which will help to analyze the behaviour of the user with respect to folksonomy, tagging behaviour of users, analysis of current trends, detection of communities based on similar interests, analysis of privacy schemes, structuring of blog contents, trust computation and analysis etc. The result of the processing may greatly help to better understand the nature of each user in social networks. Making opinions on products and recommendations for personalized schemes can be suggested using natural language processing.

There are kinds of NLP like individual element analysis, relationship analysis and event analysis, which consumes lots of social data. User's opinions about a particular topic either a social issue, a product, an organization, a trend or a lifestyle through social data around the world can be utilized for sentiment analysis.

Society

In the case of any natural calamity, the updates on social media can help in identifying potential victims of the affected area. The information shared on social media is highly useful for critical data discovery, awareness about the situation, and analytics for gaining the inference. Social data are used for creating awareness during emergency situations. Cameron and his researchers developed a prototype capable of making use of tweets on Twitter to create an emergency awareness during a crisis by analyzing the tweets using text classifier and clustered similar tweets together. There are watch officers allotted for aggregating and summarizing the realization of tweets. This will help to address the emergency situation by informing the respective officials to take precautionary steps. The Police department can be benefited from the social data to find a missing person, to identify the suspects, gaining a reputation for the department and to spread awareness about any critical issues.

Crowdsourcing

Social media have also stepped forward to provide relief for the victims of Chennai floods in India, through all means. The kind of relief includes crowd sourced information regarding the flooded streets in the city, sharing emergency numbers, contact details for food and shelter, etc., which can be shown by a Facebook post as in Fig.4 (a). Pretz (2013) explored the usage of social networks to provide awareness during the emergencies. Arun and team (2015) from Map box have generated a map-based tool for visualizing the flooded streets and also to
mark the streets as flooded. They have used crowdsourcing technology to inform a person in Singapore about his parents in Chennai. Relatives and friends are able to know about the inhabitants of Chennai through social media. Facebook launched an application called safety check as in Fig.4 (b), for people to know whether the person is in crisis or non-crisis region. Due to the problems in telecommunication, friends of a person can also mark that person safe because of the network problem. Other friends in social media came to know about the current situation of the person in Chennai. Similarly, Facebook used this safety check application not only for natural, but also for man-made disasters after the Paris attack.

Sociomine is to study the wisdom of the crowds which involves two steps. One is to model how information spreads across a social network, how people learn or herd. Another is to correlate between crowd behavior and exogenous phenomena.

Challenges

One cannot judge the interests of people based on likes for the status update, clicks on a link, or retweets for a message. More deep research is required to understand what the social media reveals and the inference collected legitimately based on the analysis of social data. Each social network operates in a different way with respect to delivering the information through public shared data. The huge amount of public data shared does not reveal more insight. There are lots of possibilities for misunderstanding which creates difficulty in producing accurate results. Aggregation of large datasets does not show out all the human activities. These aggregated data are partial and so it has to be filtered, distorted and hence complex and reflective. The data from the social networks have the greatest impact on the design of technological networks with respect to e-commerce activities, trust, cooperation, friendship, etc.

The challenges in handling big data from social networks are:

- Mastering three aspects of social data, including collection, analytics and visualization
- Deciphering the right data to make the best sense out of it
- Non-traditional approaches have to be utilized for processing unstructured data
- Collating and segregating the data for better understanding of the context hidden in the social data
- Synchronization of data from various sources
- Lack of skilled professionals capable of working with new technologies for finding business insights
- Working with social data and making use of it for other organizations requires new creative ways for collaborating with social networks
Security concerns over data hinder the availability of specific data available in social media

Implications on Society
Social media have influenced the society in numerous ways. It has changed in the way of communication and interaction on day to day life. Social networks are duly created for serving the purpose of communication even though there is a downside getting involved with social networking.

Addiction
- Hours spent on social media every day lead to distraction of an individual resulting in a decrease in productivity
- Teenagers are influenced by the attention gained from social media for their updates of daily happenings in their life and their popularity on social media serves as an ego-boost
- Constantly connected to the internet through smart phones, laptops and other smart gadgets

Cyber-bullying
- Children, teenagers and women are more exploited to the practice of cyber bullying which leads to fear of ramifications, feeling alone and frightened
- Social networks are becoming the breeding grounds for bullying because of its open platform and lack of privacy by making open posts and sending private messages
- According to the Washington post, it was reported that 9 out of 10 teenagers in Facebook were bullied in the social networking sites
- Bullying through social media data constitutes of streams of abusive comments, derogatory posts on the user’s wall, posting harassing negative comments on the user’s wall and making fun of others using their pictures or videos

Business- Productivity reduction
- Many organizations have blocked social networks to reduce the addiction and distraction of the employees in the office, which in turn would affect the productivity of the organization
- Many organizations try to attract clients by contacting them with social media through which employees may be highly distracted showing more interests on their friends, updates and likes etc., than actual work, thereby reducing the productivity in business

Reduction in academic performance
- The present generation is highly attracted to online networking and spend too much of their time in social media
- Distractions due to social networks result in lower academic performances
- The highly private content shared on social media due to vulnerability may result in negative consequences.
- Reading practices of students have fallen drastically caused by an unhealthy practice of skimmed reading due to the influence of short texts on social media

Health
- Individuals try to compare their lifestyle with others and feel sorry for themselves due to their inability to share interesting happenings in their life leading to poor mental health and low self esteem
- People try to relax by using social media, ironically, it makes them busy and stressful
- Children who use social media daily have the high impact on using tobacco, alcohol, etc.
- Frequent users of social media are found unhappy due to lack of satisfaction with what they are on the social network

Privacy Leakage
- Companies do a background check on a person’s social media activity before recruiting them
- Intimate details of an individual are being lost by exposing more about their personal lives in social media
- Social media is used by the people to expose their personal information like name, birth, age family members, hobbies and interests, their work histories, likes and dislikes through third party APIs, tools and frameworks. As discussed by Dwyer (2011), Google and Facebook extract the online behavior of their users to increase their revenue.
- The dark side of big social data is the shortage of privacy and security policies in social networks. There are many threats caused by the frauds due to the exposed data in social networks as discussed by Fire, Goldschmidt and Elovici (2014). Zhang, Sun, Zhu and Fang (2010) reported about the privacy and security concerns rising due to the usability and sociability existing in social networks. With some knowledge about the users in social networks, there are possible privacy breaches and attacks on social data.
The potential victims may be targeted or unknown by an imposter who utilizes the loopholes within the same OSN or from different OSN. Some of the threats, their potential victims and their possible solutions are given in Fig. 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships</th>
<th>Military</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People try to reconnect with old friends through social networks</td>
<td>Young soldiers should be responsible in the manner in which they portray themselves in social networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to text messaging, photos and posts, social data cause occasional jealousy and diffidence between partners</td>
<td>Professional tactics of being soldiers, both offline and online are required to maintain the dignity of the army in the society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public display of affection through social forums by romantic partners might make a few uncomfortable</td>
<td>People become less interactive with their family by spending excessive time saying stories to school friends, resulting in breaking up of relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People become less interactive with their family by spending excessive time saying stories to school friends, resulting in breaking up of relationships</td>
<td>Soldiers should be careful to not disclose any confidential information on social networks pertaining to their job</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

Social networks try to bring the world closer. Data crawling through social networks is highly important. The information observed from the study of social data can help us in a great way for the recommendation, personalized marketing, customized promotions, etc. People will enjoy their activities on the internet when they could retrieve all the relevant and personally liked things displayed on their social networks and other search engines. Highly relevant technologies and expertise are required for enhancing the smartness in the technology through analytics.
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Child Media in terms of Child and Parent

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Abstract
Child is the little citizen who is accepted under age (Yörükoğlu, 2007, s.13). According to Greenberg, many children are the audience who cannot differentiate between whether the programs they watch are suitable for them or not (Ertürk, Gül, 2006, s.24). 20th century called the Children Century changed the fate of children by scientific findings and technological developments. Therefore, the relation between media and the children along with the responsibilities of parents have changed. Because the mass media is a part of life, it is one of the important factors binding the common communication areas of children as with adults'. Children not only have nutritional and sleeping needs but also they have intellectual needs (Dadson, 1990, s.36-38). The emergence of digital broadcasting and the appearance of TV channels aimed at various hobbies and tastes paved the way for some TV channels to broadcast towards children (and babyhood period). In these channels, norms, judgements gender roles and models according to the culture of society are usually repeated. Popular cultural products for consumption do not take into account the personal differences but they target common people. In this respect, as knowing the child well is crucial, a main responsibility faces the parents.

Child is the little citizen who is accepted under age; however, the upper limit of childhood is an uncertain period. Laws define the end of childhood in a different way. According to the punishment age, children under 12 are not responsible for the crimes they commit. The upper limit of childhood which is a period covering the time of playing and education can be 12 or 25. Children under 12 are forbidden to work in Turkey. The legal adulthood age is 18. In the light of this information, working and marriage regardless of age are the factors that end childhood. Considering the physical standards, one can step into maturity with the beginning of signs of adolescence. The development process of female and male children is different from each other. Because growing and maturity differ from person to person, this development can be between the age of 11 and 15. For this reason, determining the upper limit of childhood as 15 may be more accurate. This age has been determined as the age of crime responsibility and starting to work in western countries (Yörükoğlu, 2007, s.13-14). According to the first article of convention on the rights of children; “Every person is a child until 18 and has all the rights in the Convention on the Rights of Children.” (Quoter; Atay, 2007).

20th century called the children century has changed the fate of children by scientific findings and technological developments. Primary education has become common and even compulsory and technical developments enriched the educational tools. Educational age has fallen gradually and accordingly the childhood age has extended. Piaget’s studies have proven that every child has distinctive styles of perception, thinking and assessment (Yörükoğlu, 2007, s.238). Children adopt to the environment and develop concepts by uniting and trying their intelligence and received input. In other words, the input received by an adult and a child are not perceived in the same way. Today’s children are born into a world in which they express themselves freely and a world which has many stimulants activating the cognitive process. They are in contact with their parents and other adults more than their peers. They can use verbal and non-verbal statements by imitating them. They can speak out the mistakes they see fearlessly and also they may try to make the others admit what they want.

With the development of technology, media in other words mass media is diversified and the access to mass media has become easier. Thus, the field which mass media occupy in our lives has become beyond time and space. General functions of mass media are like as below:

1- Informing,
2- Answering the effects of environment, relating with the segments of society, adopting to the environment,
3- Passing down the public legacy from generation to generation, providing the initiates get socialized,
4- Consolidating the social norms,
5- Being a means of recreation in an entertaining and relaxing way,
6-Molding public opinion, creating a unity of thoughts about the politics followed,
7-Accelerating and expanding (helping) domestic and foreign trade,
8-Giving skills and developing appropriate attitudes,
9-Developing a mental attitude for the economic growth,
10-Motivating people as being liable to enterprise,
11-Making the public administration easier and helping democracy by letting the citizens know about the political activities (Tezcan, 1995, s.126).

Every society is liable to impose their categories about social, cultural and political world according to their culture and cultural standards. They may not be monodical but they build up a dominant and cultural order (Compiler; Yavuz, 2005, s.93). One of the most important functions of television according to communication theorists is that it is a tool for socializing. Television which is a tool for socializing is something which can give the experiences children have not gained and it can make them perceive them as their own experiences (Ertürk, Gül, 2006, s.23). Children who are not at an age of primary education have answered the benefits of television in a way like that it informs, entertains and expands their imaginary worlds (Tönel, 2007, s.75). Socializing, in other words the process of adopting to society lived, is a process including the whole life of an individual from the beginning of their lives. Social roles are thought in the broadcasts towards children in childhood period. Mass media informs a society at any age about the written and unwritten rules of the society even when they have fun, rest and spend their leisure time.

Fleming Mouristen states that socializing is a process and argues that children culture has three main kinds. 1- The culture adults produce for children, 2-The culture produced with children, 3-The culture children produce on their own. In socializing process when the thoughts, values and judgements of the society is being transferred to the individual by way of culture, family get affected by the codes received from mass media because of its technological and temporal superiority according to the other socialization agents. Music, games for children, television, videos and the activities including movies in leisure times change the established culture of the child. However, children’s individual interests, abilities and worries are in a certain way, they are limited to the environmental factors and the things their families give them. Even if television is not at the centre of development, it affects the development process by way of child culture (Ertürk, Gül, 2006, s.23-24).

In the seventeenth article of the Convention on the Rights of Children; the states in favour of the convention accept the importance of mass media and provide the acquisition of information and documents from national and international sources aimed at improving social, spiritual, physical and mental health. Accordingly, the states in favour of the convention have to act in a way like;

a. Mass media is promoted to spread information and documents in keeping with the twenty-ninth article which has social and cultural benefits in terms of child.
b. They promote the international cooperation for producing, distributing and sharing this information and documents from various cultural, national and international sources.
c. Mass media promote caring the language needs of children, members of minority groups or the locals.
d. They promote improving guidelines about protecting children from threatening information and documents.

In the twenty-ninth article of the convention, the states in favour admit the aims of child education in a way like;

a. Improving the child’s personality, ability, mental and the physical abilities mostly,
b. Improving the respect for human rights, main freedom and for the principles accepted by United Nations.
c. Improving the child’s respect for the parents, cultural identity, linguistic skills, national values in the country in which the child lives and the other civilizations.
d. Child’s preparing for the responsibilities, the equality between races, ethnic or national, religions or the locals in a free society in a friendly way.
e. It must be in a way which can improve the respect for the natural environment (Quoter, Doğan, 2000, s.220-221).

Winn described the concept of addiction to television in 1997. Addiction to television is not being addicted to a certain television context. Everybody watch the programmes which they like and deal. Addiction to television means watching television irrespective of the context. Supposedly, television compels us to watch it more from
the moment we start to watch it. American Psychology Association (APA) gathered the psychologists like Mcllwraith, Smith, Jacobvitz and Kubey in 1990 and made suggestions of four models to the question of how and who the television makes addiction.

1. Television and imaginary world; McLuhan, says that television is responsible for meditation, mediumship and mysticism among the young in his time and causes to be busy with the imaginary inner world. And Singer says that the striking factors of television prevent dreaming because they show the things which will attract the attention of the audience and support the creative power of playing and dreaming. As a result of this, children grow with the lack of ability for dreaming and they are prepared for being addicted to the dreams produced commercially forever.

2. Television and the Level of Arousal; because of the television’s many exciting stimulants, it can be an addiction for the people who gets bored and who wants to increase the level of stimulation extrovertly.

3. Television and Orality; addicts of oral habits like cigarette, alcohol and snacks can also be addicted to television.

4. Television and Usage-Satisfaction; the requirements of using television of the audience under the title of usage and saturation are like;

Preventing bad moods or reducing the effects, getting rid of boredom, watching television when there is nothing to do, favouring television, in other words watching the programmes one can find nonsense or accepting children to watch television as normal, watching television when using a personal computer or playing video games which have interactive media property (Çakır, 2010, 2.132-135). In USA, a student until 18 spends 12 thousands hours at school but 15 thousands hours in front of television. When he watches it for 3 hours on average, a Japan child watches it for 5 hours a day. An American child watches 2500 advertisements on average in a year. 60% of these advertisements is about candies and chocolate. A research in Turkey shows that 95% of the mothers buy those foods and drinks for their children. According to Kopferer, television is the first gate opened to the outer world. Children are important customers and they have a great potential as consumers in the future for the advertisers. When children watch a commercial they remember more details about it than the adults do. They can remember even the commercials which are not aimed at them. Television enriches the messages in commercials with various visual elements like music and sound by devising them in fitting with the inner worlds of children. Television commercials have taken over the function of informing children about the outer world form tales. They detect the way to the objects in their inner worlds. Children like seeing the fantastic aspects of the games in commercials. As children have limited discernment in comparison with the adults, they can get more affected by commercials. This can cause them to believe what they see in commercials because their levels of perception are low and they cannot think analytically. They believe the things they see without doubt by not resisting. Level of perception increases when they get older and this resisting brings about doubt (Şirin, 2011, s.328-330)

It is not recommended by the experts to buy expensive toys for children every evening when going back home. The child who gets happy in the first days of this situation will not get happy in the following days. But he will just accept the gift and we will keep expecting. When there is no gift for him, he will get angry with disappointment as he thinks the parents have to buy something for him. Children between the ages of 0-5 do not know the value of money. For this reason, it is recommended to buy toys like puzzles for children (Can, 2010, s.76). For instance, as a true-to life example a child may prefer an enormous red car just for the size and colour and may not use the feature of remote control.

Various studies about television have showed that some children’s imagination and creativity get restricted according to their personal characteristics but some can improve their imagination and creativity. Some children get uninterested about violence and they see the world worse than it is. In the period between the ages of 0-3 which is a stage of dependency to parents or the others television plays the role of a babysitter. Child can see the television as a dependency object and this may pose unfavourable results. The period between 3-7 ages are the years in which games and creative activities are detailed.

With the language development, one can be competent in a language. There are some studies about television’s increasing the language development of a child. But a child may have some problems with communicating with the people whom he has just met and he can become aggressive if he gets exposed to television uncontrollably. He may get affected in an adverse way by a tale or a movie. The children between 7-12 ages are the period in which the feeling of ego develops and children get affected by television to the extent of adults’. Too much
exposure to television in the early period has bad effects on attention span and attention selectivity. Especially in infancy, brain does not function like the adults’. In this period, children need to learn the perception of the still and three-dimensional world. Animated images make the brain function earlier and accordingly, it causes attention disorder (Ertürk, Gül, 2006, s.27-32). For this reason, channels like Baby TV and Baby First for the infants between 0-3 broadcast in a different way than the other channels broadcasting cartoon. These channels broadcast in a way that colours are softer, shapes and characters move slowly. There is music like lullaby, fairy tales are told and animal figures even the predatory ones (like a lion and a tiger) are visualized as unaggressive. However, the images and the music grow on hypnotizing effect after a while. And this can make parents hesitate about the benefits of it for the child.

Dr. Jerom Singer a psychologist, explains the situation of television as such: “You come across with a stranger when you are back home. This stranger teaches your child fighting, sexuality and beating. What would be your reaction towards this person? Would not you kick him out of your house by using violence? Yet, you keep the television doing all of these as the honour guest of your house.” Television causes to speech disorders on the child. His muscles cannot develop enough because of sitting dormant in front of television. He does not want to go out due to watching it and he gets introverted. He may have difficulty in communicating and he may become addicted to it. When it is time to start school, he may not even want to go to school. He may get bored while reading a book and thus he cannot have a reading habit (Taştan, 2011, s.175-179).

Channels for children like Jetix, Nickelodeon, Cartoon Network and TRT Çocuk usually repeat the same programmes. As all the TV channels admit the agreement of continuous broadcasting, the cheapest and the least demanding cultural productions cover them (Quoter; Şirin, 2011, s.188). Even if children between 2-4 ages like watching or reading the same things, it makes children internalize and adopt the messages as they understand. It causes them not to learn the right sides of the things they learned or misunderstood. When an adult takes a seat and turns on the lampshade to read, he knows that the seat, the lampshade and the book are not “themselves”. However, a child cannot differentiate between itself and the opposite (Dadson, 1990, s.36). For example, when the children are asked if the characters of Ninja Turtles are real or not in a survey, 7 year-old children in comparison with the 5 year-old ones are at upper level in understanding that they are imaginary characters. In another survey, it has been shown that 58% of 15 year-old children and 29% of 8 year-old children cannot realize that the actors are imaginary characters (Ersoy, Avcı, Turla, 2008, s.104-105).

According to Greenberg, many children are the audience who cannot differentiate between whether the programmes they watch are suitable for them or not. Theory of Usage and Satisfaction shows that adults are aware of what effects the chosen communication way will have in their lives and which aims it will serve for. In this occasion, authority is responsible for determining the suitable communication ways for children. At the same time, what the adults watch serves as models for children. This behaviour discipline is explained with “social behaviour theory.” In a child’s learning period, social environment, family and school are of importance. But today, television and computers which are the important parts of children’s lives have a great role in consisting and changing their attitudes. Mass media in their learning periods have started to impose what to think besides being a model and what to think about (Ertürk, Gül, 2006, s.24-26). A male child does not imitate a scene in a cartoon but he feels relaxed to behave in a way he has seen before (Ersoy, Avcı, Turla, 2008, s.109).

Child development stages differ in terms of age, cognition (mental-perceptual), psychosocial (sensorial) and physical (behavioural). Cognitive domain includes all the mentation, thought organization, perception, recollection, causation, creativity, memory and language development. Psychosocial domain includes personal characteristics and social abilities. It includes the feelings, reactions and behaviours peculiar to the child. Physical domain deals with motor skills, muscles, physical characteristics like height and weight (Ertürk, Gül, 2006, s.19). It is searched and indicated that in which months and years and what the children can do and what can be expected from them in these fields. However, development properties can be rooted in the genetic factors from their ancestors who lived long years ago and the environmental factors and every child has his own characteristics. Female children’s language developments start earlier than the male ones. Although male children think faster than female children, they can speak later than the female ones do. When you buy a book on which it is written suitable for 3 year-old children from a bookstore, they may have interest in it when they are four or they may not. A child when he is in a toy store may have difficulty in choosing. Besides development features, he can be decisive or indecisive because of all these personal differences or he can make his choices according to these differences. But popular cultural products aimed at consumption do not consider the personal
Children not only have nutritional and sleeping needs but also they have intellectual needs. It takes months for a baby to have a sense of self. It is very important to recognize this slowly developing sense in the child’s world. Parents can help intellectually to make the child understand his world. Piaget says “The more a child sees and hears, the more he wants to see and hear.” Recent studies refute the thesis that babies born with a certain level of intelligence. New findings show that every child will get a certain level of intelligence as they grow. But his getting this potential limit is determined by the degree of intellectual and sensory stimulus in the first five years of life (Dadson, 1990, s.36-38). The importance of this process is usually handled in internet interviews and in television programmes aimed at women about the health of mother and child by podiatrists. Recognizing the importance of this process is crucial information for the parents but it also causes stress. In this process, parent and child should always be together by playing with the toys improving the five senses or with the tools at home, using scissors, pens or paints, talking continually and doing the housework (like cleaning and playing with dough) together with the child. While doing all these things with the child is important for the intellectual development, leaving him alone to play with his toys and letting him set a play for himself, providing him to find out, having fun without a parent are important for the child’s individual and physical development.

Children between 0-3 ages become acquainted with books. These books in this process are the ones with sound, made of soft materials and the ones with dominant images rather than writings. Because figures, schemas, big and colourful things are interesting for these ages. Illustrated encyclopaedias, colourful magazines and shopping brochures are attractive for them. However, a child nearing 3 year-old can listen to the whole book read. He may want the same book to be read many times. He does not like any change in the story, he gains trust when the plot is repeated till the end. He even memorizes the book and as he knows when the pages will be turned, he wants to turn them himself. After a book is read once to a 4 year-old child, it should be read in the same way in the later readings. As he wants to find the ending he knows, especially the end of the story must not be changed. A different book can be selected of course to make the child learn different words. In this case, a book which has different words from the former ones read should be chosen. The books including animals talking like humans entertain the children at 5 years old. After the story ends, he may make up a totally new story as a whole. A child at 6 years old can be the heroin stories. If parents read books for them until this age, a child can easily learn how to read. But it should not be asked for without child’s will. Whether he learns reading or not, magazines become important for 6 year-old children. 7 is the age of reading stories. At this age, he himself starts to become a reader. 8 is the age of dealing with the books about nature. At the age of 9, they become inclined to researching books. They can be influenced by dreams and exciting adventures. It is the year in which children begin to have information exchange with each other. Age of 10 is the year of great changes and news, voting and surveys happen to be interesting for them. He has an idea and he forwards it. He wants to tell what he read to the others he loves. He may have complaints and praises and he may comment about them. Age of 11 is the age in which he likes every kind of books and he knows what kind of information he can get from any kind of books (Tosyalı, 2010, s.125-134). And of course this process may differ according to gender and personal differences. Nevertheless, being an avid reader at an early age continues with this process.

Computers and accordingly internet are the important mass media in both the adults’ and children’s lives. A survey among the ones who spend two hours or more using internet shows that they have some problems. They need to connect interest everyday besides becoming indifferent to the environment, having lack of relation in family and society, not being productive and creative in daily works, getting depressed, having sexual incompatibility between spouses, indulgence in fantasies, letting the things ride instead of solving them and failure in academic and mental processing (Taştan, 2011, s.182-183). Previously parents used to ask for the opinions of the seniors to protect them against the outside or bad friends. Now internet cafes have been replaced with outside and bad friends (Taştan, 2011, s.181). Parents knowing how to use a computer or not and the ones who can use it at a minimum or maximum level buy computers connected to internet for their children in order not to fall behind the modern time to provide their children to be cosmopolitan, contribute to their language education and support them with knowledge and writing for their lessons at school. Internet besides being a digital platform for playing games and watching movies for children is something which should be checked by parents while their children using it. Because children may face with inappropriate contents, emotional attacks in chatting rooms, danger of security, a virus attacks and entering the websites with money consciously or not as well as the messages towards them. Although parents think about all the hazardous sides of the internet, how can
they protect especially the children at school age? Not having internet connection at home is not a solution as they will have to follow their children outside not to let them go to an internet café.

In addition to the words matriarchy and patriarchy used for indicating the social structure of a culture, the word “child-centred” is also added as it is seen in Dr. Kenan Taştan’s book. What is meant with the child-centred term is that parents organize the family order considering child development, basic care, expectations and wishes. It is a word telling that working parents pass their spare time with their children in order to improve their mental, physical and spiritual structures by spending time with them or directing them to the activities which will provide it. The effect and the content of this word on today’s parents are like pressure. Because it poses a pressure especially on the mother rather than a father dealing with children, boy or girl, at pre-school period. This causes the feeling that what I can do in favour of my child, what I can do more and what I can do more and more. Parents think about not to occur the wrong directions which they cannot change in their children. They have continuous questions on their minds during the day like how long their child can watch the channels for watching television for half an hour after reaching one and half a year and an hour after two years is permissible. As well as establishing this rule, applying it is important. There should be certain times for watching television. It can be limited to watching television at meal times and when the all family is together. It should be watched together with a parent and it should not be used in place of the time to have special care for them. It should not be used as a reward and a punishment. Establishing a connection with the well behaviours or threatening them to deprive them of watching television makes it attractive for the child. It can be useful to turn on television at certain times determined by the parents instead of keeping it open all the time, listen to radio or music if they want a noisy environment, select programmes (suitable for the age) deliberately, turn the television off and draw the characters by painting and making up stories, dance and sing with the child and learn the feelings of the child. Distracting the whole family from television and having some other activities all together even when the television is on may prevent all the attention to be just on television (Eisenberg, Murkoff, Hathaway, 2005, s.146-148).

Despite the disadvantages, television can take the child to a wonderland he can never find anywhere. The utmost benefit with the least risk can be provided in a few ways. The child does not need a television before reaching one and half a year. It may get harder to restrict him on this subject at school age. Watching television for half an hour after reaching one and half a year and an hour after two years is permissible. As well as establishing this rule, applying it is important. There should be certain times for watching television. It can be limited to watching television at meal times and when the all family is together. It should be watched together with a parent and it should not be used in place of the time to have special care for them. It should not be used as a reward and a punishment. Establishing a connection with the well behaviours or threatening them to deprive them of watching television makes it attractive for the child. It can be useful to turn on television at certain times determined by the parents instead of keeping it open all the time, listen to radio or music if they want a noisy environment, select the programmes (suitable for the age) deliberately, turn the television off and draw the characters by painting and making up stories, dance and sing with the child and learn the feelings of the child. Distracting the whole family from television and having some other activities all together even when the television is on may prevent all the attention to be just on television (Eisenberg, Murkoff, Hathaway, 2005, s.146-148).

No matter how logical or appropriate explanations the parents make today, it may not deter them from watching television as every child has his own characteristics. To what extent it is normal to watch television together with the child and translate everything although the messages are in the mother tongue by exposing him too many messages. Is it possible not to turn television or a computer on when children are awake? Child psychologists have advanced this situation to an upper level and they make such an explanation that “The messages from television are imbedded in his subconscious when the child is sleeping even if he hears them as whisper. In this situation, while there are so many stimulants in the environment and how healthy it will be to raise a child totally isolated from these messages is not certain. Parents feel themselves to be careful in every step they take and they have not only the stress of over conscious but also the subconscious. Thus “What can I do more or what kind of mistakes do I do?”

The emergence of digital broadcasting and the appearance of TV channels aimed at various hobbies and testspaved the way for some TV channels to broadcast towards children (and babyhood period). In these channels, norms, judgements, gender roles and models according to the culture of society are usually repeated. Universal humanitarian values like loving animals, caring physical health (like brushing teeth and having a bath), respecting others and fulfilling responsibilities are often seen in these channels. Moreover, various scenario like having toilet training, eating by himself, picking up toys, loving the siblings, quitting dummy and accepting his parents to go to work to provide the child learn what is expected take place suitable for the age periods. As children learn by observing, they can learn easily in this way rather than getting changed by their parents. But
this situating brings along some troubles. A child learning loving the animals may attempt to love a wild animal as real life experience, a baby younger than him wets itself and as the mother becomes happy he may say “But the baby does, I will wet myself.” (See also, Pepe; Bebe gets the toilet training, TRTÇocuk).

A scenario emphasized delicately may not have the same effect on every child. It may not be enough to make a sensible explanation for the children under 4. It may be the only way to make him not to watch unfavourable broadcasts including negative cases by distracting him to some other sides. He can grow up without watching television, however, in a world with such technological developments television, tablet computers and accordingly media are all one within the other. Because the mass media are the part of life, it is one of the most important factors binding the common communication areas of children as with adults’. Under the circumstances, the most important responsibility falls to the parents, teachers or the caretakers dealing with the child. The benefits of mass media can be determined by melting the child’s family structure with the cultural values in the same pot.

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Cost-Effective and Scalable Image Matching Across Heterogeneous Online Social Networks

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Abstract  
In this modern era, social media facilitates us in communicating with the people across the world. Sharing of photos on social networks is due to their addictive interest in receiving the likes from other users in the network to gain popularity. Users on social network upload nearly 1.8 billion photos every day. Malicious users try to gather the publicly available photos on social networks and use it for creating bogus accounts. To identify those anomalous users, the photos shared are collected and processed by the social network manager to classify the original person from the fake one. As there are billions of users in each social network, there are an enormous amount of photo uploads which leads to the problem of scalability, slower processing performance and execution speed. The primary objective of this paper is to identify the similar image for a given a query image on a large set of image datasets crawled from online social networks through the Internet. For handling the scalability incurred from large image data sets, the image matching computation is implemented in distributed computing Map Reduce framework. The face recognition involves supervised machine learning approach employing Computer vision algorithms, namely Fisher face, Eigenface and Local Binary Pattern Histogram(LBPH). The similarity functions are used to calculate the distance between the query image and image sequence in the Hadoop file system. Experiments use the trained data sets to find the least similarity measure. The results obtained show that LBPH provides better and accurate matching results compared to other two face recognition approaches.

Keywords: Apache Hadoop, Apache Pig, Machine Learning, Computer Vision

Introduction  
Social Networks are gaining an exponential increase in popularity day by day. People show huge interest to spend all of their leisure time to stay back online on social networks. To be active on a social network is changed as a resemblance of the aliveness of an individual. It shows the current trend of all kinds of users towards the social network. To gain fame, people try to upload status, photos, and share posts instantly in social networks. People show off their presence by instantly uploading the current photos immediately into the social network. It is of their great intention to receive more likes from other users in social networks. People make use of the opportunity available in social networks to make the worst use of the information available on social networks. Anomaly users try to impersonate the publicly available photos and portrait it as their picture either in the same network or different network. There are many live cases of fake profiles, getting generated using the other photos, across heterogeneous social networks. People in LinkedIn, Facebook and Google+ have no standard options for discriminating fake user profiles. These profiles need to be identified to protect other users from the harmful effects caused by anomaly users. Several bogus accounts in social networks do not contain the original photo as their profile photo. The nature of a user is guessed using many of the features. Here, the profile photo plays a significant role in classifying the user profiles on social networks. The rest of the paper consists of relevant concepts in connection with the large scale processing of images using machine learning techniques, computer vision algorithms on Hadoop and its framework with obtained results.

Related Work  
Huang et.al (2015) proposed aCOX1 Face DB by a new benchmarking and related study based on a recently collected still/video face database. A novel Point-to-Set Correlation Learning (PSCL) method is proposed, and experimentally showed that wasis used likely as a baseline method for V2S/S2V face recognition on COX Face DB. Gao (2015) targets learning robust image representation for single training sample per person face
Materials And Methods
A. Apache Hadoop
Apache Hadoop (“Welcome to Apache Hadoop!” 2014) is a framework available as open source to store and process big data in a clustered distributed environment utilizing programming models. Hadoop is capable of processing large data sets in a distributed format using a large set of commodity hardware which is clustered using map reduce paradigms. It supports scalability to improve from a single machine to thousands with local computation and storage facility. It can detect and identify failures by itself. Even in the case of failure, the cluster setup is capable of providing highly available service. The Hadoop framework consists of several ecosystem tools capable of supporting different functionalities.

B. MapReduce framework
A programming model used for distributed processing, supports scalability and availability computation based on Java. MapReduce consists of three steps, namely map, shuffle and reduce. The Mapper can translate sets of data into key/value pairs for processing. Then, the reducer will shuffle, merge and aggregates the data tuples into required output. The fortunate about using MapReduce is to support large-scale process several times over the cluster. There are two data processing functions, namely mappers and reducers. Scaling an application to any number of clusters results in a small configuration change. This flexibility attracts many programmers towards MapReduce model.

C. Apache Pig
Pig ("Welcome to ApachePig!", 2013) is a Hadoop ecosystem tool developed by the Apache Software Foundation. It is a scripting language used for processing the large data sets that reside in Hadoop. The scripting language (also known as Pig Latin) compiles and converts the scripts into MapReduce Operations. It provides optimization by executing a minimum of map reduce jobs to run. Loaders and extensible User Defined Functions (UDFs) is used for achieving customization in data processing and format.

D. Hipi
Hadoop Image Processing Interface (HIPI) is a library which supports image processing designed to deploy and process images on Hadoop and MapReduce parallel framework. Hipi provides processing of images with high efficiency and throughput over the cluster nodes making use of MapReduce model. It is helpful to store the vast number of images in Hadoop Distributed File System (HDFS) and uses them for further processing efficiency in distributed networks. Hipi is integrated with some features of OpenCV (“Face Recognition with OpenCV”, 2016) which is a library available open source with extensive computer vision algorithms. The essential and primary input to initiate processing in HIPI is Hipi image bundle (Hib). A Hib is an image collection file in HDFS. Hipi framework has several useful tools for creating hibs, to run a MapReduce program for building hibs over images downloaded from the internet.

E. Face Recognition Approaches
(1) Eigenface algorithm
Eigenface algorithm works by Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This method is used to reduce the issue of representing images of high dimensionality. It converts the possibly correlated variable set (N) into a smaller set of uncorrelated variables. Those images extracted are analyzed using PCA to filter out the required features out of all available features. Dimensionality reduction using PCA is accomplished with the features extracted from the image dataset, followed by mean and covariance calculation resulting in identifying eigenvectors. For the image datasets X = \{x_1(a,b), x_2(a,b), x_3(a,b), \ldots\} and Y = \{y_1(a,b), y_2(a,b), y_3(a,b), \ldots\}. Calculate the mean of query image x_i(a,b),
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\[ \text{Mean, } \mu_x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i(a, b) \]  
\[ \text{(1)} \]

Calculate the mean of reference image \( y_i(a,b) \),

\[ \text{Mean, } \mu_y = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i(a, b) \]  
\[ \text{(2)} \]

Compute the covariance of query and reference images using (1) and (2),

\[ \text{Covar}(x_i, y_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i(a,b) - \mu_x)(y_i(a,b) - \mu_y)}{(N-1)} \]  
\[ \text{(3)} \]

Calculate the Eigen values (\( \lambda_i \)) and Eigen vectors (\( A_i \)) of \( \text{Covar}(x_i, y_i) \),

\[ \text{Covar}(x_i, y_i) \cdot A_i = \lambda_i \cdot A_i \]  
\[ \text{(4)} \]

Use the Eigen values to order the Eigen vectors in descending order. Acquire the \( k \) principal components where \( k \) is the Eigen vector of largest Eigen value. The eigenvectors are arranged in descending order by their eigenvalue. The eigenvectors of large ‘\( k \)’ eigenvalues are the ‘\( k \)’ principal components. Then face recognition is performed by projecting all training subject and testing reference image into PCA subspace. The nearest neighbour is found out between the training and testing images.

(2) Fisherface algorithm

PCA method provides maximum variance of data using a linear combination of features, but the identified components will not have any discriminative information such as light. The Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) makes a class specific dimensionality reduction. It increases the ratio of between-classes to within-classes scatter, instead of maximizing the total scatter. The same classes will cluster tightly together while different classes are as far away as possible from each other in the lower-dimensional representation. This method learns a class-specific transformation matrix so that they do not capture illumination apparently as the Eigenfaces approach. The Discriminant Analysis rather finds the facial features to distinguish between the persons. The performance of the Fisherfaces heavily depends on the input data as well. Similar to eigenface reconstruction of the original image can be done but not well. Let \( Y \) be a random vector with samples taken from \( p \) classes.

\[ Y = \{Y_1, Y_2, Y_3... Y_p\} \]

\[ Y_i = \{y_1, y_2,..., y_n\} \]

Compute the mean of class (\( \mu_i \)) where class \( i \in \{1...p\} \) and Maximize the class separability by projection \( W \) where \( W = \{A_1, A_2, A_3... A_k\} \).

\[ W_{\text{opt}} = \text{argmax}_{W} |W^T S W| / |W^T S_w W| \]  
\[ \text{(5)} \]

Where \( S \) and \( S_w \) are the scatter matrices calculated using the total mean and class specific mean \( \mu_i \). \( W_{\text{opt}} \) gives the optimal value of similarity between the classes. The number of samples \( N \) is nearly lesser than the input dimension (the number of pixels), hence the scatter matrix \( S_w \) turn out to be singular. Hence PCA was performed on the data and the samples are projected to \( N - p \) dimensional space. Now \( S_w \) is not singular, LDA was performed later on the reduced data. The transformation matrix \( W \), that projects a sample into the \( (p-1) \)-dimensional space is specified as,

\[ W = W_{\text{lda}}^p \cdot W_{\text{pca}}^T \]

(3) Local Binary Patterns Histogram (LBPH) algorithm

The Eigenfaces method maximizes the whole scatter, which can drive to difficulties if an external source creates the variance since components with a maximum difference over all classes aren’t necessarily useful for classification. The Fisherfaces method uses LDA and performs well to preserve some discriminative information. LBPH describes only low-dimensional, local features of an object instead of a high dimensional vector. The Local Binary Patterns Histogram has its origins in 2D texture analysis. The fundamental notion of
Local Binary Patterns is to summarize the local structure in an image by comparing each pixel with its neighbourhood. Take a pixel as centre and threshold against its neighbors. If the intensity of the centre pixel is greater than equal its neighbour, then denote it with 1 and 0 if not. Finally, a binary number for each pixel, just like 1100111 is obtained. So, with eight surrounding pixels, $2^8$ possible combinations, called Local Binary Patterns or sometimes referred to as LBP codes are obtained.

The operator for Local binary pattern is specified as,

$$Lbp\ (p_c, q_c) = \sum_{a=0}^{A-1} 2^a \cdot s\ (i_a - i_c)$$

(7)

Where $(p_c, q_c)$ is the centre pixel of intensity $i_c$ and intensity of neighbouring pixel $i_a$. The sign function $s$ is given as,

$$s(p) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p > 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Let the centre Point $(p_c, q_c)$ the position of the neighbor $(p_a, q_a), a \in A$ can be computed as,

$$p_a = p_c + r \cos\left(\frac{2\pi a}{A}\right)$$

(8)

$$q_a = q_c - r \sin\left(\frac{2\pi a}{A}\right)$$

(9)

where ‘$r$’ is the circle radius and ‘$A$’ is the number of sample points.

E. Supervised Machine Learning

Machine learning is the formation and study of computer algorithms that learn and improve automatically from data. Supervised Learning is a task of deducing a function from labelled training data, whereas the training data includes many examples of the training set. The model contains the input along with the derived output value. Examples of supervised learning algorithms include Bayesian networks and decision trees.

Dataset

The dataset consists of different images of every subject with varying facial expressions and postures. Some pictures of the subject are taken at altered timings. The images for training the machine learning model are extracted from the Google images and online social networks like Flickr, Twitter, and Facebook. These pictures are unstructured with different formats. The images are sized and scaled equally to 125 x 150. Four subjects each with 20 different postures of varying light conditions, facial expressions, and environment are used. Sample training images obtained from social networks are shown in Fig.1. The dataset is also obtained from Faces 96 (20 images per subject) and Yale face database with persons containing different postures under same light and environment with various movements and orientations. It includes 165 grayscale images in GIF format of 15 individuals. There are 11 images per subject, each with distinct facial expression or configuration.
System Framework

The basic block diagram of Image matching process flow is shown in fig. 4. The system consists of a Hadoop YARN (Yet another Resource Navigator) framework for distributed processing and scalability. The HIPI framework is used for processing images in large scale and processes it with other Hadoop ecosystem tools. Initially, all the images from different social networks are stored in HDFS as Hadoop image bundles (Hib) using the HIPI framework. Those bundles are used further for processing using Hadoop and its tools.

Images are also extracted from standard image datasets Faces96, Yale face databases and other online social networks such as Google Images, Flickr, Twitter and Facebook using API’s. All the images are scaled equally for the training purpose. The size of the images will be of an immense size and hence the image matching computation is implemented using Map Reduce parallel programming framework. All the images are compressed, and the compressed file is converted into a sequence file to be processed by Hadoop. Once it is converted, the images as sequence files are stored in HDFS. Now, the machine learning model is to be built using supervised learning approach. The images are labeled for each person with their different representations.
The machine learning model is built using face recognition algorithms namely Eigenface, Fisher face and Local Binary Patterns Histograms (LBP). The Pig-centric analytics platform is used for operating on image data inside Hadoop. The algorithms are compiled with Pig User Defined Functions (UDFs) and registered. The pig scripting is executed which is shown below in Fig. 6, initiates the minimal number of MapReduce jobs needed for the process to be completed in optimized time and scalable way.

```python
register faceReg.jar
A = Load 'image.txt';
l = FOREACH A GENERATE faceReg('face','/usr/local/Pig/pig-0.15.0/image','ajith.jpg');
dump l;
```

Fig.6. Pig script execution of face recognition

Once it is calculated over the face recognition algorithms, the distances between the vectors are computed, and the matching images with the distance less than the threshold ($\lambda$) are fetched. The false acceptance rate and false rejection rate are calculated, and the training model is further fed with error rate to train it better. This results in identifying the existence of similarity. These results will help further to identify the anomaly user.

**Experiments and Results**

Experiments are done by using a single node Hadoop cluster. The large scale images are easily handled using Hadoop framework. Once the images are obtained, pre-processing is done to train the model. As shown in Fig.7, the height and width of images are calculated and scaled equally using Pig on Hadoop, which reduces the processing time for a huge volume of images. As shown in Fig.8, the resulting information about the image provides the image filename, type, height, and width. All the images are then compressed and converted to sequence file format and stored using sequence file loader in HDFS. NOSQL databases can also be used for storing the sequence images.
The machine learning model is built using the training images and the three face recognition algorithms. The given query image labeled 14 is compared with image sequence in HDFS. The similarity distance is measured between the eigenvectors computed using respective recognition methods. The threshold point is set as $\lambda = 100$. As shown in Fig.9, the Fisher face and eigenface has their distance values greater than $\lambda$. But LBPH distance measure is less than $\lambda$ and also it correctly matches with subject series labeled 14.

The size of the training images is then varied to numbers 1500 and 1920 of standard image datasets and similarity measure obtained are compared in Fig 10. The figure clearly shows that performance of LBPH over Hadoop produces possible accurate image matching results when compared to other two methods. The obtained accuracy information is also shown in Table I.
The images are compared to identify the similarity using the large scale parallel processing available in Hadoop framework and Pig. The proposed system is capable of processing a large number of images in an efficient way. The obtained results of similarity can be used for identifying the feature of anomaly users in social networks who use other users pictures to avoid revealing their original identity. Processing capability and cost of processing is made efficient by making use of available tools in Hadoop environment. The same process will be utilized as a part of future work for matching the signatures received from the user and the signature in the database to verify a user in case of any suspicion on multi-node Hadoop cluster.

**Conclusion and Future Work**

The images are compared to identify the similarity using the large scale parallel processing available in Hadoop framework and Pig. The proposed system is capable of processing a large number of images in an efficient way. The obtained results of similarity can be used for identifying the feature of anomaly users in social networks who use other users pictures to avoid revealing their original identity. Processing capability and cost of processing is made efficient by making use of available tools in Hadoop environment. The same process will be utilized as a part of future work for matching the signatures received from the user and the signature in the database to verify a user in case of any suspicion on multi-node Hadoop cluster.

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Devaluation of Workers’ Lives in the Neo-Liberal Order and the Reflections on the Media

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Abstract
Within the neo-liberal order, the workers who are only considered as labour power are left to precariousness. Globalization and neo-liberal policies as the reflection of the logic of the contemporary economy-politics are substantial concepts in understanding the minimization of costs of labour and the increase in the worker fatalities on behalf of profit maximization. On 11 March 2012, in a shopping mall construction site called Marmara Park in Istanbul, 11 workers lost their life when their tents caught fire. The tents were shelters for the construction workers who were employed by a subcontractor and the heating stove was the cause of the fire. After Public Prosecutor of Bakırköy’s investigation and the lawsuit, the court decided the 11 workers who lost their lives to be faulty. The fact that tents were given to workers for their stay at the construction site indicates that they are migrant workers who were dependent subjects to exploitation and to adverse working conditions, which are clearly the implications of neo-liberal economy policies. This study analyses how the fire on 11 March 2012 that claimed 11 workers’ lives and defined as ‘workplace accident” by the hegemonic discourse is reflected on the Turkish media, within the framework of theoretical discussions on neo-liberalism, subcontracting and deregulation of labour. For that purpose, content and discourse analysis are conducted on the news published in the Turkish printed press. The data are collected through PRNet data base program as well as research engines of the online newspapers. From the preliminary findings, it can be suggested that, when the gravity of the incident is considered the space given to the fire and the tragedy in the media was not significant. Furthermore, the newspapers constructed their news about the fire in accordance with their political standing.

Keywords: Printed Press, Neo-liberalism, workplace disasters, perception management, subcontacting

Introduction
In the presented study, the fire occurred on 11 March 2012 and took 11 workers’ lives, that is considered as workplace accident by the hegemonic discourse is analysed as reflected on the media. In discussing the fatal workplace accidents that has been tremendously increasing for the past decade it should be acknowledged that such incidents were “resulted in death and injury even though preventive accidents, precautions were not taken with the pursue of profit maximization” (Taşbaş et.al, 2014). The workplace accidents that are increasingly continuing and turning into work murders attract the public attention only when more than tens of workers die. The reason behind normalization of the fatal accidents takes its root from the hegemonic concepts of “natality”, “accident” and “fate”. In a way consent of the workers to the deadly conditions and eventually murderous accidents is constructed by the hegemony with conservative and religious understandings of fate. Furthermore it is possible to mention that, as a result of the imposition of neo-liberal policies, workers instead of the employer and owner of the capital pay the cost of the deadly accidents. In analyzing the workplace accidents as implications of the hegemonic neoliberal policies in the developing world as well as in Turkey, it is important to elaborate how the situation is reflected on the media and how it is interrelated with hegemonic discourse.

Within the neo-liberal order, the workers who are only considered as labour power are left to precariousness. Globalization and neo-liberal policies as the reflection of the logic of the contemporary economy-politics are substantial concepts in understanding the minimization of costs of labour and the increase in the worker mortalities on behalf of profit maximization especially in the developing and undeveloped world. Within this framework the present paper analyzes the dimensions of devaluation of labor and insecurity at the work place of construction sector. For that purpose, the study focuses on the fire occurred on 11 March 2012, in a shopping mall construction site, the reasons and aftermath as reflected on the media. Fire occurred from electric heating
stove at the tents that are used as dorms for workers in a construction site of a shopping mall called Marmara Park in Istanbul and 11 workers lost their life. The tents were shelters –improperly equipped with unsuitable material for winter conditions- for the construction workers who were employed by a subcontractor. After Public Prosecutor of Bakırköy’s investigation and the lawsuit, the court decided the 11 workers who lost their lives to be at fault. The fact that tents were given to workers for their stay at the construction site indicates that they are migrant workers who were dependent subjects to exploitation and to adverse working conditions, which are clearly the implications of neo-liberal economy policies. This study analyses how the fire on 11 March 2012 that claimed 11 workers’ lives and defined as “workplace accident” by the hegemonic discourse is reflected on the Turkish media, within the framework of theoretical discussions on neo-liberalism, subcontracting and deregulation of labour. Understanding globalization and neo-liberal policies as the economy-policy logic behind globalization is crucial in elaborating the background of increasing mortality rate in workplace, which is a consequence of minimization of labor costs in behalf of profit maximization.

The study bases its analysis on two main discussions. As for understanding the background and logic of the working conditions in general and the subject matter in particular, theoretical discussions on neo-liberal politics, its implications on Turkey and economic transformations are elaborated. In understanding how devaluation of labor and unsafe working conditions of workers are reflected on the media the authors refer to the notion of perception management.

Neo-liberal Order and Transformation of Labor

In order to understand the economic restructuration process followed by social transformations it is important to elaborate the impact of neoliberal ideology in general. Neo-liberal ideology since the last quarter of 20th c. has been highly effective in the development of consumption society, economic boom based on service sector, destruction of traditional solidarity networks by the values of individualism (Insel, 2011: 11). The social implication of this transformation appears as insecurity and devaluation of labor.

For defining neoliberalism it should be noted that in Harvey’s words, “it (neoliberalism) is in the first instance a theory of political economic practices” (2005: 2). The ideology assumes that, liberation of individual entrepreneurship, strong private property rights, free market facilitates advanced human well-being (Harvey, 2005:2). According to the neoliberal ideology as Harvey puts it (2005), the role of the state is just to provide security for and guarantee by force the functioning of the free market with “military”, “defence”, “police” and “legal structures”. The role of the state has come down to guarantor of the proper market functioning devoid of its regulatory and interventionist function (Harvey, 2005:2).

Following the deep world crisis of the 1970s, neoliberal globalization introduced as the solution to the crisis of capitalism in the 1980s marked the end of Keynesian labour friendly regime. In the developing and undeveloped world, the countries’ role became to be the suppliers of labor, raw material and land in the global commodity chain in a political environment where competition and privatization are regarded as primary virtue (Mezzadri, 2009: 128). Privatization, deregulation and competition are considered to improve quality, productivity and efficiency and reduce costs. The neoliberal state by restructuration and new arrangements, introduce market friendly regulations in order to improve its competitiveness in the global market (Harvey, 2005: 65). Within this logic, cheap labor became the main means of competition in the developing world. The cheapness is achieved by segmentation of labour markets, deregulation and erosion of social security provisions.

The adverse effects of the globalization of capital and neoliberalism can be two-fold. To begin with, in order to attract the highly mobile capital, the governments deregulate the national markets in favor of the foreign investors. This implies that, they divert from the Keynesian welfare state in order to provide suitable conditions of cheap labor and land. Additionally, they release the burden of tax as a main source of social welfare provisions- from the investments.

Secondly, the global capitalism with free market economy is exacerbating the core-periphery dichotomy. That’s to say; there are developed states from which the strong global corporations controlling the global trade and finance have flourished. Even though these corporations transgressed the national borders, the headquarters and the main executive units remain in the states where the human capital is highly valued and expensive. On the other hand, with the pursuit of high profits, the corporations, which control the global capital flow, move
overseas with the surge of cheap labor and lands in a sense creating a new system of global imperialism with a different way of exploitation. In order to better illustrate the situation Appadurai points to the same fact by stating that “(G)lobalization is demonstrably creating increased inequalities both within and across societies, spiraling (…) unavailable relations between finance and manufacturing capital, as well as between goods and the wealth required to purchase them” (Appadurai, 2001: 17). Similarly, in discussing the conditions of Delhi garment industry workers, Mezzandri (2009: 129-133) argues that, the neoliberal understanding of labour manifested itself in developed and developing countries differently as manufacturing has moved to poorer economies punished the “troublesome northern labor”. Whereas in the developing world, deterioration of labor conditions in favour of capital was imposed as a “pre-condition for economic growth”. Cheap labor and excessive unqualified cheap labor force are imposed to be advantages of these countries.

Baumann (1999) defines this process as a “new form of worldwide stratification”, a new “socio-cultural hierarchy is generated”. At the same time Baumann asserts that, homogenization and fragmentation, globalisation and localization are parallel processes that are triggered by the fundamental changes in the field of hi-tech industry. In this globalization process, “privileges” and “deprivation”, “wealth” and “poverty”, “resources” and “weaknesses”, “power” and “powerlessness”, “freedom” and “limitations” are being redistributed. Baumann defines this process in which the minority holds all the wealth while the majority is struggling deprivation as the global factors for the localization of poverty. The representation of wealth and poverty in the media is also the reflection of the dichotomy as the global is represented with the wealth it brings to the people whilst poverty is being presented as the sui generis choices of the Third World populations. In summary, the mobile global capital brings up-rootedness, insecure jobs, sub-human working and living conditions and economic dependency to the developing and undeveloped world.

What follows from this argument is that, the operations of the neo-liberal economic system magnify the ever-existent discrepancies. The periphery countries become dependent on the free market economy and issue their policies on behalf of the interests of the global market owners; sacrificing the wellbeing of their own populations. Secondly, those states, which become the center of gravity of the international finance and attract foreign investors become more prosperous compared to their counterparts that fail to do so. Even the prosperity is ephemeral and artificial since whenever the foreign investors are discontent with the changing situation in those countries, they take all their financial resources and move away for new destinations, leaving the country deserted.

At this point, it may be useful to refer to John Keane (2003) for supporting the argument. He conceptualizes the new phase of neo-liberal understanding of the global economy as turbocapitalism. He defines turbocapitalism as “a species of private enterprise driven by the desire for emancipation from social custom, territorial state interference, taxation restrictions, trade union intransigence and all other external restrictions upon the free movement of capital in search of profit.” For better illustrating the concept, J. Keane (2003: 67-68) compares with its ascendent era of Keynesian welfare state by stating that ‘markets were embedded in webs of government’ and ‘private investment was subject to various governmental restrictions’. However in the second phase ‘(M)arkets become disembedded: they riggle out of social obligations and break free of territorially based government controls.’ (Keane, 2003: 67-68).

The states were the fertile soil to nurture the corporations with their protectionist and regulatory mechanisms when they were at the stage of infant industry. In time, some become the world giant firms and institutions; progressing above and beyond the nation states, the states then start to compete with each other to attract investments in the cost of the welfare of their own citizens. In other words, states become the guarantors for the sustainability of the neo-liberal global system by providing cheap labour, an appropriate market for the consumption of the imported goods and restrictive measures for the opposition groups (Ishay, 2004: 183). In fact the existence of such structures can be considered as the spatial reflections of the underlying logic of neoliberalist operations whereby all values and moral related to work and human labor are challenged by the desire for profit maximization and legitimized as the freedom of private venture. The actors of this system that force workers to sub-human conditions for limiting the labor costs, threaten governments by withdrawing their investments in any case of social dissent (Klein, 2002).

The above mentioned operation of global commodity chains liberate transnational corporations from the governance of labour. In Mezzandri’s words, “through global outsourcing, TNCs were able to cut labour costs
and the costs of risks and investment” (Mezzadri, 2009: 129). As in the case of the garment industry in Delhi, “the labourforce employed are migratory and are rarely directly employed by the garment producers. Generally, they are managed by labour contractors … In this way, the management of labour becomes disarticulated from that of production. Exporters are lightened of the labour burden, which instead is managed by the labour contractor.” (Mezzadri, 2009: 133).

Klein (2002) in successfully elaborating the conditions of production and manufacture in the developing third world countries, briefly state that, the marketing geniuses generate a system of production by creating a laborforce army composed of unattached workers to liberate the capital from “labor burden”. When she examines the worker profiles the process crystalizes as the workers are generally unmarried daughters of farmer families from distant regions. As the families loose their lands to free trade regions and tourism send their daughters to distant industrial regions as workers. The daughters away from family and dislocated try to survive in the grip of adverse sheltering condition, malnutrition, poverty, homelessness, sleep deprivation and homesickness.

In this neoliberal order of exploitation the multinational companies not only confine the Third World populations into deprivation and inhumane conditions for the sake of cheap labor but also in order to control and reproduce the mechanisms of exploitation, shape and influence the social policies of these countries. For instance in Endonesia the Nike-Reebok subcontractors declared that the increase in legal minimum wages would take that country out of the market; the representatives of Nike-Reebok-Adidas subcontractors’ call for the army to repress workers’ strike; the repressive practices and human rights violation of the military dictatorship in Nigeria that protect the interests of Shell are all instances neoliberal capitalism’s social and economic implications on the Third World population (Werner & Weiss, 2003: 98-110; Klein, 2002: 405-407).

For final remarks, the globalization of capital the closed domestic economies are forced to open to global markets and a global system of economy emerged. A slight crisis in any capitalist country adversely affects the rest of the world. The toll of this process is on the undeveloped and developing countries. These countries with frequent crises have unsteady and dependent economy that bring more informalization, unemployment, poverty, subalternity and deepening of income gaps.

Methodology
On 11 March 2012, at the construction site of Esenyurt Marmara Park Shopping Mall, three tents used for the accommodation of the workers caught fire and 11 workers lost their life. In this paper it is attempted to elaborate how the tragic incident was reflected on the media and understand how perception management was realized through media on this particular accident. For that purpose in this study, the researchers tried to reach all news content on the printed media and on the internet. Within this context, PRNet database program was used for data searching of the printed media during the four years period –to include the trial process- between 2012-2015. The TV news videos and videos presenting the statements of lawyers and family members were reached through online search engines. The researchers use the keywords “death of 11 workers” “tent fire in Esenyurt”, “11 workers died” “Marmara Park Shopping Mall”. With content and discourse analysis, the researchers tried to map out the dimensions of perception management exercised by the media based on the news on the tragic incident.

The study take its first steps from the case study on the workplace fire took 11 lives. The researchers get the first information of the incident from the media and as the course of the events was followed it was realized that the tragedy did not take the space it deserved on the mass media. Unfortunately, fatal workplace accidents continue in an ascending pace and the fire is not a unique incident of fatal accidents, so the researchers were compelled to investigate deeper.

As the research continued the main question mark was; why some newspapers gave 17 news and some with highest circulation rates give limited space and even no space at all? Furthermore, the incident described as workplace accident, if the necessary precautions were taken would 11 workers lose their lives? While questioning the issue, the researchers found themselves in the discussions on neoliberal politics. Consequently a three-tier research was conducted, one is neoliberal policy, second one is the case study and the third one is the media and perception management, which are strictly linked to each other.
Only the newspapers that are printed and scanned by PRNet are analysed. For instance Milliyet newspaper published 18 news online when searched with the keywords “11 workers died”. However, the researchers only included PRnet data on their analysis so online news are excluded from research. For better elaborating the Fire and to follow up the incident, the videos broadcasted on tv and social media are reached through online search engines and analysed. The researchers reached 81 videos 54 of them are about the news presented on mainstream national broadcasts. The rest of the videos are published on the alternative media presenting the declarations of the lawyers and families of the deceased during the trials.

Analysis and Discussions: Neoliberal Transformation of Labor and Implications for Turkey

The course of the discussion within the light of the data analysis will be as following, first of all a brief information on the process of neoliberal transformation of Turkey will be given. The tent fire and the death of 11 workers is among the increasing volume of fatal workplace accidents which is an implication of neoliberal policies towards limiting labour costs. Therefore the second part of the discussion is on the devaluation of labour and its significance on the occurrence of tent fire. Thirdly, discussion on the role of subcontraction since, subcontraction is introduced as a strategy for the capitalists to emancipate themselves from the responsibilities of the labor. As seen in the case of the tent fire, the subcontracting firm carry all the responsibility of the costs and after the fire the accident. Fourthly, since the deceased workers were predominantly migrant workers who left their hometowns in search for employment and only found jobs offering conditions under subsistence level the discussion will continue with brief information of agricultural transformation and lack of employment opportunities. Finally for elaborating the perception management exercised by the media, how the news presented at the course of the incident and the following trials will be analysed.

Neoliberal Transformation

Prevalent since 1970s, the neoliberal policies gained a hegemonic standing by the 1980s throughout the world and Turkey, 24 January 1980 programme introduced a market oriented restructuration of the economy and export oriented industrialization policies. Followed by 12 September 1980 military coup d’etat, silenced all social oppositions in addition to the introduction of a conservative and oppressive 1980 Constitution. Therefore the economic as well as institutional/legal and social foundations of neoliberal strategy has been constructed (Mütevelliğlu & Işık, 2009: 159-160).

For understanding the factors and underlying dynamics of increase in fatal workplace accidents in general and the tent fire on 11.03.2012 in particular, the response of the Turkish government and state with its legislative, administrative and institutional mechanisms to the pressure of global competition and capitalists cannot be cast aside. The neoliberal transformation of Turkish economic and social structures gained impetus since the beginnings of 2000s. Anaggressive privatization program, concessions to foreign capital, legislation enabling deregularization of labor and answering the demands of business are among the measures taken by the government for opening the country to neoliberal order (Öztürk, 2015:135). Bedirhanoğlu and Yalman mention (2009:120-121), economy policy implemented since 2000s carry the features of jobless growth, where economic growth and increase in productivity are not reflected on real wages and employment rates. Strictly speaking, the entire population have not benefited the economic prosperity.

In Turkey this process of neoliberalization generated itself with increasing poverty as the wealthy prospere. As Erbaş states (2009:61), the deterioration of worker conditions, the market became the only authority, increase submission in the work and social relations and strengthen protectionism. To give brief information on the neoliberal transformation process in Turkey, the role of the authoritarian state is detrimental. Harvey (2005:7), calls the “state apparatus whose fundamental mission was to facilitate conditions for profitable capital accumulation on the part of both domestic and foreign capital” as neoliberal state.

The factors that caused the tent fire on 11.03.2012, the terms and conditions of employment of the deceased workers, their despair and lack of alternatives for finding jobs meeting the basic standarts of humane conditions, the judicial process protecting the main employers and capitalists are not unique cases of manifestations of the above mentioned neoliberal features in Turkey.

Devaluation of Labor

For discussing the implication of neo-liberal restructuration on labor and workers, Polanyi in his study of “Great Transformation” refers to commodification of labor. Social dynamics and social interventions to the market have
limited the boundaries of commodification of labor up until the last two decades of the 20th century (Polanyi, 2000; Mütevellioğlu & Işık, 2009: 163). However in the last quarter of the 20th century, the rules limiting the commodification of labor has been dissolved by the neoliberal policies. As it is being observed in the deteriorating working conditions as the work hours has been increased under the name of flexibility, social security rights are becoming highly limited, the rapid increase in the fatal workplace accidents, increase in occupational and work place related diseases, increase in poverty, unemployment are all the implications of erosion of these rules and deepening of market dependence of labor (Mütevellioğlu & Işık, 2009: 163). The neoliberal policies, enabled employers to adopt exploitative practices such as, “longer working hours without pay, delays in the payment of wages, offers to give holidays earlier than usual, forced retirement and resignation followed by delays in severance pay became a common practice among employers” (Hoşgör, 2015:216).

Therefore, the benefits of the neoliberal transformation to the capitalists and to the hegemonic political powers rather deteriorated the welfare of the people, put constraints on employment and deepened poverty, putting the costs of neoliberal transformation onto the society (Hoşgör, 2015:216). For instance as an answer to the employers’ and capitalists’ pressures and taking into account World Bank’s assumption that the reason for unemployment is the strong regulations on flexible labor, in 2003 Turkish government issued 4857 number Labor Code introduced new regulations increasing the flexibility of work life. The new law enabled the flexibility of working hours, flexibility of wages, on-call employment, temporary relocation of workers, unpaid overtime work (Mütevellioğlu & Işık, 2009: 183-184; Ekmekcioğlu, 2003: 74-77).

It is impossible for a political approach that regard labor protective measurements as burden and leaving workers in detrimental conditions under the name of “modern forms of employment” be consistent with social justice (Ekmekcioğlu, 2003: 74). One of the results of this regulation is the widespread practices of outsourcing and subcontracting. Both in public and private sectors, this practice involves excluding the labor and work process from the enterprise. Therefore the workers and their work are not binding the main employer but small sub-employers making contracts with the main employer. Which eliminates the ‘burden’ of labor and social welfare provisions from the main employers. The subcontracting firms mostly of small sized enterprises are more capable of escaping the legal enforcements employing workers without insurance with lower wages and longer working hours. Furthermore, according to the demands of the main employer these small sized enterprises can easily lay off workers.

The most devastating impact of these policies on the labor is the increasing number of death and fatal injuries at the labor intensive sectors such as construction, mining and shipyards and manufacture. In 2013 at least 1235 workers have lost their lives due to murder like accidents at the workplace and the number increased to 1703 in 2015. The emphasis on the notion of “at least” is important because the numbers are only those which reflected are on the media, and the media tend to give the minimum numbers (İç Cinayetleri Almanlığı, 2015, 2016). What is striking that the deaths due to workplace conditions take very limited place on the media and from this limited space the numbers are over thousands per year. All our discussions based on the data and events that are reflected and eventually make known to the public by the media. Unfortunately it is acknowledged that, numerous fatal accidents are not even recorded and taken to the press therefore these are the only limited numbers. Every ten minutes one worker dies in the constructions as ILO Turkish Representative states “at the construction sector, in the world every year 60,000 deadly accidents occur and in every 10 minutes one person dies at the construction”. Malatya Kent newspaper on 19.03.2012 “We are the First at the Workplace Accidents in EU”, Ortadoğu Newspaper 19.03.2012 “One person dies every 10 minutes in Construction”, Yeni Çağ 19.03.2012 “What is the Importance of Life!” “When It comes to Accidents No one Can Take Over Us”, Zaman 19.03.2012 “Work Health and Security as a Human and Believer Right”, 18.03.2012 Birgün “We are the First in Europe and Third in the World in Workplace Accidents”, 18.03.2012 Güneş “This Leadership is Shameful: Humiliating Record”. Six newspaper with the above mentioned titles reports the numbers declared by ILO about workplace accidents and state of Turkey in the data. According to the numbers declared by the Chamber of Architects, beyond the incidents reflected on the media, in the last decade the number of workers lost their lives during workplace accidents is above 10,000. According to Chamber and ILO in Turkey especially at the metropolitan constructions either workers’ safety and insecurity at the surroundings of the construction sites are non-discordable. Furthermore, because of the informal and undocumented employment, the undocumented work accidents the number of deaths are impossible to estimate. In the case of the eleven workers, two workers’ social security record was issued on-line right after the fire occurred; Çetin Coşkun at 22:43 and Sevdin Özen at 22:51 also verified by head of Social Security Institution. From their families statements it is found out that the two workers have been working undocumented and without insurance for three. This was also mentioned in the following newspapers İstanbul Yeni Nesil on 15.03.2012 “They are Insured after their death”, Ortadoğu
The high rates of worker mortality, long work hours, deregulation are all manifestations of the assertive neoliberal policies. As a result of the neo-liberal policies of post 1980s, the workers empowered, became invisible and the concern of unemployment at the cost of their lives workers forcefully consent to the demands and requirements of the employers. For instance, in Aydınlık newspaper on 17.03.2012 it is mentioned that “There are Workers still staying in tents: No lessons are taken from the 11 deaths”, “Survivors of the fire, Recep Özçelik interviewed by Aydınlık mention that he is newly employed in another construction site “They said that we will be staying in tents at the new job, and I immediately choose the window side. At least in case of fire I will have the chance to escape.” The fact that the fire survivor finding another job as construction worker subject to similar detrimental conditions presents the dimensions of forced consent of the workers.

Quoting from one of the survivors “I had been working there for 11 days. The conditions were awful, the accommodation facilities where we slept, the base was muddy, the electric wires had electrical leakage, when we complained they said ‘you are workers, you’ll live in this conditions, if you don’t like you are free to go’” from the 8th Consciousness and Justice Watch (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MdLQzE1MN5A, accessed on 18.05.2016). The wife of one of the deceased workers reveal the dimensions of devaluation of workers in the eyes of the employers when she stated on a reality show broadcasted on Kanal Türk that the lawyers of the company called her and offered 40.000 Turkish Liras and not go to court in return. The lost of a husband and father for a family can be exchanged with money and with 40.000 Turkish Liras in the eyes of the employers (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GiP6K0dmTaw, accessed on 02.05.2016).

Agricultural Transformation and Migrant Workers

In Turkey, population increase and rural to urban migration are the main demographic factors shaping the labor market. The industrial employment always remained under 20%, employment to large extent concentrate in the small sized enterprises labor force is predominantly of medium level educated and unqualified, the state and union supervision is weak, fragmented and uninstitutionalised labor market Turkey represents the features of undeveloped capitalism (Mütevellioğlu& Işık, 2009: 166).

Starting from the 1980s Turkey pursued a policy for limiting and eventually abolishing all agricultural subsidies. As started in IMF supported 5 April 1994 decisions, and responding the pressures of IMF and World Bank for the erosion of agricultural production finally in 2000 Turkey promised IMF and World Bank to give an end to agricultural subsidies. The reflections of the agricultural policies are devastating for a predominantly rural society, agricultural workers, loosing their income earning activities as a result of the policies are rapidly impoverished also increased the volume of rural to urban migration. However the state policies of jobless growth, deindustrialization resulted in the newly arriving crowds to fill in the ranks of temporary, undocumented and precarious jobs. Therefore the erosion of agricultural production resulted in the transformation of poverty from rural to urban areas, the former agricultural workers now employed in the irregular, undocumented sector, work for long term without any insurance. The new migrants are faced and forced into harsher conditions of living and working (Mütevellioğlu & Işık, 2009: 173). As observed in the case of the construction workers in the Marmara Park Shopping Mall, temporariness of dislocated workers are open to all kinds of exploitation. In parallel to Gürsoy (2010) discussions on agricultural seasonal workers within the perspective of neo-liberalism, the workers of the construction sector can be considered as unfree labour. The fact that construction workers as in the case of March 2012 incident, submit to the subhuman conditions of work and forced into life threatening conditions can be regarded as unfree labour. Sassen, when analysing globalization claim that exploitation, dependence and adverse work conditions increases with migration. On the one hand with migration individuals can find jobs but on the other hand, the state of migration create consent and acceptance to the insecure living conditions and alienation (Gürsoy, 2010: 44). Similar to Gürsoy’s description of seasonal agricultural workers, the construction workers with Acceptance, take the risk of life threatening conditions. Therefore the thesis of capitalism on emancipation of labor is questionable as in Brass’s words, “In developed and underdeveloped countries alike, neo-liberal economic growth is increasingly dependent on insecure, temporary and low-paid employment. Such laissez faire capitalism demonstrates additionally that – contrary to earlier views about the
capitalism/unfreedom link – bonded labour is not an obstacle to accumulation, since the free market currently thrives on an unfree workforce.” (Brass, 2015: 532). Therefore, it could be talked about free market of unfree labor, that signifies the existence of workers bonded with contracts who do not have the means to sell their own labor.

Subcontraction
The Keynesian understanding regarded workers as consumers as well as labourers, concomitantly, the corporations prioritized all sorts of employee rights. In the process of neo-liberalism, the introduction of outsourcing and sub-contractor, facilitates in the structural transformation and devaluation of labor. As the multinational corporations exploit the subcontractor, the subcontractor exploits the workers whose wage and conditions are deteriorated in each stage of the operation (Klein, 2002: 233).

Bilgin, Yazıcı, Tutar, Güler and Bilgin in 2015 in collaboration with workers union Hak-İş conducted a survey with 5250 subcontructed workers from 25 different provinces of Turkey. In the Subcontructed Workers’ Facts Research Report’s Discussion and Evaluation section, it is stated that the subcontracted workers themselves define the reasons for the subcontractor practices as cheap labor, labor devoid of union rights. According to the survey, the most significant problems of subcontractor and outsourced workers are, being transformed into perennial staff cadres, work and wage security and cadre position. Concomitantly, the most ephemeral problem as stated by the workers is the workplace health and security that encompasses their working conditions. The workers state that, the employers consider the expenditure on measure increasing workplaces health and security as burdens. Therefore, as mentioned by workers in the survey employers, make the workers work in an unhealthy environment and put the workers in an open risk situation (Bilgin et al, 2015: 109-110). Acar (2010, 164), gives a striking example to the extents of the diminishing of social rights of subcontracted workers in health sector. The subcontracted workers have to pay more money for lunch then the permanent staff at the same hospital, they are not allowed to daycare and shuttle buses, when it comes to rights the subcontracted workers become invisible. In terms of work hours, additional provisions, the subcontracted workers are not given equal rights with cadre staff. For instance cadre staff work for 40 hours a week whereas subcontracted work for 45 hours at the same workplace (Acar, 2010: 172-173). Acar finalizes his discussion on the conditions of workers in the health sector by presenting the fact that, the subcontracting firm does not keep any files of their workers, does not provide any health scan and/or preventive vaccination given the fact that the workers encounter all kinds of diseases and medical disposals in the workplace. The subcontracting firm and its subcontractor hospital management are not concerned with the well being of the workers and providing them with healthy working environment as they are concerned with the economic well being and profit that the hospital would make (Acar, 2010: 174).

As for the case study on the 11 March 2012 fire, the workers were employed by subcontractor firm KALDEM that took the labor burden from the German main employer firm ECE Group. On 10 July 2015, the partners of subcontractor KALDEM construction and the electrician condemned to 10 years of prison, the workplace safety and health specialist employees condemned to 5 years of prison. The court decision can be suggested as a significant example of how the process of subcontracting takes the burden from the capital since the main responsibilities as the owners of the capital and the state auditors as reinforcers have escaped the punishment and responsibility with the court decisions.

Perception Management and Analysis of the News
For understanding and explaining the construction of news on the tent fire on 11.03.2012, it is important to base the analysis on the notion of perception management. Perception is a process in which images related to world are shaped through obtaining sensory data and their analysis (Callamari ve Reveron, 2003: 2). Perception involves interpretation accordingly, objectivity and the existence of one reality disappears and subjectivity gains dominance (Saydam, 2012: 88-89). As the marketing and advertisement campaigns’ impacts on consumer preferences reveal, perceptions can be managed (Callamari ve Reveron, 2003: 2). The manipulative feature of perception processes introduced the idea of management of perception. Perception management is then, a management technique that is defined as the control and development of the information flow in order to obtain less ambiguous information (Özer, 2012: 148).

The notion of perception management was used and introduced by US military resources. Perception management can be defined as: conveying or blocking the information to the people in order to influence their emotions, instincts and reasonings. The main objective of perception management is to affect the leaders via
predictions and shape their behaviors towards the aims. Perception management is composed of integration of certain elements such as reflection of the facts, concealing or distortion of the truth, management of psychological operations (Saydam, 2012: 78-79; The US Department of Defense, 2003; Özer, 2012: 163). However perception management should not be confused with propaganda (Martemucci, 2007: 7). In a broader sense perception management renders a way of presentation of message that would shape target group’s viewpoint as desired by the source of the message (Dearth, 2002: 1; Garfield, 2002). Perception management has two main elements; deception and verification projection and encompass all the activities for influencing the target groups (Özer, 2012: 162).

With reference to Althusser, hegemonic classes have to reproduce politically and ideologically to continue their existence (Koç, 2012: 201). A systematical propaganda is needed in a world in which wealth is accumulated by the few with conflicting interests (Herman & Chomsky, 1998: 21). As Erdogan highlights (2005: 247) the media products with its content facilitate the reproduction of ideology and conscience (aktaran Koç, 2012: 201). Modern politics is characterized by mass media that accomplishes manifestation of public opinion of all people (van Zoonen, 1998; Yetkin, 2011: 35). With this regard, the hegemonic and political powers produce the dominant discourse through media. The strategies for shaping opinions towards the interests of others predominantly involve at the conscious leveland depend on manipulation and persuasion (van Dijk, 1993). For instance the statements of Minister of Labor of Turkey of legitimizing the low level of minimum wages, puts the risk of exclusion from global competition and unemployment as the main reason. With his own words “If we increase the minimum wages –which is barely enough for minimum standards of survival- the competitiveness of Turkey will decrease and that would increase unemployment” (March 2013, Haber Türk, accessed on 06.05.2016). These statements on a widely watched TV channel are a significant example of consent production and reproduction of hegemonic discourse. The emphasis on the risk of unemployment, and stating the government as if it is acting on behalf of labor, creates a public opinion of consent to the limited standards by presenting a higher risk. This is highly significant in the case of the workplace accidents; the workers are left no choice but to accept the dangerous conditions. Rather then bettering the circumstances the employers take a manner of “take it or leave it” making workers believe that the better conditions mean unemployment.

News Analysis and Perception Management
The number of news directly and indirectly mentioning the accident that are printed at the Front page of the news papers is 30. The newspapers are, Sol Newspaper, Günlik Evrensel, Haber Türk, Yurt, İstanbul Son Saat, İstanbul Haberdar, İstanbul Yeni Nesil, Ortadoğu, Vatan, Yeni Şafak, Birgün, Bursa Haktimiyet, Bursa Kent, Milat, Güneş, Ankara Gundem, Yeni Mesaj, Millî Gazete, Taraf, Yeni Asya, Once Vatan, Gün boyu, Yeni Çağ, Özgür Gundem, Yeni Akit, Cumhuriyet, Akşam, Radikal, Takvim, Bizim Gazete. In addition to the numbers presented on the table 1 newspaper published 2 news and 50 newspapers and 3 journals (Yüreğüş, Varlık, Yangın ve Güvenlik Dergi) only 1 news.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Circulation Rate</th>
<th>Number of News</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Özgür Gundem</td>
<td>6919</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birgün</td>
<td>20.310</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Günlik Evrensel</td>
<td>13.685</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumhuriyet</td>
<td>51.695</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sol Gazete</td>
<td>28.735</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hürriyet</td>
<td>341.805</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatan</td>
<td>102.743</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aydınlik</td>
<td>50.773</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radikal</td>
<td>40.370</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millî Gazete</td>
<td>30.909</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orta Doğu</td>
<td>5.138</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zaman</td>
<td>3452</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hürses</td>
<td>1176</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bizim Gazete</td>
<td>14.000</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haber Türk</td>
<td>220.563</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In quick analysis, the news can be grouped under three main subjects. In the first group the newspapers give news directly pointing to the main responsibles and openly addressing the main reasons of the fire. For instance, Birgün 24.11.2012 “It is not Accident, Fate, It is Workplace Murder”; Günlik Evrensel 19.10.2012 “Workers’ Tents are Still Burning”, Günlik Evrensel 18.10.2012 “That Building Stands on Blood, Sweat and Tears”, Milli Gazette 16.04.2012 “Work Accidents or Murders”, Yeni Akit 16.03.2012 “The Accident Will Not be Concealed”, Cumhuriyet 15.03.2012 “Social Security is Partner to the Scam”, Cumhuriyet 14.03.2012 “Insurance After Death”, Radikal, 13.03.2012 “More From the Shameful Tents”.

Among the Second group the incident is reported indirectly and the main concern is to support the politicians, Sabah 29.03.2012 “INTES Draw Attention to Work Accidents”- news on the campaign organized by Organization of Construction Company Employers is given in an advertisement fashion. İstanbul Son Saat 17.03.2012 “Construction Sites are Supervised”, İstanbul Kent Yaşam 19.03.2012 “We Shall Take Lessons from this Disasters”. Ankara Gündem 13.03.2012 “Investigation Started for the Fire in Istanbul: Minister of Labor started investigation with his team”. Among the third category the news are just summarizing the course of the events such as Hürriyet 15.03.2012 “6 Detention to 11 Lives”.

TV news and videos can be divided into two groups, the news predominantly broadcasted on the following 5 days of the fire focusing on the heart-breaking stories of the workers, the causes of the fire, funerals, arrests of the responsibles and statements of the politicians. The news on the mainstream national TV broadcasts focus on the incident during the following five days between 12.03.2012-16.03.2012, however the researchers did not encounter any news on the trial process on the mainstream national broadcast. As for the time allocated for the news on tent fire, six TV Channels namely Show, NTV, TV8, TRT1, Star and Kanal 7 broadcasted news between 10-13 minutes throughout the five days. Six TV Channels broadcast duration is between 5-10 minutes, Kanaltürk, Ahaber, TGRT, TRT Haber, TRT Türk, Atv. Six of the channels gave less than 5 minutes on the incident. When considering there are 195 national broadcast channels the number of news and the channels that carry the tragedy to their broadcast is highly limited. One explanation for the limited number can be considered as some of the TV channels donot keep archives online open to the general access. It should not be cast aside that the data are only limited to those that the researchers reached online four years after the fire and maynot encompass all the news that were broadcasted back then.

The second group of videos are on the trial process and the demonstrations of the workers’ families with civil initiatives predominantly broadcasted on social media by anonymous sources and local broadcasts. These videos, which are mostly anonymous, show the demonstrations and declarations of the workers’ family members and lawyers after the trials. Finally few TV discussion shows mostly from the local and low rating broadcast discussing the policies economic structure and the legal process that victimizes the workers and their families.

Trt Türk on 13.03.2012 presents the news with these words “the electric stoves caused the fire that took 11 lives... after the fire Ankara took action and Faruk Çelik the Minister of Labour investigated the scene.” The news continues to give space to minister’s statements that “here there will not be any discrimination between the main employer and subcontractor, they are both responsibles and will be punished. The families of the deceased will be compensated”. However the same channels that give such declarations of politicians donot report the trial process and how the “main responsibles” are not punished. Furthermore as the families of the victims declare they did not receive any compensation that would relieve their pain. Trt Haber on the same day makes news on the investigation that started and the authorities were at the fire scene, tragic stories of the workers, stories of poverty, deprivation and how they are compelled to leave their hometowns and work in the constructions in Istanbul. However the news are given as “the workers from different parts of Turkey after their bread shared the same tragedy” without mentioning the underlying reasons for driving people from their homelands and desperately accepting the adverse conditions. In general the news present poverty and despair as sui generis.

Trt1 on 13.03.2012 report the incident by mentioning that electrical contact from the heating stoves caused the fire not questioning the non-existence of proper heating systems the news is presented as if it was a natural disaster. On the other hand TV8 on 13.03.2012 points to the neglect that caused the accident. All the news point to the fact that there is neglect and improper infrastructure for the accommodation of workers. However a construction of a millions of dollars worth shopping mall, hundreds of workers are accommodated, numerous warnings came from both the experts and workers about fire risk but not any of inspectors from the Ministry
controlled and enforced provision for necessary conditions. The news while reporting the reactions of the politicians about the fire excludes such questions.

TV 8, TGRT, Kanal 7, Kanal D, TRT Türk, TRT Haber, CNN Türk 14.03.2012 “Farewell to the Victims” using dramatical voice and poetic expressions the news reporter is focusing on the pain of the families using terms like “tents becoming fireball” “the workers were behind their bread” “they couldn’t escape hell” “the bodies beyond recognitions”. The reports mention that the workers came from different parts of Turkey and their funerals are sent to their hometowns. All the reports also gives the brief stories of the deceased workers and reactions of their families. Kanal D and Kanal Türk stresses out the food and beverage delivery of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality to the waiting families at the Institute of Forensic Sciences. TRT Türk and Kanal 7 also present Prime Minister’s remarks on the fire stating that “We cannot accept those who make profits of billions of dollars to neglect and devalue the lives of labourers. Those who are responsible for this fire will be taken to the court as soon as possible”. CNN Türk emphasises that in every construction in Istanbul, scenes of tents are common. Also the news indirectly takes the responsibility from the local governments by stating the words of Istanbul Metropolitan Mayor “we don’t have regulations for the accommodation of workers at the construction sites so there are no standards.” Forgetting the fact that condition detrimental to human life shall not need regulations but consciousness of the administrators.

Show TV news on 15.03.2012 Ali Kırca, “Shocking Document” the journalist reports from the burned tents, showing the conditions, the electric heating system and other electric cables that caused the fire, the tents and its inflammable material, the only one entrance to the tents that caused the escape to be impossible. The documents presented in the news state how the workplace safety specialists warned the company 5 times about the unsafe electric ware in the tents.

In between lines Atv mentions on 16.03.2012 that the workplace safety specialist who has warned the company several times was also among the arrested. The safety coordinator in his defense states that he presented a report on the fatal risks at the workplace but the report was not taken seriously by the administration. According to Bugün and Kanaltürk’s news on 16.03.2012 after the security inspection on 4 October 2011, the inspectors from the Ministry of Labor gave no risk report for the construction site without giving any space to the accommodation conditions of the workers in their report (http://beyazgazete.com/video/anahaber/kanalturk-32/2012/3/16/cadir-faciasina-6-tutuklama-256092.html; http://beyazgazete.com/video/anahaber/bugun-tv-9/2012/3/16/cadir-faciasina-6-tutulmas-256072.html; http://bianet.org/bianet/toplum/139688-esenyurt-yanginidavasi-nda-ihmaller-ortaya-cikt, accessed on 19.05.2016). However according to the documents presented on Showhaber news report the workplace security specialists have been warning about the serious risk of fire since May 2011, in their reports all the risk factors are documented and photographed and shared with the administration. From the incident, the irrelevance of the discourses of the politicians’ and the employers with the reality become clear. Establishment of councils, employment of consultants and specialists can be considered as only formality when their warnings are not taken into account. Furthermore, the inspection at the state level ignores the detrimental conditions for accommodation before the fire and did not enforce the required measures to be taken. The statements of the politicians afterwards the disaster is devoid of their sincerity when the factors leading to the disaster are considered. The political authorities with its institutions share the responsibility of the fire with their insufficient and incapable auditing mechanisms. However in the statements of Ministers and mayors, all the blame is put on the employers while concealing their role in the incident. Furthermore even though the political authorities point to the employers, after three year trial period none of the employers as pointed by the politicians got any penalty. Stressing out Minister’s statement that “no discrimination will be made between the subcontractor and main employers” after the court decision, only the employees of the subcontractor are sentenced to prison.

The news which are political by nature are instrumental not only in shaping the public opinion but also in suppressing the oppositional voices. The words chosen for news headlines function for making impression (Korkmaz ve Yaylagül, 2007:304). According to the critical approach, which criticises the liberal approach defining news as “objective”, “non-biased”, asserts that, those who claim the economic and political power determine the content and structure of the news, and shape how to think about certain issues. The critical approach reinforces the reproduction of social reality according to the hegemonic classes (Koç, 2012: 189). As an integral tool of political and economic production of social structure media facilitate within the rules of material production. Hence in Turkey media is dependent on political powers within its economic relations.
Therefore, the news that construct meaning for the social space are devoid of a content that criticize and question the power relations. From the general frame of economy news, it becomes obvious that the media excludes a pluralist, egalitarian understanding that focuses on social and economic rights but the media blends in neoliberal ideology (Şen & Avşar, 2012: 43). For instance especially in the mass media with higher circulation rates, the news donot mention the capital politics relationship behind the incident. The standing of the state is quite significant during the trial process by protecting the main responsible however the media overshadows the power relations by emphasizing the fire, tragic deaths, the poverty of the workers without revealing the real causes. In the previously stated videos, the perception management applied by the mainstream media becomes clear in their formulation of sentences in passive forms, focusing on fire, poverty and deprivation and ruling out the main reasons and socio-economic structure behind the fire, poverty and deprivation, giving space to the political authorities statements on how the responsible will be punished but not giving any detailed information about the course of the trials and the court decision.

How the news be reported can be at journalist’s disposal however, the process as Potter (2005) points out under the enforcement of the media owner who look after power relations (Aydı, 2015, 271). Which news to be presented is determined by journalists, editors and the owner and they all have different motives although, the power and capital owners filter and censor the news and provide government and interest groups to convey their message to public (Bly, 2002: 6-8). For instance, Kanal A, First Visuals From The Fire called news video, during the interview with the Mayor of Esenyurt, he says “the municipality doesn’t have any responsibility for the fire, staying in the tents is not a problem”. Savaş Ay an experienced journalist recorded the fire on his cellphone and showing to the cameras the workers who caught fire with the words “horrifying”. Additionally Savaş Ay asks “you mentioned that they locked up other workers.” And the witness responds as “yes they locked other workers to kitchen” and he continues his response but the channel cuts his answers and jumps to other displays from the fire. In this video, sensational visual displays and words that would attract the audience are picked but the attitude of the employers such as locking the workers and their neglect are cut off from the news. NTV news channel on 12 March 2012 broadcast the news on the fire with these statements: “Workers were staying in the tents. Because of the weather conditions, numbers of electrical stoves were used.” “The first explanations of the authorities.” “Investigation continues.” “The tents used by workers for accommodation turned into ashes in seconds. In a construction site, at the tents where workers work.” So NTV does not mention the name of the companies, Shopping mall construction site, the fact that it was not workers’ choice to stay in the tents, focusing on the measures taken by authorities rather than the real causes of the fire. The news are constructed by focusing and attracting the attention to the poverty and inhumane conditions taking from its structural context and presenting the conditions sui generis.

Schiller mentions (1981) there is no free mobility of information but the existence of controllers auditors who are reshaping information (Siddiqui, 1990: 91). It is also important to question the social responsibility of the media due to the fact that the mass media rarely report the rights violations and donot give space to the representation of subaltern groups such as the poor, unprivileged women and children (Şen ve Avşar, 2012: 43). Ideological standing is highly effective in the construction of the news content such as the news titles, visuals, sentence structure present clues for the viewpoints. The presentation of same events with varying contents reveals the cultural capital and ideological background (Özkır ve Şışman, 2014: 67). For instance Esenyurt Mayor declares on 12.03.2012 that “we cannot ask those who died how they died. 35 people can stay in a tent 50 people can stay in a tent. It is obvious that cold weather caused the fire. Their time came to an end, may god rest their soul.” These statements were found its place in few web pages and in one discussion programme on Kanaltürk without mentioning the statements belong to the mayorl of the district. In other words the news reporters were obliged to conceal the owner of these insensitive statements for political concerns. However when it comes to how the food and beverage is served to the victims’ families and the statements of politicians to the tragedy the news reporters do not hesitate to give the names of the authorities. Furthermore, the researchers did not encounter the above mentioned insensitive statement in any of the other mainstream channels (http://yerelgaste.com/IleceHaber.aspx?gn=934; https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GtP6K0dmTaw accessed on 18.05.2016).

The incidents in social life as in the case of workplace accidents’ reflections on the media are shaped by the political powers and different interest groups’ influence. As seen in the videos of the trial process, the real responsible of the fire were able to escape the jurisdiction process and this was not reflected on the mainstream media. Therefore the researchers followed the course of the trials that led to the deliberation of the employers
from the responsibility of the tragedy from videos shared by different platforms online. Quoting from a family member of one of the victims, “The main responsible were protected, Ece Group, Kayı Construction and the auditors in the first expertise report. Their responsibilities were not mentioned. So we objected the first report, the second expertise report was even worse, blaming the victims and protecting the main responsible. We again objected the report but unfortunately out objection was denied by the court. The court is postponed to 29 January 2015” (From Esenyurt Tent Fire Trials 34. Consciousness and Justice Watch https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tYjOCeBucEM accessed on 18.05.2016). The fact that the controversial court decisions did not find enough space in the main stream news can be considered as the clues for the different interest groups’ influence and impact on the media.

State with all its ideological and administrative instruments reproduce and legitimize the predetermined concepts. Especially mainstream media have an important mission in normalization of the language and the messages without questioning. The approach of mainstream media towards the incidents that reach beyond the accident level and be evaluated as murders, is the conscious discourse of mainstream/dominant/neoliberal economy politics that the media follows sui generis. Furthermore, the dominant neoliberal economy-political discourse hesitates using the term “work accident”, and with so called solution oriented approach and disinformation attract the attention to “workplace health and security” (Taşbaş, Yazıcı, Dağlı ve Özonor, 2014: 165). Similar to use of work accident, in the analysis of the news the researchers encountered the notion of “neglect” several times. For instance, Kanal 7 on 13 March 2012 broadcast the news entitled “Tent Turned into Ashes in 5 Minutes” directly quoting from the news reporter “the workers burned alive, their friends run to the screams of their friends, all happened in few minutes” from the voices of the survivor workers, the attention is directed to the causes mentioned as “negligence”. According to the news the workers who tear down the tent to escape the fire caught in the electric wires surrounding the tents. The term neglect in this case is important for the fact that hiding the main motive of the employers for choosing the tents as accommodation. The unsafe electric wires, the use of electric stoves for heating, the insufficient conditions, the violation of safety regulations cannot be explained barely by neglect. Similarly, Beyaz TV on 14 March 2012 during the news broadcast entitled “Died Because of 3000 Turkish Liras” point out the fact that because it was 3000 Turkish Lira cheaper than the better equipped barracks, the inflammable tents were chosen: “The containers cost 5000 liras and the tents cost 2000 liras, the 3000 took the lives of the workers”. The news is only for 1 minute, without mentioning any responsible by using passive sentences, during the report the cheapness of workers’ lives was stressed out by foreshadowing the motive of the employers in preferring cheaper materials for accommodation. Furthermore the researchers did not encounter the same news in other tv channels.

In contrast to mainstream media, alternative media attempts to construct a counter argument with critical economic political discourse (Taşbaş, Yazıcı, Dağlı ve Özonor, 2014: 166). As examples of the alternative media that continues to follow the trial process as well, local tv broadcasts and social media broadcasts can be put forward. On a Local TV broadcast, in a discussion programme, the wife of one of the deceased workers talk about the trial process, mentioning that it has been the 12th trial but still no arrests. Quoting from her, “with each trial our sorrow deepens. It was obvious that the accident would occur, the workplace safety council has mentioned in their seven different report that the tents were not suitable and carry the danger of fire. The owners of Ece and Kayı companies, the owners of the mall and the construction company are not around. The deceased workers are found to be at fault. At the expertise report for the last trial, the 11 workers were stated as faulty. The report says the workers staffed sponge beds at the entrance of the tent and caused their own death. The workers are at fault at second degree.” Again quoting from the wife “the employer says this is for you to stay. And they (the workers) need their bread, money they have to obey. If the worker resist to the conditions, they say take it or leave it. When they ask to the employers which tents shall we use their response was whichever is cheaper. The owners of the construction company are not found not coming to the trials and not facing the victims.” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tYjOCeBucEM, accessed on 03.05.2016).

Furthermore anonymous videos published on youtube, give voice to lawyers and family members of the workers who claim the main responsible, the employers as murderers and are free. They feel violated when the employers offered money in order not to complain the court. To give examples; the civil initiative, Stop Worker Murders Platform, the representative says that “we don’t want to see the ministers and prime minister only at the openings of these big centers and shopping malls, but also we want to see them at the trial courts and demonstrations of the workers who lost their lives at the constructions of these big centers and malls. They came and show off at the openings, ground-breaking ceremonies at the grand openings but neglect the workers it is the
From the data analysis, the researchers encountered the hints of perception management strategies as reflected on work related disease and accidents and their families (Ekmekçioglu, 2003: 77). Acknowledging that there will not be any penalty for violation of the laws, the employers feel free to implement practices contrary to what the law states. The protectionist attitude of the state and the government towards the workers by which all these huge buildings as symbols of the economic growth that they are proud of rise. Everyday 5 workers die, here 11 workers died and so these buildings rise and the economy grows.” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1XmMfKiFS90). “57 years for 11 Lives” entitled video broadcasted on social media on 9 july 2015 presents lawyers’ response to the decision of Bakiköy Heavy Penal Court. The lawyer representing the families’ of the victims mentions that the real responsibles were not trialed and punished and the decision is far from establishing justice (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oytHXm35y_k).

From the analysis of the news videos it can be asserted that the mainstream national broadcasts news are limited to the three days following the incident, detailing the sorrow, deprivation and despair of the workers and the horror of the fire. The emphasis on the main causes and the power relations of capital that led to the detrimental conditions behind the fire are not revealed during the reports furthermore, the trial process the statements of the lawyers and families couldnot find place in the mainstream media. Another striking point is that in none of the news broadcasted by mainstream media, the name of the shopping mall, the name of the companies are mentioned. However in the anonymous videos broadcasted on social media the lawyers openly give the names of the shopping mall and the names of the main employers in their statements.

Conclusion
In the neo-liberal order, labor has gone through a restructuration process towards flexibility and a new organizational structure emerged whereby production is fragmented both spatially and temporal. Production has moved to the Third World predominantly signified by cheap labor and lack of social rights, capitalists in these countries take the advantage of legal loopholes and informal economy maximize their profit by making use of cheap and insecure work conditions (Bilgin et al, 2015: 21). This tendency in the labor structure characterised by flexibility, subcontractor, outsourcing, temporary contracts and part-time jobs. This flexibility enables the capital owners to increase their profit margins by lighting themselves from the labor costs. Whereas workers and their labor are commodified and used as long as and as much as they are needed. The deregulation of labor market for the sake of flexible employment strategy, involves increase in the mortality rates at the workplaces and work related diseases. Fatal accidents and serious injuries mostly occur in labor intensive sectors. In order to use cheap labor and lower the labor costs, forcing workers to longer work hours, outsourcing, increase in mobility and temporariness of workers and constantly employing younger, uneducated, unqualified and inexperienced workers, not providing workers with sufficient training, increased deregulation of workplace, loosening of controls on employers who are able to escape their responsibility of providing secure and healthy conditions are the main reasons for the increase in mortality at the workplace.

Workplace Health and Security Code of 6331, bring important regulations in providing and preventing workplace accidents and diseases. The law was designed according to the modern global standards to prevent the accidents from the beginning (Korkmaz ve Aysallı, 2012: 154). However the Code was passed on 30 June 2012, nine years after the Labor Code and three months after the fire. In other words, the Labor Code that passed in 2003 does not include any regulations for workplace safety and if there were legislation that would be strictly implemented than the tragic incident wouldnot have taken place.

On the other hand existence of legislation by itself is not sufficient for the solution of the problems. In practice, as seen in the case of the death of 11 construction workers, during the trial process, the social security specialists and councils do not have a sanction power. Despite numerous reports by the workplace security councils, the companies both the main employer and subcontractor did not take any steps to prevent the fire. Laws just on the paper cannot be considered sufficient when the mechanisms for proper implementation donot exist, when the judiciary power protects the main responsibles and put all the cost on the deceased and the victims. Acknowledging that there will not be any penalty for violation of the laws, the employers feel free to implement practices contrary to what the law states. The protectionist attitude of the state and the government towards the main capitalist with its legislative mechanisms foreshadows the developments that remain only on the paper. Furthermore, the 4857 Code on Labor does not clarify the solutions for the workers and their families who are victims of workplace accidents. The Law doesnot bring any regulations in favour of the workers who are victims of work related disease and accidents and their families (Ekmekçioglu, 2003: 77).

From the data analysis, the researchers encountered the hints of perception management strategies as reflected on the political discourses and on the news reports about the fire incident.Both the politicians and the journalists interpret the fire according to their political standings and also report to the audience accordingly. Politicians
adopt perception management strategies in order to legitimize their practices in the eyes of the public. Similarly pro-government journalists’ news about the fire are limited to the individual stories of the victims and the horror of the fire. Journalists with oppositional tendencies point to the government and government’s interest relations with the capital as the main responsible of the fatal workplace accidents in general and the fire in particular. In oppositional newspapers question the general attitude of the government behind the fire.

The neo-liberal politics and its emphasis on competitive free market, the idea that capitalists shall be supported for the pursuit of profit maximization constitute the main framework for understanding the workplace accidents. Concomitantly, especially in the developing countries, neo-liberal politics are pursued at the cost of social welfare regulations, which also have devastating impacts in terms of work place safety. For preventing the fatal workplace accidents, necessary regulations shall be taken in order not to prioritize pro-capitalist neo-liberal policies over humanitarian conditions. It is also important to raise social awareness for the prevention of fatal workplace accidents and to put pressure on capitalists as well as politicians. Therefore it is highly crucial for media to focus on the deep rooted concealed factors behind the accidents by distancing themselves from political concerns.

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Examination of Comedy through a Television Serial: Case of Çocuklar Duymaşın

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Abstract
Among the TV genres, sitcoms seek to entertain the audience while raising their awareness on certain issues. One of the most popular Turkish TV serials of all times is Çocuklar Duymaşın (Don’t Let Children Hear). This serial is produced by Birol Güven and started to be broadcasted in 2002. The serial has been on the air till 2014 on several TV channels. During this time, it was produced for a few years and re-appeared with a new format. The new version was on the air after 2012 till 2014. Pathos mentioned in Aristotelian rhetoric analysis is formed throughout the serial with the sound of laughter. Comedy is formed through jokes and are classified in the serial. For the present study, 60 episodes of Çocuklar Duymaşın broadcasted in 2014 are examined and the types of jokes that are followed with the sound of laughter is categorized as simple and intellectual jokes. The results suggest that number of messages based on simple-everyday life jokes is more than intellectual ones.

Keywords: Çocuklar Duymaşın, comedy, simple joke, intellectual joke, pathos, rhetoric analysis, content analysis.

Introduction
Long ago, Aristotle drew our attention to the fact that rhetoric could be used for persuading people through speech in the pre-literacy era (Rapp, 2010). What he advised then, is still valid. Rhetoric is used for persuading people through both speech and written materials. For Aristotle, in the most general sense, rhetoric is the ability to use the available methods of persuasion in certain situations. He categorized rhetoric under three main categories, ethos, pathos and logos (Freese, 1926).

According to Freese (1926), Aristotle used ethos to articulate the moral character’s views, values and manners. Ethos is the power of a personal character in order to make the orator’s speech convincing. Thus, the moral character sending the message has to be credible to convince the audience about his/her ideas and arguments. Freese (1926) also states that pathos stimulates emotions of the audience. Pathos appeals to the heart instead of affecting the head because the speaker affects emotions or imaginations of the audience with stories, inspirational quotes and vivid language. In other words, the character or speaker’s messages touch the emotions to persuade the audience. Thus, pathos is the power of activation of enthusiasm of the audience. Furthermore, Aristotle defines ‘logos’ as the proof strength of a truth by convincing evidence. The speaker has logical supportive argument because the message itself has to be logical and well presented. The arguments, facts and evidence should have coherent structure. References should have statistics or case studies which include comparisons, analogies and methods (Freese, 1926). Berger (2011) contends that rhetorical analysis is used to interpret the works not only in the literature and films but also on radio and television programs because of the development of the mass media. According to Berger (2011, p.88):

“In media and communication research, rhetoric plays an important role because it gives a large number of concepts that enable us to understand how a text generates meaning and helps shape people’s emotions and behaviors.”

In television serials, rhetorical devices are used within and outside the scenes (Neeley, 2005). For example, Yin and Yun (2012) analyze the effect of rhetorical devices in the dialogues of the American TV series The Big Bang Theory in their study. Their study aims to find out how English sitcoms are influential for learning English. According to Yin and Yun (2012), Growing Pains (1985), Friends (1994) and The Big Bang Theory (2007) have become part of English learners’ life in China through the portrayals of ordinary people in daily life because all of them help English learners improve their linguistic competence, getting educated while entertained. When the Turkish TV serials or sitcoms are examined, it is observed that there is not a study that considers how rhetoric is
constructed in the serial through voice/sound. The aim of the present study is to show how the voice of laughter has been used in the Çocuklar Duymasın (Don’t Let Children Hear) sitcom in order to create ‘pathos’ for fun.

Brief Information about Çocuklar Duymasın
Çocuklar Duymasın is a very popular and well-known sitcom which has been broadcasted since 2002 in Turkey. Thus, the audience loves watching this sitcom which was on the air between 2002 and 2014. Birol Güven who is the producer and scenarist of Çocuklar Duymasın produced this sitcom firstly for the TV channel TGRT in 2002. During this time, 14 episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın was broadcasted in this channel. The serial was on the air for 50 episodes that were produced between January 2002 and May 2002 in Atv. After 2004, the name of the serial changed to “What will happen to children?” This was because of the difficulties caused by the main character: Meltem and Haluk were having in their private lives. Later, the serial started to be broadcasted again August 8, 2004 by Birol Güven. It finished in March 2005 (Özsoy, 2005). Furthermore, Çocuklar Duymasın was produced again in Atv in 2010. Lastly, Fox TV began to produce this sitcom during the period between 2013 and 2014. After the 160th episodes, the serial was ceased to be produced (Facebook.com/Cocuklar Duymasin, 2015).

In this sitcom, the story revolves around the life of a modern Turkish family. In this family there is a working mother and father, a teenager daughter and a young son are presented to the audience. The major character is Meltem who is also an ideal mother and the Human Resource Director of the company. She is a modern wife, good daughter, trustful friend and respectful neighbor. Meltem has a good communication with people around her to solve every problem. Haluk is the father of the family. He is portrayed as a stronger character but he is married to Meltem who is a strong character, too. Through the character of Haluk, the scenarist and producer of the sitcom represents a macho Turkish man in Turkey even though Meltem always convinces Haluk through a discussion and her ideas. The daughter of this family is called Duygu. She has grown up and become a lawyer. Duygu’s role model is her mother, Meltem. Emre who is the son of the family is a relaxed and energetic university student. Emre’s close friend is called Teo. Both of them fall in love with two modern and beautiful sisters who are neighbors of Emre. These girls’ names are Melis and Ece. Both of them are university students like Emre and Teo. The neighbor of Meltem and Haluk is called İdil. She is a successful and reasonable psychologist. She gives some suggestions to people in order to make them cope with their problems in their lives. For example, İdil gives some suggestions to Meltem to solve her problems. Tansel is İdil’s husband is a successful gourmet. Although, Tansel and Haluk are not good friends, their wives arrange the occasions to make them meet. Hatice and Emine are two relatives and help İdil and Meltem with house chores in Çocuklar Duymasın. In addition, Hüseyin is Emine’s husband where as Şükri is Hatice’s husband. Both of them are lazy characters. There is also a character called Göñül who is Meltem’s closest friend. She is also Tuna’s wife. She has a son Orçun from her first marriage. Orçun has a nickname called Beton. His role model is Haluk who is his fathers’ friend and is a macho man. Orçun’s parents display opposite characters. In other words, Göñül is a very dominant and strong woman whereas Tuna is a very passive husband who obeys rules of his wife. Both of them love İdil and Tansel when they meet.

In all episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın broadcasted on Fox TV in 2014, there is an interesting character called Adem who is an intellectual philosopher. He mentions the popular idioms in his speeches in order to raise the awareness of Turkish people about popular culture and well-known people. Moreover, Ismail who is Haluk’s boss represents an ordinary Turkish Casanova man. He is always in an attempt to have different girl friends to have love and joy with them. All these important characters represent the stories of different types of families in Istanbul.

Theoretical Framework
The theoretical framework of the study is based on two different aspects, which are Cultivation Theory and Rhetoric Analysis.

In Cultivation Theory, Gerbner (1998) points out that the television is the main storyteller of our time. Television cultivates or creates a worldview. Television also dominates the audience’s symbolic environment and supplies false views of what reality is like to audience. In other words, Gerbner (1998) puts forth that the audience considers the world very similar to what they watch on TV because television affects gradually the audience’s perception and view. Furthermore, according to Harris and Sanborn (2014), the audience hears the laughter, sound and feels happy throughout the jokes that are included in media products of TV.
Sanborn (2014), if emotional aspect is not supported, the audience may not understand the content of the jokes truly.

As it has been mentioned earlier, Aristotle has defined “Rhetoric” as the art of persuasion (Freese, 1926). On the basis of the definitions, “According to Aristotle, the effective persuasion is possible with three appeals. The speaker should be able to create logical reasoning with his character and personality and to extrapolate the feelings and emotions of the audience which formulating his speech” (Murthy and Ghosal, 2014). In this study, the rhetoric analysis is applied for a Turkish sitcom called Çocuklar Duymasın, which focuses on the life styles of different families. In this respect, the simple jokes and intellectual jokes which are given as a message to the audience in this serial influence the audience’s stimulus through the sound of laughter, variety of sounds and the sound of clapping hands in Çocuklar Duymasın. The present study also examines the influence of rhetorical concerns on the audience because the audience starts laughing at the simple jokes and intellectual jokes in this sitcom. Although the rhetoric analysis includes the examination of ethos, pathos and logos, this study only focuses on the pathos. In other words, the aim of this study is to show how Birol Güven who is the producer/scenarist of Çocuklar Duymasın uses the voice of laughter following the simple jokes and intellectual jokes to create ‘pathos’ for enjoyment and awareness. Although there are 160 episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın that are broadcasted in Fox TV between 2013 and 2014, the present study analyzes the last 60 episodes broadcasted in 2014.

Methodology
The present study is based on quantitative methodology. The jokes in 60 episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın broadcasted in 2014 are analyzed, according to the contents of the jokes provided that they are followed by the sound of the laughter. The jokes are classified as simple jokes and intellectual jokes.

Analysis and Interpretations
The messages of Çocuklar Duymasın’s episodes between 101 and 160 in 2014 are categorized as simple jokes and intellectual jokes. The frequencies of these jokes are presented in this section of the study. Simple jokes are jokes created through a play with words and intellectual jokes are jokes created through the events in the story. Table 1. shows the numbers of simple jokes and intellectual jokes per episode in Çocuklar Duymasın. When the number of the simple jokes and intellectual jokes are counted, the simple jokes are more than the intellectual messages. There are 2214 simple jokes between 101 and 160 episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın in 2014.

The intellectual jokes’ numbers are 251 between 101 and 160 episodes of Çocuklar Duymasın. The audience interprets the intellectual jokes in Çocuklar Duymasın according to their social, economical and cultural background, Güven aims to articulate more simple jokes than the intellectual jokes in order to be understood by every audience in Turkish society.

Table 1: Number of Simple Jokes and Intellectual Jokes per Episode

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<td>155</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the simple jokes are analyzed, 8 themes arose. These are: joy, love, anger, guilt, sympathy, fear, empathy and being patriot for the simple jokes. The simple jokes, which are mostly created through a play with words, are associated with the ordinary and normal comic events, jokes and laughter. These jokes are given explicit messages when the characters give the messages to the audience directly in the serial. Table 2 demonstrates the number of themes for the simple jokes in Çocuklar Duymasın. In total, 2214 themes are classified as the content of the intellectual jokes. When the frequencies of the themes are analyzed, it is seen that the greatest frequency belongs to joy (fun, entertainment). There are 1318 simple jokes including joy. Through the use of joy as a theme, the scenarist and producer of Çocuklar Duymasın not only entertain them but also raise their awareness about important issues. Güven generally aims to articulate the importance of family, marriage and sincere relations in society. Thus, love is also categorized as a theme for the content of the simple jokes. The number of anger as a theme in the simple jokes is 273. This theme is included to show the ways of coping with a problem for the audience. As seen in Table 2., there are also interesting themes such as guilt, sympathy, fear and empathy in the content of the simple jokes. The lowest frequency, which is 5 belongs to the theme called being patriot in the simple jokes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joy</td>
<td>1318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilt</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sympathy</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being Patriot</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first theme is specified as joy in Çocuklar Duymasın. Joy is a feeling of pleasure and happiness. Thus, some of the simple jokes are given to the audience through the use of joy. For example, through the lips of Tayyar, the scenarist of the serial represents features of the traditional Turkish culture. The information which addresses the audience generally includes jokes of Tayyar. For example, in episode 118, Tayyar states that he is the first person who uses newspapers for cleaning the windows. Another example of joy is expressed by Emine in episode 119. Emine who helps Meltem at home, states that her husband- Hüseyin and her cousin’s husband Şükri are sometimes silly and immature like little children. While she is talking about them, she makes fun of their capabilities, behaviors and conversations in order to convince Meltem. Thus, Emine talks about the ways of educating these men. The joyful messages are given with a sound and laughter coming from the backstage. Therefore, the simple jokes including joy as a theme are influential in Çocuklar Duymasın.

The second theme is called love. This theme is observed in the content of the simple jokes in Çocuklar Duymasın because love is seen as a strong feeling of affection in some of the messages that leads to laughter and appreciation. In episode 122, Tuna encourages Haluk to organize a special day for the anniversary of Meltem and Haluk. Tuna is a character who always talks about the importance of love in Çocuklar Duymasın. During the conversation between these two characters, Haluk who is a macho man doesn’t want to celebrate this special event because a macho man doesn’t prefer to organize a special event for the anniversary. Haluk’s rejection leads to a comic explanations and situations. Thus, the audiencelaughes them while they are listening to Haluk.
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27 - 29 May 2016 Zagreb – Croatia

and Tuna who are opposite characters in Çocuklar Duymasın. When the messages about love are given in an interesting way, the romantic sounds come from the backstage. Through the use of this sound, the audience is under the influence of love.

The third theme in the simple jokes is called anger. This theme is generally observed in a strong feeling of annoyance, displeasure and hostility in Çocuklar Duymasın. For example, in episode 133, Meltem gets angry with Haluk while he is eating pieces of meat because she is a vegetarian. Meltem’s attitude towards Haluk is very aggressive due to the displeasure. This fact is presented as a comedy through the use of sounds coming from the backstage, too.

The fourth theme in the simple jokes is called guilt. The scenarist employs guilt as a theme because it refers to the fact of having committed an offence or crime, which adversely affects people’s sphere of lives. For example, while Teo, Havuç, Ece and Melis are spending time together in a cafe, there is a boy who harasses those girls in episode 140. Although young boys get nervous, they prefer to warn this man instead of striking violently. The conversation among the characters is interesting and is supported by the sound and laughter coming from the backstage. This example demonstrates that the guilt can be a theme that is included in the content of the simple joke.

Sympathy is also a theme that is included in the simple jokes. For example, it is replaced in the 151th episode. Through the character of Tansel, the scenarist of Çocuklar Duymasın attempts to articulate the importance of art and artists in this century. For example, the barely educated men who are Şükrü and Hüseyin are in an attempt to make money when they draw paintings and sell them. They want to be a rich man at the end of these sales. When they talk about this issue with Tansel, he appreciates the strive of Şükrü and Hüseyin, for drawing a picture even though they are not professionals. The conversation among these characters is very funny because Şükrü and Hüseyin are not talented for paintings. This fact creates a common feeling for the understanding of art while giving the simple jokes to the audience. Idil gives the second example of this theme in the 111th episode. While Tansel and Idil are talking to each other, Idil points out that Hatice who helps Idil at home, should share the same table with them in the dining room even though Hatice is slightly an eccentric and funny woman. This fact causes laughter and amusement while the audience is watching the conversation of these characters. However, this comic situation not only makes the audience laugh but also raises their awareness of humanity and kindness in case of the relationship between a patron and a servant.

The sixth theme in the simple jokes is called fear. This theme refers to an unpleasant emotion, which is caused by the threat of danger, pain or harm. For example, in episode 120, when Hatice’s husband Hüseyin demands money from Hüseyin, she gives her salary to him. Hatice always obeys what she is told because she is afraid of him. This emotion is shown to the audience through the facial expressions and words told by Emine in Çocuklar Duymasın. While Emine’s expressions entertain the audience, this emotion is also imposed on the audience.

Empathy is also a prominent theme. It is categorized under the content of the simple jokes. Empathy is associated with the ability to understand and share the feelings of another. Therefore, the simple jokes, which are based on empathy, are included in Çocuklar Duymasın. The aim of the scenarist is to bring an important feeling, memory or image to the conscious mind of the audience. For example, in episode 143, Meltem who is a mother of Duygu and Havuç defends that the parents should put themselves in their children’s shoes while their children are making decision about marriage, occupation, education, etc. During the conversation, Haluk, who is the father of these young people, agrees with Meltem. While the characters are giving this important message to the audience, the sound of clapping comes from the backstage.

There is also an example for the empathy, which is declared by Meltem in episode 119. Meltem articulates that people shouldn’t put their mobile phones in their bedrooms to be healthy when they go to sleep. She states that the medical doctors in the international conference announce this fact. This message given by the scenarist also raises the awareness of the audience about an important issue. The eighth theme is called being a patriot. The scenarist includes this theme in the content of the simple jokes because of the Turkish men’s vigorous support of their country. In episode 113, Teo asserts that every man should perform his military service in order to defend the country successfully against enemies. In addition, Haluk talks about jeered, which is a traditional support of his ancestors in the 117th episode. While these simple jokes are given to the audience, there is a sound of laughter. In this respect, the audience is expected to be influenced by this sound.
When the themes in the intellectual jokes are analyzed, there are ultimately 6 themes: joy, love, sympathy, guilt, anger and empathy for the intellectual jokes in this serial. The intellectual jokes include hidden meanings. Therefore, the intellectual jokes give implicit messages to the audience. The intellectual jokes, which include jokes and laughter, affect the audience’s decision mechanism and interpretations. In other words, the scenarist and producer Güven makes the audience evaluate their lives through the simple jokes and intellectual jokes in the serial.

Table 3 below is used to show the number of themes that are included in the intellectual jokes for the audience of Çocuklar Duymasın. In total, 251 themes are stated in the content of the intellectual jokes. When the frequencies of the themes are analyzed, it is seen that the greater frequencies belong to joy and love. There are 87 intellectual jokes including joy whereas there are 83 intellectual jokes including love in their contents, respectively. The lowest frequency belongs to the theme called empathy in the intellectual jokes.

Table 3: The Number of The Themes in Intellectual Jokes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joy</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sympathy</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilt</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the first theme, which is called joy, is associated with a feeling of great pleasure and happiness in the content of the intellectual joke. The number of the joy is 87 out of 251 themes. For example, in episode 117, Tansel states that there is a variety of cuisine in the world. In his speech, he introduces different styles and methods of cooking to Haluk. Since Haluk is a traditional man, he does not accept Tansel’s explanations. For example, Tansel contends that bourgeois families prefer to eat a fin of shark and Beijing duck. When Haluk hears these interesting preferences, he starts to make fun of Tansel. Throughout the conversation between these characters, there exists a sound of laughter coming from the backstage. This intellectual joke asserts the importance of being open to the new concerns.

The second theme is specified as love in the intellectual messages. The number of this theme is 83. For example, in episode 111, there is a conversation about love between Haluk and Meltem. When Meltem wants Haluk to show how much he loves her, Haluk states that the real man always makes his wife feel the real love. Thus, there is not a special need to show such a feeling to a woman for Haluk. While the characters are talking to each other, there is a sound of clapping the hands to appreciate Haluk’s expression. When the conversation is completed, Haluk’s message is implicitly given to the audience. The intellectual jokes generally raise the awareness of the audience about important issues in Çocuklar Duymasın. In this respect, this message, which is based on love, also influences the knowledge or perception of love for the audience.

In addition, sympathy is the third theme, which is given to the audience in the content of Çocuklar Duymasın’s intellectual jokes. There are 29 intellectual jokes which include sympathy as a theme in theory contents. Sympathy represents a support in the form of shared feelings or opinions. Thus, when the audience feels the common feeling that the character expresses, they are automatically influenced by formal expressions of distinct feelings. For example, Haluk articulates that he is very happy when his son has started to walk at the age of 3 in episode 119. This expression creates a respect and warm approval of forming a family in society. In other words, the scenarist and producer of Çocuklar Duymasın uses Haluk’s explanations to demonstrate the importance of family which is regarded impressive and worthy of admiration.

The fourth theme is called guilt that is observed in the intellectual jokes of Çocuklar Duymasın. The number of the guilt is 21 in the intellectual jokes. For example, in episode 114, Meltem insists on encouraging Haluk to learn a foreign language. Haluk doesn’t agree with his wife. Then, Meltem never gives up and asserts, “each new
language means a new experience and lifestyle”. Throughout the conversation, for Meltem, Haluk is guilty to be reluctant and stubborn. This intellectual joke articulates the importance of learning a foreign language implicitly.

The fifth theme is called anger. The number of the anger as a theme in the intellectual jokes is 20. This theme refers to a strong feeling of annoyance, displeasure or hostility in the content of the intellectual joke. Through the use of anger as a theme in Çocuklar Duymasın, the scenarist and producer Güven aims to raise the awareness of the audience about incorrect consumption. For example, in episode 136, there is a conversation between Meltem and Haluk. Haluk warns Meltem to be a rational consumer. In other words, for Haluk, there is no need to consume for being a beautiful woman. He criticizes Meltem’s shopping for cosmetics, skin care, fashion garments, etc. The sound of laughter also takes place during this conversation. Thus, the audience is enjoying while they are evaluating Haluk’s message.

The last theme is called ‘empathy’ which is given as a theme in the intellectual jokes. The number of the empathy as a theme in the intellectual jokes is 11. This theme is used to give intellectual joke about the ability to understand and share the feeling of another in the content of the intellectual jokes. For example, in episode 151, there is a conversation between Tuna and Gönül. Tuna’s wife who is Gönül declares that a person shouldn’t ask a question if they know and predict the answer of that question. According to Gönül, there is no need to hear the answers openly. Instead of asking questions to learn the answers, individuals should put themselves in others’ shoes. Tuna is very funny and helps Gönül set her argument effectively for the audience. Thus, this message is an intellectual joke, which is observed in Çocuklar Duymasın, too. Çocuklar Duymasın adresses to a wide variety of audience. Among these, social messages meant for everyone. These jokes are mostly done through the play of words. Everyone, including children, understand them. Yet, intellectual jokes, are meant for rather intellectual people. These jokes require craft on the side of the producer. They are created through the elements of the story. The sound of laughter follows both social messages and intellectual messages. With this respect, it acts as a stimuli to raise the audience’s consciousness that a joke has passed by. Thus, the producer seeks to create pathos.

Conclusion

This study shows how the producer and the scenarist of Çocuklar Duymasın, Güven uses both the simple jokes and the intellectual jokes in this sitcom. In this respect, the theoretical framework of the study is based on not only the Cultivation Theory but also on the Rhetoric Analysis. Due to the Cultivation Theory by Gerbner (1998), the study shows that Güven wants to cultivate the audience through the use of simple and intellectual jokes expressed by the characters in the serial. He also aims to influence the audience’s stimulus for jokes with the sound of laughter. The pathos in rhetoric analysis takes place in this serial to give important messages to the audience. Therefore, the producer and the scenarist of this sitcom is in an attempt to give the simple jokes and intellectual jokes under the categorization of some certain themes. The present study seeks to explore the jokes put forth in the serial and to categorize them as simple or intellectual jokes.

The data collection method of the study is based on content analysis which is conducted through the use of a checklist. Two researchers watched and recorded data on the coding sheet to ensure inter-rater reliability. These themes are determined as joy, love, empathy, sympathy, fear, anger, guilt and being patriot for the simple jokes and love, joy, guilt, sympathy, anger and empathy for the intellectual jokes in this study.

The results confirm that the number of the simple jokes between the episodes 101 and 160 is 2214 whereas the number of the intellectual jokes is 251 in these episodes of this sitcom (See Table 1). The number of the simple jokes is more than the number of the intellectual jokes because the aim of Güven is not only to entertain the audience but also to raise their awareness to important issues no matter which social class they belong to. In addition, the intellectual jokes necessitate a greater deal of creativity in order to craft the content of the jokes. They address to rather more educated audience than everyone. These jokes sometimes cannot be fully understood by the entire audience. Therefore, Güven includes simple jokes more than the intellectual jokes.

In addition, when the number of the themes for the simple jokes are analyzed, it is seen that there are 1318 simple jokes classified as joy, 323 simple jokes classified as love, 273 simple jokes classified as anger, 147 simple jokes classified as guilt, 80 simple jokes classified as empathy, 58 simple jokes classified as fear and 10 simple jokes classified as sympathy and 5 simple jokes are classified as being patriot (See Table 2). On the other hand, when the number of the themes in the intellectual jokes are examined, it is seen that there are 87
intellectual jokes, that are classified as joy, 83 intellectual jokes that are classified as love, 29 intellectual jokes that are classified as sympathy, 21 intellectual jokes are classified as guilt, 20 intellectual jokes that are classified as anger and 11 intellectual jokes that are classified as empathy as a theme in their contents (See Table 3). While creating these jokes, the aim is not only to provide enjoyment for the audience but also raise their awareness about important issues. While doing these, the producer uses the sound of laughter in order to create pathos with laughter and sounds.

In conclusion, Çocuklar Duymasin is one of the most popular Turkish TV sitcoms of all times employs different strategies to entertain the audience. One of these strategies is to use the sound of laughter in order to create pathos. This device has been widely used in this serial in order to create stimulus for fun. The use of sound of laughter has been a common strategy used by the producers to signal a joke. By employing this strategy, Güven uses a universal device.

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Facebook.com/CocuklarDuymasin.
Edward N. Zalta (ed.).
Female Hairdresser-Client Communication: What They Talk and What Secret They Share in Barber Armchairs!

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Abstract
People who live and work in cities have to go hairdresser regularly in Turkey. And if there is no extraordinary state, they prefer to go to the same hairdresser. The longevity character of hairdresser-customer relation; turns this relation to an interpersonal communication. This affiliation sometimes has gone too far to share some secrets.

In today’s world, communication in family, in work life, and between close friends has been gradually dissolving. Nobody has time to listen to nobody. People talk less with each other. Barber armchairs provide the enough time to customers whose husband and wife or close friends do not give them to talk. In this context, the time which customers spent in barbers’ armchair has been passing through with a nice conversation, discharge and sharing the mental distresses. This study has been conducted to reveal the subjects talked in between hairdresser and his/her customers, and how much the talks have been repeated at later comings. Thirteen female hairdressers working in Eskisehir were interviewed. After that, the results discussed and created some groups of theme to analyze.

Keywords: hairdresser, communication, interpersonal communication, sharing secrets, coping with stress.

Introduction
In the study of Ustunler and Thompson on female hairdresser and client relations, the middle/upper class expectations and difficulties of hairdressers in adaptation period are presented. While, the female hairdressers in Turkey are men and boss-hairdresser concept is common, there is not such a situation in the USA. Ustunler states that it is normal for people keeping arm's length as much as not looking for any physical privacy and at this point it is known that it is said "if, he does his job well, let the apprentice do my hair but he should keep his conduct with me properly". In this study, it is mentioned that the class difference is permanently emphasized to other people intentionally or unintentionally by responding or not responding and it is also observed that hairdressers try to establish dominance over their clients through various strategies. In the study, it is presented that women are tied to their hairdressers loyally and they do not change their hairdressers for years; they cannot stand that their hairdressers whom they trust their hair to call them "you"; most hairdressers come from upstate areas, begin hairdressing from the lowest level and their profession is a transforming aspect for them; a hairdresser must be looking good as well as doing hair perfectly in order to go places in his profession and in hairdresser salons women try to establish superiority on their hairdressers while hairdressers try to establish superiority against each other (http://www.milliyet.com.tr/sacimi-yapabilirsin-arkadasim-olamazsin/pazar/haberdetay/25.09.2011/1442733/default.htm, Access date: 15.05.2016).

In the study of Canyilmaz (2009), the barber term in Turkish is defined as "the person who deals with cutting, combing and doing hair and beard or the ones who acquires that as a profession, the men's hairdresser, barber". The coiffeur means "hairdresser, barber and beauty parlor".

In the study of Guzel (2013), hairdressers are defined as "the persons who cut, form, dye and do hair care according to the current fashion trends and pleasure of the client". It is mentioned that the main occupation of hairdressers is related with hair however they work in quite verbal interaction with their clients and other hairdressers. It is stated that today the increasing income level of people causes that they care for their
appearance more than before and hairdressing profession has become more important by diversification of services of hairdressers as well as hair design.

In the interview titled as "we have come to places by this profession" which has been published in Hairist.com.tr (2013), Erbil who is an experienced and popular hairdresser in Istanbul states that; "It is an extremely important privilege for you that a client comes to the parlor and especially requests you. The pleasure and emotion felt by this is a different thing." In this interview, it is mentioned that there are changes in our age; the people who used to come for spending time, entertaining, having a talk and socializing have limited time and they desire to be handled practically; the clients of today cannot stand any mistakes than the past and there is a more investigative client profile while they were not used to questioning in the past. It is stated that a person should have a wide vision, be a good manager who can manage his team well, he should be technically knowledgeable and experienced and patient; it should be known that it is important to bring forward his opinions beyond meeting the expectations of his clients; it is more important to listen than tell; the client psychology should be known well and it should be reflected that the hairdresser tries to make her feel good and by this means it will become possible to keep client flow. Erbil indicates that he cannot stand the clients who try to establish dominance over him due to their economical means and mutual respect is needed and it is important to be preferred by being a good hairdresser rather than being a well-known one and he defines himself as "a psychologist with hair design ability" (https://www.hairist.com.tr/mahmut_ebil_hepimiz_bu_meslek_sayesinde_bir_yerlere_geldik.-278-.html, Access date: 15.05.2016).

In the news titled as "People also go to beauty parlors for social expectations" and in the study of Ozyurt; 120 women who applied to the beauty parlors of Samsun for having an esthetic body were interviewed in order to determine the sociological aspect of attitudes towards objectifying beauty and ugliness in society" According to Ozyurt, "Women inclining towards becoming beautiful aim to become mentally satisfied and meet their expectations in social relations by making partial changes on their bodies rather than becoming biologically healthier. 71 percent of women indicate that beauty parlors provide biological and psychological relief and promote their social relations by performing their care and cleaning." (http://www.milliyet.com.tr/guzellik-salonlarina--sosyal-beklentiler--icin-de-gidiliyor-pembenar-detay-ask-1656635/, Access date: 15.05.2016).

In the study of Togan et al. (2014), it is considered that hairdressers might have an important role in infection of Hepatitis B and C and it is aimed to determine the knowledge and attitudes of 59 women working in hairdressers and beauty parlors of Aksaray province on hepatitis. In the study, the data on socio-demographic characteristics, professional experience, working conditions, knowledge and practices on preventing infection has been gathered. It has been determined that most of the participants do not have sufficient knowledge on self-care and material cleaning and they exhibit wrong behaviors.

In another study of Togan et al. (2014) conducted in Manisa, again most of 156 participant do not have sufficient knowledge on self care and material cleaning and they exhibit wrong behaviors.

In the study of Baryaman et al. (2011), the Hepatitis B related issues have been analyzed on the craftsmen and employees of the municipality and no increased risk for Hepatitis has been detected on the coiffeur-hairdresser staff.

As a result of the study of Sahin et al. (2009) conducted on 124 hairdressers, manicurists and pedicurists working in women hairdressers in Sisli, Istanbul for determining their knowledge and practices related with Hepatitis B, it has been observed that the women hairdresser staff participated in the study do not have sufficient knowledge and practices on Hepatitis B and other blood-borne diseases.

In the study of Boztas et al. (2006), it has been aimed to determine the opinions and practices of 100 people working in 14 coiffeurs, 19 hairdressers and 8 beauty parlors on blood-borne diseases. 56% of 100 participants have assessed their profession high risky with regards to blood-borne diseases while only 19% of them had their Hepatitis B injection.

In the study of Guzel (2013), 344 women and men hairdressers of Erzurum have been examined and it has been determined that the most common professional disorder is sleep disorders with 63.8% and the highest value on professional satisfaction is "relations between staff" and the lowest one is "working hours".
In the study of Mermer et al. (2015), it is presented that the most common health problem of 191 women hairdressers in Bornova, Izmir are related with ergonomics and psychological burden.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to present the topics and shared secrets in women hairdressers-client communication under main themes. Accordingly, the answers to following questions are sought.

1. **What is the profile of women hairdressers?**
   a. Gender of hairdressers
   b. Education level of hairdressers
   c. Age of hairdressers
   d. Work experience of hairdressers

2. **What is the profile of clients?**
   a. How many years have the old clients come to the hairdressers
   b. The number of old clients
   c. 1 month service frequency of clients
   d. Time that the clients spend in the hairdressers
   e. Monthly income of clients sharing their secrets
   f. Age range of clients sharing their secrets
   g. Occupational status of clients sharing their secrets
   h. Marital status of clients sharing their secrets

3. **How is the hairdresser-client communication?**
   a. Secret sharing status of clients
   b. Number of secret sharing clients
   c. Causes for sharing their secrets
   d. Warning of clients for not sharing their secrets with anyone
   e. Advice asking status of clients from their hairdressers

4. **What are the characteristics of statements they share?**
   a. Subjects of shared statements: subjects of shared secrets, complaint status of clients and the subjects the clients complain about
   b. Depth of shared statements: Details of shared secrets
   c. Continuity of stated issues: reopening of secret issues
   d. Following shared statements: asking questions on a previous subject

5. **What are the secrecy/secret sharing attitudes of hairdressers?**
   a. Sharing a secret with other clients
   b. Sharing secrets in different environments
   c. Sharing secrets on phone

6. **What are the thought of hairdressers on their profession?**
   a. Negative approach due related with sharing problems
   b. Positive approach related with sharing problems
   c. Professional evaluations

**Limitations**

This study is limited with the accessible women hairdressers working in the city center of Eskisehir who accepted to have an interview. The data has been collected by semi-structured interview technique. The number of participant hairdressers is thirteen. The study is limited with the opinions of the selected hairdressers and generalizability of results is limited.

**Method**

"In qualitative studies, the data can be gathered by means of in-depth interview, observation, participant observation and log analysis techniques (cf. Wiersma and Batu et al., 2004). This study has been conducted by semi-structured interview technique. An interview is a conversation between an interviewer and an interviewee or a group for getting information (Yildirim and Simsek, 1999). According to another definition, an interview is conversations conducted with a person or a group for a particular purpose. The researcher directs these conversations for getting information from the interviewees. (cf. Patton, Batu et al., 2004). Interviews as the most common clustering method are considered in three ways as the structured, unstructured and semi-structured interviews (Babbie; Berg; Gorden; cf. Nieswiadomy, Batu et al., 2004). Semi-structured interview is between the
structured and unstructured interviews. "Interview form is prepared for getting the same kind of information from different people for inclining towards similar subjects" (cf. Patton, Yıldırım and Simsek, 2008). A set of questions are prepared for using in interviews to apply in semi-structured interviews. These questions are directed by the researchers to each interviewee in the same order however the interviewees are allowed to answer as they wish (Gay; cf. Berg, Batu et al., 2004).

In the interviews conducted for this study, it has been tried to access opinions of hairdressers on the communication of hairdressers with their clients, shared secrets, held topics and their knowledge and experience. Consequently, it is tried to present the topics and shared secrets in women hairdressers-client communication under main themes and sub-themes.

The researchers held interviews with the randomly selected hairdressers in their own shops. Before, each interview, the purpose of the study has been stated and it has been committed that the interviews would be held confidential.

Data Collection Tool

As aforementioned, the semi-structured interview technique has been applied in the study. In order to compare the answers of interviewed hairdressers, main interview questions which can be answers to the questions listed in the purposes title of the study have been prepared. The researcher has made a trial of these questions with a hairdresser close to his institution. The sound recordings of the interview have been analyzed by an expert and evaluations on the interviewee and the questions have been done and the interview form has been finalized as below.

Interview Questions

1a. What is your gender?
   ( ) a. Woman    ( ) b. Man

1b. What is your level of education?
   ( ) a. Primary school/5 years    ( ) b. Primary school/8 years
   ( ) c. High-school   ( ) d. University or higher level

1c. How old are you? ( ) a. 25 and younger ( ) b. between 26-35
   ( ) c. between 36-45 ( ) d. 46 and over

2. How many years do you work as a hairdresser?
   ( ) a. 5-8 years   ( ) d. 17-20 years
   ( ) b. 9-12 years   ( ) e. 21-24 years
   ( ) c. 13-16 years   ( ) e. 25 and more

3. How many years does your oldest client come to you?
   ( ) a. 5-8 years   ( ) d. 17-20 years
   ( ) b. 9-12 years   ( ) e. 21-24 years
   ( ) c. 13-16 years   ( ) e. 25 and more

4. How many clients do you have who have been coming to you for five years and longer?
   ( ) a. 3 and less ( ) d. 10-12
   ( ) b. 4-6 ( ) e. 13-15
   ( ) c. 7-9 ( ) e. 16 and more

5. How many times do your old clients come to your shop in a month for a haircut, blow-dry, dyeing and etc.?
   ( ) a. 1 and less ( ) c. 3
   ( ) b. 2 ( ) d. 4 and more

6. How much time do these old clients spend in your shop?
   The longest time    The shortest time
   ( ) a. 10 minutes and less ( ) a. 1 – 1,5 hours
   ( ) b. 11-15 minutes ( ) b. 1,5 – 2 hours
   ( ) c. 16-20 minutes ( ) c. 2 – 2,5 hours
   ( ) d. 21- 25 minutes ( ) d. 2,5 – 3 hours
   ( ) e. 26-30 minutes ( ) e. 3 hours and more

7. Do you have anyone among these old clients whom you are sincere and share secrets?

8. How many clients do you have sharing their secrets with you?

9. What is the estimated monthly income of secret sharing clients of you?

10. How old are the secret sharing clients of you?
11. Are the secret sharing clients of you mainly with profession or housewives?
12. What is the marital status of secret sharing clients of you? Married, single or divorced?
13. What are the subjects your clients share with you?
14. How much detail do they share with you?
15. What do you think the reason they share their secrets with you?
16. Do your secret sharing clients reopen the issue in their next visit?
17. Do you ask your clients about a previously shared secret by wondering any development?
18. Do your secret sharing clients caution you as "between you and me" or "do not ever tell anyone"
19. Do you ever share any secret shared by a client to another one by mentioning or not mentioning any name?
20. Have you ever told any secret shared by any of your clients in conversations you held at different places with different people?
21. Do you ever talk with any of your clients about a shared secret?
22. Is there any situation where your clients ask for advice on any shared secret?
23. Do your clients confide in you and complaint about anything?
24. What are the issues they complains mostly?
25. What are your opinions and evaluations about your profession?

The aforementioned form has been applied on the women hairdressers of Eskisehir. Furthermore, an empty space is left at the end of the form where the hairdressers can fill in freely with their opinions, feelings, emotions and recommendations on the issues other than the questions.

Determining the Hairdressers Participating in the Study
In order to determine the hairdressers to be surveyed in the women hairdressers-client communication study, the names of hairdressers in Eskisehir city center have been obtained from the Chamber of Barbers and Coiffeurs of Eskisehir and surveyors at the helm of the researchers have visited the coiffeurs and requested permission and support for their study. One of the researchers has met with the coiffeurs who accepted to participate in the study and provided information on the study and in order to create an environment of confidence, indicated that the data to be obtained from the study would only be used for scientific purposes.

Collecting Data
The date and time of interviews have been agreed with the hairdresser for conducting the study. The interviews have been conducted in between 1-15 April 2016 as previously planned in the pre-interviews with the hairdressers. Before, each interview, the researcher has explained the purpose of the study and mentioned that the contents of interview would not be read by anyone other than the interviewer, their names would be kept confidential and they should feel relaxed and free to state their opinions. The researchers and interviewers have jointly visited the hairdressers and recorded the questions and answers of the interviews by a sound recorder by getting consent of them. The interview questions have been asked in the aforementioned order. If, the questions could not be understood, brief explanations have been provided by paying attention not to influence answers. Moreover, while the previous questions were replied, the following but answered ones were not asked again. Finally after the recording was done, the researchers have thanked the hairdressers for their times and left the shop.

Data Analysis
The data collected for the study has only been subjected to descriptive analysis. Naturally, when a descriptive analysis is done, the data obtained through interviews are presented originally without adding our opinions and comments as researchers. The following procedure has been followed in data analysis:

- The interview records have been transferred to computer environment without making any changes on them. The text format of sound recordings corresponds to 65 pages. During this transfer the statements of the interviewer and interviewee were written in different characters for easy separation.
- In the reading for checking the texts, the words, sentences or phrases of answers were written by bold characters for easy separation.
- A blank notebook was taken and each interview question has been written as titles at upper right corner by skipping two-three pages. Then, the answers of each hairdresser were combined under the related title by means of bold texts in computer. These answers were sometimes summarized by a single word or a phrase and sometimes written as stated. During this procedure, the answers not included in the interview form but asked during interviews were written at the end of the notebook.
The answers transferred to the notebook were read and replied answers for each question were tallied. While tallying, the notions, sentences or phrases sometimes used by hairdressers or discovered prematurely were used. These procedures were done on the empty space at left side of the page where the questions were written. By this way, all the answers to a question and the number of hairdressers repeating the same answers have been revealed.

The subtitles where the tallied answers given for each answer could be gathered have been decided jointly by an expert.

Reliability Study
The following procedure has been followed for compliance check of the determined answers and subtitles: Firstly, the hairdresser was selected and interview printout, questions and considered subtitles were given to a second expert. It has firstly been requested from this expert to determine the statements which can be answers for each question and then replace appropriate answers under subtitles. At the end of this procedure, the answers of related hairdressers registered by the researcher have been compared with the answers and subtitles determined by the expert. The reliability analysis has been examined either for the statements with answer characteristics and subtitles where they were gathered. As a result, the reliability level between the researcher and the expert has been found as 95% for the answers. It has been observed that there is a complete unity in subtitling the answers of the following two hairdressers. For reliability calculation:

\[
\text{Consensus} \times 100 \quad \text{Consensus + Dissensus}
\]

The study report has been compiled by combining the tallied answers gathered under particular titles at the left side of the notebook and the bold statements in the computer. The bold statements have been used as direct quotes.

Findings and Comments

Information Related with the Interviewed Hairdressers
Ten of the interviewed hairdressers are men while three of are women; the age average of them is around 40 and their ages vary from 23 to 60; eight of them are primary school (5 years) graduates while five of them are primary school (8 years) graduates; two of them have job experience around 5-8 years, three around 9-12 years, one around 13-16 years, one around 17-20 years and six around 25 and higher years of experience.

Information on Client Profiles of the Interviewed Hairdressers
Clients of four of the interviewed hairdressers have been going to the same shop for 2-5 years, two for 9-12 years, two for 13-16 years, one for 17-20 years and four for 25 years and more. Almost all the hairdressers (11 of them) serve 16 and more old clients. Eight of these old clients come to the shop once, one client twice, one client thrice, three clients four times and more in a month. If, the time they spend in the shop is analyzed, considering the ones spends shortest time, two old clients spend 10 minutes and less, four of them in between 10-20 minute, four of them in between 20-30 minutes and three spend 60 minutes in the shop; considering the ones spends the highest time, three of them spend in between 1-2 hours, three in between 2-3 hours and seven of them spend 3 hours and longer in the shop. If, the income levels of secret sharing clients are analyzed, it is observed that five hairdressers have secret sharing clients from any income level, five of them have more secret sharing clients from the middle income level and three of them have secret sharing clients from the higher income level. If, the age range of secret sharing clients are considered, it is observed that four clients are around 20-25, three around 30-35 and six around 40 and older. If, the professional status of secret sharing clients are analyzed, it is determined that eight clients have a profession but their professions are not known, one of them is a college student, three of them are housewives and one of them is an academic. If, the marital status of the secret sharing clients is considered, it is stated that eight of them are married and three of them are single, two hairdressers have mentioned that they have clients sharing secrets on their marital status.

Information on Hairdresser-Client Communication
When, the information on secret sharing client is asked, all thirteen hairdressers mention that they share secrets with their clients. With regards to the number of secret sharing clients, two hairdressers mentioned that they have 5 and fewer clients sharing their secrets with them, six hairdressers mentioned 6-15 clients, four hairdressers mentioned 20-25 clients and a hairdresser mentioned that he/she did not know an exact number. Six of the hairdressers consider the cause why their clients share their secrets with them as confidence, two as
touch/contact, two as friendship/companionship, one as therapy/we listen to their problems and comfort them and one as a habit of long years. The question on whether their secret sharing clients warn them not to share their secret with anyone else is answered by 10 hairdressers as "no", 2 "yes" and 1 "there are people who warn and do not warn". Almost all the hairdressers (11 of them) have mentioned that their secret sharing clients ask for advice related with their secrets.

Information on Characteristics of Shared Communication
If, the subjects of communication between hairdressers and client are analyzed, it draws attention that the secrets on family issues for 11 times, marriage, boyfriend, lover, love, relationship, private life, men, children and etc. close relationships are shared. Other than these, it is observed that the secrets on the business life are shared for 5 times, daily exhaustions for 2 times, politics for 1 time and health for 1 time. All the hairdressers mention that their clients complain about their lives. The subjects which their clients complain about are indicated as 7 times family members, complaints about his/her spouse/hardships of marriage and children, 6 times general working life, nursing, chores, financial issues/money and 1 time eyebrow-mustache problems.

If, the depth of communication shared between hairdressers-clients is analyzed; 7 hairdressers have mentioned that they have 7 clients sharing superficially, 2 hairdressers have mentioned that they have 2 customers sharing in detail and 4 hairdressers have mentioned that they have customers sharing both superficially and in detail.

If, the continuity of subjects communicated between hairdresser-client dialogues is considered; 6 hairdressers have replied the question whether the subjects on shared secrets are reopened as "yes", 6 hairdressers have replied as "no" and 1 hairdresser have replied as "it is sometimes reopened or not". Related with follow-up of the shared communications, almost all the hairdressers (11 of them) have mentioned that they ask questions to their clients on previously shared subjects.

Information on Keeping/Sharing Secret Attitudes of Hairdressers
Ten hairdressers have replied the question on whether they share the secrets shared by their clients with other clients as "no, I do not", three hairdressers have replied as "yes, but I share examples without mentioning any name". Six hairdressers have replied the question on whether they share the secrets shared by their clients at other places as "no, I do not", three hairdressers have replied as "yes, I do", four hairdressers have replied as "yes, but I share a examples without mentioning any name" and almost all the hairdressers replied the question whether they share the secrets shared by their clients on phone as "no, I do not".

Considerations of Hairdressers about their Profession
The hairdressers with a negative perspective for complaint sharing aspect with their clients have mentioned that they are tired of listening problems of their clients, their clients show them as therapy centers even their clients transfer all their problems and complaints to them as if they are "garbage containers" and they cannot share their complaints and problems with their clients as they do not listen or do not want to listen the hairdressers and they cannot be relieved. Moreover, almost all the hairdressers have mentioned that they cannot share their problems with their staff in order not to unsettle their authority and lose their boundaries with their staff. However, as an interesting fact, shop owners mention that their staff freely shares their problems with each other and they envy that situation. It is observed that hairdressers do not have any positive perspective on problem sharing. The replies such as "It is good that I do not share my problems with them so their do not become distracted" have been observed.

When, it comes to professional evaluations as a final finding; most of the hairdressers (10 of them) have indicated that they are not satisfied with their profession and it only makes them exhausted, while 3 hairdressers have mentioned that "thanks to God, I earn well and I am happy with my profession", "It makes me happy to make people beautiful and happy".

Results, Discussion and Recommendations
Hygiene is emphasized as a very important issue both in the domestic and foreign literatures. It is observed in the study that there are lots of deficiencies and risk related with hygiene. However, while there are important findings on this issue, information on hygiene is rarely observed in the interviews. The researchers consider that this can be related with cultural characteristics of Turkey. While, especially hygiene must be cared by woman hairdressers, with regard to cultural characteristics of our country, it might be considered as shame, accusation,
attack or insult to talk or criticize hygiene at hairdressers; women usually prefer not to talk about hygiene with their hairdressers. However, two woman hairdressers have mentioned that their clients have reacted to them on hygiene issue and said "Rewash these towels, they are not clean!". It is an interesting finding that hygiene issue has not been communicated except these examples.

As another interesting finding, it can be presented that politics are not communicated much. There have been some incidents in Turkey where great casualties have been experienced. As a result of bombings admitted by ISIS and Kurdistan Freedom Falcons (TAK), several civilians, soldiers and policemen have lost their lives. The most notable ones of these incidents are July 20, 2015 Suruc, October 10, 2015, February 17 2016 and March 13, 2016 Ankara bombings and these incidents have caused more than 200 casualties and nearly 800 injuries (Cumhuriyet Newspaper, NTV.com.tr, Dogan News Agency, BBC Turkish and the Statement of the Prime Ministry Coordination Center). In a country where there are so many martyrs, several bombing and explosions and political polarization, it draws attention as an interesting finding that women do not talk about these issues. We can explain this issue by pathological grief. Horowitz suggests that pathological grief is a stress respond syndrome. Denial of pathological grief reveals itself as anger, shock, avoidance and unresponsiveness (cf. Celik and Sayil, 2006). Instead of normal grief reactions, unexpected, exaggerated or extremely extended reactions or unresponsiveness might be developed; the reality of loss is not accepted (Bildik, 2013). People in pathological grief try to cover the facts making them uncomfortable and not to think about them. By this way, an incident is presumed as not existing and denied; in other words people write off the fact of terror, life-threatening situation, bombing and martyrs and ignore them as they create extreme sadness and stress. Stifling and erasing incidents from your memory is called pathological grief (cf. Celik and Sayil, 2006). It is considered that these issues are not communicated due to pathological grief. In addition to this; if the Turkish culture is considered, women prefer their hairdressers as a means of therapy for blowing off their steam and making them more beautiful; in this sense, they do not feel it necessary to share their political views and opinions.

Other than these, the subjects as sexuality, relations with the opposite sex and such are the issues they gloss over, do not communicate much and abstain from talking as these issues are especially considered as the shameful subjects by Turkish society. Women prefer not to talk about sexual acts and etc. issues with hairdressers of opposite sex as they think that they will be accused of shameful acts and the boundaries between them and their hairdresser will be removed and this will cause sauciness.

It is our general observation that women speak more than men in Turkish culture because girls are grown under pressure beginning from their childhood. And women feeling freer after marriage begin expressing them and talk more. In our country, women institutionalize sharing their secrets with each other usually in their communes, gatherings and etc., they share their feelings more than men and they are more open to oral communication than men. Therefore, it is not surprising that women share their secrets with each other and their hairdressers.

Women visit hairdressers very frequently; they prefer sharing their problems with their friends or in hairdresser environment when they hassle with their husbands or one of their family members. Because, in our country women blow off their steam by sharing and there is not much for them to do. In our country, if the relief methods of men and women are considered, shopping and going to a hairdresser are usual methods for women. Women go to hairdressers for becoming more beautiful, looking beautiful, refreshing their self-confidence, making a change and relieving and they also want to try a new hair model, a different hair color and make a change when they want to draw attention, hassle with their lovers/husbands, think they are cheated and etc.

Moreover, it is an interesting finding that child problems are not communicated at all; however if it is considered that women go to hairdressers for being cared and relieving, it can be said that they might not want to communicate child problems and become angry again. In addition to this, it is considered that women do not expect any solution of expertise from their hairdressers related with such problems. Furthermore, as growing children is seen as the duty of women with regards to social gender roles, women abstain from being seen as they do not fulfill their duty if they share such problems. If, the number of women hairdressers in the study is considered, ten of thirteen hairdressers are men and women do not want to share such problems as they are not fellow. If, the education levels are considered, it is observed that hairdressers have generally lower level of education; in this sense hairdressers are not considered as solutions to such problems.
In his paper titled as "on the 'special' relation of women and their hairdressers", Keskinoglu (2015), the middle-aged city dweller women have a global need to communicate with their hairdressers as a reflex and this therapy like need must be satisfied; while young women go hairdressers only for haircuts, dyes, blow-dry and forming, middle-aged women go mainly for communication and there is "then we should not waffle on and do my hair" type situation. Keskinoglu indicates that, the issues communicated in hairdressers are not ordinary subjects, they are mainly family matters and women do not abstain from sharing in an environment where "hairdryer creates a background music", it is possible to do a thesis on "relationship between women and their hairdressers", clients place their hairdressers in a serious position in their lives by "if you cannot change you life, then just change background music", it is possible to do a thesis on "relationship between women and their hairdressers", clients are mainly family matters and women do not abstain from sharing in an environment where "hairdressers are always there and ready and hairdressers do not have much chance not to listen and approve their clients if they do not want to lose them. At this point Keskinoglu states the expectations of women from their hairdressers as "Then what can a woman want more? It is Ok if they do not cut my hair". (http://www.haberturk.com/yazarlar/dicle-keskinoglu/1107182-kadinlar-ve-kuaforleri-arasindaki-ozel-iliskiye-dair, Access date: 15.05.2016).

Briefly, according to the resources and studies in the literature, it can be indicated that different client-hairdresser relations can be developed in different cultures. It can be said that in Turkey, women go hairdressers for satisfying their therapy needs and they become loyal to the same hairdresser for a long time. Even, in some resources, there are details that women share their privacy in detail, according to the findings of this study, women share several issues with their hairdressers while they usually share superficially, they share just for blowing off their steam and they do not expect their hairdressers to develop solutions for them. Moreover, if their hairdresser is not from their gender, the things they share are restricted, decreased or they tell their experiences as if another person experiences such issues. Consequently, it is not expected that hairdressers pay attention to the persons in the secret related incident. As a result of the study supporting other studies of the literature; it is observed that hairdressers see their profession "exhausting" due to ergonomic conditions, long working hours and listening problems and complaints of their clients, even they provide therapy services to their clients they cannot be relieved by telling their problems with their clients.

This study is a pioneer for other researchers and studies in this field and within the context of wider cultural studies; it is recommended to expand the study for comparing barbers with hairdressers and the clients of barbers and hairdressers.

References
Internet References


Generation Z's Motivations for Following Brands on Facebook Brand Fan Pages: A Focus Group Study

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Abstract
The Generation Z, who use Facebook in order to get in touch with their friends, is a target audience for brands aiming to promote their products and services through Facebook marketing. But, Facebook marketing is a challenge for brands as it intervenes in this social domain. Therefore, whether Facebook marketing targeting these young people is an effective method or it is a waste of time for brands is a good question to ask. In order to find that the motivations of young people to interact with brands by liking brands’ Facebook corporate brand fan pages were investigated in this research. With this aim, three qualitative focus group interviews were conducted with young students born after 1995, representing the Generation Z in Eskişehir, Turkey. Within the scope of the research, the number of brands that the participants like on Facebook and the reasons why they like Facebook corporate brand fan pages were primarily looked at. Then, the participants’ interactions with brand generated content, brand representatives and other customers on Facebook brand fan pages were interrogated. Following that, the influence of Facebook marketing on purchasing products and services was examined. The research revealed that most of the young students are influenced by brand generated content on Facebook corporate brand fan pages and tend to shop as a result. The results gained in this study can be helpful to marketers in determining their communication strategies on Facebook brand fan pages.

Keywords: Generation Z, Facebook, Facebook marketing, Facebook brand fan pages

Online Brand Communities and the Generation Z
With the increase of social media usage worldwide, brands who want to strengthen their relationships with their existing and potential customers, have started to create online brand communities on social networking sites. Brand fan pages, which are created on the leading social networking site Facebook, are an example of a social network-based online brand community (Pöyry et al, 2013: 266). Companies who want to be visible use Facebook brand fan pages to create brand awareness. Facebook, the leading social networking site Facebook, is also a common point where young people meet to communicate with each other. Especially, the Generation Z born after 1995 and who are addicted to the Internet, social media and smart phones has a high percentage of Facebook usage that is 74% and Instagram usage that is 59% (Livemint, 2015). The Generation Z is evolving to become four in every ten consumers in the world’s largest markets (Swathi, 2015). Therefore, the Generation Z carries an importance for many brands as a target audience. For instance, in the U.S.A, Generation Z represents $44 billion in annual purchasing power therefore it is important to know this group’s social media habits and how they differ from the millennials, born between 1981 and 2000.(Andrus, 2015). Furthermore, the number of researches that were carried out regarding the interaction between brands and the Generation Z on Facebook are very limited in the literature. Therefore, why the Generation Z wants to be friends with brands on Facebook brand fan pages and wants to follow branded content are interesting topics to cover. Also, whether Facebook marketing is effective on young people using Facebook primarily to connect with their friends or a waste of time is a significant issue to cover, as well.

Uses and Gratifications Theory
Uses and gratifications theory is helpful in explaining online youth’s motivations to use Facebook and interact with brands on Facebook. Blumler and Katz (1974), who said that people are not passive beings who are exposed to media, instead people use media to satisfy their specific needs, set forth the Uses and Gratifications Theory. The Uses and Gratifications Theory is based on the idea that individuals consume specific media according to their specific needs, which they are aware of. For instance, consistent with the research of Turkish Youth and Sports Ministry (2013) young Turkish people ranging in age 15 to 29 use social media the most for entertainment (60%) and acquiring information (59%). The other purposes that young Turkish people use social media for are spending free time (54%), communication (53%), tracking the social agenda / creating the social agenda (51%), and education and research (47%) (Turkish Youth and Sports Ministry, 2013: 73). When we look at
whyonlineyouthinteracts withbrands online. A Forrester report (2013) illustrates that US online youth interact with the brands on social networking sites as they like the idea of being associated with brands the most (58%). They want to look at the content that companies post (%48) and interact with other customers (%48). Learning about the products or services (%42) and sharing branded content with their friends and families (%38) are the other factors that lead young people to like brands on social networking sites (Reed, 2013).

Scope of the Study:
No research has been carried out concerning why Turkish online youth representing the Generation Z interacts with brands on Facebook. This research investigated the motivations of young Turkish people from the Generation Z for engaging with their favorite brands on Facebook. Accordingly, this research looked at what the motivations of young people representing Generation Z to like and to engage with their favorite brands on Facebook are. In other words, this research looked at how young Turkish people representing the Generation Z interacts with the brands that they like on Facebook. Brands also try to engage their existing and potential customers by sharing branded content about their products and services continually on their Facebook corporate brand fan pages. Thus, this research also examined whether Facebook marketing is an effective method on young Turkish people representing the Generation Z.

Method:
With these goals in mind, three qualitative focus group sessions were conducted with young Turkish students born after 1995, representing the Generation Z and going to high school in Eskişehir, which is a northwestern city in Turkey. The qualitative research allows researchers to get at the inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture, and to discover rather than test variables (Corbin and Strauss, 2008: 12). The design of this qualitative research is phenomenology which tries to give a deeper understanding about the motivations of young people representing the Generation Z for following brands on Facebook brand fan pages.

The focus group interview sessions took place in a private teaching institution in Eskişehir where young students attended while preparing for the university entrance exam which they will take at the end of 12th grade. Before, the focus group interview permissions were taken both from the students and the private teaching institution providing a quiet classroom for the interviews. The students were selected on the condition that they had been following a company or had been friends with a company on Facebook. The students sat around a round table and the researcher moderated the focus group interviews. A structured interview technique was applied to all focus groups and open ended questions were asked to the participants.

The focus group interviews is a useful technique as there is a group interaction. The answers given to the questions are formed as a result of the interaction of the participants within the group, and some topics which doesn’t come to mind in personal interviews can come to mind in focus group interviews with some participants’ explanations; thus, it is possible for the other participants to make supplementary comments about the issue (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005: 151). In this case, the focus group interview sessions took approximately one hour and the interviews were voice recorded by the researcher. There were nine participants in the first focus group and the participants were attending to 10th, 11th and 12th grades at different Anatolian or Technical high schools in Eskişehir. In the second focus group, there were nine participants and the participants were attending to 11th grade at different Anatolian or Social Sciences high schools in Eskişehir. In the third focus group, there were eleven participants attending to 12th grades at different Anatolian high schools in Eskişehir.

During the focus group interview sessions, while some of the participants abstained from explaining their opinions openly, the others took pleasure from discussing their point of views regarding following brands on Facebook corporate brand fan pages, actively. The participants agreed or disagreed with other participants’ comments regularly, thus there was a good group discussion and interaction among the participants throughout the focus group interviews. In the analysis of the research, the technique of descriptive analysis was applied. First of all, the voice records were transcribed. Afterwards, the thematic codes that the data would be categorized were determined. Then the data was matched with the functional and meaningful thematic codes that they fit on a detailed focus group interview forms. Afterwards, the data was defined and supported with quotes. Lastly, the data was interpreted and linked together. Afterwards, for the reliability of the research, peer examination was requested from two research assistants at Anadolu University. In the peer examination, Miles and Huberman’s intercoder reliability formula was used. Out of the 23 thematic codes, the two research assistants did not agree on
Results

a. The number of years of being a user of Facebook
The participants of the research representing the Generation Z met with Facebook, the leading social networking site, approximately eight years ago in the year 2009 and they have been using Facebook actively since then.

b. The time spent on Facebook
According to the research of Turkish Youth and Sports Ministry the frequency of young people between 15 to 17 years old to use Facebook every day (83.9%), a few times a day (69%), once a day (14.9%), a few times a week (9.5%), and a few times a month (6.8%). (Turkish Youth and Sports Ministry, 2013: 61). The statistics indicate that Turkish young people spend a lot of time on Facebook. In my research, the participants in focus group one are separated into two groups in terms of spending time on Facebook. While some of them spend 30 to 60 minutes in Facebook daily, some of them spend half an hour on Facebook weekly. The participants in focus group two spend more time on Facebook compared to the participants in focus group one. While some of them spend 15 minutes to 4 hours on Facebook daily, the rest of them spend two hours on Facebook weekly. Moreover, young people in focus group one highlighted that they also use other social networking sites such as Twitter and Instagram besides Facebook. The participants in focus group three emphasized that they log into Facebook in order to get rid of their boredom whenever they have their smart phones in their hands. Furthermore, they log into Facebook when they cannot sleep at nights. They spend 10 minutes to 2 hours on Facebook daily. Accordingly, while the participants in focus group two spend the most amount of time on Facebook, the participants in focus group one spend the least amount of time on Facebook. Also, I would like to underline that these students who participated into this research have been getting prepared for the university entrance exam which is a major student exam in Turkey. The participants have a heavy working schedule for their classes. Therefore, they have less free time compared to other students that are in the same age with them living in other countries.

c. The technological devices used while accessing Facebook
Most of the participants prefer using their smart phones primarily while accessing Facebook. It is observed that nearly all of the participants have smart phones and internet connection. They can connect to Facebook without location restriction with their smart phones. Other than smart phones, the participants also use laptops, ipads and desktop computers while connecting to Facebook.

d. The reasons for using Facebook
In my research, the participants in focus group one use Facebook to share photos, to gaze their friends’ profiles, to keep up date with their friends’ lives, to share funny and enjoyable posts, to track news, to follow sport clubs and celebrities, to spend their leisure time and to get in touch with their relatives. Furthermore, when they do not have any credits left in their mobile phones, they use the messenger application of Facebook to get in touch with their friends. However, the participants pointed out that they do not use the messenger application of Facebook very frequently as they prefer text messaging or WhatsApp operating in smart phones, instead. The participants in focus group two mainly use Facebook to look at the photos that their friends upload to Facebook and to communicate with their friends. Moreover, they use Facebook to be informed about the news and the results of football matches. Especially, looking at the photos of their friends and liking the photos are the common activities that all participants do. The participants prefer text messaging or WhatsApp rather than the messenger of Facebook. The participants in focus group three chiefly use Facebook to chat with their friends and to look at what their friends shared on Facebook. They said that they learn new information and interesting things through what their friends share on Facebook. Furthermore, they use Facebook to upload pictures, to share location and to look at funny caps. They also follow foreign celebrities and look at educative and scientific pages through Facebook.

e. The number of brands liked on Facebook
On Facebook, when somebody likes a brand fan page, then he or she starts to follow that brand. The posts of the brand continually come to his or her newsfeed. In focus group one, the participants mostly like clothing or technology brands’ Facebook fan pages. They follow four to seven brands on average. The clothing brands that
they like are mainly sports brands. Nike and Adidas are the main brands that they follow. While girls prefer to follow women clothing brands such as Koton, Zara and Mango, they also follow the Facebook brand fan pages of virtual Turkish shopping stores such as Morhipo, Trendyol and Tozlu. In focus group two, the participants generally like ten brands on average, but some of the participants follow only two or three brands. Clothing brands such as Mavi, Adidas, Nike and Koton are the common brands that young people in the focus group two follow on Facebook. In focus group three, the participants predominantly follow clothing and technology brands, as well. They like ten brands on average. International clothing brands such as Nike, Puma, Adidas, Mango, Zara and Turkish clothing brands such as Adl and Mavi are the common brands that they like on Facebook. Moreover, some of the participants follow technological brands such as Samsung and HP. Other brands that the participants like are from a variety of sectors such as food and beverage, media, and telecommunication. The other brands that they follow on Facebook are Cosmogirl, Daily Mail, Coca Cola, Eti and Turk Telecom.

f. The reasons for liking corporate brand fan pages on Facebook
A research conducted by Logan on young adults (2014) showed that perceived ease of use was the top motivation for young adults to follow brands both on Facebook and Twitter. Also, young adults were more likely to follow brands if they believe the activity was useful (Logan, 2014: 66 -67). By following brand fan pages on Facebook, the participants in my research gain insight about the variety of products that brands have. Additionally, they learn from which price the products are sold and have an opinion about what the new season trends are. Furthermore, by looking at brand posts of clothing brands, they have an idea about how to combine different clothes. The research of McCorkindale, Distaso and Sisco (2013) demonstrated that millennials engage with the companies for incentives such as discounts or special offers the most. The participants of McCorkindale et al’s research showed that millennials were more likely to like an organization if it offered discounts (56%) and product samples (40%) (McCorkindale, Distaso and Sisco, 2013: 78-79). According to the statements of the participants in my research, young students representing the Generation Z like brand fan pages to be informed about the sales and campaigns that brands have, as well. Also, one of the participants in my research gets more information about the corporate social responsibility projects of the brands by following their brand fan pages on Facebook.

Kübra, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: “I can follow the new season products and see what is trendy or not.”
Elif, Female, 16, Focus Group 1: “By looking at brands’ Facebook pages, we can see the prices of their products.”
Nalan, Female, 20, Focus Group 3: “I would like to know what is fashionable in the new season. I have a color obsession. I would like to know which colors are hip. Thus, I follow the brands on Facebook.”
Fatih, Male, 18, Focus Group 1: “I mostly follow brands on Facebook to catch up with the campaigns and to be informed about the sales.”
Aysenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: “Sometimes they share the discounted products, thus I track them. Also, I can see the new models easily from Facebook.”
Begüm, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: “Eti usually has creative ideas such as yellow bicycle which is about a corporate social responsibility project. I like Eti on Facebook to follow that.”

g. The relationship between positive brand experience and liking brands on Facebook
Most of the participants in focus group three said that on Facebook they like the brands that they have had a positive brand experience before.

h. Peer influence in liking corporate brand fan pages on Facebook
According to the participants in focus group one; if they trust in the style of their friends, they start to follow the brand fan pages that their friends recommend on Facebook. Peer influence is influential for the participants in liking brand fan pages on Facebook. In focus group two, most of the participants also like brand fan pages with their friends’ recommendations. However, some of the participants give importance to their own choices and decide themselves whether to like the brand fan pages on Facebook or not. In focus group 3, the participants stressed that they like brands on Facebook in accordance with their own choices. However some of them said that they are open to their friends’ suggestions and they can like brands on Facebook with their friends’ recommendations. Based on the statements of the participants, it looks like that there is a high tendency among young students to like brand fan pages with peer influence.
Kevser, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: “What I like on Facebook is the same as with my friends. Whichever brands my friends like on Facebook, I start to follow them, as well.”
Kübra, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: “If I like the brands that my friends like on Facebook, I start to follow them too.”
Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: “It depends on who says it. If it is one my friend whose style I trust, I start to follow the brand on Facebook. If it is somebody who I don’t care, then there is no meaning to follow the brand on Facebook.”
Ayşenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: “I didn’t follow any brand from hearing my friends. It’s all my own choices.”
Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: “Yes, if my friend is somebody whose style I like, I start to follow that brand on Facebook, as well.”
Şevval, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: “I look at my friends’ Facebook profiles. If there is a brand that I like on her/his profile, I start to follow it on Facebook.”
Dilek, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: “No, the brands that I like on Facebook are all my own choices.”
Alihan, Male, 18, Focus Group 3: “Of course I do with my friends’ suggestions, I am somebody who is open to other ideas.”

i. Belonging to a Group by Liking the Corporate Brand Fan Pages on Facebook
In focus group one, some of the participants said that they feel like they belong to a group by liking the Facebook pages of brands. However, according to these young people the pre-condition of feeling such a belonging is to shop from this brand before. In focus group one, the rest of the young people said that they do not feel such a belonging by liking brand fan pages on Facebook. In focus group two, young people didn’t think that they belong to a group by liking Facebook brand pages and liking Facebook brand pages do not create a feeling of belonging for them. In focus group 3, most of the participants didn’t think that they belong to a group by liking the Facebook pages of brands, either. However, one of the participants said that she feels like belonging to a group when she sees people liking the same posts with her.

Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: “If you shop from that brand frequently, you start to feel this way in awhile.”
Büşra, Female, 16, Focus Group 1: “If I shop from that brand, I feel it.”
Ayşenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: “I have never thought this way. I mainly look at the corporate brand fan pages on Facebook to spend my free time.”
Sema, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: “I don’t feel myself belonging to a group. I just like the products on Facebook pages of brands.”
Dilek, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: “No, I don’t feel like belonging to a group. It’s just something that I like.”
Nalan, Female, 20, Focus Group 3: “I sometimes feel it. For instance, I follow some clothing brands on Facebook. When I see people liking the same posts with me, I feel like we have the same style and have the same opinions.”

j. Being a consumer of the brands liked on Facebook
Most of the participants are consumers of the brands that they like on Facebook and they often shop from these brands. The participants don’t follow the brands that they don’t consume on Facebook. This finding is in parallel with the study of McCorkindale, Distaso and Sisco (2013) in which they found out that millennials were more likely to engage with organizations and corporations on social media if they were already engaged with the organization offline (Logan, 2014: 63).

k. Being “cool” with the corporate brand fan pages liked on Facebook
The brand fan pages that people like on Facebook are demonstrated on their profile. However, the participants thought that these corporate brand fan pages that they like on Facebook don’t make them look cool because everybody can like these pages by pushing the like button.

l. Whether the Facebook corporate brand pages reflect the image of the follower
The brands that people like are shown on their profiles on Facebook. The participants in focus group one were in the opinion that if they follow different brands from their friends, this will show them differently and they will reflect their own style. In focus group two, some of the participants thought that the Facebook brand pages that they had liked give some hints about themselves to other people. They said that the Facebook brand pages they
had liked reflect their personality and character. On the other hand, some of the participants said that their friends know them very well; therefore, they do not pay attention to these things. In focus group three, the participants said that what they like on Facebook brand pages reflect their tastes to other people especially concerning technology and clothes. However, there were some participants who didn’t participate in this idea, as well.

Kübra, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: If we like the same things then it doesn’t mean anything. But, if I like a brand fan page different from everybody else than it means something.

Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: We can think it this way. There is a shoe brand named Creepers Turkey. If follow this brand on Facebook while everybody else follow different brands, than this shoe brand reflects my style. If I am different than everybody else, then there is a meaning.

Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: Because every brand has a different style, I think it reflects our personality. This constitutes a foresight about us in other people’s minds probably.

Sema, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I don’t think it tells anything about my personality. My friends know who I am. I don’t think that they pay attention to that.

Yasemin, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I think they shouldn’t think this way, but my friends probably think that brands reflect a person’s personality.

Nalan, Female, 20, Focus Group 3: I think it tells something because everybody acts according to her/his own tastes.

n. Defending the corporate brand fan pages on Facebook to other people

In focus group one, some of the participants have an emotional bond with the brands that they like on Facebook. When they were asked whether they would defend the brands that they like on Facebook to other people, they said they would. Only a few of them said that, they wouldn’t defend them. In focus group two, most of the participants were the defenders of the brands that they liked on Facebook, as well. They mentioned that they would defend the brands as they like their products, models and quality. In focus group three, the participants said that they would defend the brands that they use in daily life too. In addition, one of them said that they would defend the brands that they don’t use but whose qualities they know. However, one of the participants said that he wouldn’t get into discussions about defending brands as brands’ main purpose is to consume people more.

Fatih, Male, 18, Focus Group 1: I will defend it. I can give a technological issue as an example. For instance, the device can be out of order and I would say look man this is a coincidence.

Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: I will defend it if somebody defames a brand that I like very much. I will say its good sides and defend it.

Aysenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I have an emotional bond. I will defend the brands in terms of quality.

Sema, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: I will defend them since I like all of their products. If somebody says that they are of poor quality I will be against him/her.

Nalan, Female, 20, Focus Group 3: I will defend a brand if I know its all details and even if I don’t use it in daily life.

Alihan, Male, 18, Focus Group 3: I wouldn’t defend them because their aim is to sell us and make us consume. I think getting into a discussion for this issue is meaningless.

n. Recommending the corporate brand fan pages on Facebook to friends

In focus group one, most of the participants recommends the brand fan pages that they like on Facebook to their friends. This indicates that electronic word of mouth is widespread among young people. However, some of them said that following a brand on Facebook is a personal decision. In focus group two, most of the young people don’t suggest the brand pages that they like on Facebook to their friends. They are afraid of wearing the same clothes and they don’t want to see the same thing on their friends and they want to be unique. In focus group three, the participants don’t recommend the brand fan pages that they like to their friends. They said that they let their friends know about the brands when there is a campaign.

Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: There might be a corporate brand fan page on Facebook that is suitable for her/him but that she/he is not aware of. I will recommend this page to her/him.

Elif, Female, 16, Focus Group 1: She/He can either follow the brand on Facebook or not. This is a personal decision, I don’t intervene in.
Sema, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: I don’t generally recommend the brands that I like on Facebook to my friends. I don’t want to be coinkydinky with the same clothes.

Furkan, Male, 17, Focus Group 2: I don’t recommend. I don’t want other people to have the same clothes with me.

Alihan, Male, 18, Focus Group 3: I don’t usually recommend. When I see a campaign, I will tell him/her about the campaign.

O. Liking and Commenting the Brand Posts on Facebook corporate brand fan pages

In focus group one, the participants are generally not active in commenting on the posts that brands share. Even if they like them, they think that commenting on the brand posts will not contribute anything to them. This situation demonstrates that interaction is low between brands and young people in the sample. In focus group two, the participants mentioned that they like the branded content on Facebook either for no reason or when they see something different. When their friends like the branded content on Facebook, the participants are also motivated to like them. The rest of the participants said that they look at the branded content on Facebook brand fan pages but they do not like them. In focus group three, young people said that they would like to see branded content that draw their attention. Then, they are more inclined to like the posts that brands share.

Kevser, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: I just like them and look at the comments, but I don’t make any comments.

Ülkü, Female, 17, Focus Group 1: I don’t make any comments below the posts. Even if I say “beautiful”, who is going to be influenced?

Ayşenur, Female, Focus Group 2: Yes, I like them, but I like them for no reason. I haven’t commented on them until now because there are so many people that I do not know and I don’t think there is a point. I don’t think that anything will change when I write “beautiful”.

Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: I can’t say that I like them. I just look at them and then scroll down to see the next thing on my newsfeed. I don’t see a point in making comments.

Furkan, Male, 17, Focus Group 2: Nike usually shares posts of sneakers on its Facebook brand fan page with Cristiano Ronaldo. My friends usually like these posts on Facebook. Then, I see that they liked them automatically in my newsfeed and I like them too. I don’t comment because the comments appear on the top of the newsfeed and everybody sees them.

Yasemin, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: If it draws my interest, I like it.

Begüm, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I don’t make any comments because I don’t read other people’s comments. If I make comments, they won’t read me. Therefore, there is no need.

p. Sharing posts in the timeline of brands’ corporate Facebook pages

In focus group one, all of the participants said that they do not share any posts in the timeline of brands’ corporate Facebook pages. Even if, some brands let their consumer to share posts on their timelines on Facebook, some brands do not let that because of their privacy settings. In focus group two and three, none of the participants share posts on brands’ timelines on Facebook, as well. This shows that interaction between young people in the sample and brands is low. In fact, what drives people to share a brand’s content is a topic covered by Yuki (2015) and according to her findings people share a brand’s content that makes him/her to look good (52%) and to look intelligent (36%). Furthermore, people share content that make them happy (%47) and which creates excitement (%24). Lastly, usefulness is another factor that drive people (especially women) to share a brand’s content (%48) (Yuki, 2015: 469).

q. Getting in touch with brand representatives via Facebook

In focus group one, the participants said that getting in touch with brand representatives via Facebook is not an effective method. They thought that brand representatives don’t pay attention to them because the ones who tried before could not get answers to their complaints. They said that going to the physical stores and handling the issues face to face is much easier. This indicates that interaction between young people in the sample and brands is low on Facebook. In focus group two, the participants thought that getting in touch with brand representatives through Facebook isn’t an effective method, as well. They said that brand representatives will either answer late or they won’t care. The participants underlined that conveying their complaints or suggestions through social media will not lead to any results. They also stressed that going to the stores and handling the issues face to face is easier. However, some of the participants said that they can try getting in touch with brand representatives through social media. In focus group three, most of the young people mentioned that they won’t get in touch with
brand representatives through social media, as well. They said that getting in touch with brand representatives won’t solve their problems. They solve their problems better by going to the physical stores. The statements of the participants show that interaction between young people in the sample and brands is low on Facebook.

Buşra, Female, 16, Focus Group 1: I haven’t got in touch with them before. But, if I like a product a lot and if I can’t find it in any stores, I’ll write to them through Facebook.

Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: I find face to face communication more understandable therefore I prefer face to face communication.

Hande, Female, 17, Focus Group 1: I don’t think that brand representatives care what is written by consumers on Facebook. Face to face communication is more effective.

Fatih, Male, 18, Focus Group 1: I tried before but it didn’t work. They didn’t give answers. I tried a lot. It was about a laptop broken down. I said give me an answer but there was no reply.

Ayşenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I think that I can get a late response via social media. I don’t think a complaint I made through Facebook will be taken care of. Therefore I find making complaints face to face more sensible.

Yasemin, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I didn’t have a need to get in touch with them before. But if I have to, I will get in touch with them through Facebook.

Dilek, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I got in touch with them once. I asked them the size of a shoe. They wrote me back.

Alihan, Male, 18, Focus Group 3: I also got in touch with them once. It was about a tablet that I bought. I talked with the representatives but it didn’t work well through Facebook. I brought the tablet back to the store that I bought it from and we fix the issue there.

Talking with other consumers on Facebook corporate brand fan pages.

In focus group one; the participants said that they don’t talk with other consumers on Facebook pages of brands. Young people don’t exchange their thoughts with other consumers. In focus group two, the participants don’t talk with the other consumers on Facebook brand fan pages, either. In focus group three, the participants mentioned that they don’t talk with other customers but read the comments of other customers. Some of the participants said that they prefer reading the customer reviews in forum sites rather than reading them on Facebook brand fan pages.

Dilek, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: I don’t talk with other customers on Facebook corporate brand fan pages.

Ayşenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I have never talked but I look at the comments from time to time.

Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: I also read the comments. I look at the bad and good comments. But, I have never talked.

Yasemin, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I don’t talk, but I read the comments. Sometimes a lot of comments are made under a product or an advertisement. I take heed of everybody’s opinion.

Alihan, Male, 18, Focus Group 3: I don’t generally read comments on Facebook brand fan pages, but I usually do from forum sites.

The relationship between liking brands on Facebook and purchasing products afterwards

In focus group one, most of the young people emphasized that after following the brand fan pages on Facebook that they like, they tend to shop afterwards. Most of the participants had this experience two or three times before. After seeing the products on Facebook brand fan pages, they purchased them either online or by going to the physical stores. Therefore, Facebook marketing looks like an effective method on young people. In focus group two, the participants stressed that after liking brands on Facebook and following their posts for a period of time, they have a tendency to shop afterwards. They mentioned that the branded content on Facebook draw their attention and they want to look at the stores subsequently. Most of the participants had this experience at least two or three times before. The participants in focus group three also remarked that they tend to shop after following branded content on Facebook fan pages of brands.

Kübra, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: Of course, I did it twice. For instance, I liked a shoe on a Facebook brand fan page. It was the shoe that was in my mind. When I saw it on Facebook, I said that was it. Afterwards, I went to the store and purchased it.

Aysema, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: It happens to me too. Looking at products on brands’ Facebook pages is easy and it is not exhausting. Once I liked a jacket on Facebook and bought it from a store afterwards.
Mert, Male, 17, Focus Group 1: First I look at the products through Facebook, and then I purchase them from the internet. Buying from the internet is better than walking through.

Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: Yes, it happens. I can have an idea about what the stores are selling by looking at brands Facebook pages. Then I say, oh this store is selling this pants and this store is selling this shirt. Then I say it’s good that I’ve seen these products on Facebook. Afterwards, I go to the stores and buy them. I had this experience three times before.

Ayşenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: Sometimes I saw that somebody wears something that I like. But I can’t ask her. Then I saw the same thing on Facebook and learn its price. Afterwards, I went to the store and bought a couple of things that way. I had this experience two times before.

Berfin, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I saw Converse sneakers on its Facebook page once and purchased it from a Converse store afterwards.

Yusuf, Male, 18, Focus Group 3: I think it directs us to purchasing behavior. We see the products on Facebook and like them. Their colors and qualities draw our attention. Then, I want to look at them at stores.

1. Whether banner advertisements on Facebook corporate brand fan pages draw attention or give disturbance

Most of the participants in focus group one find banner advertisements on Facebook very irritating. They highlighted that banner advertisements pop up and it is hard to close them. Some of the participants said that even though they don’t find banner advertisements irritating, banner advertisements don’t draw their attention. Accordingly, banner advertisements on Facebook brand fan pages don’t draw the attention of young people in the sample. In focus group two, the participants don’t pay attention to banner advertisements, as well. Since they connect to Facebook from their mobile phones most of the time, banner advertisement don’t show up on their Facebook pages. As they see the advertisements when they connect to Facebook from their laptops, they said that they find banner advertisements irritating. Therefore, they prefer not looking at them and they close them instead. In focus group three, most of the participants stressed that they ignore the banner advertisements on Facebook corporate brand fan pages. They mentioned that these advertisements are redundant and create a visual pollution. Some of the participants said that they don’t mind banner advertisements and they look at them to pass time. Since banner advertisements are targeted ads, they are related with the things that they like. One of the participant said that she shares her ten minutes every day by looking at banner advertisements on Facebook brand fan pages.

Büşra, Female, 16, Focus Group 1: Banner ads draw my attention. Whatever it is on the banner ad, I look at it.

Fatih, Male, 18, Focus Group 1: I find them very irritating. I try to close them every time. I try to ignore them.

Mert, Male, 17, Focus Group 1: I find banner ads disruptive. When the mouse clicks, a lot of things pop up and then I try to close them for a long time.

Ayşenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: Sometimes, they share campaigns on banner ads. When I see incredible discounts, they draw my attention. Something that costs 50 Turkish Liras can be promoted much cheaper on banner ads.

Yasemin, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: As I connect to Facebook from my smart phone, I don’t come across with banner ads.

Furkan, Male, 17, Focus Group 2: They never draw my attention. I find them irritating. I close them all the time.

Nurşirin, Female, 19, Focus Group 3: Banner ads create a visual pollution for me. I don’t like them. I ignore them most of the time.

Nalan, Female, 20, Focus Group 3: They draw my attention. I spend my ten minutes looking at them as they are target ads related with my interests.

2. Things that young people would like to see on Facebook corporate brand fan pages

In focus group one, most of the participants like fashion brands. However, none of the female and male participants in the focus group feel content as idealized human bodies different from the standart human body size are portrayed on brands’ fan pages on Facebook. As the female participants are not 1.80 cm tall and do not have a model’s body size, they said that they cannot visualize how the clothes that they see on Facebook brand fan pages fit on them. The female participants mentioned that pictures of models do not look real. Therefore, the standart Turkish women size should be considered. The male participants remarked that instead of muscular men bodies showing that they have been working out, the standart Turkish men size should be used. As it is seen, both female and male participants compare their body sizes with these idealized model bodies and feel bad about
them. The participants in focus group two want to see the campaigns and new products of brands on their Facebook brand fan pages. They said that brands should continually let their followers know about the promotions and sales. The participants in focus group three want brands to display their new products on their Facebook brand pages which products are sold the most. In addition, the participants in focus group three want to see the slogans and creative ideas of brands on their Facebook brand fan pages.

Buşra, Female, 16, Focus Group 1: I wish they share the pictures of normal people instead of beautiful models so that we can see how the clothes will look on us. Instead of 1.80 cm tall models, they should prefer models who are 1.65 cm tall.

Mert, Male, 17, Focus Group 1: I see something that I can buy on a Facebook page of a brand. But the model who wears it has a triangular body shape. The model’s arms are muscular. If I purchase that piece, I will be lost within it. The model is a sportsman of 5 years. I am a sportsman of six months. The brands display models who are above the average of a normal person’s size.

Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: Brands do not share every product that they have in their physical stores even in their websites. I want brands to continually share their new products on their Facebook pages because they usually do not update their websites.

Dilan, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: I look at brands’ Facebook pages when I decide to buy something. They show a product on their Facebook page but when I go to the store it is not present. Why do they show a product that is not present on their Turkish Facebook page?

Berfin, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I would like to see their new campaigns on their Facebook pages.

Nalan, Female, 20, Focus Group 3: I would like to see their slogans and their creative ideas on their Facebook pages.

Fatmanur, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I would like to see the products which are sold the most. This way, I can learn which style people like the most.

v. Whether Facebook marketing is effective on young consumers or not

In focus group one, some of the participants think that Facebook marketing is effective on young people, thus marketers should invest in it more. In focus group two, while some of the participants said that Facebook marketing is effective on young people, others pointed out that the new trend is Instagram. Thus marketers should invest in Instagram more. In focus group three, the participants underlined that Facebook marketing is effective on young people as young people spend most of their time on Facebook. However, some young people said that marketers should use other social media tools other than Facebook such as Instagram as Facebook is not fashionable any more. The participations who are the social media generation think that social media marketing leads to consumption.

Kübra, Female, 18, Focus Group 1: I think it affects because we first look at the posts on Facebook. Then, we look at the websites to see whether the products are available.

Şevval, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: I think Instagram marketing is more effective because most of the people that are around me are on Instagram.

Furkan, Male, 17, Focus Group 2: I think marketers should be canalized to other social networking sites. People share empty words on Facebook and Facebook turned into a place where idleness people hang out. Facebook is out of date. It’s a place where our relatives hang out.

Yusuf, Male, 18 Focus Group 3: Of course, it is effective. Most of the young people pass their whole time on Facebook. I think it is a very influential.

Dilek, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I think it is effective but it is not enough. They should supplement Facebook marketing with other social media tools such as Instagram. This way, it will be more effective.

Begüm, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I think it affects. We are all kids of social media generation. Facebook marketing leads to consumption.

Fatmanur, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I think it is effective because we see the posts on Facebook and they somehow stay in our minds.

w. Shopping through Facebook

Most of the brands in Turkey do not have a shopping option on their Facebook brand fan pages. When the participants were asked whether they consider doing shopping from Facebook brand fan pages, they said that they have doubts. Most of the participants mentioned that they don’t find shopping through Facebook safe. Thus, they will prefer websites. Also, some of them said that doing shopping from physical stores by wandering...
Arounds is more fun and meaningful. Although, some of the participants said that doing shopping through Facebook with a few clicks will be very easy and convenient. In focus group 2, the participants said that they won’t do shopping through Facebook if such an opportunity appears in the future. One of the participant said that she did shopping via Instagram. However she had difficulties in terms of getting the right size and changing the product. The participants said that they prefer touching and trying the product that they will buy. They stressed that shopping through the internet is not trustable. Although, some of the participants mentioned that they do shopping from virtual shopping sites such as Morhipoor Trendyol. Also, coming across with a fake Facebook account and giving their credit card number to this fake site is another element that deters young people from shopping through Facebook. In focus group three, most of the participants said that they don’t find shopping from Facebook safe as well. The participants prefer shopping from physical stores rather than the internet and they said that they may do shopping from Facebook if there will be an option to pay from the door.

Fatih, Male, 18, Focus Group 1: I will buy probably. You can order a pizza with four clicks. Why not order something with four clicks to our door?
Hande, Female, 17, Focus Group 1: I wouldn’t buy. It’s not safe and it isn’t fun. Shopping is something everybody likes. I find shopping by wandering around more enjoyable. It’s more meaningful.
Aysenur, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: Once I did from Instagram. I bought a shirt but it was small. I had difficulty in changing it afterwards. Thus, I don’t think I will buy something through Facebook.
Gizem, Female, 17, Focus Group 2: It needs to prove me that it is trustable, then I can buy from it. I do shopping from virtual shopping sites such as Morhipo and when I have a problem, they can solve it.
Sevval, Female, 18, Focus Group 2: If it gives me guaranty that it will solve my problem when I have a problem, I will prefer doing shopping through Facebook.
Berfin, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: I wouldn’t buy either. Once I bought a shoe from the internet. I received something different from what I saw in the picture on the website. I had difficulty in returning it.
Begüm, Female, 18, Focus Group 3: As long as there is a payment option at the door, I will buy through Facebook.

Discussion
According to the results of this research, the motivations of young Turkish students representing the Generation Z to follow brand fan pages on Facebook are learning about the campaigns and promotions and seeing the new products and services with their prices. One of the significant finding of this research is that most of the participants in the research were inclined to shopping after following the brand fan pages on Facebook that they liked. They had this experience two or three times before as they spend most of their time on Facebook. Thus, most of the participants highlighted that Facebook marketing is effective on young people. They stressed that Facebook marketing targeting the Generation Z is not a waste of time for brands. However, the participants also pointed out that companies should use other social networking tools such as Instagram which is the trendiest social media a tool among young students. The participants in the research also want brands to display every product that they have in their physical stores on their Facebook page but they don’t want idealized human bodies displaying the products. Instead, they would like to see average human bodies on brands’ Facebook pages. Most of the participants were hesitant about shopping through Facebook. They assume that shopping from Facebook will not be safe. However, some of them think that if there will be such an option in the future, they are willing to try it as it will be more convenient and fast. This study showing the motivations of young Turkish student representing the Generation Z to follow brand fan pages on Facebook will be helpful to marketers in determining their communication strategies on Facebook brand fan pages.

References


Human Activity Recognition Based on 2d Texture Signal Pattern Analysis

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Abstract

Human activity recognition is an important research area of computer vision which dictates the need to automatically detect and retrieve semantic events in videos based on video contents. In this paper, we attempt to extract the foreground object from the video clip using color model and generate a unique signal pattern for the detected foreground (human). Signal pattern is generated for the extracted 2D texture features and the most significant features are selected using feature selection method. For each detected object, we can study its corresponding motion pattern, entry/exist points, and behavior patterns. Based on this information, it is efficient to improve the object detection and track the abnormal event occurrence. Experiments were performed on KTH dataset, High-Level Human interaction dataset and real time video dataset. The empirical results show that 85% of accuracy based on precision/recall measure was obtained, and the ability to recognize the activities in real time shows the promise for applied use.

Keywords: Human Activity Recognition, Texture Feature, 2D Texture Signal Pattern.

Introduction

In recent days, automatic human activity recognition plays an important role in the research area of computer vision. It has gained its importance in the field of video surveillance, healthcare monitoring system, interaction between human and monitoring the activities of pedestrian in traffic...etc. In all the above mentioned applications automatic recognition of complex human activities, is a combination of single or multiple human interactions which are crucial cue for activity recognition. On the other hand, recognizing human activities in a dynamic scenario is a challenging task due to its camera location, illumination changes, and variations in dynamic environment and occlusions in the frame sequences. An action is a process of performing some set of action to achieve something which leads to an activity. Hence the main objective of the system is to automatically classify the different activities performed by the humans. Humans perform different types of activities. Based on the complexity, the human activities are diversified into different levels like boxing, walking, running, jumping etc... All the above mentioned activities fall under the category of gesture classification. The main objective of the proposed system is to focus on different scenario in recognizing various human activities happening in video.

This system focus on the detection of visible low-level action primitives and actions by using wave pattern analysis. Detect the foreground objects automatically in every consecutive frames of the video in content based video retrieval system. Then wave pattern is detected for foreground objects in every frame by using texture features. This wave pattern is used to train the classifier. It should give alert about the activity of humans automatically. Different types of features are extracted in order to identify the different activities performed by humans in videos. In earlier days the different activities performed by humans were classified based on their shape, texture, color and motion. Using these extracted features it is really hard to classify the different actions performed by humans in real time scenarios due to variation in illumination, occlusion and changing background environment. In order to overcome these challenges, various feature points are extracted from the human pose to model different human actions.

Related Work

Human Activity Recognition (Gaglio, 2015) proposed 3-D posture using High-level information which are obtained from "Kinect" to learn the different activities performed by humans. Machine learning techniques were used to identify and model the different kind of activities performed on Kinect Activity Recognition Dataset. The system was able to achieve the precision and recall of 77.3% and 76.7% respectively. The
misclassification rate was high during the frame loss and body occlusion scenarios. An adaptive foreground detection method (Singh, 2008) was proposed to extort data related with various activities performed by humans. Values obtained from the directional vectors were used to group the mixture of activities carried out by humans. Time taken to recognize the different activities and to minimize the errors, vibrant characteristics is taken into consideration. The training data set has to be changed for detecting people with different body structure. The CRRs was in between 85% to 99% for eight different activities when the temporal smoothing was not applied in the detection system. But, recognition rate was about 100% when the temporal smoothing was applied in the detection system. Fuzzy models in vector quantization and linear discriminant analysis methods (Iosifidis, 2012) were applied to understand the linear combinations of patterns for representing different activities. The proposed method was able to identify the person performing different activities in various viewing angles. Centroid location plays a vital role in classifying the different activities. By using the accumulation of different centroid information the system was able to identify the person using a Bayesian approach. The recognition rate was about 97.08% using 340 dynemes. The system has to be modified if the detection has to be performed on different types of applications. Bag-of-words (Mukherjee, 2011) method was proposed which consists of large vocabulary of poses and extracts a distinct pose using centrality measure of key poses. It calculates the histogram of oriented field vectors only for a single person and this method is not suitable for key pose detection of multiple people in a particular frame. The system outperforms well for single person, activity recognition and it has to be improved for multiple person activity detection.

A context space model (Wiliem, 2012) was proposed for detecting anomalous behavior in the entire video sequence. Context information is very much useful to create a detection system. Whereas in the existing surveillance system, the use of contextual information is limited, in automatic anomalous human behavior detection. This context space model provides guidelines for the system designers to select information which can be used to describe context and also enables a system to distinguish between different contexts. Context space is defined as a n-dimensional information space formed by context parameters selected from the contextual information as its bases. The use of contextual information in these approaches is still limited. The recognition rate is 93.4%.

Network-transmission-based algorithm (Lin, 2014) was proposed to identify the human activities in video sequences. Using the network concept, the node represents the particular scene in the video sequence and the correlations between the scenes are represented using the edge information. The movements of humans in the video sequence are related to the packages in the network and they are monitored as transmission in the network. The main drawback of the proposed system is it will stop recognizing the activity after identifying the abnormality in the video sequence and the position of the camera is fixed at a particular position. An articulated and generalized Gaussian Kernel Correlation (Ding, 2016) method was applied to detect the different kind of human pose. The Gaussian Kernel correlation was used to represent the similarity between the previous templates and they were represented using SoG variants. Shape modeling was done using the information gained from the kinematic skeleton in a multivariate SoG template.

**Proposed System Overview**

The main aim of the automatic surveillance system is to extract the human body region in the dynamic environment with illumination variation at an instantaneous time rate. The challenges include how to identify the human region in each frame and how to extract the specific feature which describes the human and background in real time scenario. The existing techniques cannot be incorporated into the proposed system due to its specific significance. Figure 1 shows the intact architectural view of the proposed work. Real time video is taken and it is converted into frame sequence for monitoring the continuous variation at each time instant precisely. RGB based input frames are converted into HSV color space since these models are more responsive to human eyes and they have direct impact on human perception. HSV color space based GMM model is used for subtracting the background to identify the foreground objects.

To extract the region of interest i.e. human from the background, connected component and pre-processing techniques like filtering and morphological operations were performed to get a fine tuned foreground objects. The texture pattern of the foreground objects are derived by applying transformation based method. The derived energy values are used to estimate the various activity performed by humans. Multiclass SVM classifier is trained with large dataset of different human activities like single person actions and human-human interactions. Each and every minute action is considered to note down the difference in the activities performed by humans.
Different actions performed by humans will be distinct because the energy value graph is unique for each activity.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1. Proposed architecture diagram**

**Human Activities Training And Detection With 2d Texture Signal Pattern**

In this part, an elaborated steps about the 2D texture signal pattern to differentiate the human or non-human and identification of different activities performed will be discussed. The detailed description required for training and identifying the activities are given in this section.

**A. Transformation Based 2D Texture Pattern Description**

In this paper, the texture pattern for human action is obtained using 2D Fourier transform. Let us consider a real-time color video (V) which consists of ’n’ number of frames (f) denoted as f1, f2,...fn. Each video sequence is denoted as I(x,y,t) where (x,y) denotes the position co-ordinates of each pixel at particular time period t. The RGB color model, are converted into HSV color space and Gaussian mixture model is used to extract the moving foreground object from the image sequence. The probability of the current pixel Xt is calculated by

\[ P(X_t) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \omega_{i,t} \cdot (X_t, \mu_{i,t}, \Sigma_{i,t}) \]  

(1)

where K is the number of distributions in the mixture, \( \omega_{i,t} \) represents the weight of Kth distribution in frame t, \( \mu_{i,t} \) represents the mean of Kth distribution in frame t, \( \Sigma_{i,t} \) denotes the standard deviation of Kth distribution in frame t and \( (X_t, \mu_{i,t}, \Sigma_{i,t}) \) denotes the probability density function. A threshold value will be fixed, if the current pixel value exceeds the threshold value it will be considered as a foreground object. After the extraction of foreground object, non-human objects are removed using morphological operators followed by blob analysis. Fourier transformation technique is applied on the human region H(i,j) of blob size MxN using the equation

\[ F(k,l) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} H(i,j) \cdot e^{-i2\pi k \frac{i}{M} l \frac{j}{N}} \]  

(2)

where the power spectrum obtained in frequency domain contains both phase and magnitude values. Phase values pose a smaller amount of information about the human region where as the magnitude coefficients are used to analyze the different properties of texture. The intensity value obtained by applying Fourier transformation is wide in range and logarithmic transformation is applied over it to bring down the dynamic range of human image by substituting every intensity values by its logarithm. The logarithm transformation is evaluated by using

\[ L(i,j) = k \log(1 + |H(i,j)|) \]  

(3)

where k represents the scaling constant of an intensity value with a maximum value of 255. Texture values contain the information about the irregularity, directionality and coarseness properties of human region. The energy level is more in high frequency section for the irregularity texture patterns. The magnitude value represents the direction in which the human region is moving. Motion vector values are estimated for the human
region as a result of texture classification. So motion vector values are generated using magnitude vector values in each frame at a particular time t.

B. Feature Extraction

Motion analysis of human region is a significant thing in human activity recognition. The feature vector generated out of motion analysis identifies the region where the movement has taken place in the frame sequences at a particular time instant t. Motion descriptors are generated by extracting the dominant feature set of different human actions bounded by bounding box in each frame sequence to describe the different kind of actions performed by humans. This is carried out by applying optical flow method on each bounding boxes in each frame sequence. Texture - Motion descriptor TM is divided into horizontal TMH and vertical THV section which carries the relevant information about the motion descriptor. The TMH and TMV motion descriptors are estimated using optical flow where \( TM_H = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_h\} \), \( h \) represents number of horizontal motion components and \( TM_V = \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_v\} \), \( v \) represents number of vertical motion components. The TM feature vector \( F = \{\mu_1, \mu_2, ..., \mu_n, \mu_e\} \) are generated by computing the mean (\( \mu \)) and energy (\( e \)) values of human region where \( n \) denotes the number of video frames. The features such as mean and energy are calculated for the human region of blob size I x J using the following equations

\[
\text{Mean} = \frac{TM_H + TM_V}{n} \tag{4}
\]

\[
\text{Energy} = \sum_{i=0}^{h-1} \sum_{j=0}^{v-1} |H(s, t)|^2 \tag{5}
\]

C. Activity Pattern Generation

The human activities can be divided into two different classes purely based on the actions they perform 1) Low - level activities and 2) High - level activities. Low - level activities deals with the actions performed by a single person like walking, running, jumping..., etc. High - level activities is an integration of several kind of single human actions. The human actions are mainly classified with selection of feature parameters taken for consideration. The energy level \( e_L \) keeps on varying for different kind of human activities. As the energy values cannot be directly taken from the frame sequences, it undergoes transformation to measure the motion vector direction with respect to Rotation, Scaling and Translation properties. Consider a human activity dataset D which comprises of single or complex type of human activities, each of which generates a set of TM feature vectors and their own energy levels \( e_L \).The generated feature vectors are used to differentiate the infinitesimal changes between different classes of actions. For example, energy level \( e_L \) of the single person activity \( E_s = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_{	ext{single}}\} \) varies with respect to the different poses of human throughout the entire video sequence. Where \( a_{\text{single}} \) represent the individual activity performed by human for instance ‘a1 ’represents walking activity and \( a_2 \) represents running activity and it goes on for KTH dataset. For UT Interaction dataset (human - human interaction) consists of several complex activities \( E_c \) and energy level \( e_L \) is given as \( E_c = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_{\text{complex}}\} \), where \( b_{\text{complex}} \) represents the interaction between person and the energy level for such kind of interactions will be different and unique. For example, ‘b1′ represents the handshake interaction and ‘b2′ represents the pushing interaction and the activities go on for UT interaction dataset.

D. Classifier

Classification using machine learning techniques are widely used for human activity recognition system. The classifiers are modeled using the energy level \( e_L \) pattern to identify the type of activities performed by humans. The training set \( C = \{C_1, C_2\} \), where \( C_1 \) represents the human activity performed by single person and \( C_2 \) represents the human - human interaction between two or more than two persons. The multi - class SVM classifier are used to two different classes separately. Let us consider a training set \( S = \{s_1, s_2, ..., s_{\text{single}}\} \), which represents the different kind of activities performed by a single person (walking, jumping, running,...) and their corresponding energy level \( e_L \) are given as \( E_s = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_{\text{single}}\} \). When new test video are given as input to the automatic monitoring system, the class given as an output represents any one of the’s’ associated classes from the given equation,

\[
T(S) = C_1 \quad \text{argmax} \ f(a, \text{single}) \tag{6}
\]

Similarly for UT interaction dataset (human-human interaction dataset) the training set is given as \( M = \{m_1, m_2, ..., m_{\text{complex}}\} \), where ‘m‘ represents the different kind of interaction (complex actions) taking place in
particular video sequence and their corresponding energy level is given as \( E_c = \{ b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{\text{complex}} \} \). For new instances, the multi-class SVM classifies the activities based on their energy level using the following condition,

\[
T'(M) = S_2 (\arg\max f (b, \text{complex}))
\]

By this process the multi-class SVM was able to classify the different kind of activities performed by humans and generate a unique pattern for different type of activities.

**Experimental Results**

The proposed method was tested on KTH and UT Interaction datasets. The KTH dataset contains six different kind of human activities performed by a single person with different environmental conditions. In total there are 2391 sequences in the entire database at 25fps frame rate. The average time of the video sequence is about 4 sec with image resolution of 160x120 pixels. Figure 1 shows the sample from KTH dataset. The UT interaction dataset consists of six various kind of human- human interaction with the average video length of 1 minute approximately. On an average there are 20 video sequences with resolution of 720x480 pixels at 30fps frame rate. The height of a person in all the video was about 200 pixels and they are taken with 15 different clothing conditions. The video consists of 10 set of video sequence taken in parking scenario with background static and small camera jitter. Figure 1 shows sample video sequence from both datasets.

![Sample frame sequences](image)

After extracting the energy level values for each human activities the wave pattern are generated to represent the movement of human and the energy spent for that particular action. In figure 2 the energy level variation are given for different human activities for both datasets and they are unique wave pattern for the particular actions. These energy values are given as input to the multi-class SVM to classify the human activity. Figure 2(a) shows the output for energy level variation of two different activities for entire video sequence of KTH dataset. Whereas, Figure 2(b) shows the energy level variations of particular activity (handshake) for the entire frame sequences.

![Energy level variations](image)
The multi-class SVM classifier was used to train and test the different kind of human activities performed in both KTH and UT Interaction video sequences. With the information generated from the human activity energy pattern the system was automatically able to classify the action performed in each and every frame sequences. Figure 3(a) shows the result of activity classification for KTH dataset and (b) shows the result for UT Interaction classification for handshake human activity.

The confusion matrices for both KTH and UT Interaction dataset are shown in the Table I and Table II respectively. They are derived from the energy feature vectors which are extracted transformation based pixel information. The 2D texture signal pattern model gets an accuracy of 85.3 % for KTH dataset and 84.374 % for UT Interaction dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KTH dataset</th>
<th>UT interaction dataset</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>(b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3</td>
<td>Multi-class SVM human activity classification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table I Confusion matrices accuracy percentage of KTH dataset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Handclap</th>
<th>Boxing</th>
<th>Walking</th>
<th>Running</th>
<th>Waving</th>
<th>Jogging</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handclap</td>
<td>83.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waving</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>87.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II Confusion matrices accuracy percentage of UT Interaction dataset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Handshake</th>
<th>Kicking</th>
<th>Pushing</th>
<th>Hugging</th>
<th>Pointing</th>
<th>Punching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handshake</td>
<td>84.76</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15.24</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kicking</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pushing</td>
<td>10.15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>82.75</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hugging</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>87.98</td>
<td>12.02</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16.46</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>83.54</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punching</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14.54</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>85.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Our proposed method shows that each and every activity performed by human will have their own energy level and they can be classified based on their unique energy patterns. The proposed system performed well and produced a better accuracy than the existing system as shown below. Table 1 and Table 2 shows the comparison of KTH and UT Interaction dataset respectively with different existing methods and their accuracy rate of classifying the human activities based on the different kind of feature points.

### Table III Performance comparison of KTH dataset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and Year</th>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Classifier</th>
<th>Accuracy (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Schuldt, 2004)</td>
<td>Spatiotemporal intensity points</td>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>71.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Ke, 2005)</td>
<td>Optical Flow</td>
<td>Boosting</td>
<td>62.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Dollar, 2005)</td>
<td>Gabor Filter</td>
<td>1 – NN</td>
<td>81.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Oikonomopoulos, 2009)</td>
<td>B- Splines</td>
<td>Gentle Boost + RVM</td>
<td>80.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROPOSED METHOD</strong></td>
<td><strong>Energy Points</strong></td>
<td><strong>Multi – Class SVM</strong></td>
<td><strong>85.08</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table IV Performance comparison of UT interaction dataset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and Year</th>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Classifier</th>
<th>Accuracy (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Laptev, 2005)</td>
<td>Space-time interest points</td>
<td>Naïve Bayes</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Laptev, 2005)</td>
<td>Space-time interest points</td>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>65.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Dollar, 2005)</td>
<td>Sparse spatio-temporal points</td>
<td>Naïve Bayes</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Dollar, 2005)</td>
<td>Sparse spatio-temporal points</td>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Leibe, 2008)</td>
<td>Scale-invariant interest point</td>
<td>Hough Forest</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROPOSED METHOD</strong></td>
<td><strong>Energy Points</strong></td>
<td><strong>Multi – Class SVM</strong></td>
<td><strong>85.08</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conclusion

The proposed model for human activity recognition uses the energy pattern for recognizing the different kind of activities performed by KTH and UT Interaction dataset. The multi-class SVM classifier performs well and was able to improve the accuracy rate of classification. The different kind of human movements were efficiently recognized using new kind of feature points. As a future work the system will be trained to identify and recognize the different kind of human activities in dynamic environment.

### References


Immersed in Difficulty: The Problem of Suspension of Disbelief in Transmedia and VR Experiences

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Abstract.
The term Immersion is used widely in professional discourse and industry publications within the UK/US TV and film industries, not only as a self-evident aim of Transmedia and VR content, but also as an achievable goal. Unlike games industries, TV and cinema have traditionally taken the notion of Suspension of Disbelief (SoD) as relatively self-evident, and Immersion appears as its logical extension. Beginning with Holland’s (1967) psychoanalytical approach to SoD as removal of the ‘desire to act’ function by ‘framing’ texts away from reality, this paper suggests that by including the ‘frame’ within the experience in Transmedia and VR, SoD is not achievable and therefore any attempts to approach Immersion in this way will fail. The paper argues that Immersion in such experiences is possible, if approached in the sense that Salen & Zimmerman (2004) suggest, where the actual act of involvement becomes the immersive experience, and not the displacement of sense and story.

Paper.
All forms of entertainment strive to create suspension of disbelief, a state in which the [...] mind forgets that it is being subjected to entertainment and instead accepts what it perceives as reality.
François Dominic Laramée; ‘Immersion’

Broadcasters are planning to take viewers beyond traditional flat-screen viewing and tell stories in increasingly immersive ways in 2016.
Alex Farber; ‘Broadcast Magazine’. January 2016

We were interested in how we could make short-form drama more immersive and ideally help us to reach younger audiences. We wanted to up the levels of interaction, but not distract people from the story.
Robin Moore; BBC Head of Innovation. May 2016

In the last decade, a new lexicon of terminology and ideas that have previously been more generally associated with the computing and games industries, has been seen with increasing frequency in the discourse and industry publications of the UK and US television and film industries. In TV alone, programme-makers are now content-producers and programmes are asset-brands; multiplatform and multi-touchpoint in nature, and based around UX design concepts with developmental analytics, IP/API workflows and ‘3G’ commissioning just some of the ongoing computing-inspired hot-topics in the industry. In terms of contemporary content, one term stands out as becoming synonymous with film and TV industries’ efforts to offer new audience-pleasing experiences, and also as a byproduct, synonymous with the technology being trialed to produce these experiences, such as Transmedia-technologies and Virtual Reality. This term is Immersion.

This paper argues that immersion within Transmedia and Virtual Reality experiences is a misleading concept, in need of interrogation and classification, and moreover that it is not possible to achieve, if the definition of immersion is taken to be similar to Laramée’s quote above. This is to do with it being – in this form - the logical extension of the idea of suspension of disbelief, itself a term regularly treated as being somewhat self-evident in traditional television and film experiences. However, the paper also argues that immersion in Transmedia and VR content is possible, if approached in the sense that Salen & Zimmerman (2004) suggest, where the actual act of involvement becomes the immersive experience, rather than the displacement of sense and story.

It is important at this stage to emphasise precisely what is being discussed concerning immersion and its relationship to TV and film experiences. The paper does not focus directly on the actual act of ‘immersion’ in VR and Transmedia, although this naturally plays an important part in the discussion, but instead its relationship to the experiences intended by film and TV professionals, wanting a more immersive experience for the types of
content already produced. Narrative fiction springs readily to mind for example, or factual content that aims to bring the viewer ‘closer’ to the subject perhaps, or maybe interaction in TV entertainment formats. We can see the twin aims of contemporary TV and film in this approach; on the one hand to create more engaging experiences to reach new audiences, and on the other, potentially to find new ways to access audience analytic data to help reduce the risk of unpopularity inherent in creating new content. The reason this definition is important is that the immersive capacities of these technologies are currently being investigated widely in many fields; within VR alone for example, experiences such as the Galactica ride at UK theme park Alton Towers, political art pieces such as The Guardian’s 6x9: Solitary Confinement piece or the iAnimal animal rights experience, and Royal London Hospital’s live VR surgery transmission are all texts that stand apart from the subjects discussed in this paper. For example, in terms of the ‘immersive’ nature of the technology itself, the recent success of the Oxford University team using VR to treat patients suffering from social anxiety and paranoia offers evidence of the technology’s capacity to partially ‘fool the senses’ in the manner seemingly expressed by Laramée above. This paper then will focus specifically on whether the introduction of these technologies into the content we normally associate with TV and film will actually create the desired immersive experiences that producers are looking for, and indeed whether ‘immersion’ should even be a goal of doing so.

It is perhaps no surprise that we can discuss the shift in terminology mentioned above as occurring over the last ten years, since it has now been a decade since Jenkins (2006) first coined the term ‘Transmedia’, and the concepts that it embodies – differing as they did at the time from the unsuccessful convergence strategy of ‘360’ (‘360 Commissioning’, ‘360 Technologies’) – have been gradually filtering into the way programmes and films are conceived, pitched, commissioned and produced since. It was in relation to Transmedia content and experiences that ‘immersion’ began to be used with frequency in industry debate and publications, and while of course the term was in-use prior to this to discuss more traditional film and television experiences, the implied meaning and use of the term in relation to Transmedia inferred something more, as we shall see. More recently again, the current race amongst various production companies and studios to harness the potential of Virtual Reality - especially coinciding as it does with the capacity to produce ‘filmed’ VR content in a meaningful way for the first time - has seen the idea of ‘immersion’ and pursuit of ‘immersive content’ come to the fore as both a self-evident goal, and a byword for new technological experiences. It is worth mentioning at this point that while we use the term Virtual Reality in relation to the 360-degree content being produced for TV and film, the correct definition of Virtual Reality is an experience similar to that newly offered by the HTC Vive, where users participate and interact with an experience. What we are concerned with currently in TV and film is simply 360-degree filmed or animated content in which the audience member has no participatory function other than to watch, either on a screen or via a headset. However, the industry has appropriated the ‘VR’ term to refer to this content, and for the sake of consistency this paper will do the same.

What is interesting about both Transmedia and VR is that their underlying principles are a lot less contemporary than some of their current film and television proponents seem ready to acknowledge; Virtual Reality has of course been in conceptual existence at least since the 1980s, and while Transmedia as a term is a 21st Century concept, the idea of multi-form narratives and even the ‘rabbit-hole’ story experiences we associate with it could be argued to be traceable back to texts such as The Wizard of Oz in the early 20th Century for example, or perhaps Japan’s Media Mix from the 1950s and 1960s onwards. Indeed, given that both technologies bear more than a passing resemblance to ideas that existed first in the realms of science-fiction (for example, Phillip K. Dick’s Eye in the Sky (1957) or The Electric Ant (1969) arguably predict such technologies with storylines involving computer-controlled realities) andthere is of course a strong tradition of theorists discussing the potential debates surrounding technologies before they actually exist, as a result there is now a wealth of excellent predictive theory on both disciplines. Ryan for example noted in 2001 that “…since the idea of VR is very much a part of our cultural landscape, we don’t have to wait [until the new century reaches adulthood] to explore the perspectives it opens on representation”. In addition, the idea of immersion that has started to become associated with both Transmedia and VR has already been widely debated by ludologists writing about the games industry for many years, with perhaps the most traditional interpretation of the term – as outlined by Laramée above – arguably disproven on a number of occasions. Yet despite this, the many lessons learned by that industry and predicted by various theorists appear to have been either overlooked or bypassed by the contemporary film and TV industries in their approach to Transmedia and VR, an approach that this paper contends is erroneous and problematic, as we shall see.
To understand why this might be, we must first look at what is being referred to by the term ‘immersion’. Farber’s use above is just one example of the loosely-defined and interchangeable way that it is being introduced to contemporary TV discourse; both as a desirable outcome for programme-makers and audiences alike, and also as an achievable one through technology (the inference that moving content away from ‘traditional flat screens’ will make it more immersive). Moore’s comment (above) in relation to VR for BBC Children’s experiences being more ‘immersive’ is a similar case in point. Both examples illustrate the way the term is being regularly used in relation to TV content and audiences, and both appear to incorporate the term in a manner similar to Laramée’s example.

One method of interpreting Laramée might be in an almost Cartesian sense, which at its most extreme perspective would share more than a passing resemblance to the central mechanism of classic ‘solipsist’ sci-fi narratives, such as perhaps The Matrix or Existenz. The notion that sensory input we experience from eyes and ears, and perhaps in the future from tactile and olfactory senses, might one day be so richly detailed and persuasive that we are no longer able to penetrate its artifice – we are sensorily displaced – is well-known, but also not especially credible as an explanation of his intention. A more sympathetic interpretation of the quote reads it as simply attempting to convey the form of immersion we are familiar with when we experience the more traditional ‘displacement’ effect of media texts, such as literature, radio, television and movies. As Ryan (2001) notes, the language we use to describe the process of reading a good book, as an example, is worthy of a novel itself.

The reader plunges under the sea (immersion), reaches a foreign land (transportation), is taken prisoner (being caught up in the story, being a captured audience) and loses contact with all other realities (being lost in a book).

Interestingly, whether one takes the science-fiction interpretation of immersion, or the more traditional literary sense of the term as the flesh on the bones of Laramée’s statement, both point to the idea of the audience member being removed from their understanding of space and time in the present moment, and being displaced elsewhere, what Salen and Zimmerman (2004) describe as the ‘Immersive Fallacy’.

The immersive fallacy is the idea that the pleasure of a media experience lies in its ability to sensually transport the participant into an illusory, simulated reality. According to the immersive fallacy, this reality is so complete that ideally the frame falls away so that the player truly believes that he or she is part of an imaginary world.

It is perhaps understandable that this interpretation of Immersion would naturally dovetail with technologies such as VR and Transmedia; both are designed to place the audience member within the content, with VR removing the participant sensorily from their current environment, and Transmedia placing the audience member in a participatory role of decision-making and interaction with the narrative. We may even be able to state – in the case of VR at least – that the participant is immersed, at least in terms of sense-data, as in the case of the Oxford University ‘paranoia’ project mentioned above. However, in the sense that we are referring to as ‘displacement immersion’ and which is inferred by the quotes above, both technologies have an inherent contradiction that renders them unable to provide this type of content immersion for traditional film and TV experiences, such as drama or documentary pieces.

Salen and Zimmerman actually interrogate the same Laramée quote above as their example of the immersive fallacy, and in writing about the way immersion relates to computer games, offer their own reasons for the abandonment of the ‘displacement’ notion of immersion from a ludological perspective. For our purposes, another aspect of Laramée’s quote is instructive in discussing the relationship between immersion and Transmedia/non-participatory VR in relation to TV/film content, and that is ‘suspension of disbelief’. While not perhaps a universally accepted view, nevertheless suspension of disbelief still continues to be a tacitly acknowledged interpretation of the way in which audiences interact with especially fictional texts in film and television.

Television entertainment involves the social convention of the “willing suspension of disbelief”, in which we, for a brief time, agree to accept the characters portrayed onscreen as real human beings so that we can identify with them and experience their joys and sorrows. (Harris & Sanborn, 2014)
Again I have focused on television particularly as in the UK this is an industry where there are significant efforts being made to understand and implement the technologies of Transmedia and VR, and also because the nature of television content is regularly long-form, meaning that the notion of suspension of disbelief on the part of television audiences can continue uninterrupted for months and years for the same characters and story-worlds, and even for decades in the case of certain well-known soap opera characters. Suspension of disbelief is therefore inherently linked with television and film in terms of the generally accepted understanding of the ways in which audiences interact with content, and it is therefore also understandable that film and TV professionals moving into Transmedia and VR content production will approach these new platforms from that same perspective. However, to do so is a fundamental mistake, as both traditional suspension of disbelief, and its then-associated notion of ‘displacement immersion’ cannot effectively apply to either platform.

An examination of suspension of disbelief will reveal the problem, and for this we must needs move on from Coleridge’s initial coining of the term in relation to ‘poetic faith’ in 1817, turning instead to Holland and his continuing work on the psychology and psychoanalysis of suspension of disbelief as an act. In his early interpretation of the term, Holland (1967) discusses how a text must fulfil certain criteria in order to allow an audience to suspend disbelief, namely that in order to recognise that a text will provide us with an entertainment pleasure, we must be able to ‘trust’ it, and this trust comes from the recognised ‘unreality’ of the text. We trust in works of art to give us pleasure, but it must be a pleasure from things merely imaginary. Should the pleasure seem to be a pleasure from real things, we no longer trust the work of art que work of art.

In Salen and Zimmerman’s point above, they mention the concept of the work providing the immersion as being framed - the ‘frame falls away’ - and this is closely related to Holland’s interpretation of suspension of disbelief, as he suggests that in order for this trust to take place, and for this ‘unreality’ to be perceived, the text must be ‘framed’ away from reality, to be clearly positioned as an unreal and therefore trustworthy, pleasure-inducing artefact.

The conventions of art establish an isolation. We frame the picture, house it in a museum, surround it with “Do Not Touch” signs. Poems and cartoons are printed in such a way that we immediately recognise them as separate. Plays happen in special places – I remember one theatre where you had to cross water (a moat) to enter that half-magic world. Short stories and novels are often labelled as such – certainly a sentence or two tells us we are dealing with fiction, not “truth”.

Holland’s conclusion from this is that during suspension of disbelief, audiences are effectively able to disconnect the ‘planning to act’ function of the brain from the enjoyment of the text. He suggests an example of moviegoers recognising that they can enjoy the thrill of a scary film for example, without the need to fear for their own safety. Updating this theory with a neuro-psychoanalytic explanation in 2003, he suggests that suspension of disbelief has four parts:

1. we no longer perceive our bodies
2. we no longer perceive our environment
3. we no longer judge probability or reality-test
4. we respond emotionally to the fiction as though it were real

His conclusion is that in ‘turning off’ our ‘desire to act’ function, we effectively shut-down the prefrontal cortex of the brain responsible for our ability to ‘plan to act’ while the corticolimbic systems within our brains that are responsible for emotional response remain active. In order for this to take place, we must be assured that the world of the narrative is disconnected from the world outside of the text. This is to ensure that we do not attempt to act within the ‘outside’ world, based on stimulus from the text (such as experiencing genuine personal threat from a scary movie as-per the example above). This is the reason for the ‘frame’, to emphasise the unreality of the text perceived, allowing emotional response but not necessitating physical function. It is in this way that we can challenge one of the well-known criticisms of the suspension of disbelief theory; that extremely unlikely events such as Superman’s capacity for flight are acceptable within a narrative, but his ability to disguise himself from co-workers simply by adopting a pair of glasses is not; the process of suspension of disbelief allows us to accept the unreal, but not the improbable, being as it is too closely related to our world in which we plan to act.
It is through this notion of the ‘frame’ that we begin to see the contradiction inherent in both Transmedia and VR experiences. In attempting to draw the participant ‘closer’ to the narrative, to remove the perceived barriers of mediation to create what is conceived as a more ‘immersive’ audience experience, we remove the signifiers of unreality from a text, and consequently our capacity to disconnect the ‘planning to act’ aspect of our experience in relation to the text is impaired. In principle, the more ‘real’ a text is designed to be, the less real is its perception and at the logical end of this argument, the hyper-awareness inherent in VR experiences and the participatory aspect of Transmedia – where decisions and interactions are necessary – means that our ‘planning to act’ function cannot be removed in either experience. In essence, in both Transmedia and VR, the ‘frame’ is incorporated within the media text as part of the experience, and for this reason it becomes harder to see the text as ‘unreal’, harder in-turn to disconnect the ‘planning to act’ function described, harder to experience a suspension of disbelief and therefore harder to achieve the type of immersive experience offered by Laramée; that which we have termed ‘displacement immersion’ where an audience of a media text forgets that they are being ‘subjected to entertainment’. This then is the contradiction inherent in both technologies and the paradox of ‘displacement’ immersion simultaneously; the more one attempts to achieve this immersion, the less likely one is to do so.

There is also a contradiction inherent in this explanation however, which is of course Holland’s assertion that we must be able to perceive the ‘unreality’ of a text in order to suspend disbelief, because our argument so far has suggested that we are unable to suspend disbelief in the case of VR and Transmedia experiences precisely because we perceive them as ‘unreal’. The decision-making and participation in Transmedia, and the clearly mediated experience of VR – wearing a headset for example, the isolation of headphones, the technological issues of ‘stitched’ footage or low-resolution screens at such close proximity to the eyes – ensure that we are continually reminded that the text is false; a constructed narrative, a mediated documentary. And yet we are still unable to suspend disbelief. It is important here to remember our earlier distinction; that our discussions relate to the immersion within content, and not technological experiences. When we become ‘immersed’ in a novel, or in a TV show, or in Japanese Kabuki theatre perhaps, where the audience ‘agrees not to see’ the black-clad figures on stage holding scenery and props, we are aware of the ‘rules’ of mediation, and we are able to then put those to one side to simply enjoy the text itself (the performance, the story etc.). Holland’s (2003) explanation is one of Habituation and he explains it with the analogy of wearing shoes:

Think about your shoes. You put your shoes on in the morning and for a few seconds you are aware of them. You can feel them on your feet. After a few seconds, you cease to be aware of them, and you don't become aware of your shoes again until you take them off at night -unless you get a blister or a pebble.

To continue Holland’s analogy, by including the ‘frame’ within the experience, both Transmedia and VR technologies can effectively cause the ‘blister or pebble’ for the participant. Within an experience such as the use of VR to treat paranoia by Oxford University, or Al-Jazeera’s excellent Pirate Fishing Transmedia journalism experience, this continual reinforcement of unreality may be ameliorated by the nature of the content in the sense that in both experiences, audiences aren’t required to suspend disbelief in the traditional film and TV sense. But in those texts where suspension of disbelief would normally be needed, such as fiction or documentary, the continued inclusion of the ‘frame’ within the experience is problematic, as traditionally the frame is acknowledged and then habituated to. To complete the analysis, we might say that the perceived frame reinforces that the text is separate from reality, whereas the inclusion of the ‘frame’ in the experience – the ‘blister or pebble’ – reinforces only that the text is not reality.

This notion of the ‘framed’ artefact allows us to explain the immersion experienced in perceiving clearly non-real texts such as animation, black & white films and even computer game experiences such as Tetris. The clear ‘unreality’ of the texts allows for a successful and willing suspension of disbelief to occur, as long as audiences can be habituated to the ‘frame’. The interesting example here however is Tetris, which as a computer game has a clear ‘planning to act’ function fundamentally attached. Indeed, immersion is an idea that, as we have seen, has long been the subject of debate in ludological industries, and conclusions have been drawn that would certainly be of benefit to the emergent Transmedia and VR proponents in TV and film, as indeed with a reevaluation of the goal of immersion, it may still be achievable. Regarding Tetris for example, Salen & Zimmerman (2004) quote Gorfinkel:

[109]
[...] representational strategies are conflated with the effect of immersion. Immersion itself is not tied to a replication or mimesis of reality. For example, one can get immersed in Tetris. Therefore, immersion into game play seems at least as important as immersion into a game’s representational space. It seems that these components need to be separated to do justice and better understand how immersion, as a category of experience and perception, works.

Salen & Zimmerman conclude that Gorfinkel’s point suggests that immersion is not predicated on a representation of reality – a position they agree with - allowing discussions of immersion to move away from more traditional suspension of disbelief. While we have seen that suspension of disbelief by its very nature can accommodate ‘unreal’ representations such as black & white cinema or animated content that only loosely resemble ‘real life’, nevertheless this is a valid criticism of our attempts to define immersion, as Gorfinkel’s point about the ‘immersive’ properties of Tetris is certainly accurate. The rejection of ‘displacement immersion’ earlier was predicated on its fundamental link to suspension of disbelief, and the inherent removal of the ‘planning to act’ function according to Holland. Consequently, doing-away with suspension of disbelief from our definition of the term may potentially make it possible to achieve immersion in Transmedia and VR in the manner Laramée seems to suggest. However, we could argue that this condition of the definition is perhaps more applicable to the games industry – where the point was raised – than the experience of TV and film viewers venturing into VR and Transmedia. The reason is that by definition, game play has traditionally involved the introduction of a player’s imagination into the process, in a way that TV and film experiences do differently and arguably inconsistently.

Clearly, many of the best and most engaging film and TV works rely on the capacity of suggestion to create the desired experience; such experiences certainly involve audience imagination, and to suggest otherwise is folly. However the introduction of imagination into gameplay can take far more complex forms; for example there isn’t the same separation of artefact and imaginative process in TV and film that we can find in some games. Describing role-playing games for example, Brown (2012) observes:

In these kinds of games, the ludic framework generally requires basic representations of characters or items on its terms, so a sword may be represented as attack dice, or a player’s character by a model on a hexagonal grid. However, most of the representational work of these games occurs in the player’s imagination, and the business of playing tends to take place on an imaginative and discursive level separate to that of the tools used to simulate character interaction.

In this way, we can see the separation of gameplay experiences and that of other media texts; gameplay by definition requiring game players in order for the game to even exist. As Brown acknowledges:

Games need players, and this is one of the ways they are differentiated from the majority of other media experiences which require only audiences.

Leaving aside the participatory nature of Transmedia and VR for a moment – we shall return to it presently – film and television experiences are traditionally closer to that of ‘art’ than that of ‘game’, in that there is an inherent separation between text and audience. While games cannot exist without players, films arguably exist – in one interpretation at least – without audiences. This is separate from Holland’s discussion of ‘framing’ art – “the altarpiece becomes art when it hangs in a museum rather than a church” (1967) – and simply an observation that a film or television programme could be said to exist independently of an audience, in the way that a game cannot. It is understandable therefore if film and television professionals moving into VR and Transmedia fields approach them from this perspective. However, to do so is an error as both Transmedia and VR texts, like games, are arguably both reliant on participation for their existence.

Within this fundamental understanding of both however lies the key to the capacity for immersion that both platforms do contain, and this can be found in revisiting Gorfinkel’s quote above. While Salen & Zimmerman rightly point out that part of the immersive experience of Tetris illustrates that immersion is not predicated on mimesis of ‘reality’, the deeper analysis of this separation concerns the notion that the representational experience and the participatory experience of the text are separate. Immersion cannot take place in the representational space of a text, but it can occur in the participatory space, and Gorfinkel’s point is that the two
are often conflated erroneously, leading to the conclusion that – as the more identifiable space perhaps - immersion is predicated on representation.

In a recent example, typical of this approach, Reilhac (2016) enthusiastically extols the virtues of VR experiences thus:

This incredibly powerful immersiveness of the VR experience triggers an equally powerful sense of presence for the viewer. When immersed in VR, we are no longer a spectator of a reflection of something happening far from us; we are in the moment, in that space with the people around us, we are part of what we see and hear.

And later:

We are immersed, present, feeling total empathy and passion in this experience. We can be involved; we can feel emotional depth like never before; we can engage and exchange; consider alternative points of view; we can experience diversity.

Reilhac appears throughout this article to be referring simultaneously to representation and participation interchangeably as the same experience – the VR experience we might call it – and his definition of immersion seems also to relate simultaneously to the displacement of the senses, the mediated ‘wonder’ of the experience, and the participative, interactive capacity of the technology. It is perhaps difficult to disagree with this assessment in one sense – we have seen the capacity of the technology to ‘fool the senses’ in the Oxford University ‘paranoia’ project – but if we accept Gorfinkel’s view that representation and participation are indeed separate – as the immersive capacity of something like Tetris would suggest – then what Reilhac is doing is experiencing the participative as the representative, and as such is not achieving immersion in the Laramée sense, but on the contrary, as a participant who is constantly hyper-aware that they are experiencing a mediated experience.

To build on this point, Salen & Zimmerman’s introduction of the notion of metacommunication to the experience of gameplay examines the integration of act and meaning, noting that when engaged in a game, players are entering into an experience in which the activity and the meaning of that activity (experienced and implied) are equally understood as part of the pre-agreed construct of the experience.

In the case of play, we know that metacommunication is always in operation. A teen kissing another teen in Spin the Bottle or a Gran Turismo player driving a virtual race car each understand that their play references different realities. But the very thing that makes their activity play is that they also know they are participating within a constructed reality [...] . It is possible to say that the players of a game are “immersed” – immersed in meaning. To play a game is to take part in a complex interplay of meaning. But this kind of immersion is quite different from the sensory transport promised by the immersive fallacy.

This notion is at the heart of the idea that immersion is possible in ludic experiences; immersion is caused by the act of engagement, the act of participatory gameplay. Reilhac’s definition would perhaps have us believe that the Gran Turismo driver believes his race is real, or the ‘Spin the Bottle’teens understand nothing implied by their actions. It is for this reason that the traditional debates surrounding ludonarrative dissonance took place, where the storyline of a game being at-odds with the gameplay created difficulties with immersion – players finding that they couldn’t ‘get into’ a game properly due to disconnect between the play and the plot structure – it was the gameplay that was creating the immersive experience and which was compromised by non-sympathetic storytelling.

If we return our focus to Transmedia and VR experiences for film and television therefore, we may be able to see how the lessons from ludic narratives can influence our approach to achieving immersion for ourselves. By their very nature, as we have seen, VR and Transmedia are participative; arguably they cannot exist without participants. So participation therefore becomes the goal of the immersive experience for both technologies. The idea of simply producing observable content in both formats in order to ‘make the content more immersive’ is therefore problematic; the technology alone cannot achieve that goal. Instead, design based around the
participative qualities and meaning of texts should be at the forefront of TV and film projects making the transition to these technologies.

Up to this point, we have been discussing Transmedia and VR texts interchangeably because the focus was always on immersion as a concept. However, when we begin to discuss meaning and participation, this is where the two fundamentally different technologies must naturally diverge. How to create meaning and participation effectively across both disciplines is not a subject for this paper; all we have been concerned with here is identifying how the current goal of ‘immersion’ is unachievable, and replacing it with a version that is. However, we can discuss prevalent examples of both disciplines. In Transmedia for example, one of the most interesting recent instances of immersion is The Modular Body project. This is an online non-linear sci-fi story experience about using bio-printers to create organ modules (a ‘brain module’, a ‘digestive module’) to construct creatures. One such, ‘Project Oscar’, is a primitive and unnerving creation clearly designed to be an unsettling experience for audiences. The experience is clearly stated on the website and social media as being fictional, and there is no clear effort to deceive audiences. However, the short videos and text that form the ‘objects’ of the experience, as the BBC might call it, are believably real, with effective and sympathetic production values and visual effects, and the result has been a sharing through social media of single elements from the story experience, often without reference to the original site, by participants who believed that what they were sharing was real. This is the interesting immersive capacity of Transmedia storytelling; in this experience the story was not the non-linear narrative on the website, but the participative reality of audiences sharing and commenting on creepy videos, complete with philosophical and moral debates from those genuinely believing that their experience was real, and collectively creating the ‘Modular Body story’ as a real-time, real-world narrative of participation and meaning.

As one example of this within VR, one of my own experiences working with students at the University of Gloucestershire has been the delight and desire of participants experiencing VR content to explain to others what they are experiencing in real-time. Early experiments with participants experiencing mixed-media VR experiences for example, such as visuals from one source and audio – normally binaural recordings – from a separate source has created some interesting unique experiences for participants, most of whom mentioned afterward that their sense of immersion within the text was comparable to immersion in ‘traditional’ TV content, and yet part of this came from the desire to share verbally in real-time what they were experiencing. This could take the form of descriptions of the experience, explanation of emotional responses including the disconnect from those they were addressing or amusement at their unexpected reactions to the content. This paper will not look further at this research as our experiments in VR (our Dark Spaces VR experience is in production) and Transmedia (our Project Spider Transmedia experience is being developed) will be published more completely elsewhere.

Throughout this paper there has been no suggestion that producers of film and TV experiences should not be looking into VR and Transmedia content due to the immersion problem; on the contrary both disciplines offer extraordinary emerging opportunities for exciting and engaging new audience experiences and creative endeavours which will ultimately integrate very well into the way audiences interact with film and TV. Indeed, the purpose of this paper was to demonstrate that without interrogation and classification, the use of terms such as immersion could potentially slow and derail the progress of VR and Transmedia in these fields, simply because as we have seen, immersion is a goal, and the idea appears to be that the technology alone will provide that experience for audiences. Naturally, the one element omitted from this discussion is that which is almost self-evidently the most important; the strength and quality of the content itself, just as it always is in any film or TV text, because an engaging story is always an engaging story, independent of the technology used to tell it. But acknowledging that, this paper has hopefully demonstrated that when discussing immersion within a technological experience, we are meaning something quite different to when we are discussing immersion into the content played on that experience. This is because in order to achieve immersion in content, we must be able to suspend disbelief, even for factual content; we must be able to forget the mediation of the content and focus on it alone. Holland suggests that we do this by becoming habituated to a ‘frame’ that separates the content from the ‘real world’, and the suggestion made in this paper is that this is not achievable when the ‘frame’ is included within the experience, as then we cannot simply focus on the content alone. This is because unlike film and TV, VR and Transmedia arguably cannot exist independently, they require audiences for their existence. Immersion then takes place within these experiences in the participative space of the content, and not the representational space as in film and TV. To conclude therefore, immersion is possible within VR and Transmedia content, but it
must be participative in some way; users must be able to become immersed in the participation and meaning of
the text, and not simply observers of representational content in new environments. This is a view gaining
increasing momentum within VR and Transmedia circles – Reilhac’s February 2016 Indiewire article for
example suggesting that VR experiences are not to be linked directly with film or gaming, because they are now
strong enough on their own terms, is a case in point – although there is still a place for these technologies to
integrate with film and TV, as long as it is understood that they cannot simply be an extension of an existing
experience, but something new.

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Impact of Social Networking Sites on the Mauritian Youth: A Study of their Life Styles and its Effectiveness in Nation Building

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Abstract  
Online Social Networking sites have achieved a phenomenal growth over the last decade attracting much attention from researchers. Most of the major social media are predominated by the youth, exploiting it for one purpose or the other. A sample of 300 was collected from Secondary and Tertiary Institutes of Mauritius highlighting usage, purpose, time spent, impact and influence, level of trust and the future role of social media, this explorative study examines the impact of social networking sites on the lifestyles of Mauritian youth and its effectiveness in nation building.

Introduction  
Social Networking Sites(SNS’s) have become imperative to the lives of youth today. They are a compulsive and addictive behavior to our modern adolescence. Facebook, whatsapp, twitter, Orkut, LinkedIn and other networking sites have not only given them a platform to interact, discuss and remain in touch with their loved ones who live at places across the globe but also to voice their opinions on social issues. It has created nothing less than a revolution across the world. The recent Vire Mam for general election recently held in Mauritius, Jan Lokpal Bill Movement led by Anna Hajare and his team, and Nirbhaya Gang Rape Case Movement in Delhi are uprising examples of Social Networking Sites where youths created mass awareness across the society. They not only participated to create a movement but also voiced out their opinions through the various social networking sites mobilizing people to sign online petitions, sending them across to the respective authorities. It was an eye opening example for any country and government to understand the power of Social networking sites. The Social Networking Sites have not only made a significant change in their personal and social lives, but also played a crucial role in breaking boundaries, crossing nations and enabling them to communicate and share their views on issues like violation of human rights, girl’s education, adverse effects of global warming, wrong deeds of political leaders, crime against women, corruption etc.

On one hand where social networking sites empower the youth and enable them to grow up their social circle in term of their own acquaintances, on the other hand it also raises many questions about their life styles, safety, privacy and legal issues. In this project I would like to highlight the impact of these networking sites on the life styles of Mauritian youths. It is not only because this a very subjective issue to make opinion about their thought but also about the change in their sociological and psychological behaviors.

Social Networking Sites in Mauritius  
Social media in Mauritius is run by young and educated youths. According to Analysis in 2012, Social Media in Mauritius saw a tremendous growth in the rise of the number of users and their participations spent their time on Social Networking Sites. While Telecom Regulatory Authority of Mauritius has written their report that there has been rapid rise in the number of internet users in Mauritius. The number of users has reached 700 thousand in 2012. Broadband too has seen a significant growth in 2012 with 400 thousand users (57%) are educated young people. Mauritian migrate to Australia, Canada, and European countries for education and jobs and most of them are constant touch with family and friends which led to the rise in usage of social networks and increased even more, as Foreign companies set up offices in Mauritius employing thousands of people here, Mauritian using more technology products like mobiles, laptops, other computing devices like PCs, tablets and finally the voyeuristic appeal with open networks drove the usage further. Most popular social networking site in Mauritius is Facebook as around 58% is dominated by male and mostly the young students and professionals in the age group of 14-24 are dominating the social media usage followed by the 25-35 age group. They spend hours every month on the various social networking sites and actively engage with friends and others. Most of the users are using social media to stay in touch with friends, track and update their activities, social gaming, follow groups and communities, discuss social, and entertainment topics and also look for information about brands, products and also provide their feedback.
Literature Review

Social media depends on web based technologies to create a platform through which individuals and communities share, discuss, and modify user generated content. The impacts include substantial changes to communication between organizations, communities and individuals. Social networking is defined as “the use of dedicated websites and applications to communicate with other users or to find people with similar interests to one’s own” (Oxford Dictionary, 2011). Maria-Webster dictionary the definition of social media is “forms of electronic communication through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content”. Another definition includes web and mobile-based technology that encourages users to interact with each other for creating and exchanging user generated content. A recent study found that college students use Facebook, a popular social networking site, to sustain their social assets [1]. They use Facebook to stay linked with people with whom they used to be more closely involved, e.g., former classmates.

A related study investigated whether college students use Facebook for ‘social searching’ or ‘social browsing’ [2]. Social searching occurs when a Facebook user looks up particular individuals he or she already knows or has become aware of via an offline connection in order to learn more about them. Social browsing, on the other hand, occurs when users try to find strangers online whom they would like to meet offline. Overwhelmingly, college students are using Facebook for social searching [3, 4].

In one of the first academic studies of privacy and Social Networking Sites, gross and acquits and analyzed Carnegie Mellon University Facebook profile and examined how individuals disclose information and protect privacy on face book, finding that most users share personal information open and few modify their default privacy setting for increased protection [5]. According to a report published by office of communications, UK (Ofcom), (2008), social networkers differ in their attitude to social networking sites and in their behavior while using them. Qualitative research indicates that sites users and tend to fall into several distinct group based on their behavior and attitude. [6]

**Alpha Socializers**- people who used sites in intense shorts to flirt, meet new people, and are entertained.

**Attention Seekers**- people who craved attention and comments from others, often by posting photos and customizing their profile.

**Followers** - peoples who joined sites to keep up what their peers were doing.

**Functional**- people who tended to be single minded in using sites for a particular purpose. [7]

Social media have evolved to include tools and practices that were not conceived of only a few years ago. Social media combines the three levels of communication. The first level is visible, and can be defined as obvious patterns and behaviors, along with technology, buildings and artifacts. The second level is less visible and involves cultural communication; that is, how people communicate both verbally and nonverbally. At the third level it is made up of the ‘ideas, basic assumptions, values and beliefs held by a society’ and is almost invisible. If communication can be divided into three realms of words, material things and behavior then social media provide an interesting and complex challenge, as they bridge the three levels of culture and communication. For many people, well-known social network sites such as Facebook and Twitter typify social media. The sites have become enormously popular across demographics of race, age and gender, and have hundreds of millions of users.

Social media, primarily social networking sites as we know today has evolved brilliantly. What started from a small endeavor to stay in contact has resulted through its evolution into a huge network of sites that serve the purpose of connecting millions of individuals, groups and communities providing them a platform to discuss, share and spread their ideas. The history of social media is a fascinating one. One cannot have a complete understanding of it without dwelling on the aspect of its origin. As early as in 1978, JefRaskin at Apple Computer Inc., Ward Christensen and Randy Suess, two members of the Chicago Area Computer Hobbyists Exchange, and employees of IBM were working to make history i.e. the birth of world’s first social network. It all started with former IBM employee Christensen’s simple concept.

Christensen and Suess developed a virtual system named Dubbed CBBS (Computerized Bulletin Board System), where users could post public messages similar to an office notice board. It was capable of using user’s own
MODEM file transfer protocol. CBBS was created to inform the group members about meetings and important announcements without placing dozen of phone calls. As more members started joining the talk and sharing information through individual postings, the early makings of a small virtual community began to emerge. There has been a sharp rise in the number and types of social networking sites available and the variety of services that they offer. This chapter reviews some of the popular social networking sites like Facebook, YouTube, LinkedIn, Twitter, Google+, Hi5, MySpace, Ning, Xing, Friendster, Tumblr, Classmates, Vine, Meetup, Ask.fm, WhatsApp, Viber, WeChat.

Social networking sites provide a platform to people to interact using the internet. Social media diminishes geography, economizes time, demolishes hierarchy and erases identity. It is the fastest way of communication. One can also share photos, videos and audios by just a click. It provides a vehicle for visual communications cutting across borders and is a good measure of expressing love and affection like parents communicating with children abroad or siblings settled across the globe.

Social media is also used as a source of recreation. Many people derive a sense of pleasure from the use of social media. Social networking sites are mostly blue in color, and this has a psychological reasoning behind it. The color blue is said to have a calming effect on the human brain. Hence, many users also derive a sense of enjoyment by spending time on such sites. It provides a medium through which one is constantly connected with friends and family instilling a sense of security and belonging. Facebook, one of the most popular social networking sites, also known as the Social Capital of the internet offers the same advantages. One can look for the people they know and can ‘friend’ them by just a click. It offers features such as the news feed which keeps the user updated about the movement of their ‘friends’. One can update his status, upload photos, join groups and also play games on Facebook. The new and much hyped social networking sites are a frontier that is rich with opportunities, threats and risks. It is majorly a platform to perform various tasks like instant messaging profoundly known as email, downloading songs, posting pictures. With the positive impacts come the negatives too, thus one must constantly keep a tab of what one is posting online.

Social networking sites which enable the people to develop their personal networking have been growing manifolds in recent years. Social Networking Sites provide a new method of communicating employing computers as a collaborative tool to accelerate group formation and escalate the scope and influence of the group (Kane, Fichman, Gallaugher, & Glaser, 2009; Pfeil, Arjan, &Zaphiris, 2009; Ross et al., 2009). New developments in technology have made internet accessible to a wider population. People all over the world are now sustaining relationships with others through various social networking sites like Facebook, twitter, MySpace etc. Social Networking Sites have infiltrated lives of many with amazing rapidity to become an important platform in computer related communication. These social media sites let those who are on it make profiles of themselves where they can add pictures, statuses and other personal information and share it with people via various applications and groups on the internet. In this information age, these Social Networking Sites are largely growing making young adults its main targets. Many of these young adults use social media networks to communicate with family, friends, and even strangers. Social media sites have created new and non-personal ways for people to interact with others and young adults have taken advantage of this technological trend. Social media affects college student’s communication with others and their own self-concept.

Another study was conducted to analyse which Social Network Sites was trending among the avid users. Among the largely growing Social Networking Sites, Facebook seemed to top the list with maximum users. Facebook statistics indicate that its global members have rapidly increased from 150 million to about 350 million between January and December 2009 (Eldon, 2009). Facebook is used primarily by students to maintain relationships with others through various social networking sites like Facebook, twitter, MySpace etc. Social Networking Sites have made internet accessible to a wider population. People all over the world are now sustaining relationships with others through various social networking sites like Facebook, twitter, MySpace etc. Social Networking Sites have infiltrated lives of many with amazing rapidity to become an important platform in computer related communication. These social media sites let those who are on it make profiles of themselves where they can add pictures, statuses and other personal information and share it with people via various applications and groups on the internet. In this information age, these Social Networking Sites are largely growing making young adults its main targets. Many of these young adults use social media networks to communicate with family, friends, and even strangers. Social media sites have created new and non-personal ways for people to interact with others and young adults have taken advantage of this technological trend. Social media affects college student’s communication with others and their own self-concept.

Overview of the Research Objectives
An important burning issue for our society today is the upcoming impact of social networking sites on our youth. A research study for the purpose has been conducted on youths with a view to understand the impact on their lifestyles and also to know the level of consciousness on the community issues like human rights, sexual
assaults, women harassment, gender discrimination, environment concerns, political concerns, nation development etc. For these purpose a study was conducted on 300 young people mostly through personal interaction to collect questionnaire for the same mainly from secondary and tertiary institutions of Mauritius.

- To study the awareness level of usage of different social networking sites.
- To study the purposes for which the Social Networking Sites are used.
- To find out level of trust over the information received from social networking sites.
- To determine the likely impact and influence on the life styles of Mauritian youth.
- To study the type of social issues discussed over social networking sites.
- To understand the effectiveness of Social Networking Sites for social development and nation building.

Research methodology
The present research gives an impending approach to the awareness level and the purposes of the Social Networking Sites of the Mauritian youth. It also analyses the impact of the networking sites on their lifestyles and how effective they have been on the various social movements like the recent general elections, creating brand identity of leaders and other socio-economic issues like gender discrimination, unemployment, environment concerns etc. Further, it also identifies the effectiveness of social media for nation development in the times ahead. A questionnaire was administered to collect data for the same and it was analyzed using tools like tables, pie-charts, bar graphs.

The Questionnaire
Keeping in mind the objectives of the study a structured questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire has 23 questions altogether divided into three sections. The sections relate to:

Section I: Personal Information of the respondents
Section II: Types of Social Network Sites and Usage
Section III: Impact and Influence of Social Networking Sites

Section I: Personal Information
Section I relates to collecting demographic details of the respondents pertaining to gender, age, educational qualification, category and income.

Section II: Types of Social Network Sites and Usage
This section seeks to obtain responses relating to whether the respondents had accounts on the networking sites, which Social Network Sites were more favored, time spent on them, purposes for which they use and the information about themselves that is provided over these sites.

Section III: Impact and Influence of Social Networking Sites
Section III contained eleven questions in all and the responses were rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This section obtained responses for impact and influence on the lifestyles, level of trust, social issues discussed and the future role of social media.

Sample
A non-probability convenience sampling was used to collect responses from a total of 300 people mainly from secondary and tertiary institutes of Mauritius. No bias was involved in sampling. Those who could be conveniently approached, were willing to be interacted and are active members of the social networking sites were part of our sample.

The summarized demographic details of the sample are presented below in the table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic characteristics</th>
<th>Mauritius(N= 300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 20 yrs.</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 30 yrs.</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 40 yrs.</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 40 yrs.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Demographic Analysis
A total of 300 respondents constitute our sample size. The respondents represent a heterogeneous combination of gender, age, qualification and income. A brief description of the same is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Respondents (300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that of the total respondents 56 % are males and 44 % females. The representation can fairly be assumed to be reasonably equal.

![Gender Split](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Respondents (300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 20 years (teenagers)</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30 Years (youth)</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-40 Years (young adults)</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 40 Years (adults)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table depicts the age classification. The youth represented in the age bracket of 20-30 years is the highest at 56 % and of the total 97 % is represented by the young generation.
Summary of the Demographic Analysis
An insight into the demographic details of the respondents reveals a high concentration of males (56 %) to females (44 %). 97 % of the total is below 40 years. The concentration of graduates is high. 67 % represented the student category and 18 % working class. In all 58 % of our youth respondents are earning.

Table: Membership of Social Networking Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member of Social Networking Sites</th>
<th>Respondents (300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No. 292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 97 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>No. 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 3 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: Social Networking sites used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Social Networking Sites used</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flickr</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face Book</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was an overlapping pattern in the membership of social networking sites where 87 % of the respondents use Facebook and 70 % WhatsApp, others included Blogspot.com, Wayn, Hi5, Style FM, Ning, Netlog, Friendster, eBuddy and VampireFreaks. Facebook and WhatsApp were identified as the most popular among the Mauritian youth. The results for the same are graphically displayed in the bar chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Networking Sites Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orkut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hi5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: Time spent on the Social Networking Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Hrs. (in a week)</th>
<th>Respondents (292)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 5 Hrs</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10 Hrs</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 20 Hrs</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30 Hrs</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40 Hrs</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40 hrs</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time spent by 60% respondents on the Social Networking Sites are more than 11hrs. Further the table below shows the time spent by males and females separately.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Hrs. (in a week)</th>
<th>Respondents (300))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 5 Hrs</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10 Hrs</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 20 Hrs</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30 Hrs</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table depicts the time spent by males and females on the Social Networking Sites. 46% females spent 6-10hrs where as 46% male spent 11-20hrs on Social Networking Sites, 42% male spent 20-40hrs where as 25% female spent 20-40hrs on Social Networking Sites, Male youth spends more hours on the Social Networking Sites.

The above table describes the score of the youth on the impact and influence of Social Networking Sites on their lifestyles. For the youth of Mauritius being part of Social Networking Sites today is important (96%) as also the updates are a reflection of their status and personality (58%). The dimensions of lifestyles respondents for education and knowledge (52%), relationships (51%) to be the most influenced, high ranging between agree to strongly agree which indicates the fact that for the Mauritian youth today.
Table: Level of Trust on the Social Networking Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Respondents (N = 300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Privacy of my information is protected on the Social</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Networking Sites</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Trust on Social Networking Sites that they will not misuse</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>personal details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Information collected from social Networking Sites is true</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table depicts the descriptive scores of the level of trust and privacy from the respondents of Mauritius. Privacy is one of the most controversial concerns over the internet and as we become more social on the internet our privacy becomes vulnerable. Amongst the dimensions identified, ‘personal data will not be misused’ was rated the highest and ‘information on Social Networking Sites is true’ rated low.

Table: Social issues discussed and its likely impact

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Respondents (N = 300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>SNS are Important platform for discussing social-economic issues</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Political concerns have gained momentum through Social Networking Sites.</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>New brand had been identified as Sir Anerood Jugnauthin the recent General</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be inferred from the table above on the social issues discussed, they have gained momentum in the recent past. This is indicative of the fact that the youth today agrees that social issues, political concerns, and opinions on elections are widely being discussed on the Social Networking Sites and believe that it help in building brand identities to the representatives.
Summary of Demographic Analysis
The results of the above descriptive analysis are summarized as under:
Being part of Social Networking Sites is important for the youth today as they reflect the status and lifestyles. They identify education and knowledge followed by personal growth and development to be the most influenced. This could be attributed the fact that majority of our respondents (about 60 %) were students. For the level of trust on the sites, youth seemed to be more open in giving and sharing information on Social Networking Sites. Though they are not much sure of the privacy of their personal details and the authenticity of the information obtained through the Social Networking Sites.

There is a general consensus among the Mauritius youth that Social Networking Sites are important platforms for discussing issues, more upfront for socio-economic issues whereas youth are also concerns for recent politics of Mauritius and most of them are agreed on new political identity created by Sir Aniroodh Jugnauth through social media. There is no denying to the fact that social media is fast emerging and gaining a significant role for the society, in terms of creating greater awareness and their role in national development. Youth today believe that the groups/communities on the Social Networking Sites will create better and greater awareness and also have an important role in the nation development. My hypothesis ‘Youth participation is significant in social development and nation building’

Findings
Age, Gender and Income were identified as distinguishing demographic criterions influencing lifestyles of Mauritian youth through Social Networking Sites. More peculiar is the sharing and disclosing profiles and updates seemed to be more casual and open for Mauritian youth and also the impact on the relationships as found to be of much concern. Another highlighting point was about the concern of privacy wherein the respondents expressed more confidence and more apprehensiveness to the trust and privacy concerns over social Networking Sites.

The ‘future role of social media’ across the country is an indication that socio-economic issues, political concerns are gaining momentum and are being constructively used to build new brand identities. There is no denying to the fast emerging role of social media for knowledge, understanding and nation development. It has grown from ‘going viral’ to creating ‘meaningful engagements.’

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In Search of a Scapegoat: The Global Corporate Blame Game

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Abstract
Humanity has a long tradition of searching for means to cope with crisis situations and to manage the order of society. In our contemporary world, corporations with their complex global networking often face crises and need to minimise damage. This paper aims to identify why and how scapegoating is used as a strategy in crisis communication by global business. To this end, Situational Crisis Communication Theory has been used to analyse some recent corporate crises (e.g. Volkswagen AG’s handling of its emissions debacle and Costa Cruises’ fatally shipwrecked Costa Concordia). This study reveals that, even though slightly different from its ancient counterparts in its aims, scapegoating is a frequent tool of corporations seeking to mitigate their multi-causal crises. It also appraises the efficacy of this manoeuvre.

Keywords: crisis management; crisis communication, scapegoating, public relations.

Introduction
Crises undoubtedly are not specific to our century, but they became ubiquitous due to conventional media and especially the social media in the recent years. Crises occur almost every day in one corner of the world or even just beside us, and as a consequence; deaths, injuries, disabilities, loss of property and of reputation are being experienced.

Neoliberal capitalism and its globalisation transformed dramatically organizations, industrial relations, labour, social relationships, and crisis concept as one of the negative outcomes of this complex system. In this new phase of the capitalism or ‘revised capitalism’, where the governments are central to the modern capitalist system (McChesney, 1999) both corporate crises incidence has increased and identifying the crisis causality and managing the globalised corporations’ global crises have became a remarkably difficult challenge. On the other hand, major crises of the 21st century with severe global impacts (e.g. 2008 financial crisis, Enron, Volkswagen AG) have contributed in revising and reframing the responsibility of the organisations.

This article aims to identify the reasons and tactics in implementing ‘scapegoating’ strategies in the crisis communication process of the global business. To this end, Timothy Coombs’ Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT) has been used to analyse mainly two recent corporate crises: Volkswagen AG’s handling of its emissions debacle and Costa Cruises’ fatally shipwrecked Costa Concordia. These two corporate crises cases have not only a negative impact on their brand reputations, but have also a wider negative impact on industrial scale, and even on the nation brand, especially in VW case.

Theoretical Framework and Methodology
Prior to case study analyses, an interdisciplinary literature on the humanity’s one of longest standing tradition of ‘scapegoating’ in the search of means to cope with crisis situations will be reviewed. After analysing the roots of this crisis communication strategy, two case study analyses will be conducted in order to identify why and how scapegoating is used as a strategy in crisis communication by global business. To this end, Coombs’ ‘Situational Crisis Communication Theory’ (SCCT) will be used to analyse two crises case studies.

The main limitation of this research is the epistemological ambiguity; as the facts discussed about the causality are being quoted from media coverage or from some expert comments/reports during the crisis reaction stage. This study does not aim to discuss the legal process and court verdicts at the post-crisis stage, therefore not to examine the fairness or unfairness of the blame; however to consider discussions about multi-causalities regarding to the crisis case. Furthermore, this article focuses on the implementation of the scapegoating strategy during a crisis communication process of a corporate crisis.
Scapegoating Theories: Why Do We Need a Scapegoat?

Scapegoating theory has rooted in religion, anthropology, and social psychology (Welch, 2006: 36). As philosophical anthropologist René Girard discusses in Violence and the Sacred (1988), scapegoating is all around us, in the tragedy literature masterpieces such as Sophocles’ Oedipus the King, Euripides’ The Bacchae, and Shakespeare’s Julius Caesar, the rites and rituals of primitive people (Golsan, 2002: 38). Girard argues that scapegoat process is motivated by ‘mimetic rivalry’ and functions in the rhetorical catharsis. Within the ‘mimetic theory’, when a communal crisis or a ‘sacrificial crisis’ begins with mimetic contagion, someone is blamed arbitrarily as a scapegoat (Girard, 2013).

The word ‘scapegoat’ (fr.boucémissaire) has its roots in myth and religious practices. In Greek, ‘pharmakon’ (φάρµακον) is related to ‘medicine, drug, and also poison’, and therefore ‘pharmakos’ referred to “magical dose causing destruction or healing”. It has been used as ‘magic man, healer, and poisoner’. On one hand, the therapeutic meaning of ‘pharmakos’ referred to the medicine who heals the city, and on the other hand, to the poison (an excessively ugly or deformed man, a criminal or a slave) that had to be expelled from the system. In ancient Greece “pharmakos” (φάρµακος) was a ritual of scapegoat; a “human embodiment of evil who was expelled from the Greek city at moments of crisis and disaster”, and pharmakoi (φαρµακοι) refers to scapegoats (Compton, 2006).

According to Concise Oxford Dictionary, the first meaning of ‘scapegoat’ refers to “a goat sent into the wilderness after the Jewish chief priest had symbolically laid the sins of the people upon it (Lev. 16)”. The second meaning refers to “a person bearing the blame for the sins, shortcomings, etc. of others, especially as an expedient” (1995: 1231). The latter is being used in the everyday language in many cultures. Alongside the western culture, in the 17th-century Japan, monkey was believed as a scapegoat for a human victim of smallpox, and this believe has persisted for centuries. Ohnuki-Tierney indicates that the monkey’s meaning as a scapegoat still continues in the contemporary Japan (1990: 137).

The English term ‘[e]scapegoat’ was coined by William Tyndale for his 1530 translation of the Bible (Tyndale Bible), referring to the goat which was expelled on the Day of Atonement (Yom Kippur) (McLean, 1990: 168). Anthropologist Mary Douglas emphasised that the goat is not sacrificed, or the goat escapes from being killed as a sacrificial victim. Douglas points out that René Girard develops the idea that as slaughter is the main form of communication with the gods to a variety of persecutory behaviours, he uses the verb ‘scapegoat’ with a meaning of ‘to persecute’ or ‘to blame’ (2003: 121). On the other hand, in Leviticus 16: 8-10, and 16 there are references to sending scapegoats to Azazel (Satan) on Yom Kippur (Schwartz, 460). The ceremony requires two goats; one to be sacrificed and one released (Douglas; 2003: 122), which are carrying symbolically the sins of the Hebrews into exile:

“[...] and Aaron shall lay both his hands upon the head of the live goat and confess over him all the inequities of the people of Israel and all other transgressions, and all their sins, and he shall put them upon the head of goat and send him away into the wilderness... The goat shall bear all the iniquities upon him to a solitary land.” (as cited in Welch, 2006: 36-37).

Therefore, a scapegoat is defined as a figure which represents social anxieties about social order. In order to avert the crisis a sacrificial victim, a scapegoat is found, who then becomes the focus of aggressive attention. Once the sacrifice has taken place, order is restored, and the community can go about its daily business as usual (Hetherington quoting Cohen, 2000: 15). In the mid-twentieth century, the term ‘scapegoat’ which real significance of sacrifice is at symbolic level, has been adapted in reference to those who are unfairly blamed for a social problem (Welch, 2006: 37). In communication studies, Kenneth Burke’s (1945) theory of ‘dramatism’ comprises all rhetoric’s sine qua non ‘guilt-redemption’ cycle or paradigm in which ‘scapegoating mechanism’ is one of the key elements. As for the psychological drivers of scapegoating; Burkean scapegoating mechanism aims at “self-purification by unburdening of one’s sins ritualistically, with the goat as charismatic, as the chosen vessel of iniquity [...]” (1945: 301). On the other hand, the Freudian scapegoating can be described within the ‘displacement’ or ‘projection’ self-defence mechanism. Freud explains that people displace hostility they hold towards unacceptable targets onto less powerful ones. In the case of projection, unacceptable feelings and anxieties denied within oneself might be attributed to others (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007: 778). Whereas Jungian scapegoating is a form of denying the ‘shadow’ (dark and unknown side of personality) both man and God (Perera, 1986: 98-99).
Scapegoating as a Crisis Communication Strategy

Within crisis communication study which is a sub-area of public relations discipline; scapegoating is considered as a crisis reaction strategy used by organisations. The crisis concept has been identified as “a turning point for an organization” in the early crisis management literature (Fink, 1986:15), similarly as Regester (1989: 38) defines crisis as “turning points in organizational life”. Pauchant and Mitroff indicate that crisis is “a disruption that physically affects the system as a whole and threatens its basic assumptions, its subjective sense of self; and its existential core” (1992: 15-16). Subsequent to these organization-centred definitions in the literature; the perception of the crisis by organization’s publics/stakeholders and impact of the crisis upon them has been introduced to crisis definitions. In these later definitions, crisis concept has been defined as “the perception of low-probability, high-impact situation by critical stakeholders” (Pearson and Clair, 1998:60-61), “a major occurrence with a potentially negative outcome affecting the organization, company, or industry, as well as its publics, products, services, or good name” (Fearn-Banks, 2011: 2). And it has also been indicated that crisis “creates victims” (Łukaszewski, 2013: 10; 12).

When a crisis occurs, stakeholders and publics seek information on causality of the crisis in order to assign crisis responsibility. Along with many crisis definitions, crisis concept has also been identified as “an event for which people seeks causes and attributions” (Coombs and Holladay, 2004: 97). Public attributes responsibility to those who have been perceived as responsible of the crisis and therefore who are expected to manage the crisis.

Crisis management “is a process designed to prevent or lessen the damage a crisis can inflict on an organization and its stakeholders” (Coombs, 2014). Similarly, Fearn-Banks describes crisis management as “a strategic planning process that removes some of the risk and uncertainty from the negative occurrence and thereby allows the organization to be in greater control of its own destiny” (2011: 2). Hence, crisis management can be defined as a strategic process of achieving objectives to accomplish an ultimate goal, which is essentially to restore normalcy and survive the crisis with a minimal damage.

The core of the crisis management process is crisis communication. Fearn-Banks defines crisis communication as “the dialog that details strategies and tactics designed to minimize damage to the image of the organization” (2011: 2). The communication demands of a crisis are “managing uncertainty, responding to the crisis, resolving it and learning from it” (Ulmer, Sellnow and Seeger, 2011: 73). Coombs states that crisis knowledge management and stakeholder reaction management are two types of crisis communication. Crisis knowledge management involves gathering information, processing this information into knowledge, sharing this knowledge with stakeholders and making decisions. As for stakeholder reaction management, it comprises communication efforts aiming to influence stakeholders’ perceptions of the crisis management process (Coombs, 2012: 25).

‘Corporate Apologia’, ‘Image Repair/Restoration Theory (IRT)’, ‘Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT)’, and ‘Organizational Renewal Theory’ are theoretical approaches for responding to organisational crises (Ulmer, Sellnow and Seeger, 2011: 15-16). These approaches present a chronological evolution.

‘Scapegoating’ is a crisis reaction strategy used by organisations during a crisis management process within the Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT). Earlier version of this strategy is ‘shift the blame’, and has been developed within the Image Restoration Theory (IRT) by William Benoit (1995) and offers 14 potential crisis response strategies. Within this theoretical approach, an attack to an organisation has two components: (1) the accused is held responsible for an action; and (2) that act is considered offensive (Benoit, 1997: 178). The implementation of an effective response aims to repair the organisation’s damaged image, therefore the reputation. ‘Shift the blame’ is one of the two forms of ‘denial’ strategies amongst the five major impression management strategies (the four others are evasion of responsibility, reducing the offensiveness of the event, corrective action, and mortification) (Ulmer, Sellnow and Seeger, 2011: 17), and the key characteristic is being introduced as ‘act performed by another’. Hence, another person or organisation is being held responsible for the offensive act. The second ‘denial’ strategy is ‘simple denial’, and the key characteristic is being introduced as ‘did not perform act’ (Benoit, 1997: 179).

On the other hand, SCCT which has been developed by Timothy W. Coombs (1995) consists of a synthesis of Corporate Apologia, Impression Management, and Image Repair Theory (Ulmer, Sellnow and Seeger, 2011: 17). SCCT is based on the conceptualization of Bernard Weiner’s Attribution Theory and rhetorical approaches to
crisis communication articulated in IRT. According to the SCCT, stakeholders will make attributions about crisis responsibility which will affect stakeholders’ interaction with the organisation in crisis (Coombs, 2012: 38). SCCT’s strategic or text-oriented approach focuses on the description of the crisis, its impact, and on the crisis communication form and content (where, when, what, and how to say) (Frandsen and Johansen, 2007; Frandsen and Johansen, 2012).

At the first step SCCT groups three crisis categories: victim (low crisis responsibility/threat), accident (minimal crisis responsibility/threat), and intentional (strong attribution of crisis responsibility/threat). At the second step, SCCT aims to determine two intensifying factors: crisis history and prior reputation. Intensifiers increase the threat by increasing attributions of responsibility of the crisis. SCCT’s crisis response strategies consist of three primary strategies (deny, diminish, rebuild), and one supplemental strategy (reinforcing) which subdivide in total of 10 crisis response strategies according to the SCCT cluster analysis study. ‘Scapegoat’ has been identified as a ‘distance’ strategy within the crisis is acknowledged while ‘weakening the linkage between the crisis and the organisation (or the person involved). One of the sub-categories of this strategy is ‘excuse’. Excuse requires “minimizing the organization’s responsibility for the crisis” through one of two tactics, i.e., denial of intention or denial of volition. Scapegoating is one form of denial of volition (Coombs, 1995: 451). The aim of this strategy is not very different from its ancient counterparts, which was to assign a ‘vessel’ to transfer “sins and blame”.

Case Study Analysis 1: Volkswagen AG Emission Scandal (Dieselgate)

German vehicle maker Volkswagen AG comprises 12 brands which operate as an independent entity on the market including Volkswagen passenger cars, Audi, Seat, Skoda, Bentley, Bugatti, Lamborghini, Porsche, Ducati, Scania and Man. The Group operates 119 production plants in 20 European countries and a further 11 countries. Every weekday, 610,076 employees worldwide produce nearly 42,000 vehicles selling in 153 countries (http://www.volkswagenag.com). In July 2015, Volkswagen AG has overtaken its Japanese rival Toyota in sales (Bowler, 2 October 2015). VW brand has been valued US$31 billion making it the world’s third most valuable auto brand prior to the crisis. It is estimated to have lost US$10 billion in this value since the scandal has emerged (Brand Finance, n.d.). VW pretentious motto ‘Das Auto’ (eng. ‘The Car’) has been dropped as a part of showing the humility and image rebuild effort. Above and beyond Germany’s iconic ‘people’s car’s’ (gr. volkswagen) seriously damaged reputation, Germany has lost its status as the world’s most powerful nation brand to Singapore in 2015 and its nation brand value is down 4% to US$4,2 trillion (Brand Finance, 2015).

On September 18th, and later on November 2nd of 2015, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) issued notices of violation to Volkswagen AG, Audi AG, and Volkswagen Group of America, Inc. for allegedly installing defeat devices that circumvent EPA emissions tests in certain diesel cars (https://www.epa.gov/vw, May 2016). Worldwide, the software was uploaded in 11 million cars (500,000 vehicles in the U.S.). Therefore, this crisis belongs to the intentional crisis category of Coombs (strong crisis responsibility/threat). Beside the instructing information and care response, SCCT recommends adding compensation and/or apology strategies for crisis with strong attributions of crisis responsibility (Coombs, 2012: 42). Subsequent to the first EPA notice on September 20th, Prof. Martin Winterkorn, CEO of Volkswagen AG made a statement and admitted manipulations that violate American environmental standards, also took full responsibility. He expressed that he was ‘personally deeply sorry’. On September 22, the President and CEO of Volkswagen US Group Michael Horn had admitted that company had “totally screwed up” in using software to manipulate emission tests (BBC News, 22 September 2015). At the third day of the crisis Winterkorn and Horn have resigned. Mathias Müller, Porsche former CEO who has replaced Winterkorn and Bernd Osterloh (Chairman of VW work’s council and a member of executive committee) claimed at a press conference that the scandal was the result of “unlawful behaviour of engineers and technicians involved in engine development” and announced that a number of staff have been suspended. Osterloh’s blame was as following: “A small group has done damage to our company. We need a climate where mistakes are not hidden” (The Guardian, 25 September 2015).

At the Congressional subcommittee hearing on October 8th, Volkswagen U.S. Chief Executive Michael Horn admitted that defeat devices were fitted to Volkswagen’s diesel automobiles as the company could not meet emissions standards. Horn blamed “couple of software engineers who put this infor whatever reason”. He also added that according to his understanding, this was not a corporate decision, but rather it was something individuals did. VW has suspended more than 10 senior managers, including three top engineers, as part of an internal investigation. It has also hired a U.S. law firm to conduct an external inquiry (Reuters, 8 October 2015). On the other hand, German newspaper The Frankfurter Allgemeine Sonntagszeitung cited a source on VW’s
supervisory board who claimed the board with receiving an internal report at its recent meeting showing that VW technicians had warned about illegal emissions practices in 2011, but the company never addressed the warning (Cremer and Scherer, 27 September 2015).

VW has also admitted that diesel emissions tests in Europe were also manipulated and recalled millions of tainted diesel-powered cars (Boston, 28 January 2016). VW agreed in principle with the Department of Justice (Environmental Division), the EPA and CARB to fix or buy back 500,000 diesel cars equipped with illegal emissions software in US on April 21st which cost was estimated at $7 billion. The company is certain to face additional billions in fines and compensation paid to owners beyond the costs of repairs or buybacks in the U.S (Ewing, 21 April 2016). According to SCCT, compensation strategy is recommended for crises with low attribution of crisis responsibility and an intensifying factor or for crises with high attribution of crisis responsibility. Despite of Volkswagen AG’s prior good reputation and no significant crisis history, the lack of clear information about the facts from the company might be considered as an intensifying factor. Although the crisis has not been resolved yet, the implementation of scapegoating strategy by the company at the crisis response stage can be evaluated as an attempt to restore the normalcy with a minimal damage. Hence, the scapegoating strategy provides a distraction from the ‘whole picture’ for a company in crisis. Even though an internal probe found no evidence of wrongdoing by members of senior management (Boston and Sloat, 11 May 2016), further research on the stakeholder attribution of responsibility needs as critics from VW’s shareholders, workers, customers all around the world persist.

Case Study Analysis 2: Costa Concordia Shipwreck
Carnival Corporation is a British-American global cruise company and one of the largest vacation companies in the world. The company deems itself as “the world’s most popular cruise company” based on the number of guests (Arthur W. Page, n.d.: 4-5). Its vacation companies attract 10 million guests annually. Carnival Corporation’s brands are: Carnival Cruise Line, Holland America Line, Princess Cruises, Seabourn, and Fathom in North America; P&O Cruises and Cunard in the United Kingdom; AIDA Cruises in Germany; Costa Cruises in Southern Europe; and P&O Cruises in Australia. Carnival Corporation owns more than 100 ships and (http://www.carnivalcorp.org). Each cruise line maintains separate sales, marketing, and reservation offices in accordance with brand autonomy (Arthur W. Page, n.d.: 5).

Previous to fatal Costa Concordia crisis, Carnival Corporation had few crises. In 2002, Carnival Corp. agreed to pay an $18 million fine for environmental violations. In 2010, more than 3,000 passengers aboard the Carnival Splendor were towed to shore after an engine-room fire cut off the ship's electricity, but there were no injuries. Another ship, the Star Princess, caught fire in 2006 on its way to Jamaica; one person died and more than 10 were injured (Esterland Lublin, 23 January 2012).

On the 13th of January, at 19.33 (CET) cruise liner Costa Concordia was set sail from the Italian port Civitavecchia with 4,229 passengers and 1,023 crew and personnel on board for a seven days Mediterranean cruise. The ship struck a rock near Giglio Island, the collision resulted with a gash on the port-side. The compartments below the waterline flooded and the ship listed heavily to starboard. As a consequence, 32 people aboard lost their lives and more than 100 people injured. Costa Concordia disaster is the most expensive shipwreck in maritime history with costs exceeding US$1 billion (Alexander, 2012: 5-7). This crisis belongs to accidental SCCT crisis category this crisis belongs to ‘accident’ (minimal crisis responsibility/threat) crisis category. But as it has been mentioned in the above paragraph, crisis history and prior reputation of Carnival Corporation could be evaluated as intensifying factors according to SCCT.

During his first interview to the media, Carnival’s CEO Micky Arison expressed his sorrow and emphasised that this event was an accident as following: “When you have 100 ships out there, sometimes unfortunate things happen, but as I said, it was an accident. We as a company do everything we can to encourage the highest of safety standards” (NBC6, 9 March 2012). Arison’s crisis response strategy is a ‘justification’ strategy according to the SCCT cluster analysis study. ‘Justification’ strategy is used during the crisis communication process in order to attempt to minimise the perceived damage caused by the crisis (Coombs, 2012: 36). Chaotic and disorganised evacuation with contradictory orders of the crew members revealed an ineffective, mismanaged crisis process. Costa CEO Pier Luigi Foschi who lead the crisis management “attributed the crew’s lack of training to poor leadership of the ship’s officers and language barrier” (Arthur W. Page, n.d: 6). Therefore,
Foschi blamed the crew and used ‘scapegoating’ as a crisis communication strategy. Moreover, captain has also been sued by the company.

Captain Francesco Schettino has been accused by prosecutors of taking the liner too close to the shore and then abandoning ship with passengers and crew still on board. Schettino who has been under house arrest, told during his trial that he “wanted to kill three birds with one stone”: to please the passengers, salute a retired captain on Giglio and do a favour to the vessel’s head waiter who was a local. He has rejected rumours that he had wanted to impress his lover, Dominica Cemortan (BBC News, 11 February 2015). Schettino, claimed that he had informed corporate executives as soon as the accident happened and blamed bridge officers. Even though Schettino acknowledged some responsibility, he defended his decisions and claimed that he has been a ‘scapegoat’ as following: “All the responsibility has been loaded on to me with no respect for the truth or for the memory of the victims” he said (BBC, 11 February 2015).

Arison who stepped down as chief executive said: “You do wake up at night fearing certain things, because you’ve got 100 ships out there, stuff’s gonna happen. And you’ll have this nightmare scenario of, ‘oh my god, the Titanic scenario’, and you’ll hope that . . . you’re prepared for every eventuality. But never in my wildest dreams did I ever imagine what Schettino did” (Blitz, 24 September 2013). Therefore, once again Carnival former CEO has blamed the captain.

LSE listed shares of Carnival Corporation stock dove nearly 20% on the 16th of January and NYSE listed CCL stock dropped 14% on 17th of January. Analysts warned on the financial impact of lost bookings, lost capacity, lawsuits, and industry-wide safety concerns (Arthur W. Page, n.d: 8). On 27th of January Costa Cruises negotiated with Italian consumer groups and agreed on a compensation package of 14.500 $ per passenger, a refund for the cruise, and reimbursement for all travel and medical expenses (Arthur W. Page, n.d: 22). Costa Cruises’ lost revenues amounted to €93 million, the company has offered about €50 million in compensation to the surviving passengers, a class-action suit has been launched for €350 million (Alexander, 2012: 7). SCCT suggests the compensation strategy anytime when victims suffer serious harm (Coombs, 2012: 42).

Crash investigations revealed that the alarm system for the ship’s computer navigation system was manually shut-off to conduct a salute and the ship was steered on a five mile diversion toward the island. Furthermore, 600 passengers who boarded in Rome had not participated in the evacuation drill prior to ship’s cruising, the lack of backup power had resulted with total blackout, and watertight compartments had flooded (Arthur W. Page, n.d: 6). Similarly, Alexander analyses probable contributory causes of the disaster in three main category as (1) risk management, (2) planning, training and exercising, and (3) crisis management which represent interrelated factors involving the company and company’s observance of maritime regulation (2013: 17-18). On the other hand, on July 20th 2013, Italian court has accepted plea bargains and has convicted five Costa Concordia employees (crisis coordinator, the ship’s hotel director, two bridge officers, and a helmsman) of manslaughter and negligence with a prison sentence ranging from 18 months to two years and 10 months (Batty, 20 July 2013). As for Schettino, he was sentenced to 10 years for multiple manslaughters, five years for causing the shipwreck and one year for abandoning his passengers (BBC, 11 February 2015). This manoeuvre by the implementation of the scapegoating strategy overshadowed discussions about multi-causality regarding the crisis and therefore corporate responsibility.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

Humanity has a long tradition of searching for means to cope with crisis situations and to manage the order of society. This study reveals that, even though slightly different from its ancient counterparts in its aims, scapegoating is a frequent tool of global corporations seeking to mitigate their multi-causal crises. Global corporations experiencing multi-causal crises within their complex global networking rather than admitting responsibility and endeavouring in order to prevent future crises rush into ascertain a ‘scapegoat’. Responsibility avoiding and assigning a ‘scapegoat’ aim at reducing multi-causalities to a single one. This global corporate game is an efficient manoeuvre in order to manage a multi-causal crisis, as it provides a distraction from the ‘whole picture’. Therefore, the scapegoat (pharmako) ‘expelled’ from the system serves as a ‘healer’ aiming atnot managing the order of society as in ancient scapegoating rituals, but managing the sustainability of neoliberal system.
References


Insta-Shopping of Turkish Fashion

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Abstract
The augmented use of social media gives a phase for the companies or individuals to move their traditional marketing efforts into the social media. Especially Instagram become very popular with the enormous number of users and marketplace opportunity give chance to the online shops to transfer their marketing efforts into a new platform. As an emerging market Turkey, Instagram and Instagram shopping have become prevalent for the brands and the consumers to communicate and make transactions on Instagram. The aim of the study is to understand popular Turkish fashion brands’ marketing strategies on Instagram. The content analysis will used to understand the Instagram marketing strategies of Turkish fashion brands on Instagram. The research findings will create a pathway for marketing communication professionals and academicians to understand Instagram as an effective brand communication channel within a new marketplace.

Keywords: Instagram, marketing, fashion brands, social media

Introduction
Social Media has been considered as a social networking with representation of brand in Internet environment virtually and visually. Likewise, the fashion industry is one of the important industries in this globalized world especially for women-centric fashion orientation. Fashion companies or individuals have started to use Instagram to widespread their styles, identities and marketing communications acts with the use of social media.

Instagram and Social Media
Instagram is a tool for Social Media Marketing. Social media considered as a new technology with social networking in this globalized world. Instagram is a one of the overwhelm example for social networking site virtually. “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 give a pathway to the users or companies to share photos and videos to accelerate and boost the brand awareness, product/service launches and try to create interest towards the company’s brands. Mainly advertising which is one of the major tools of marketing communications is used in Instagram. Virtual and visual representation of the company’s brands cause to create impression about the brands. Ayman and Kaya (2015) pointed out that, Turkish brands use brand identity on their Instagram accounts instead of integrating social media and marketing communication strategies.

Clothing, Fashion and Instagram
Clothing industry is one of the most important industries in Turkey. Clothing Industry has a kind of inevitable importance on Turkey economy and foreign trade actions in Turkey with 7% of GDP contribution. Turkish Clothing industry has been counted the world’s top ten exporters list and as 2nd largest supplier to the European Union. Year by year, more fashionable items have been produced in this sector (Clothing Industry Turkey, 2014).

Fashion is a good example for gaining satisfaction of experiential needs which allows consumers to express their identities through time and place from their point of views (Ayman, 2015, p.27). Fashion goes through the life with clothing. Eco’s declaration is important about clothing as “a second skin” (Ross, 2005, p.16) (Moody, 2008, p.2). Fashion clothing gives a pathway to the people to visually express themselves (Solomon, 2006, p.61). Tarasova (2015) pointed out that Instagram has no language obstacle which is a place to use visualization atmosphere for the fashion industry.
Moreover, the mix of social media, Instagram shopping and visual global village has caused to have social insta-shopping village as a new platform for the companies and consumers. Thus, the companies have a huge power in their hands to spread fashion to the world via Instagram as formed a shopping environment for the companies as a game. Thus, the consumer profiles give chances to the companies to prepare their company-wide actions from their consumer perception point of view to survive in the marketplace.

Advertising Appeals
Advertising appeals are vital strategies for the companies during the advertising campaigns to reach the preferred consumer perception with understanding consumer profile. Advertising appeals cover rational and emotional appeals that are determined by the company’s creative team with the consideration of segmenting and positioning elements of the companies as shown in Table1.

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

(The explanations about advertising appeals are as shown below; Rational Appeals
- Factual message includes straightforward appearance of message information.
- Scientific/Technical evidence is the type of message information displayed in the advertisement.
- Demonstration includes presentation of product benefits and uses explaining with exhibit it in the advertisement.
- Testimonial covers one’s explanation of product advantages according to his/her experiences with the selected product in the advertisement.
- News appeal includes the news and announcements of selected product in the advert.
- Product Popularity appeals cover the number of people uses that product and mentions market leader position in the advertisement.
- Comparison covers the product and brand evaluation in the advertisement (Belch & Belch, 2004) (Fill, 2002)

Emotional Appeals
- Fear appeal emphasizes on destructive facets or social rejection of the people according to the non-useage of the product.
- Humor appeal covers and emphasis of the interest and positive attitude of the people.
- Dramatization is a scenario formation with a short story and dramatizes the situation.
- Sex Appeal focuses on the sexual representation with covering nudity and human body in the advertisement.
- Animation is used to get attention of audiences with animated characters or icons in the advertisement.
- Fantasy appeal covers on metaphors situation or illusion about the product to create impression with the advertisements.
- Slice of Life appeal is used to give a real-life story with the consideration of slice of life for the audiences (Belch & Belch, 2004) (Fill, 2002)

The above advertising appeals are the main creative appeals which are used by the creative team of the company to achieve success on their campaign launches. According to Insta-marketing content analysis, Turkish brands have more tendencies to use factual message and demonstrations for their advertisements as advertising appeals (Ayman & Kaya, 2015).

Methodology
The Content Analysis was used to analyze the Instagram accounts of Turkish fashion brands that to discover Turkish brands’ availability on Instagram. 7 criteria were used to analyze the data that collected from Instagram accounts. Criteria covered sharing types (photo or video); content type as brand information; products;marketing communication tools(as sales promotion, public relations (social responsibility as corporate PR and Marketing
PR special days announcements); sponsorship, e-commerce, advertising (as celebrity endorsement and creative appeals (as rational and emotional); photo types (professional or amateur); shooting venue (indoor or outdoor). The data was collected from 1st May to 26th May 2016.

According to Socialbakers statistics about the largest audience on Facebook accounts in Turkey are considered and their market segments (women, men and children) strategies with product lines shed a light to choose Turkish fashion brands for this study.

(http://www.socialbakers.com/statistics/facebook/pages/total/turkey/brands/fashion/)

According to above information, 4 brands were selected from Socialbakers report as; Defacto, LC Waikiki, Mavi and Koton. This study focused on Content Analysis of selected brands’ Instagram accounts.

(http://www.socialbakers.com/statistics/facebook/pages/total/turkey/brands/fashion/)

Table 2. Number of Fans and Followers on Facebook and Instagram

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>Number of Facebook Fans</th>
<th>Number of Instagram Followers</th>
<th>Number of Posts on Instagram</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LC Waikiki</td>
<td>3 268 156</td>
<td>362k</td>
<td>998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defacto</td>
<td>2 640 357</td>
<td>263k</td>
<td>2990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mavi</td>
<td>1 646 820</td>
<td>476k</td>
<td>2338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koton</td>
<td>1 165 579</td>
<td>422k</td>
<td>2201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, four fashion brands’ Facebook fans and Instagram followers were displayed. As shown in Table 3, brand analysis on Instagram was categorized for four Turkish fashion brands.

Table 3. Brands Analysis on Instagram

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>LC Waikiki</th>
<th>Defacto</th>
<th>Mavi</th>
<th>Koton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand Information</td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Products</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing Types</td>
<td>10 videos/23 photos</td>
<td>8 videos/67 photos</td>
<td>6 videos/45 photos</td>
<td>6 videos/72 photos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Comm.</td>
<td>Sales Promotion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales Promotion</td>
<td>PR -Special Days Announcements</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsorship</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-commerce direction</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising</td>
<td>Celebrity Endorsements</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising Appeals</td>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slice of life</td>
<td>Mainly</td>
<td>Mainly</td>
<td>Mainly</td>
<td>Mainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo Types</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shooting Venue</td>
<td>Mainly Indoor</td>
<td>Indoor/Outdoor</td>
<td>Mainly Outdoor</td>
<td>Mainly Outdoor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

As a conclusion, four fashion brands have used Instagram for their marketing strategy efforts. LC Waikiki and Defacto have more fans on Facebook. However, Mavi jeans and Koton have more followers on Instagram. Koton and Mavi Jeans use mainly outdoor environment to give a lifestyle to the audiences.

According to the Instagram accounts of the brands; Mavi Jeans has more followers and highly use celebrity endorsements of TV serials.
However, their social media marketing strategies need further studies and require extended creative strategies. To become more effective as local brands, they have to be more professional to integrate social media marketing strategies with the marketing communication efforts.

**LC WAIKIKI INSTAGRAM POSTS**

**DEFACTO INSTAGRAM POSTS**
MAVİ JEANS INSTAGRAM POSTS
KOTON INSTAGRAM POSTS
References


Defacto Instagram Account (https://www.instagram.com/defactoofficial/?hl=tr)


Koton Instagram Account (https://www.instagram.com/koton/?hl=tr)


LC Waikiki Instagram Account (https://www.instagram.com/lcwaikiki/?hl=tr)

Mavi Jeans Instagram Account (https://www.instagram.com/mavi/?hl=tr)

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Location Sharing Motivations of University Students

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Abstract
Location sharing-check in- contains both geographical and semantic information about the visited venues, in the form tags. Many social networks like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, allow people to share location but main feature of Swarm and Foursquare is that. There are many motivations have investigated for identifying location based services uses: inform each other, keep track of places, appear cool, get a reward etc. The aim of this study is examining user motivations of locations based services; Swarm and Foursquare. For this purpose, a survey has been applied to university students. Results suggest that location sharing applications supply user’s need of location based socialization.

Introduction
Location sharing applications have not a long history in research. Location sharing-check in- contains both geographical and semantic information about the visited venues, in the form tags. Foursquare, Swarm etc. are location-based social network (LBSN) and allow people to share their physical location with members of their social network. In addition, Swarm and Foursquare also have gaming features and enables people to leave geotagged messages attached to locations. Many social networks like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, allow people to share location but main feature of Swarm and Foursquare is that. Foursquare and Swarm which has released by same corp. is a mobile social networking application with gaming elements that is built around people’s check-ins. Unlike Foursquare Dodgeball used SMS to share location. Dodgeball has spawned other imitators and Foursquare was far away from the only LBSN when it released in 2009. Whrrl, Gowalla, Loopt, Brightkite are another application for this purpose. Foursquare’s success is important because of facing with two Internet giants: Facebook-Facebook and Google- Latitude.

Foursquare and Swarm are not just a location based application, they are location-based social networking application, representing the merging of mobile communication and mobility with elements of online SNS. These applications enable new ways for people to connect with others, maintaining existing relationships, present themselves to others, and engage in participatory surveillance.

The check in was key for location based social networks. Swarm and Foursquare are a mobile social networking application with game elements that is built around user’s check-ins. When using Foursquare and Swarm people go to locations and share those locations with their networks through check in process, like how people share contents and status updates with friends on social networking sites, Facebook etc. Users get points and badges for checking in and can become the mayor of a location if they checked in there the most times. In other words, users can both share their location in a social way and compete with themselves and others over who can earn the most points.

Location Sharing and Applications
From the traditional, automated approach of location-tracking, location sharing services now place the control with the user providing social media- oriented micro updates on their location. In addition, these services feature an interesting mix of public and private sharing, in which individual users may keep their location private or share with friends only, but in which all user generated venues are currently visible to all users (Cramer at al., 2011).

Location sharing services are defined as “a subset of web services meant to provide functions that are location-aware, where the use of such services is predicated on knowledge of where the services are engaged” (Wilson, 2012). Foursquare describes its services as a “mobile application that makes cities easier to use and more interesting to explore. It is a friend-finder, a social city guide and a game that challenges users to experience new things, and rewards them for doing so. Foursquare let users ‘check-in’ to a place when they are there.” (Lindqvist et al., 2011). Swarm and Foursquare are available for smartphones like IPhone, Android platform etc.
Foursquare-Swarm allow users to check-in at venues, write tips about there, upload contents like picture and video. Like other social networks Foursquare and Swarm users can easily make friend and monitor their friend locations and status. The role of geography and location in social networks has recently attracted increasing attention (Cheng et al., 2011).

Mobile check-ins are one of the most popular activities among young’s and adults who go online with smart phones (Pew Internet Research, 2013). With the growth of mobile phone user number location sharing services has become a trend in social networks.

Game condition of foursquare presents virtual rewards for check-ins. Virtual rewards come in the forms of points, badges and mayorships visible in profile. People able to share their location with very large population bot through the location sharing services themselves and by moving check-in to their Twitter and Facebook pages. Location sharing applications allows people to know the location of others. Online social networks like Facebook, Instagram, Swarm allow users to share location information with others. Such a feature is quite popular, as %30 of users attach locations to their posts (Bilogravic et al., 2015).

There are many applications for location sharing. ConnecTo allowed users to tag locations and then automatically share it. Loccacino let for continuous updating of location based on specification of the people. Google Latitude mainly use GPS tracking model. Contrary to this many of the most popular location sharing services like Foursquare-Swarm, Facebook Place and Gowalla use one to many check-in model (Cramer et al., 2011).

When a user of Swarm or Foursquare want to share its location, it check in to a place using the mobile application or web site. Users of application can choose from a list of places nearby or search for a name or create a new place point. Users can also move their location sharing to their social media profiles. When a user checks in a place, a check in notification is by default pushed to their Foursquare and Swarm contacts. After check-in users see which other people checked in same place and total number of check-ins. Users can hide their check-ins but all venues created by users are visible for all users. These applications provide gamification components like badged, points and mayorships to increase participation. Users have a publically accessible profile page, they can choose to use their real name or links of social pages. In Turkey young’s use location sharing many times in the day actively due to many motivations. Following maps illustrates check-ins in Turkey and our case city Eskisehir:

As it is seen in maps, Foursquare-Swarm users concentrates in large cities because they provide more opportunities and venues for young’s.

Motivations of Location Sharing
Brown et al. (2007) argue that location sharing is not only practically sharing location or one’s activity but also it is an emotional and moral affair. Location services can express whereabouts, furthermore portray users moods, lifestyle and events. By sharing location, users can exchange enjoyable and friendship and interact with social circle. Lindqvist et al. (2011) specified location sharing motivations including games and badges, social connection, place discovery and keep track for a venue. The motivation of location sharing include the wish to connect social circles and project an interesting image of themselves rather than geographical information. They
found that people checked in at their location via Foursquare-Swarm in order to pursue continued connection with friends, enjoy the sharing of their locations, and finally to explore new places for their own experiences.

In the last period several studies has been applied to investigate users’ motivations for share their locations in online social networks. Patil et al., (2012) applied two studies and results show that users’ main motivations for sharing location included the desire to tell friends that they like a place to keep their social circle informed of where they are, to record their visits and appear cool and interesting rather than pointing to geographical location. In the same way results illustrated that social connections and impression management play an essential role in location sharing of Foursquare users.

Wang and Stefanone (2013) argued that presentation of place would facilitate and satisfy one’s desire to be connected to other people online using an image of the person like offline social activities. Nov et al. (2009) described user motivations for Flickr in four dimensions: enjoyment, commitment to the community, self-development and reputation building. Some scholars use these dimensions for location sharing motivations.

**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 and Swarm. 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 1 to April 20 of 2016. Before beginning the survey, participants read and indicated their consent to participate. The survey took an average of 3 min to complete. Data were pulled from the Google website and was downloaded on to a spreadsheet. Data were then examined for incomplete surveys. Once data were cleaned for analysis, a total of 105 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 for motivations intention to use location sharing applications. An online survey to gain more insight into the motivations for ‘checking in’ has applied. A total of five motivation factors were tested, entailing the following: badges and fun, social connection, place discovery and keep tracking for place, gaming and motivator generating from others. Demographic factors of gender, age, mobile phone and check-ins were also tested. The researchers used the questionnaire which developed from Lindqvist (2011)’s study to illustrate the level of location sharing application use and motivations. Questionnaire has 20 items which includes likert scale of 1 to 5 and 6 demographic questions.

**Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering the range of participants by gender, women appear to be more. Women constitute %56.2 of the sample, men %43.8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operating System</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IOS</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Android</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When asked the operating system of the phone to the participants, %47 of participants answered IOS, %52.4 Android.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Checked in Venues</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cafe</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>62.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night Clubs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results illustrate that most people do not check-in when seeing a doctor. Note that for homes, the majority of people say that they never check-in at homes. Cafe is fairly popular places to check-in at. This finding is not too surprising, because the sample of the study consisted of students and due to the same reason many participants check-in when they are in school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means of Daily Check Ins</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Majority of participants check-in not too many in a day. Only %7 of participants check in more than 5 in a day period.

Factor 1: Badges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Item Mean</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I pay attention to the badges that I earn</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I pay attention to the badges that others earn</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy for the badges I have earned</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I check in for getting badges</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First factor of study is badges and scores about this factor are fairly low. According to results participants didn’t deal with the badges and there is no correlation between their use of Swarm-Foursquare and badges. They don’t feel happy because of badges and don’t pay attention to them.

Factor 2: Social connection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Item Mean</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I use Swarm-Foursquare to let other people know that I am available to hang out.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swarm-Foursquare helps me keep in touch with my friends.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swarm-Foursquare is fun because my friends are using it.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Swarm-Foursquare to coordinate with my friends.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think Swarm-Foursquare is fun</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.572</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we consider location sharing applications as a social media, it is expected that high scores of social connection. Results confirm this hypothesis. The highest scores of study has seen in social connection factor.
Young’s use location sharing applications primarily for keep in touch with their friends and coordinate when they wish to meet.

**Factor 3: Place discovery**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Item Mean</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have found a good tip about a place by using Swarm-Foursquare.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swarm-Foursquare has motivated me to go to new places.</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have discovered new places from my use of Swarm-Foursquare.</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Swarm-Foursquare to keep track of places I have visited.</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look comments about a venue on Swarm-Foursquare</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third factor of our study is place discovery and scores about this factor are fairly high. Results suggested that location sharing applications carry out their primarily objective of their nature. These applications mostly use for place discovering and tracking by participants. One visit a new venue wants to read comments of previous visitors and learn their experience in there. Participants also find out new places nearby and be motivated for discover them.

**Factor 4: Motivators generating from others**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Item Mean</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I pay attention to other people’s check-ins.</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use foursquare because I can get discounts and special offers.</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I meet new people via Foursquare-Swarm</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think my check ins show me more cool and fun.</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor 4 involves four items which can be define “motivators generating from others” like meeting new people or paying attention for others check-ins, but results suggested that participants’ use of location sharing application don’t correlate with motivators generating from others. In other words, participants use location sharing applications for meeting one’s own needs. They don’t care about discounts, new people or try to have a cool look.

**Factor 5: Game with yourself**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Item Mean</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I consider Swarm-Foursquare to be a game I play alone.</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use foursquare because it gives me something to do when I am bored</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>.705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Last factor of study is gaming and according to results participants don’t think Swarm-Foursquare as a game. They maybe sometimes use it when they get bored but gaming scores are not high for making deduction.

**Conclusion**

Study’s findings support those of past studies of location sharing applications. Location sharing application use by participants as it’s reason for being. Participants use location sharing application mostly tracking and discovering new venues. Furthermore they want to keep in touch with their friends via these apps. In sum, location sharing applications supply user’s need of location based socialization. New studies may examine why people don’t use these apps. By this way users and non-users can compare.

**References**


Match-Making Programs in Turkish TV Channels

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Abstract
In the national Turkish television channels, recently a new program type called “Match making Programs” has appeared. These programs seek to attract women audience, particularly housewives who stay at home and keep the TV on during the hours when husbands are at work and children are at school. These programs target women audience and choose topics that would attract them. In a way, these programs stand as the indicators of the governments’ policies in the sense put forth by Althusser as the state ideological apparatus. The present paper seeks to analyze audience’s reactions to these programs that are mostly broadcasted during the day. These programs represent the reflection of Turkish women with the content chosen to satisfy their needs. The study is based on “Uses and Gratifications Theory” which takes the audience as active beings and use the media to satisfy their needs. For the study, focus group interviews have been conducted with a group of housewives who follow these programmes.

Keywords: women audience, state ideological apparatus, Uses and Gratifications Theory, Turkish TV channels, women’s programs

Introduction
Women’s programs have become very popular in recent years in the Turkish TV channels. The density of women audience during the day time led to the emergence of a program type called “Women’s Program” and the present paper seeks to explore the reasons why these programs are watched by women. This new genre, “Women’s Programs”, is directed towards women and is divided into two broad categories which are match-making programs and other women programs. Match-making programs seek to help people find partners and get married. The other women’s programs include mostly cooking, handcrafts, health information. For this study, the Uses and Gratifications Theory is found useful to grasp the motives for the reasons of women’s watching match-making TV programs. In this study, the match-making programs are investigated and Turkish women audience’s interests are evaluated through focus group interviews with nine women.

The Relationship between the Uses and Gratifications Theory and Turkish Women’s Audiences
Match-making programs have started to occupy an important place in the Turkish TV channels from the 2007 onwards. Hence, these programs draw our attention to the presentation of marriage in the society and understanding women’s and men’s role in that society (Nüfusçu and Yılmaz, 2012, p.27). When looking at the match-making programs in the Turkish national channels, Esra Erol’la Evlen Benimle in ATV channel, Zuhal Topal’la İzdiç in Fox TV channel, Evleneceksen Gel in Star TV channel and Kismetse Öğür in Kanal D stand out as the most popular programs. These programs offer an organized introduction and meeting ceremony of the participants in the TV and form an environment that participants feel themselves as secured and trusted. In other words, producers, speakers of these programs and workers of the programs concentrate on the participants’ comforts; the reasons may be all these will return themselves as more rating and advertisements.

When concentrating on the Turkish women audience preference of the TV channels, the most popular channels for women can be listed as; firstly, Star TV (21.7%); secondly, Kanal D (19.2%); thirdly, ATV (17.5%); on the other hand, women’s less preferred channels are; firstly, NTV (1.7%); secondly, CNN (2.9%); thirdly, TRT (5.8%) (Meder and Çiçek, 2012, p.17). From this perspective, the top three channels which are Star TV, Kanal D and ATV have match-making programs in their program; however, NTV and CNN are news channels and therefore they have not got match-making programs.

Uses and Gratifications Theory asserts that people use media to gratify their needs and to attain their goals (Blumler and Katz, 1974, p.21). Accordingly, Uses and Gratifications Theory consists mainly of five
analysing this subject and results were interesting. Women pointed out that they were informed, entertained, gratifications are that has taken from soap operas by women. Because of that, she conducted 100 interviews for made a research about why women listen to the radio soap operas and what their main motivations and

The root of Uses and Gratifications Theory goes back to the time for the Second World War. Herzog (1944) made a research about why women listen to the radio soap operas and what their main motivations and gratifications are that has taken from soap operas by women. Because of that, she conducted 100 interviews for analysing this subject and results were interesting. Women pointed out that they were informed, entertained, obtained knowledge for themselves and others, and obtained the opportunity for thinking (Curran, 1996; Williams 2003, p.177). In a nutshell, women preferred radio soap operas based on these reasons. More importantly, Uses and Gratifications Theory is fundamental for identifying people’s motivations and desires in the media sector and selections. Uses and Gratifications Theory is interested in the position of individuals for grasping and interpreting media messages (Williams, 2003, p.178). Therefore, Uses and Gratifications Theory underlies the audiences’ capability for selecting, interpreting and how they satisfy their own needs when watching or using the media instruments.

According to A. M. Rubin (2009), Uses and Gratifications Theory is based on psychological communication view in explaining media effects. In this regard, the social and psychological features are essential for guiding, filtering and mediating the media (Cortese and Rubin, 2010, p.90). According to Rubin (1993), the main idea of Uses and Gratifications Theory is based on the understanding of the audiences’ motivations and behaviours in the media use (Brown, Lauricella, Douai and Zaidi, 2012, p.49). To sum up, Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch emphasized the major goals of Uses and Gratifications Theory. They argued that this theory clarifies how people use media to gratify their needs, to understand motives for media behaviours, to know functions and results of needs, motives and behaviour (Alan Rubin, 2008, p.527). Uses and Gratifications Theory concentrates on the audience’s attention to the mass communication process and it differentiates active uses from passive uses in the case of intentionally selection (Baran and Davis, 2009, pp.231-232).

Media have great impact on the formation of social reality, production of sexual roles in the society and TV includes both visual and auditory aspects and thus media have an influence on people’s knowledge, culture, and entertainment needs (Aziz, 1982; Gökssel, (1993 in Meder and Çiçek, 2011, p.70). From this perspective, media instruments expand the ideology, opinion, attitude and culture. More notably, the ideology and state ideological apparatuses are important concepts put by Althusser. According to Althusser, the state has got ideological apparatuses that interplay with social practices and ideology always affects social life (Tekinalp and Uzun, 2009, p.180). According to him, the state’s pressure apparatuses are divided into two parts which are state pressure apparatuses and state ideological apparatus. The state pressure apparatus are the military, police, judiciary, and governments’ executive power. On the other hand, the state ideological apparatuses are school, religion, family and mass media instruments, Mass media instruments are producing of the ideology and distributing the ideology. In this regard, the state ideological apparatuses work together with harmony (Güngör, 2013, p.262). Additionally, the ideology is neutralized with the help of the state ideological apparatuses and reproduces continuously (Kaya, 2013, p.83). Althusser concentrates on the ideological apparatuses and its effects on the formation of people’s opinion. Althusser claims that the production and reproduction of ideology is based on the functional apparatuses which are also the state ideological apparatuses. This is because state has power and it handles that power through some agencies. The intensity of these programs indicates the wishes of the governments that use the media as disseminating their ideology. In this context, the match-making programs reinforce traditional society’s sexual roles and it offers how the sex roles for men and women’ would be shaped with the help of TV. More notably, the match-making programs strengthen the transfer of ideology and the dominant ideology occurs more in the marriage practices (Kaya, 2013, p.81). From this point of view, the match-making programs prevail patriarchy that exists in Turkish traditions, in other words, the match-making programs reinforce target reality and ideology.
The match-making programs are the most interesting content among other women’s programs. Additionally, similar programs are found in other countries yet ages and the criteria of the candidates in the Turkish TV channels are completely different. In the West, such programs are done with young people. But in the Turkish channels, there is a variety of age of participants. In the West, participants are well-groomed yet in Turkey both beautiful and handsome.

Like all other media formats, format of the match-making programs represent mediated reality. In other words, these are not simple blind-date type programs but programs where the content is pre-arranged. That is to say, both the main characters and audience in the studio act. This is because the participants’ questions and other participants’ comments are based on mostly private issues. The main criteria for selecting a spouse are based on materialism such as having a car, house and money, not having a former marriage, not having children and to be beautiful or handsome. In addition to these, match-making programs stand out with the masculinity and femininity implications (Meder and Çiçek, 2011, p.77). With this regard, match-making programs are based on mediated reality and thus they set the scene for the audience while introducing to the prospective partners and choosing their partners. In other words, there are interactive communications among the audience and also they invite comments through telephone connections.

Another important issue is that match-making programs ignore the right of individual for keeping their privates lives for the rating and manipulates society accordingly (Polat and Karśli, 2012, p.35).

From this point of view, this research has concentrated on the understanding of the Turkish Cypriots housewives’ motives and behaviours towards the match-making programs through the assumptions put forth by Uses and Gratifications Theory.

In this study, the main motives and reasons of women audiences’ interests in match-making programs in Turkish TV channels are examined. The present study is based on 3 Focus Group interviews conducted with housewives.

Methodology
This study is based on qualitative research methodology. It is based on ethnographic approach. The present study has been conducted in the natural settings of the participants- at their homes. Data have been collected through three focus group interviews. Three focus group interviews have been conducted in their houses during their coffee parties. Data have been analyzed thematically.

Each focus group is composed of 3 women audience. Focus group interviews have been shown preferences for conversations and discussion about these programs and providing opportunities for women to reflect their ideas easily in a more relaxed and friendly environment. This research has been conducted in April, 2016 and interviews conducted face to face by the researchers at participants’ homes.

The questions posed in the focus groups were related mainly to the nine themes given below:

1. How many hours do you watch TV?
2. Which channels do you watch mostly?
3. With whom do you watch?
4. Which programs do you watch?
5. Why do you watch these programs? Such as marriage?
6. What do you learn from these programs?
7. Why do you watch these programs frequently?
8. Do you think these TV figures are sincere?
9. What is the TV for you?
10. According to your ideas, is TV popular for you although new improvements in Internet and smart phones applications?
11.

In each Focus Group, 3 people participated. For ethical reasons, the initial letters of the women participants’ names are mentioned in the paper. In the first Focus Group, the participants are M, I and A; the second Focus Group, the participants are S, H and F; and in the third Focus Group; the participants are E, S and N.
Analysis of Findings
The study’s aim is to find out women audience’s attitude and the rationale for their interested in match-making programs. When focusing on the themes about the TV, they have intense relationship with TV because they are housewives and the TV is their best friend throughout the day. The first theme was “How many hours do you watch TV?” The aim of this question was to learn the duration of time spent by the Turkish Cypriots housewives’ on TV; this indicates women’s interests in the TV.

To the first question which was about the time they spend watching TV, Focus Group 1’s participants answered around 3-5 hours whereas Focus Group 2’s participants replied that it changes from 2 to 6 hours but the participant 3 said she watched the TV all day. The reason is probably because she is around 80 years old and she cannot do housework or else anymore. In this context, Focus Group 3 answered duration of watching TV is between 2-9 hours. These results clearly point out that Turkish housewives as the audience prefer to watch TV during the day and they devote their times willingly.

The second theme was “Which channels do you watch mostly?” The Focus Group 1’s participants maintained that the main channels they watched were Kanal D, ATV, Fox and TV 8, Focus Group 2 said Star TV, ATV, Kanal 7 and one participant said Ada TV which is a local Cypriot channel. On the other hand, Focus Group 3 answered Fox TV, ATV, Star, Show TV, TV 8 and news channels. As it is shown, they prefer to see the main TV channels to watch that these channels have broad programs options. For example, Müge Anlı’s reality show in ATV is an informative program about crimes and finding the guilty. In other words, it is real and it offers real events to them and women may be informed about the serious issues. Also, they have a preference to watch competition programs like Survivor in TV 8.

The third theme was “With whom do you watch?” Focus Group 1’s participants mostly said with their families, husband and also alone; however, Focus Group 2’s participants answered differently. They mentioned they watched the TV with their grandmothers and grandchildren. Only participant 3 watched with her husband at home. When looking at their answers, participants frequently watched TV alone. This is because; they are alone during the day and watched the TV with their husbands at night. This means that Turkish housewives can afford the time to watch TV with their families and husbands which indicates their willingness to watch the TV and also show that they are not bored from TV.

The fourth theme was that “Which programs do you watch?” The aim is to learn Turkish housewives’ favourite programs. In line with this, Focus Group 1’s participants said generally serials, news, Müge Anlı reality show, cooking programs and match-making programs especially Kismetse Olur in Kanal D. Focus Group 2’s participants replied generally in the same way as the Focus Group 1’s participants. They mentioned that they watched serials, cooking programs, women and match-making programs but one participant added health programs according to her interest in this issue. On the other hand, Focus Group 3’s participants answered different from Focus Groups 1 and 2’s participants. Focus Group 3’s participants said serials and competition programs but only one participant preferred to see women programs and match-making programs.

The fifth theme was that “Why do you watch these programs?” This is a significant question for analyzing the reasons and their satisfaction about women and match-making programs. More importantly, the result was very interesting. Almost all Focus Groups’ participants said that they watched women programs only for spending time. However, Müge Anlı reality show is different in this sense because women expressed they are more aware about dangerous and crook events around their environment and they became more conscious. Similarly, they liked to watch serials and health programs for their satisfaction because when they watched serials, they left their problems behind and health programs offer information to them.

The sixth theme was that “What do you learn from these programs?” The aim of this question is to learn what the audiences’ are gaining from these programs. The participants generally said nothing in Focus Group 1 but participant 3 answered differently from other participants. She points out that older women do not prefer to marry with poor men and these kinds of people are not sincere for her. In this regard, she is also interested in fashion programs such as “İşte Benim Stilim” because she may learn more designs and dressing-well form these programs. Focus Group 2’s participants answered this question mostly learn how to cook differently, learns how to cook healthy food and diet but match-making programs are not real for them, they consider these programs as
fake mediated. Also, the participant 3 added that sometimes she may learn how to solve her problems about some issues. However, Focus Group 3 replied this question remarkably because participants 1 and 2 answered that they learned nothing. The participant 3 points out that she learns how to commit crimes and crime results. Also match-making programs help them understand women’s perceptions about marriage and she enjoys herself. From these results, it can be said that women learn nothing from match-making programs but they watch in order to enjoy themselves. Also, they expressed that women’s programs offer recipes for healthy food so they learn these from women’s programs.

When concentrating on the seventh theme “Why do you watch these programs frequently?” Focus Group 1 and 2’s all participants answered this as to spend time. Participants 1 and 2 of the second focus group added that they also liked these women’s programs but not match-making programs. On the other hand, Focus Group 3’s participants answered to spend time and had nothing to do but the participant 2 said that for relaxing, when she watches competition programs, unlike match-making programs they are fake for her.

In line with this, the eighth theme “Do you think these TV figures are sincere?” Focus Group 1’s participants said “no”, but Focus Group 2 participants said “yes”. Participant 3 added that figures do not seem to me as real but “Esra Erol” match-making programs in ATV seems real; others come only for money. The participant 2 said that have no interest so no comment. However, the participant 3 answered partly these programs are real.

The ninth theme was “What is the TV for you?”. The Focus Group 1’s participants said that entertainment, a friend and a voice at home. However, Focus group 2’s participants said it was like a friend for them, others said that habit means a kind of addiction for them. On the other hand, the Focus group 3’s participants said that generally the TV was like a voice, like a friend but the participant 3 answered that by this way time passes quickly at home.

The last theme was that “According to your ideas, is TV popular for you although new improvements in Internet and smart phones applications?” That is the critical question to grasp the importance of TV for Turkish housewives. The Focus Group 1’s participants said “yes” and it is indispensable. The Focus Group 2’s participants answered parallel to Focus Group 1 and said definitely “yes”. On the other hand, Focus Group 3’s participants answered “yes” and the participant 2 added that TV is more easily accessible when compared to the Internet because older women may not know how to use the internet.

**Conclusion**

There are real discussions about match-making programs in the Turkish press currently. According to Armağan Çağlayan’s interview about match-making programs, the match-making programs are really edited. Some producers’ promise to participants that they will be famous if they attended to these programs (http://t24.com.tr/haber/izdivac-programlarinin-psikoterapisti-olaylar-kurgu-ve-cast,327388). With this regard, there are complaints about match-making programs to the RTUK (The Radio and TV Supreme Council) and most of them come from women. This reason is based on violation of privacy, marriage related with materiality and participants are criticized with their appearance and are threat to the privacy and honor of people (http://www.hurriyet.com.tr/evlendirme-programlari-rtuke-masaya-yatirildi-40056769). Another important criticism points out that these match-making programs spoil the social structure. These programs harm the family concept and children are affected psychologically and mentally from these programs because they do not reflect the reality and some issues are publicized so there is no privacy among people (http://www.manisamanset.gen.tr/1716-Makale-program-ve-diziler-toplum-yapisini-bozuyor). From this point, everyone has the right to talk about participants’ privacy and society. More importantly, the audiences’ life publicized and other audiences or TV audiences take an actively part together with criticism or sometimes blaming them as not liking anyone or preferring money to love.

According to the Focus Group interview results, Turkish Cypriot participants as housewives mostly watch match-making programs. They found these programs as fake and not sincere. They watch these programs for consuming time. In this context, Turkish Cypriot housewives watch the match-making programs because of the lack of other entertainment programs. They are forced to watch these programs involuntarily. Additionally, participants are entertained when they watch these programs because they escape from their daily problems by
watching these programs. From this view, Turkish Cypriot housewives watch match-making programs for both the lack of other entertainment programs and in order to divert from their problems. The other significant finding is that Turkish Cypriot housewives found Müge Anl reality show in ATV very useful because they maintained that learn crimes and potential dangers, so they become more aware about them. However, they believed that the match-making programs are fake and unconvincing. In this regard, Turkish Cypriot housewives like to watch health programs and cooking programs because they learn more about healthy lifestyles and recipes. In addition to these, some participants expressed that they like fashion programs that give them information about dressing codes and how to get dressed in different occasions. Another interesting result is that almost all participants clearly pointed out that TV has an important place in their lives such as entertainment instrument, friends, habit or voice their homes. More importantly, all participants stressed that TV is indispensable for them despite technological instruments such as smart phones and the Internet. From this point of view, TV and its program contents are influential still for Turkish Cypriot housewives and they think that TV is like a friend for them during the day, hence, it can be argued that Turkish Cypriot housewives welcomes whatever the TV offers even if it presented mediated reality.

On the other hand, the main problem of these programs is that private sphere is opened to the public sphere. Thus, match-making programs damage individuals’ private lives and society talks about them and make advice to match-making programs’ participants. In this context, private sphere becomes public sphere and it really destructs the social order and social structure. To eliminate this negative issue, the producers of these programs need to focus on ethical issues more.

References
Mediated Digital Activism: A Critical Assessment of Opportunities, Promises and Problems of Social Media Uses in Contemporary Grassroots Movements

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Abstract
The rapid development and widespread and increasing use of Social Networking sites is arguably one the most significant developments in contemporary human communication over the past two decades. Indeed, perhaps comparable only to development of mobile communication technologies, social networking may well be one of the most important and visible forms of human interaction since the invention of the Internet. In this paper, we examine and highlight the enormous potential of these fairly recent technological developments and highlight opportunities they present to humankind as platforms for democratic and participatory communication and governance - especially in grassroots social movements activism. While doing so, we use cases to show the important potential and actual contributions that social media hold out and represent for democratic communication. The paper also casts a critical look at the potential risks and examines proven and theoretical shortcomings and challenges that these new advances in human communication may pose or represent for society, and identify cybercrime, cyber bullying, their effects on human physical and emotional health, their impact on productivity and other workplace complications, and potential societal disorder and dysfunction of certain social norms among the list of concerns that we suggest require further reflection and redress. The paper concludes by depicting social media as a potentially useful tool from which much social and societal capital can be derived; but also draws attention to their many problematic aspects that make them seem like double-edged sword – with enormous opportunities and benefits on the one hand, and risks and threats, on the other, depending primarily on the uses to which they are put. Global, regional and national initiatives should be taken to maximize the benefits of social media while minimizing, or at least containing the threats through incorporation of independent but limited guidelines and regulations that would safeguard people’s freedoms and rights while protecting users from abuses and adverse effects often inherent in new developments.

Keywords: social media, cyber-democracy, cybercrime, social media activism, conflict, participatory democracy, conflict sensitive journalism, social media literacy.

Introduction
The U.S. Republican party presumptive nominees in the 2016 presidential race has stirred a fair amount of controversy both inside the country and internationally. In response to one of the many controversial comments by Donald Trump – calling for Muslims to be temporarily banned from entering the United States, five mosques in Scotland teamed up in a campaign to send special invitation to the Republican party’s imminent presidential flag bearer to visit the mosques and “educate himself” about Islam and Muslims during a visit to Scotland in the third week of June 2016 during a trip to re-launch his newly renovated Turnberry golf course and hotel there. Campaigners said that if Trump declined or did not respond to their invitation to visit the mosques they would hire a plane to “fly a banner over Trump’s head” as he reopens his new expensive facility “to make sure he gets the invite,” reported The (Glasgow, Scotland) Herald newspaper (quoted in USA TODAY: http://www.usatoday.com/story/news/world/2016/06/10/donald-trump-scotland-coward/85684514/). Efforts by the five mosques to invite the US Republican presidential candidate for a firsthand, face-to-face, dialogic and democratic encounter with Muslims and Islam, came amid outrage that some of his remarks had stirred in local and international political circles. Both British Prime Minister, David Cameron and newly-elected mayor of London Sadiq Khan called him “ignorant,” and Scottish Liberal Democrat leader Willie Rennie said Trump "may have closed his mind to other cultures but it seems Edinburgh’s Muslim community are ready to open their doors to The Donald and teach him about Islam.” (ibid).
At the same time, a U.K.-based Social movement activist group called “38 Degrees” quickly joined the initiative by the five mosques by launching its own Online campaign by using their social media web page to collect signatures of tens of thousands to pressure Trump to acknowledge and accept the invitation by the mosques. 38 Degrees was founded in May 2009, and says of its mission that, “38 Degrees brings over two million of us together to take action on the issues that matter and bring about real change. 38 Degrees makes it easy and quick for hundreds of thousands of us to come together to take action on the issues we care about. From tackling poverty to safeguarding our schools and hospitals, protecting our environment to holding our MPs to account, 38 Degrees brings people together to make a difference.” To highlight one more example of what Online communities are increasingly becoming able to achieve through social media-based activism, 38 degrees collected 70,000 signatures in 2015 to lobby Robert Gordon University in Aberdeen, Scotland, to revoke an honorary doctor of Business Administration which it had awarded Donald Trump in 2010, arguing at the time that, “his views did not match the values of Robert Gordon University” (any more). The honorary degree was revoked in December 2015 mostly following Trump’s call for all Muslims to be banned from entering the United States. Invitation for first-hand encounter and dialogue with imams of the five mosques therefore comes as a second phase of the controversy. As it turned out neither 38 Degrees nor the five mosques carried out their threat to fly a plane with a message of the New York billionaire turned presidential candidate’s head; but the furor was adequate to have Trump change his position on the matter, saying he would be just fine with “Muslims from Scotland visiting the United States” as reported by the New York Daily News of June 25, 2016 (http://www.nydailynews.com/news/politics/donald-trump-scottish-muslims-coming-u-s-article-1.2688094).

Although actions and activities of 38 Degrees may seen isolated or rare, it’s undeniably evident that Online-based activism is on the rise and social media such as Facebook and Twitter are impacting and influencing the ways in which a variety of communicators engage and influence their publics; many of whom are no longer hostage to the limitations and shortcomings of the gatekeeping activities of editors of traditional media. Rather, through social media, they are able to send, share or broadcast their messages to anyone who cares to hear, view or read them (Ross and Burger, 2014). On the public’s side, it’s now possible to follow politicians and other people of interest on Twitter or have a Facebook fan page - comment on their tweets and posts, and even send them messages directly and engage them or seek their support for a cause just as 38 Degrees appears to have successfully done and continues to do with regard to Donald Trump. Following the historic decision and vote in a referendum by U.K. voters to quit the EU, a citizen activist launched an online signature campaign to try to compel Britain’s political leaders to consider a rerun of the vote. After just three days, the campaign had collected more than 3 million signatures on UK Parliament website

(http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2016/06/25/more-than-half-a-million-sign-petition-demanding-referendum-reru/). Quite democratic and participatory these social media – with the attending new technologies for speedy communication - are, one can say. At least in so far as the potential for democratic and participatory communication go. In their ground breaking theoretical analogy of models of public relations practice, while analyzing communication models in the field of public relations, Grunig and Hunt (1984) outlined four models that they argued sum up contemporary public relations practices; a) one-way models which incorporate “Press agent/publicity” model, and “public information” model on the one hand, and b) two-way models that incorporate “two-way asymmetrical” and “two-way symmetrical” models on the other. Many of the subsequent research and writings on public relations have highlighted the advantages of the “two way symmetrical” model with lofty accolades for the provision it makes for participatory, democratic and dialogic interaction between or among participants. It forms the cornerstone on which the excellence theory (later outlined by Grunig in 1992) is based. The underlying logic and advantages of two-way symmetrical PR/Communication model is its emphasis on the use of communication to negotiate with the public, resolve conflict and promote mutual understanding and respect between organizations and their stakeholders. Key to our argument in this paper is that social media are particularly well suited for and (more) adaptable to two-way symmetrical communication which we also contend is dialogic, participatory and democratic than traditional media; features which social movement activists would find beneficial and rewarding for their causes. Perhaps because of this provision that the social media make for democratic two-way communication, there is a growing body of literature examining the possibilities as well as drawbacks of the social media not only to facilitate civil society activism movement in the achievement of their many goals, but also their value for ordinary corporate communication. The goal of the paper is to elicit the various benefits or potential as well as any shortcomings of the social media for social movements activism. What characteristics or features of the social media could interface with the interests and activities of social movement activists? What advantages do social media have over conventional media with
regard to social activist movements? These and similar underlying study questions informed and inspired the research. Specific research questions that guided the arguments and conclusions reached in this paper were:

**Research Questions**
1). What opportunities and problems exist for social media use in contemporary grassroots movements?

2). How might the new media contribute or be capable of contributing to the social movement activism?

3). How might this new social media based or inspired form of activism be conceptualized – as a new movement, or through the lenses of some existing or other reflections?

4). In what ways may messages shared on social media be considered “democratic,” and are there ways in which they could be considered “problematic?”

5). What precautions and guidelines might help strengthen the use of new and social media for grassroots movements and activism around the world?

**Opportunities for Participatory Grassroots Democracy**
Ross and Burger (2014) sought to investigate the underlying motivations for New Zealand politicians’ engagement with their publics and discovered that, contrary to expectations, and in spite of the provisions for democratic and participatory communication via social media, much of the political communication in New Zealand is still predominantly use one-way public information model; used by politicians to give information to the public - and the various politicians’ “followers.” The study found much of the political communication taking place via social media in New Zealand to be centered on politicians providing information using one-way channels to the public in order to make and keep themselves both visible and ‘hip’ in the eyes of the public (Ross and Burger, 2014, p. 46). Such uses limit the scope of social media in terms of the enormous opportunities they provide for dialogue and debate which are crucial for citizen engagement. Major part of the problem has to do with the monologic nature of such a model, which does not take advantage of the enormous potential for dialogue offered by social media. New Zealand politicians use Facebook posts to “broadcast information” rather than take full advantage of the medium as enabling two-way flow of information (see Ross, Fountaine, and Comrie, 2015, 251). According to a study by Obholzer and Daniel (2016) which surveyed members of European parliament, one of the key advantages of social media use in political campaigning is their ability to offer politicians a means to contact voters remotely and at low cost – without the usual hefty media buying budgets attached to using traditional media.

Other studies that have investigated social media for their potential for participatory (democratic) communication have listed among their many benefits facilitation of two-way dialogue among younger users. One such study by Briones, Kuch, Liu, and Jin (2011) that investigated the American Red Cross’ public relations practices with their key publics through Twitter and Facebook revealed that effective social media usage in corporate communication is both necessary and essential in the emerging digital age; social media help facilitate mutual understanding by removing or minimizing suspicion, and therefore can build strong and lasting relationships.

Debies-Carl (2015) examined the promises and any possible obstacles in social media usage in subcultural resistance, arguing that the shift from print to digital media platforms marked by proliferation of personal computers and Internet ushered in hope for greater individual liberties. Such a dream for greater liberties which he called “cyberlibertarian dream” brought with it the emergence of a relatively new online world encompassing free association, egalitarianism and self-determination that would exclude no one (see also Barlow, 1966; Kahn and Kellner 2003; Turkle 1997). Besides the obvious advantages that inclusivity and widespread access to the media brings, this inclusive analogy and portrayal of social media presents another advantage of social media in the way it responds to one of the main concerns of critical communication scholars; the notion that conventional mass media such as the press, radio, television are under the control of economic elites and governments tall around the world. The Internet and social media based upon it, on the other hand, are widely available giving the average person greater input and control. This openness and widespread availability makes the Internet (and Internet-based social media) difficult to dominate by special interests or media moguls. (see Leary 1994; McChesney 2008).
These aspirations and hopes for a widely-available, highly technology-based future with the Internet at its center closely mirror the aspirations of many resistance-based subcultures which Debies-Carl (2015) referred to as “Cyberlibertarians.” Internet users are not perceived as passive, innocent and exploitable consumers, but as self-directed agents who take an active role in constructing themselves and their social reality through free, continuous and ongoing interaction. (p. 681). At the individual level, these technologies provide users with a number of benefits vis-a-vis subcultural resistance: “opportunities for peer-to-peer learning, a changed attitude towards intellectual property, the diversification of cultural expression, the development of skills valued in the modern workplace, and more empowered conception of citizenship.” (Jenkins et al. 2006, p. 3). At the collective level, on the other hand, the potential of these emerging digital technologies for activist movements is strong enough to significantly empower such movements and even create grassroots revolutions (see Earl and Kimport 2011; Tsekeris 2009).

Elsewhere, a study by Melissa Graham (2014) on the impacts social media on government PR practices by government departments identified three main advantages; a) promoting dialogue along the two-way symmetric model outlined by Grunig and Hunt, b) engagement and interaction with the various key publics – especially beneficial during times of crisis, and c) unconstrained in their ability to enable and enhance democracy through the open, interactive and transparent ways that prompt citizens to learn about and participate in government programs.

More recently, many new and significant developments have taken place demonstrating the potential of the social and new media to galvanize public opinion and rally people around important causes and issues locally, nationally, regionally and globally (Khondker, 2011). Although systematic analysis of the role of the media in rallying people for political causes such as the Arab Spring that led to the overthrow of several governments perceived to be dictatorial in the Middle East and North Africa is sparse and in some ways contradictory about the true extent to which the social media may have played a role in causing /'igniting’ or giving momentum to the “Spring” movement, there is little doubt that many of the protesters “gathered” online before people ventured out into the Streets and Squares for the mammoth political rallies that followed. While the ‘Protester’ gained prominence and notoriety by being declared surprise “Person of the year 2011” by Time Magazine, sufficient attention has not been paid to analyzing and documenting advantages and unique provisions of the channel/s they may have used to bring about one of the most significant changes to the political history of the Middle East. It is this perceived missing link or gap in media scholarship that we seek to bridge while arguing that social media may be potent instruments for more democratic and participatory communication through deliberative participation by citizens to achieve collective social movement goals through participatory, democratic goals.

Bratic suggests that “it is safe to say that media is an environment for the formation of cultural narratives, images and perceptions - both good and bad (Severin and Tankard 1992). Therefore, it is hard to imagine a more appropriate venue than the media, where conflicts over narratives, images and perceptions can be transformed in a non-violent fashion. Based on previous research of media effects it is understood that the media may have only limited power to directly inject a certain behavior into people’s minds (Klapper 1960; Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955); but it can equally be argued that effects of the media are neither minimal nor negligible since the media rarely act as a sole agents of change by influencing people’s beliefs, attitudes and opinions over time (Hovland et al. 1949; Severin and Tankard, 1992).”

Based on preceding discussions, it therefore becomes clear that social media have several advantages or benefits which social movement activism can benefit from. These benefits or opportunities include without being limited to, facilitation of democratic and participatory communication; cost effectiveness; widespread access to more people (emphasis on disadvantaged and marginalized groups), non dominance by special elites or interests, and the provision they make for dialogic (two-way) as opposed to monologic (one-way) communication, among other benefits.

**Digital Media Activism and Social Movement Theory**

“The extant traditions of social movement theory (the theories that have been advanced in Western Europe and the US during the past three decades) are “typically discussed under the rubric of two paradigms: the mainly American-based resource mobilization approach (RMT) and the mainly European-based theories of new social movements (NSMs). Resource mobilization theory focuses primarily upon how movements form and engage in collective action; new social movement formulations focus primarily on why specific forms of collective identity
and action appeared in late 20th-century Euro-North American societies and on their sociopolitical significance” (Melucci, 1989)” (Carroll and Hackett, 2006)

Through the effective use of social media, governments have lost their traditional control or monopoly on information flow and non-state actors and citizens have greater and more aggressive role in the dissemination of information for a variety of causes and in situations of conflict. Social networking sites help and enable members of the public to work as citizen journalists and contribute to the flow of information from the streets and share such information with the rest of the world. Social media can and often help citizens to break through the boundaries or walls of even the most authoritarian societies. In such societies the mainstream media are usually under the monopoly of the elite and can hardly effectively perform the media’s traditional watchdog role as the 4th estate that safeguards the interests of the public against possible abuses and excesses of government. Nor can such media be relied upon to supply accurate information to the public on sensitive issues, especially during times of conflict. Indeed times of tension have caused us to witness desperate efforts by governments to condemn or regulate the social media (during Gezi Park protests in 2014 in Turkey, 2016 elections in Uganda – when government of Uganda made frantic efforts shut down all social media on the day of Presidential election in March 2016 and again in May when President was sworn in (http://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/Government-shuts-down-social-media-again/-/688334/3201024/- /cx1mkv/-/index.html) many a times in authoritarian regimes governments are often the perpetrator of conflict with their own citizens. The social media are unlikely to experience such constraints and would be better placed to perform this (watchdog) function compared to the mainstream media which are subjected to several overt regulations both within the news organizations themselves and externally by governments; by contrast, social media are comparatively free, spontaneous and interactive.

While analyzing contemporary contributions of the social media in the spheres of justice and peace, Lievrouw (2011) gave a succinct summary of the potential that social media present to organized groups of citizens around the world thus: “New media have played an indispensable role in the global justice movement by drawing together a widely diverse range of groups and causes into a globally scattered, loosely articulated, self-organizing movement capable of responding to major multinational policy bodies and staging high visibility events all over the globe” (p. 163). This could easily be seen in the Arab Spring in 2011 and Gezi Park protests in Turkey in 2014 where demonstrators effectively used the social media to make their voices heard both locally and internationally. Studies by Kuruç and Opiyo (2014), Kahn and Kellner (2004) added a new dimension by highlighting the potential in the worldwide web to propagate anti-war pro-peace messages all around the world, arguing that, the global internet is creating the base and the basis for an unparalleled worldwide anti-war/pro-peace and social justice movement during a time of terrorism, war and intense political struggle. This is not to say the social media are all about peace activism and peaceful initiatives. As is now commonly known only too well, many terrorist networks, hate speech by individuals as well as hatching of plots by people with bad intentions is often done online. Usually, one of the first places security officials and law enforcement agencies check when one commits heinous crime is to the concerned person’s recent activities on social media. Thus, the social media also have potential for misuse and abuse – or have problematic aspects; the focus of our next discussion.

Problematic Aspects of Social Media

By the preceding discussions, we do not by any means intend to suggest that social media are all only useful mobilizers of people for effective political or social action. They do have their disadvantages; they have sometimes been used to mobilize people to hate or engage in conflict. In the East African country of Kenya, social media have become double-edge sword being used systematically to promote peace and national cohesion on the one hand, and actively being used by various individuals and groups as forums to fan ethnic chauvinism and hatred since the disputed national election of 2007 and subsequent mayhem that took distinct ethnic pattern, on the other.

The contributions of mediated digital activism to bring social change by either maintaining peace or mobilizing for conflict and violence are based on the kind of communication that media provide. In his book An Introduction to Political Communication, McNair (2011) summarized functions of communication media in an ‘ideal-type’ democratic society as “to inform citizens of what is happening around them…, educate as to the meaning and significance of ‘facts’, to provide a platform for public political discourse, to give publicity to governmental and political institutions- the watchdog role of journalism, and finally, to serve as a channel for the
advocacy of political viewpoints” (pp. 19-20). The gate-keeping or watch dog role of the traditional media has been changed by the emergence of the new media. As Cardoso and Neto argue in their article Mass Media Driven Mobilization and Online Protest “new media provide alternative communication spaces in which information can develop and circulate widely with fewer conventions or editorial filters than in the mainstream media”. Nowadays there is also information flow from the new media to the mainstream media especially during the times of conflict where the mainstream media are controlled or censored by the operatives of the government. Creating a platform for the dissemination of information is one of the fundamental roles of mass media. This is especially crucial in conflict situations. Many scholars claim that conflict is an inevitable aspect in the contemporary societies of our global world. (Blackman 2003, Lynch 2007, Reuben 2009, Tahir 2009). In such volatile areas the use of social media by providing decent and objective information or forming another platform for authoritarian control either ascends or descends the degree of violence and conflict. Social media either contribute to conflict transformation or intensify the conflict. Hence in the use of social media we have the two sides of a coin which are the democratic ones and the problematic ones.

In this part of the study, we attempt to discuss the use of social media in conflict situations and their challenges in peace building. Our main focus is the exploration of the challenges of social media in conflict reporting. In such times conflict sensitive reporting or conflict sensitive journalism is essential to contribute to the peace building process otherwise violence and crime will accelerate within the societies.

Noelle-Neumann (1984) explained how one sided media content generates a dominant opinion that silences the minority opinion. During the time of conflict “media systems… will usually be underdeveloped and rarely diverse. It is not uncommon to find that only a few news sources dominate the media environment.” (Bratic, 2006, p. 5). In media the selection of the topics, framing of the issues and the distribution of concerns all contribute to either facilitating to peace building or intensifying conflicts.

Agenda-setting is crucial for political sphere. It is a vital point in public relations and activism. It creates awareness within societies. It may contribute to peace building and vice versa. Brewer et al. as cited in Bahador claims that “through its agenda setting function, the media defines who matters in the world and who does not. Through framing the media defines which countries and peoples considered in a positive way and which ones should be viewed negatively” Agenda-setting theory claims that “the media do not tell the public what to think but rather what to think about- thus the terms of public discourse are set by what is covered in the media”. (Hanson, 2011, p.59) McCombs and Show (1972) point out that the media constantly present issues suggesting individuals in the society what they should think about, have feelings about. Hence, media have the power to influence the public about the social reality. Conflicts are just one example of such realities. A well-known UNESCO constitution preamble point out that “wars begin in the minds of men”. Bahador in the article The Media and Deconstruction of the Enemy Image outlines the construction of the enemy images by the media. Social media have great impact in the construction of such images particularly because social media may lack the critical perspective.

Manual Castell’s “The Rise of the Network Society” (1996), and “Communication Power” (2009), initiated the sociological discussions about the effects of the new media on the 21st Century society. As the 20th Century drew to a close and during nearly a decade and a half of the 21st Century the world wide internet has become a major tool for the spread of participatory democracy and cyber activism throughout the world. Howard (2011) defined cyber-activism as “the act of using the internet to advance a political cause that is difficult to advance offline” (p.145)

Although scholars are still debating the extent to which the media alone could be credited with causing what is now generally referred to as the Arab Spring, there is little dispute about the important role that the social media in particular played in the process during and after the social revolutions started. The Arab Spring (reference to popular uprisings by large numbers of citizens in many Arab and North African countries which had been led by strongmen who hitherto did not tolerate dissent) started in Tunisia with “the self-immolation of a market stallholder, Mohammed Bouaziz, on December 10, 2010” (New Internationalist). The revolutionary political movements that started in Tunisia in December 2010 quickly spread to the other countries in Middle East and North Africa (MENA), leading to popular overthrow of regimes presumed to be ‘dictatorial’ – initially President Ben Ali in Tunisia and Hosni Mubarak in Egypt – but later spreading to Yemen, Libya, and Syria, among others. Much of these political developments have been attributed by many to social media activism, a term commonly
used to refer to internet-based microblogging sites such as Twitter, or social networking sites like Facebook and using cell phones to take and upload videos on these sites. (Kuruç and Opiyo, 2014).

According to many accounts, those who witnessed Mohammed Bouaziz self immolation recorded it with their mobile phones and it quickly went viral igniting a seeming domino effect of protests in Tunisia which later spread to other parts of the Arab world. According to O’Donnell (2011) conversations about liberty, democracy and revolution on blogs and on Twitter preceded mass protests in Tunisia. The protests quickly spread to Egypt, Libya, Syria and Yemen, which could suggest that they may have been carefully planned with clear political motives. So far, the protests have led to the ouster of heads of government in Tunisia, Libya, Egypt and Yemen. (Egyptian protesters have ousted two presidents since). Both mainstream and social media collaborated in spreading the revolution. “From 2006, the Al-Jazeera training center systematically started training youth activists on social networks and citizen journalists free of charge.” (Ishiai, 2013; Kuruç and Opiyo, 2014).

While analyzing the role of the media in the Arab Spring, Khondker (2011) concluded that the new media was one of three factors which, together with social and political factors that caused the social revolution in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region, arguing that, the social media played a particularly important role – especially in the absence of an open media and well organized and functioning civil society. This provided activists with “horizontal connectivity” in social mobilization, besides heralding a new era of ‘convergence’ (of purpose) between new media and conventional media.

The mainstream and social media collaborated in spreading the revolution. “From 2006, the Al-Jazeera training center systematically started training youth activists on social networks and citizen journalists free of charge.” (Ishiai, 2013). This action four years before the uprisings started may indicate that the media may not have worked in a political vacuum; possibly implying there was coordinated activism as(Kuruç and Opiyo (2014) argued.

However, unlike the Gezi Park protests in Istanbul where traditional media were uncharacteristically silent especially in the first days of the protests, in the case of Arab Spring these (conventional) media media played a particularly active role - especially Al Jazeera television which not only provided prior training to journalists but also widely covered the protests – leading to the now famous arrest of four Aljazeera journalists who were sensationally sentenced to jail terms in Egypt. While tracing the role of Aljazeera in the Arab Spring protests Manuel Castells (2011) states that,

“Al Jazeera has collected the information disseminated on the Internet by the people using them as sources and organized groups on Facebook, then retransmitting free news on mobile phones. Thus was born a new system of mass communication built like a mix between an interactive television, internet, radio and mobile communication systems. The communication of the future is already used by the revolutions of the present. . . ”

It is therefore evident that social media, Al Jazeera television and mobile phones played an important role in the communicating the Arab Spring to the global community.

In many nations of the world where there is official restriction on people’s freedoms, the news media have been used to control the flow of information to serve to the needs and interests of the government. The conventional media in Middle East and Turkey have by and large been either under the control of the state or the rich business people with powerful connections with the ruling political elites. This could explain the public’s resort to and reliance on the new media to act against such regimes. It is in partial recognition of this that Kuruç and Opiyo (2014) argued that, in the Middle East the new media have been used not only to mobilize citizens in one country or state to have large scale demonstrations but also to ignite and influence activities (of defiance) in the nearby countries as well.

The power of the social media in the Arab Spring peaked during the latent stage of the uprisings (Lindsey, 2013). However, the traditional media took over as the physical activities of the revolutions started. In areas where the traditional media were not granted easy access, synergy emerged between citizen reporters and the international agencies to get the events across to the world. (Ishiai, 2013)

Some scholars and critics have, however, argued that the role of the media in the Arab Spring has been widely overstated. “It was not laptops that marched on Tahrir Square but people with a common cause. (New
On-the-ground activities like shooting, bombing, kidnapping and negotiating provide the decisive moments in insurgencies. Obviously, these are clear political activities. The support (financial, logistic, media etc.) given to the “revolutionaries” in Libya by the Western powers was the decisive factor in the Libyan revolution. The framing of the events in the international media is only a product of the underlying political and economic interests of the major powers of the global system. The inability of the “rebels” to topple the Syrian government despite the massive support by the West and the negative narratives about the Syrian government is a proof that the media role in the case of Libya, Tunisia, Egypt and Yemen are often overstated. The war in Syria has reached a stalemate because of the counterweight of Russia and Iran on the side of Bashar Al-Assad, and the other coalition led by the US, Saudi Arabia and Turkey, on the other.

The media “cannot replace the physical actions required for successful revolutions” (Lindsey, 2013). The quotations below aptly sum up the main thesis on the (potential) role of the media in the uprisings. “Social media may not have been the spark that set the fire, but it certainly provided the oxygen that caused it to spread” (Pfeifle, 2012). Moreover, “it is important to understand that new platforms of social media didn’t cause Arab Spring but played a role of communication that aids the revolutions in the long run.” (Kassim, 2012). The conflicts might amplify and lead to chaotic results or bring some intended solutions to the societies. Social media function as a potentially useful tool from which much social capital can be derived; but it also has the power and potential of a ‘double-edged sword’ as suggested by Howard (2002) with opportunities and benefits on one side, and risks and destructive consequences, on the other, lying primarily in how it is used. The impact of the social media can be negative when they disseminate messages of intolerance that manipulate public opinion. In conflict situations social media has the tendency to mobilize masses either in positive or negative dimensions. Especially in autocratic regimes where there is control over the mainstream media social media took the role to contribute to participatory communication. The abuse of social media might escalate and lead to non-productive results. The motto “if it bleeds it leads” shows that if the issues of the news are violent then they take the attention of the media and the audiences.

Surfing the Internet and searching the news may raise the probability of depression within societies. Especially if these are the places within the conflict zones of the world.
Fig 1.1 Global distribution of conflicts (source: Conflict Barometer 2013, Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research).

A lot of violent news create a feeling of hopelessness and helplessness among the citizens in such fragile places. Citizen who are exposed to such media are more likely to feel that their communities are unsafe. They believe that the world is a dangerous place to live. Gerbner argues that “heavy television viewing cultivates a response ... calls the mean world syndrome” (Hanson 2011, p. 64). Similar to Gerbner’s idea such people who are exposed to such negative media coverage are more fearful about their surroundings. Nowadays, in the social media and visual media we have more emotionally laden material than from the print media.

**Social Media Activism**

Being a skeptic of the contributions of social media in social change and conflict resolution, Malcolm Gladwell suggests that “social movements need more conventional tools of organizing than those provided by new media” (2010). Gladwell further adds that “Facebook activism succeeds not by motivating people to make real sacrifice but by motivating them to do things that people do when they are not motivated enough to make a real sacrifice” (2010). Moreover he argues that “social change can be achieved by high-risk activism and not by low-risk activism promoted by social media”. (2010) Melucci points out that “the empirical unity of a social movement should be seen as result rather than a starting point” (1996, p.40). Habermas (1987) as cited in Caroll and Hacket (2006) has seen the new media activism through the lens of social movement theory as “defensive in character, his formulation is especially instructive in thinking about ‘emancipatory movements’:

... those which advance a resolution of the welfare-capitalist crisis which would involve the ‘decolonization of the lifeworld’. This would involve the withdrawal of system-integration mechanisms from some aspects of symbolic reproduction; the replacement of (some) normatively secured contexts by communicatively achieved ones; and the development of new participatory democratic institutions which would regulate markets,

In an interview that he has given to El Pais newspaper, Zygmunt Bauman considered social media as a trap. Bauman is another skeptic about the way people protest through social media. He adds that “social media don’t teach us to dialogue because it is so easy to avoid controversy… most people use social media not to unite not to open their horizons wider, but on the contrary, to cut themselves a comfort zone where the only sounds they hear are the echoes of their own voice, where the only things they see are the reflections of their own face”. (2016)

Hence it could be said that social media can contribute to and increase participation however participation is not enough to contribute to contemporary grassroots movements and bring democracy and social change to the societies. Social media is an effective tool in the dissemination of information and to be in dialogue however it is not enough for progressive activism. Digital communication is important in creating networks and arranging coordination across diverse geographies however as the above critics mention social change requires “high-risk activism” as well.

According to Ethan Zuckerman’s “cute cat” theory of digital activism “the dominance of trivia on social networking sites is in fact beneficial for the use of such sites by activists” (Joseph, 2012). For Shirky “a related danger for governments in shutting down certain sites is that they may focus greater attention on those sites than would have otherwise existed; the previously apathetic suddenly develop the curiosity to find out what all the fuss is about.” (Joseph, 2012)

Social media can also be used to disseminate biased/wrong information as well. Sometimes the misinformation shared in the social media can become global news in a short period of time. Morozov as cited in Joseph’s article Social Media, Political Change and Human Rights (2012) points out that “it is wrong to assume that all bloggers in Russia, China, or Iran favor democratic reforms and pluralist tolerance. Many such bloggers are more hardline than their government; the blogosphere in authoritarian States harbors reactionaries just as it does in the West. Such reactionaries can even be cultivated to report on perceived subversive activity, as has occurred in Thailand, Saudi Arabia, and China, or to engage in cyber-attacks on dissident websites”.

As stated in Hoffmann’s article Confronting the Conundrum of Hate Speech digital communication tools and the internet “have added new modes of delivery for rumour, racist slurs and calls for (organized) violence” also see (Stremlau and Price, 2009).

Suicide Bomber Explosion in İstanbul
On the 19th of March 2016, there was an explosion in Istanbul’s İstiklal Avenue. The explosion has been caused by a suicide bomber which is a very common method in the explosions caused by terrorist attacks lately in Turkey. Right after the explosion the Turkish authorities released a temporary ban of broadcasting. Similar to their actions in the previous terrorist attacks in Turkey, the prime minister’s office announced a temporary ban on media coverage of the blast. The officials citing a 2011 Turkish law rushed out a temporary ban to protect the national security. State media watchdog (the Turkish Supreme Board of Radio and Television) imposed a ban on broadcasting images of the blast. The government authorities particularly ban the coverage of pictures of the bombing or images of the victims that might create “a feeling of panic”. Despite the temporary ban of broadcasting the images of the blast continue to be shown on social media. David Diaz-Jogeix director of programs at press freedom group Article 19 told the World Post by an e mail that “media bans imposed by the Turkish government are rarely effective… some media simply defy the bans… Additionally even where Turkey is preventing domestic broadcasting, there are other sources of information including social media and international media.” During such times when the mainstream media do not cover the news, the new media may spread information that mislead the society. Especially in such dramatic attacks like the terrorist attacks in Taksim, the people may share biased information or violent scenes in the social media and contribute to the spread of fear among the society. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Levent Eraslan mentions that during conflict times “when the society is in panic and share the news of the event in the social media these sharings bring a fearful atmosphere and the daily routine of the citizens are affected negatively.” Eraslan further adds that “sharing of false information in the media contribute to fear”. This is true of the sharings in the social media right after the explosion in Taksim. The videos on Facebook showed the panic of people. A group of people ran away from the site of the explosion right after the attack. In some of the sharings on Facebook the decapitated head of the
suicide bomber and the bloody images of the victims were shared. Such images increase the tension and the fear within the society and people feel insecure in their own surroundings. This situation could easily be explained with the mean world syndrome of Gerbner where the people in the society feel insecure. Media bans also contribute to this feeling of insecurity.

Moreover, right after the explosion in Taksim, there were sharings in social media claiming that there are explosions in Nişantaşı, Bakırköy, Kadıköy and Ümraniye. These sharings increase the fear and tension among the citizens. Ali Murat Kirik, an Assistant Prof. Dr. from the Faculty of Communication at Marmara University claims that “terrorist organizations through the use of social media affect the perceptions of the citizens, contribute to the destruction of the life routine and cause a chaotic environment.” (Nabız Newspaper, 20 March 2016).

Sharing violent images like the bloody images of the victims after the terrorist attacks affect the psychology of the citizens negatively. Hence, during such conflict times the people should be selective of what they should share. They should share the news that they are sure about and they should not share the bloody images. The people should stay away from the motto “if it bleeds it leads” because this will amplify the chaos and fear within the society.

During the times of crisis the society need more up to date information than ever. Hence we believe that the temporary ban of the media coverage do not contribute to peace-building and conflict resolution. During such times that the mainstream media do not cover the news, the citizens tend to move to the social media. They follow the recent information from the social media sites. Yet, it would be better if the information shared on the social media is supported by the mainstream media. So the citizens will be able to check the validity of the news shared in the social media. The use of conflict sensitive journalism is really significant here. The demerits of the social media might be minimized by the regulations that would safeguard people’s freedoms while protecting users from abuses and the adverse effects often inherent within the new media applications.

Here, social media literacy become crucial. The citizens should not believe in everything they see on the social media sites but should ensure they check the validity of the information shared on the social media sites from the more trustworthy news sources. The government officials especially during the times of conflict should not ban the media coverage and provide the citizens the platform to get true information from the conventional media.

Conclusion

Our main task in this study was to articulate and document the opportunities and potential of social media for individuals and institutions involved in social movement activism to present and advance their various causes and engage their publics. It undertook to do so while also eliciting the known and potential problems that could emerge in the process of realizing the many benefits of social media in the achievement of what we’ve alternately called digital activism, cyberactivism, or mediated activism. The study’s core arguments were guided by five research questions revolving around the role of social media in civil society movement activism vis-à-vis theoretical stipulation of two-way symmetrical communication model advanced by Grunig and Hunt, participatory, democratic and dialogic communication, and their relevance and potential for and impact on social movement or grassroots activism through social media. The downside of social media were also examined.

Available evidence and analysis clearly shows that social media have enormous potential for social media activism. Advantages include, without being limited to, facilitation of democratic and participatory communication; cost effectiveness; widespread access to more people (emphasis on disadvantaged and marginalized groups), non dominance by special elites or interests, and the provision they make for dialogic (two-way) as opposed to monologic (one-way) communication, quite as strongly advocated by Grunig and Hunt (1984), Grunig (1992). Consequently, the social media are more likely than the traditional media to help realize what one scholar referred to “Cyberlibertarian dream” platforms marked by proliferation of personal computers and Internet ushered in hope for greater individual liberties. Such a dream for greater liberties brought with it the emergence of a relatively new online world encompassing free association, egalitarianism and self-determination that would exclude no one (participatory, inclusive).

At the individual level, these technologies provide users with a number of benefits for contemporary grassroots movements ranging from opportunities for peer-to-peer learning, mobilization towards a cause, the development
of skills valued in the modern workplace, and more empowered conception of citizenship, among other benefits. At the collective level, to paraphrase one scholar, the potential of these emerging digital technologies for activist movements is strong enough to significantly empower such movements and even create grassroots revolutions. In addition, social media may enhance political participation and dialogue via the exchange of opinions and ideas worldwide regardless of frontiers, thereby creating the needed awareness to build society. Because the autocratic regimes who feel threatened by the interactive usage of social media platforms might be willing to control them and make them voiceless…In such cases the civil societies with the use of social network sites may have the chance to be informed about the issues that the governments try to control. Hence, the social media create a powerful platform to promote both national and global democracy and contribute to grassroots movements.

It is difficult to draw the line between the promises and problems of social media. We can say that social media can contribute to and increase participation, however, this kind of participation is not enough to contribute to contemporary grassroots movements and bring democracy and social change to society. Some scholars have contended that social media by themselves are not sufficient instruments for progressive activism, implying that additional inputs are required. As Zuckerman put it social change requires “high-risk activism” as well. Abuses by criminals and terrorist groups and organizations have equally been rampant and have contributed to the heightening of fear in different societies. Other shortcomings of social media include their susceptibility and misuse in the dissemination of biased and inflammatory information by wayward individuals and groups, in the advancement of their equally adverse causes. Disclosure of such biased information and criminal acts particularly during the times of conflict amplify the chaos and fear within society and may be seen to construe a threat to national and global security. In conclusion, we recommend that during such times social media literacy, conflict sensitive reporting and critical consumption of information by citizens should be encouraged in achieving and maintaining democratic citizenship and reducing the impact of crime within the society. In addition, we suggest national initiatives be taken to maximize the benefits of social media while minimizing, or at least containing the threats through incorporation of independent but limited guidelines and regulations that would safeguard people’s freedoms and rights while protecting users from abuses and adverse effects.

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Newspapers vs. TV: Who is Taking the Most Advantage of the www?

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Abstract  
While both TV and newspapers have been using the WWW for many years, the different backgrounds of the content producers has meant that the different media have been using the Web in different ways. To study the differences between the media and their utilization of the Web, content analyses of websites in the top 25 U.S. TV markets (four stations each, for 100 total) and the top 100 circulation newspapers in the U.S were conducted. The studies showed that while TV stations naturally excelled at putting video on the Web, newspapers’ use of the Web in almost all other aspects was significantly superior to their TV counterparts in almost all other categories.

Introduction  
It goes without saying that the Internet has dramatically transformed journalism. In varying degrees, both the commercial media and journalism educators the past 15 years have embraced convergence, the merging of print and broadcast primarily though the medium of the World Wide Web. This transformation has affected all aspects of journalism, from researching information to reporting and storytelling techniques to the distribution of those stories.

Studies of that transformation have, however, focused much more on how print, rather than broadcast outlets, have adapted to the new technologies. Perhaps because there are more newspapers than TV stations or because there are more print-centric journalism teachers/scholars than their broadcast counterparts, the number of qualitative and quantitative studies about newspapers and the Web have greatly outpaced broadcast studies about television newsrooms and how they are utilizing Internet multimedia and interactivity capabilities. Our team aims to remedy that.

Our team of researchers set out to explore the web sites associated with the top 25 television markets in the United States and the top 100 circulation newspapers in the U.S.

Literature Review  
In the spring of 2014 The Media Insight Project group, an initiative of the American Press Institute and the Associated Press-NORC center for Public Affairs Research group published a study called the Personal News Cycle. They discovered that nearly 85 percent of Americans get their news directly from television, with a close 70 percent looking to the Internet for obtaining their daily news. They noted that nearly half of all Americans have signed up for alerts via their preferred news station.
Clearly, TV stations—and their Internet sites—remain a key part of news distribution and consumption. Given that position, it’s important to study how those TV stations are using the web, in both distributing content and interacting with readers.

While there have been some studies conducted about TV news websites, the bulk of the studies have focused on print. Some of the earliest studies have been done by Kamerer and Bressers (1998), who compared local and national news coverage on websites in 1997, and Peng, Tham and Xioming (1999), whose study, also in 1997, surveyed editors about web site design.

Another 1997 study by Schultz (1999) involved 100 newspapers of different sizes. Like our study, he used a content analysis method, looking for features such as reader polls, photos, and forums. Likewise, in a 1997-2003 longitudinal study, Greer and Mensinger analyzed 83 newspapers for not only multimedia and interactivity, but also ad revenue.

Other landmark newspaper studies include two content analyses done on the websites of the Top 100-circulation newspapers in the U.S., first by the Bivings Group (2006) and later, adding many more multimedia, distribution and interactive features, by Heater, Beckwith, Lyons, Ford, Miller and Bergland (2013). Using a two-pass review system and a 35-item matrix, the group found that the use of multimedia by the newspapers increased significantly, with video jumping from 61 percent to 95 percent. Interactive features also increased, with the most dramatic changes coming in the growth in comments sections after articles, from 19 percent to 96 percent.

Another seminal study was conducted by Russial (2009), who surveyed editors at the 210 U.S. newspapers with circulations over 30,000. As with the other studies, he found that their use of multimedia was behind what one would expect at these top newspapers.

While these studies were newspaper-based, there have been some other related studies that have looked at broadcast news websites, including early ones done by Lind and Medoff (1999) and Kiernan and Levy (1999) and a similar study done later by Pitts and Harms (2003). Other studies, such as Chan-Ohlmsted and Park (2000) and Lin and Jeffres (2001) have compared broadcast and print websites, finding that the newspaper websites contain more local news than TV station websites—but that these are better than radio websites, which contain virtually no news. Perhaps because of the bandwidth at the time, these early broadcast websites often did not contain audio or video (Pitts 2003). Some other studies, such as DeMars (2009) and Batsell and Kraeplin (2011) looked at partnerships between TV stations and newspapers, with Dailey, Demo and Spellman (2009) and Kraeplin and Criado (2009) finding that these partnerships are diminishing as newspapers were starting to produce their own videos.

In addition to these more quantitative studies, there have also been numerous qualitative studies, including ones about broadcast outlets. For example, there have been several ethnographic studies, including Dupagne and Garrison (2006), of the Tampa Tribune/WFLI merger. For example, Haung (2004) and his research team looked at how the quality of coverage did not decline after the merger.

Brannon (2008), who worked at USA Today, conducted one of the most diverse and useful ethnographies that involved broadcast and print, looking at how NPR, ABC and USA Today newsrooms have adapted to the move to online models. Internationally, Wahl-Jorgenson and Wardle (2011) looked at the BBC and how it has handled user-generated content.

**Research Questions**
The background research of broadcast and print outlets led us to ask several key questions that we hoped to answer through our research:

RQ 1: What multimedia, interactive and distribution features are utilized most by the Top-25 market TV stations?

RQ 2: How are these stations taking advantage of social media?

RQ 3: What are the key differences between networks in their use of multimedia/interactivity/distribution/social media?

RQ 4: What are the differences between TV and newspapers in these features?
Methodology
To help answer these questions, we needed to choose a methodology that was both feasible and reliable. That methodology required a careful selection of the media outlets to study, the choice of method for analyzing the websites of those outlets and decisions about what website features to study.

Selection of Subjects
Our group had neither the time nor the resources to analyze every U.S. TV station website. The decision, then, was how to narrow down the list. Similar to the Russian (2009) study that chose 210 newspapers with over 20,000 circulation and the Bivins (2006) study of the top 100 newspapers, we chose the largest markets. Our rationale was similar to that of the newspaper researchers: the stations in the largest markets reach the largest number of people, and these stations are the most likely to set the standard for the smaller stations. We chose to work with the top 25 market regions as outlined on stationindex.com, listed by rank and metropolitan market region/area, with New York as number one and Indianapolis at 25. We then chose the four major news networks: NBC, CBS, ABC and FOX. While a few cities had other stations with higher Nielsen numbers than one or more of these four, we kept these four so as to be consistent in our comparisons. The final tally, of course, was 100 stations. This study was conducted in March and April of 2014. The companion study of the top 100 circulation newspapers, based on the Audit Bureau of Circulation statistics, was conducted in March and April of 2012.

Method of Analysis
When studying news outlet websites, there are many ways in which to conduct research. Others have used various methodologies, but the two main approaches are surveys and content analysis. The survey method, which involves sending surveys to news directors or publication editors, has been employed by a number of researchers such as Peng et al. (1999) and more recently by Russian (2009). The main benefit of the survey method is the quantity and quality of information obtained. The main disadvantages include weaknesses such as often-low response rates and self-reporting errors.

The other main approach, content analysis, involves the researcher physically viewing the website, analyzing the site and documenting findings. The most common method is a one-pass method that involves a researcher looking at a site one time, starting with such early studies done by Schultz (1999). Numerous journalism researchers have used this method, such as Sparks, Young, & Darnell (2006). In “Convergence, Corporate Restructuring, and Canadian Online News,” they looked at a sample of approximately 100 print and broadcast outlets using a single-pass, single-coder method for their data collection. The Bivins Group (2006) study of the websites of the U.S. top 100-circulation newspapers, and the Berglund, Hon, Crawford and Nee (2012) study of newspaper websites in the U.S., United Kingdom, Australia, Ireland, Canada and New Zealand likewise used a single-pass content analysis method. The benefit of this method is that it ensures 100 percent of the websites are being studied, a direct contrast to a survey method that might only have a 20-30 percent response rate—and the accompanying bias that can entail, since those not responding might be less likely to be concerned about the web and might not have a good web presence. The main disadvantage is that it provides only a snapshot of each website on the day it is studied. For example, a news outlet might have produced an audio slide show in 2014, but because that slideshow was either no longer on the site or was buried too deep in the site, the single-pass researcher might not find and record the presence of that feature.

Our team decided to use a content analysis, and conducted the study in March and April of 2014 for the TV websites and March and April of 2012 for the newspapers. But, instead of a one-pass system, we chose to use a two-pass method to gather our data, similar to that used by Hashim, Hasan and Sinnepan (2007) in their analysis of 12 Australian newspapers and also employed by Heater and her team of researchers in a 2013 study of website features of the top 100 U.S. newspapers, a revisiting of the 2006 Bivins study. As with the Heater study, the first pass involved all of the researchers looking the sites and marking the presence of all the multimedia, interactive, social media and distribution features on the websites. The second pass was an additive pass, meaning that a different researcher looked at the same sites about a month later, marking any features not recorded by the first researcher. This two-pass method increased reliability in two ways: it was able to note any features that were not present when the first pass was conducted, and it allowed the second reader to catch any features that might have been missed on the first pass.
Units of Analysis
The final methodological decision concerned the features to analyze. To be able to compare the TV station results with the top U.S. newspaper results, we based our categories on those utilized by Heater (2013) and her top-100 newspaper research team. Some of Heater categories were eliminated because they didn’t apply to TV stations (such as the PDF-front page and PDF-whole newspapers), while others were added, such as having the full news broadcast. In the end, our group looked at 34 features which fell roughly four categories:

- Multimedia (Original segment, AP/news service segment, whole broadcast, photo gallery, audio slideshows, audio, etc)
- Interactive (blogs, polls, comments sections, etc.)
- Distribution (mobile and tablet optimization, mobile alert, RSS feed, email digest, etc)
- Social media (sharing, Facebook page and Twitter links, Facebook and Twitter feeds on the websites)

Results
Comparison between networks
As one would expect, the use of video was ubiquitous on these websites. But, there were significant differences in many of the other features, such as audio, mobile alerts and mobile apps.

As one can see, almost none of the stations outside of the Fox affiliates posted their entire broadcast online; most of them just had links to various segments. Conversely, while CBS frequently used links to audio or podcasts on their station sites, Fox stations and the other network stations almost never had audio/podcasts.

The network-to-network comparison is also useful in showing the differences in the accommodations the stations are making for mobile and tablet devices. Again, Fox stations led the way, with virtually all of their stations using mobile alerts, mobile apps and tablet optimization, while CBS brought up the rear with 84 percent and 82 percent of its stations having mobile and tablet apps, respectively.

Overall, however, across all of the 34 categories used, most stations utilized between 10 and 12 of those categories, with CBS utilizing the most multimedia categories per market. Part of these differences could be attributed to the content management systems used; most all of the network stations used their standard network CMS/template. So, if the CMS accommodated a certain feature, almost all of the stations had that feature.
Comparison between TV Stations and Newspapers

There were huge differences between newspapers and TV stations in their use of the various features. For comparison, we are using the 2012 Top 100 circulation U.S. newspaper study conducted by the Heater team. In some categories, such as the use of original video, the differences were very slight.

Two important things to note: these figures only compare whether or not the outlets had original video, not the amount of video. So, while the TV stations were only slightly more likely to have original video, the amount of video they had was probably much greater, which is probably part of the reason why the newspapers were supplementing their original video with Associated Press video. Second, these figures are twice as high for newspapers as they were in 2006, with the Bivings study. Essentially, the top newspapers have greatly expanded their use of video, almost reaching the saturation point like the top TV stations.

When it came to other multimedia features, though, the newspapers were much stronger. The TV stations were nearly as likely to have photo galleries, but were less likely to have audio and podcasts and much, much less likely to have interactive graphics and audio slideshows.

Interactivity also showed significant differences. While most of the TV stations had comments sections, much fewer of them had reader polls and even fewer still included links in their articles posted for the reader/viewer to contact the reporter.
Similarly, while TV stations were a bit more likely to have links to related articles, blogs from either readers/viewer or the reporters/anchors/editors on the TV side were almost non-existent and much lower than their print counterparts.

**Discussion**

While TV stations in the largest markets have a strong web presence and are posting video on their websites—and offering text versions of their stories, which was not possible in the days before the web—these stations are not taking full advantage of the capabilities of the web. For the most part, they are way behind newspapers in almost all of the categories besides video. In terms of interaction with their readers/viewers, they are still following a more traditional, linear model of mass communication, from the sender to the receiver, without as much interactivity and user-generated content. Whether do to the training of their staffs or operating with fewer personnel, they are also not departing from their traditional storytelling models, not using audio, audio slideshows and interactive graphics. For now, at least, the newspapers are the media outlets that are taking the
most advantage of the capabilities of the web in terms of offering new ways to tell and supplement their stories and connect with readers.

Limitations/Future Study
There were several limitations in the study. First, the scope for this project was to analyze the top twenty-five markets in the U.S. and the top 100 newspapers. Accordingly, these results cannot be generalized to the state of U.S. television in its entirety or the entire newspaper market in the U.S. Obviously the percentages of multimedia used by smaller markets would most likely be lower.

Another limitation was the examination period, as we used only a four-week window. The second pass results revealed some features that were either missed from the first pass or were added. Analyzing the results during a longer time frame may have yielded different results with regards to how TV stations and newspapers respond to technological change more than other stations featured on the list.

An ideal future study would be to analyze the smaller markets, to see the impact of station size/viewership on the multimedia and interactive features on the site. Similar studies of smaller/weekly newspaper confirmed hypotheses about how smaller staffs translated into the presence of fewer of these features; it would be interesting to see if the same were true for TV stations.

Finally, another study could be done in four or five years as a follow-up to this project. With the results from this study serving as a baseline, that research could serve to show how technological changes, viewer expectations and other factors lead to changes in the website features on newspaper and TV station websites over time.

References


Old media, New Media: Rethinking Media Influence Theories

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Introduction
"There is a different set of pictures in the heads of each generation as a result of their direct personal experiences and their accumulated repertoire of historical and contemporary information. In more general terms, this has been called the construction of social reality. Individuals construct their own set of pictures from their direct personal experiences, what they read in books, magazines and newspapers, and what they see on television and in movies. Through the transmission of traditional culture, the creation of contemporary culture and the interpretation of public affairs, mass communications plays a major role in the construction of the pictures in our heads." (1)

As we are about to reach a century since the newspaper columnist Walter Lippmann wrote in 1922, his famous opening chapter "The world outside and the pictures in our heads", clarifying the influence of the news media on the perceived salience of key political issues which later called "Agenda – setting", it's also too long time since the introduction by German-born Political Scientist Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann in 1974, the Spiral of Silence theory which has become one of the most-researched communication theories that explains public opinion formation in a media environment. The Spiral of Silence attempts to explain how media consumption, interaction among key groups, and opinion expression all interact to form opinions in society. Both theories were focusing on the traditional media "old media" as a power to present images to the public and its role in shaping climate of opinion, a major changes happened to the main actors of the communication process as Lippmann and Neumann was concerned with, today the field of mass media and communication with the new digital technology witnessing different criteria in examining media influence. This paper is arguing whether these old theories are still valid in the new media era.

First: The Frame of Terminology

Agenda -Setting Theory
Lippmann, argued that the mass media sets the primary connection between events in the world and the images in the minds of the public. Following Lippmann, in 1963, Bernard Cohen observed that the press “may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about.”

Cohen further stated, “depending on the map that is drawn for them by writers, editors, and publishers of the paper they read.” (2)

Thus Cohen had expressed the idea that later led to formalization of Agenda Setting theory by McCombs and Shaw. McCombs and Shaw investigated presidential campaigns in 1968, 1972 and 1976. In the research done in 1968 they focused on two elements: awareness and information. Investigating the agenda-setting function of the mass media, they attempted to assess the relationship between what voters in one community said were important issues and the actual content of the media messages used during the campaign. McCombs and Shaw concluded that the mass media exerted a significant influence on what voters setting, describes a very powerful influence of the media – the ability to tell us what issues are important.

McCombs and Shaw argued that the media uses a number of cues to indicate the importance of an issue. On the front page of a newspaper, for example, the importance of a story is indicated by the size of its heading. Likewise, a story that appears on the front page is more important than a story that appears on page five. According to this theory, the media has the power focus public discussion on particular issues. Again, it can’t tell us what to think but it can tell us what to think about. (3)

In 1998, McCombs increased the scope of this theory to include a phenomenon called ‘framing’. He argued that in addition to telling us what to think about, the media can also tell us how to think about a story. News reports might focus on one particular aspect of an issues or report about something in a particular way.
Agenda setting approach is considered one of the most important theoretical frameworks that are looking at the impact of the media; where research «prioritize» are interested in studying the correlation between the media and the public that are exposed to these means, to determine the priorities of the political and social issues of concern to the community. Presumably this approach that the media cannot offer all of the topics and issues that are in the community, but organizers of this means of communication chooses some of the topics that are strongly focused on, and control the nature and content, these issues raise the concerns of the people gradually, and make them think about it, and worry them, and therefore these topics represent the masses is relatively larger than the subjects not offered by the media importance. (4)

Thus Agenda-setting is defined as the creation of public awareness and concern of salient issues by the news media. Two basic assumptions underlie most research on agenda-setting: (1) the press and the media do not reflect reality; they filter and shape it; (2) media concentration on a few issues and subjects leads the public to perceive those issues as more important than other issues. One of the most critical aspects in the concept of an agenda-setting role of mass communication is the time frame for this phenomenon. In addition, different media have different agenda-setting potential. Agenda-setting theory seems quite appropriate to help us understand the pervasive role of the media (for example on political communication systems).(5)

**Spiral of Silence**

Originally proposed by German political scientist Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann in 1974, Spiral of silence is the term meant to refer to the tendency of people to remain silent when they feel that their views are in opposition to the majority view on a subject. The theory posits that they remain silent for a few reasons:

1. Fear of isolation when the group or public realizes that the individual has a divergent opinion from the status quo.
2. Fear of reprisal or more extreme isolation, in the sense that voicing said opinion might lead to a negative consequence beyond that of mere isolation (loss of a job, status, etc.)

For this theory to be plausible it relies on the idea that in a given situation we all possess a sort of intuitive way of knowing what the prevailing opinion happens to be. The spiral is created or reinforced when someone in the perceived opinion majority speaks out confidently in support of the majority opinion, hence the minority begins to be more and more distanced from a place where they are comfortable to voice their opinion and begin to experience the aforementioned fears.(6)

Core Assumptions and Statements:

The phrase "spiral of silence" actually refers to how people tend to remain silent when they feel that their views are in the minority. The model is based on three premises:

1) people have a "quasi-statistical organ," a sixth-sense if you will, which allows them to know the prevailing public opinion, even without access to polls.
2) people have a fear of isolation and know what behaviors will increase their likelihood of being socially isolated.
3) people are reticent to express their minority views, primarily out of fear of being isolated.

The closer a person believes the opinion held is similar to the prevailing public opinion, the more they are willing to openly disclose that opinion in public. Then, if public sentiment changes, the person will recognize that the opinion is less in favor and will be less willing to express that opinion publicly. As the perceived distance between public opinion and a person's personal opinion grows, the more unlikely the person is to express their opinion.(7)

People will be unwilling to publicly express their opinion if they believe they are in the minority. They will also be more vocal if they believe they are a part of the majority. Thus, the more marginalized you become, the less you speak and so spiral into a fully marginal position.(8)

This works because we fear social rejection. and that when a person appears to be rejected, others will back away from them, fearing being rejected because they associate with the rejected person. It also makes marginalization a powerful way of eliminating political and social competition.Public opinion is the "attitudes" or behaviors one must express in public if one is not to isolate oneself, in areas of controversy or change; public opinions are those attitudes one can express without running the danger of isolating oneself."
The Four Main Parts of the "Spiral of Silence": When the theory was first proposed in 1974, Noelle-Neumann sought to explain how one's opinion depends on the opinion of others around them. Specifically, she explained the interplay behind how trends gain public support. Combining Noelle-Neumann's extensive descriptions of the theory, the Spiral of Silence key tenets can be summarized into four propositions. These propositions are:

1. There is a "quasi-statistical" organ that people use to monitor the prevailing opinion.
2. Public opinions trigger a "spiraling" process that reveals the majority opinion.
3. Those individuals or groups who voice minority opinions are threatened with social isolation.
4. Future opinions dictate the likelihood of one voicing their opinion in public.

It is related to the mass media, in such a way that mass media influences public opinion. Shifts in public opinion occur commonly and therefore this theory is used to search an explanation for behavior (speak up or stay silent). The theory has also been criticized for ambiguity and methodological weakness, but the idea has persisted. Evidence of the spiral effect is usually small but significant.

Over time, a "spiraling" effect will occur, in which a dominant opinion becomes more visible over one or more minority opinions. When initially proposed by Noelle-Neumann, the theory helped to explain face-to-face interactions in the media that helped to form public opinion. However, with the exponential growth of digital media, the theory has recently been applied to digital interactions as well. The Spiral of Silence theory is a scientific theory that for the most part is quite small and insignificant in situations in which opinions are not of great consequence. For example, if my opinion is a strong conviction and I am unwilling to bend in my beliefs then the theory may not apply to me to such an extent. Also, if I am an opinion leader, (from the Diffusion of Innovations theory) that is I am the one voicing my opinion and affecting other people; then I also may not bend in my opinions either.

The Spiral of Silence is useful to apply in situations when trying to explain why people cover up or change their opinions when in a group setting especially when they think they are alone in their opinions.

An example to help illustrate the Spiral of Silence theory is a person going out with a new group of people or on a date with someone you do not know very well. When ordering pizza for this theory, I would conform to the mushroom lovers because I feel I am in the minority since I do not like mushrooms and I think everyone else does. Therefore I do not want to be rejected or alone in my opinions.

Old “traditional” Media
There are probably an aggregation between researchers that the traditional media, or what is sometimes called the "old media " includes media and means of communication, which appeared before the uses of the Internet, we can include everything produced by the evolution of human societies, newspapers, magazines and periodicals, as well as broadcasting stations, television and film under the classification of traditional media.

New “digital” Media
There is still disagreement among specialists about one term of what is sometimes referred to as the new media, and where there is no concept of scientifically accurate and precise thus appeared several synonyms including: alternative media, social media, electronic media, digital media, citizen journalism.

In general, the new media is the media publication available through the World Wide Web " online " , introduces the scope and means of social communication, which is the means independent of any media organization or a private or state-owned press, but underlying the independent members for the purpose of dissemination of information or their own ideas, including emails, forums, blogs, videos and audio recordings. In this type of media is no elite controlling or the media leaders, but it became available to all segments of society access to it and use it, and take advantage of it as long as they managed it and mastered the use of tools.

It has been called by some "digital media" and that, given that the lack of precision and the fallacy called "new media", as the man has sought since the dawn of history to develop the tools of communication-media, man developed a pen and papyrus, parchment and paper down to the computer which now replace the printing press and the pen and all was means of communication and new media at the time, the development of communication...
tools shows that the human creature communicative primarily, and because contemporary media as product of digital revolution - which is the stage will be followed by stages in the future the appropriate label is "Digital Media not new media. (13)

**Second: The Attributes and Characteristics of the New Media**

In the midst of controversy for comparison between traditional and new media Some believe that there are similarities between them in some aspects (14 ), while some believe that the new media has its pros and cons and also generally , the new media features are summarized as follows:

1-Switch from analogue to digital.

2- Fragmenting Contact.

3- The possibility of interaction with the communicative process in a time for the individual, whether he is receiver or sender, receiving or sending.

4-Mobility.

Conductivity, common, and proliferation.5-

Cosmic, where the site Media to reach via the Internet all parts of the world.6-

7- Interactive and perhaps the most memorable, which allows visitors the possibility of direct dialogue property, has provided new media tools for dialogue and debate, and provide others' opinions, and discuss ideas.

8- Media integration where they can use text, image (fixed and moving), sound , bilateral and three-dimensional charts.

9-The ability to save and store information, as it can received, store and save messages and retrieval as part of the capabilities and characteristics of the medium itself

10-Attention and focus because the receiver into the new media will play an active role in the selection of content and interact with it , it is characterized by a high degree of attention and focus other than exposure to traditional media where eceiver is often negative.

As a result of those characteristics there are many implications, including:

1-Break the monopoly of knowledge of power , as the media ’s traditional pre- digitization had created passive recipients proficient listen and listen and not argue , at a time when reading remains at a minimum. (15).

2-It became the new media communication tool, influential in shaping contemporary public opinion for its ability to publish topics and issues, for circulation and discussion among the general members of the public , as well as the size of the ability to guide public opinion Am.vachig news reporting resulting from the interaction between structural and organizational factors , which is complicated enteraction to fit the political , social, cultural , economic, and institutional dimensions, this has led to the production of what is known as the prevailing direction (mainstream Media), Which is based on matching the media agenda with the political agenda , and produces a limit to what is called by " Halen Daniel " area of disagreement, in other words that the major media organizations , and through tangled with the dominant economic and political institutions , contribute to shaping public opinion towards a certain political agenda includes everything that allows its dominant Social Alliance , and excludes all involves questioning for the basic myths and novels upon which the political and social order . (16)

3-The emergence of a new kind of media and mediators, they are the users of social media who cover the happenings around the world and the hotbeds of tension, despite the taint of this coverage deficiencies.

4-Traditional media provided fertile ground for the new media through marketing, Without the support and encouragement given to new media by traditional media for what appeared to the public.
5- The quality boom in the daily numbers, users and everyday browsing of internet has contributed to the preparation and in providing a solid platform for the new media.

6- Media market is witnessing today overheated race between traditional media and new media in the field of lead news.

7- New media remains in need of development and modernization by improving content, and search for the best marketing methods.

8- Emergence of new platforms for dialogue.

9- Emergence of new media and cultural implications.

10- Emergence of the phenomenon of virtual community and social networks

11- Although the transfer of TV channels for the content of the information leaflet on the pages of the social networking of the "Facebook" and "Twitter" and "YouTube" and "Personal Blogs sites" have contributed to keep up to the speed of events, but it put in a dilemma to verify the veracity of what they offer Participating in the process of setting the public agenda priorities.

Third: The Social Context in Support of the Emergence of New Media

Necessity is the mother of invention is the need to have access to news and information through different channels lead to the birth of this new media? In other words: Does the emergence of this type of media as a product only of the development of communication technology or are there other reasons that led to the exercise of that technology to function media were not primarily headed for practice?

To answer this question perhaps we should return back a little to consider the context in which led to the emergence of this new media and the factors that contributed to consolidation, this independent media initially appeared on the Internet that offer free e-mail services sites, which allowed the emergence of e-mail groups as the first forms of electronic media independent, where these groups include those with political interests or cultural common, and through the discussions that have been taking place between these mailing groups grew a new type of media exceeds the red lines accepted, and moved a Group Transaction to electronic forums, but in both cases there was known as the "admin"

Depending on the culture and mood of the admin was held control of the debates in forums and mail groups, so the ceiling of freedom and that seemed to higher stages of the printed press, but in the end still a cap, in addition to that the publication on the mailing groups or in the forums content is not open to all, the one must be involved in the group or forum in order to read the messages, and if you search through any search engine it will not be included in the results of e-mails or forums when blogs began to emerge completely eliminated the idea of the ceiling, and blogging open content and searched for in any search engine it will appear in the first pages which grants blogging strength and made it a new interim leap in the field of independent electronic media.

In the midst of this development the so-called "mediated generation" with its basic characteristic that he does not deal with the media as an impressed recipient of a technical tool, but as an active integrated user, and then became a social networks like "Facebook" and "Twitter", and mobile phones used digital camera, sound Recorder, and related world, which cannot be dealt with as Association tools in the virtual world, but rather as arguments put members of actual demands in an urgent pre-empting time, putting pressure on the political actors in their ability to come together and increase once spontaneous response to the appeal of the network (17), "the media bypass the influence of public opinion to influence behavior."

Under the excuse that recipients today are expected to have the space to choose what displays it also should be has the ability to participate in the content and views, thus emerged new labels such as "communication revolution and social media," which spawned the phenomenon known as the "citizen journalist" where it emerged as the role of social networking sites using camera phones and other in the transfer of the event and build a press story, which is a new thinking in the concept of journalism, based on the premise that journalism practices should not be limited to only the transfer of events and problems, but must be the participation of
citizens in the media coverage of the political and social life, some consider this thought has contributed with traditional media to enrich and causing the appearance after the gap widened between the citizen and the government on the one hand, and between citizens and media institutions on the other hand, leading to a decline in the participation of citizens in political and social life, and the weaker sense of active citizenship. This press movement, media reform thanks to the means of communication cheap and easy to use, and the support that is also what happened to the difficulty of access in some cases to the scene, or hot spots, which applies, for example, on the Syrian situation when there is no access to international television networks and newspaper reporters and news agencies to cover the facts there, and had been relying solely on citizens certificates in the heart of the event and the videos were filmed by amateur and is not verified the credibility of some of them (18).

The basic principle of work at the press to do authentication from the source in order to preserve the credibility of the media outlet, the difference between traditional journalism and citizen journalism to social media as blogs and videos on YouTube and others all of which constitute a private and non-objective views for members related to events about public affairs (19), while press writer and media officer at the Geneva Institute for Human rights, " Katie Hayek " said that the " citizen journalist " phenomenon are the main success factors in the popular movement witnessed by the Arab region.

This unconventional press commitment to customary conditions of journalistic practice, as being a member in professional associations, getting access to a college degree, which confirms that the press is no longer an elitist profession, any citizen can become a journalist just by possession of the means of modern technology that allows him access to the Internet, as the phenomenon of citizen journalism had its beginning in the United States by the end of the twentieth century with the advent of blogs, and the increasing role and importance of it between 2003-2005, with the launch of a new means of communication like Facebook and YouTube. (20)

It is also the reasons in support of this style of journalism, the intentional or unintentional failure from traditional journalism in the follow-up and cover local events as exemplified in the crime of "Chapel Hill," delayed local media coverage of nearly 20 hours of the crime, and the fact that announced and covered by social networking sites, and the absence of instant media coverage of the event its impact is reflected in the opinion of activists and stems from the assumption that the crime will made news screens and news sites from the moment of discovery similar to what public used to (21), which is a matter of curiosity on objective media and traditional role of new media in tune the performance and practices of traditional media and control it.

**New media, the agenda, and the public**

Since setting the media agenda process includes the selection of important topics and issues, and escalation of the media to shape opinion, the question is do we need to wonder about those topics and their source? in other words, which depends on the other in the choice of subjects? Is new media derives its information and the issues raised which offered by traditional media or the opposite is true and that the media has become a follower of the new media and accredited it in a list of priorities or agenda so as not to lag behind and be able to compete in order to survive?

In this regard, and with respect to the printed press, we find that the study was conducted by George Washington University in the United States show that the majority of journalists are using social networking sites as a source to search for news, stories and information. The study found that 56% out of 371 journalists working in web and print newspapers, considered that social networking sites were "important" or "somewhat important" in the production of stories or reports that they spread. He said 89% of those who turn to social sites they are always in the blogs on the Web. (22)

We also find in another report adopts a reference to the social media revolution has changed and will continue to change the press and news organizations, and that many of the traditional media and non-traditional rely reports dealing with how the internet and social media, particularly social networks may actually began to impact on the news institutions, and how they work, and that in economic terms, and so that the press paper facing a crisis in how to make news profitable in the digital age, how can the paper make money, and on the professional side, how could social media, particularly social networks such as Twitter has changed (for the better or for the worse) the way of journalists practicing for their daily work (23).

Similarly also for the television channels terrestrial and satellite, which recently increased its reliance on rebroadcasting of news articles, videos, Tweets activists from social networking sites, a phenomenon some experts say that it has begun with the eleventh of September bombings when it was broadcast videos of the leaders of "Al Qaeda", but it has evolved more in the midst of the revolutions in the Arab region. (24)
Some points out that the case of overlap between the traditional media and new media is due to the media's traditional desire to avail provided by cyberspace from special advantages to spread among young people so as to create a site for the TV channels on the internet broadcast from which on their screens directly, but that did not come back directly benefit, and then resorted to these channels to allocate part of the broadcast on the silver screen for the transfer of content from social networking sites, or broadcasts of some groups and movements websites without checking the credibility of the content, from a perception that it may attract new audiences. (25) Add to that the use of bloggers in programs as important guests and also as sources for news rocked the community (26),

The same applies also for the television channels, and satellite ground where the increasing reliance on re-broadcasting of news articles, videos, Tweets activists from social networking sites and perhaps a desire to strengthen its competitive position with those of Design as media sector most follow-up of youth and depending on those sites although there is no doubt that everything published on those sites prompt or colored by the objectives and ideology of those who made it, and the majority of what is published cannot be verified, under the fact that its publisher is not interested in any professional or objective considerations. (27)

"Ahmed Shihab-Eldin" an associate professor at Columbia University -said that the situation has changed due to social media, where they contributed significantly to the change in perception of the media, and dealing with the issues raised in it, and everyone became receive news via social media, more than newspapers and television channels and social media has shown its importance to the political events in the news. (28)

So despite the fact that the transfer of TV channels for the content of the information leaflet on the pages of the social networking of the "Facebook" and "Twitter" and " YouTube" and " Personal Blogs " sites have contributed to keep up to the speed of events and developments accelerating, but it may be placed in a dilemma how to validate the news? and the fact that the transferred video, or even movable statements about public figures, is it already issued for their own account or with regard to the development and prioritization or drafting the agenda, in the world of digitization or digital media, receiver, who is at the same time sender will set his list of priorities for himself, and whenever won from the use of digital technology skills and tools he will be able to transfer his list to the largest segment of the general public as well as the imposition of those priorities on traditional media, especially with the increase in the entry of new categories of users into social networking users. (29)

New Media and the Spiral of Silence
Since today's media environment is undergoing continual refinement at rapid speeds, researchers are able to find new ways to apply the theory. Although scholars remain divided as to whether the theory's "spiraling" effect is applicable to today's digital media environment, the theory nonetheless remains influential because it has been studied today more so than in previous years. The internet, particularly social media, has opened new research avenues for scholars who want to conduct efficient and cost-effective studies involving multiple countries. Regardless of whether the theory is applied to traditional or digital media, communication scholars can agree that the theory makes important contributions towards explaining individual behavior and attitudes arising from media consumption in particular, when the theory is closely studied, it reveals that public opinion is neither transitory nor random. (30)

A major insight into human behavior from pre-internet era studies of communication is the tendency of people not to speak up about policy issues in public—or among their family, friends, and work colleagues—when they believe their own point of view is not widely shared. This tendency is called the “spiral of silence.”

Some social media creators and supporters have hoped that social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter might produce different enough discussion venues that those with minority views might feel freer to express their opinions, thus broadening public discourse and adding new perspectives to everyday discussion of political issues. (31)

In today's partisan media environment, consumers are exposed to a wide variety of different media stories. The ideological identities of these stories are just as diverse as the way they are expressed. However, despite the differing partisan lenses on a given issue, consumers may not be able to perceive rational arguments on each political spectrum in an objective manner. Thus, a troubling question can arise: are consumers missing important information that could completely change their viewpoints on a given issue? If this question were applied to the
Spiral of Silence, the "spiraling" process could essentially be overturned, thus reversing a deeply-embedded public opinion.

**Does the "Spiral of Silence" Exist in Digital Media?**

The Spiral of Silence in online media interactions may also be diluted because of the internet's global interconnectivity. Cultural norms vary widely between different countries. To make matters more complicated, on a microscopic level, a country's different localities will have differing cultural norms from the country as a whole. Thus, when people from different countries and localities voice an opinion, their prevailing public opinion may be completely different from another country's. With the diversity and relativity of different cultural opinions on a given issue, a question emerges: does gauging popular opinion necessarily have to involve direct observation of other people in their cultural environments?

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Social Media in Turkish Cypriot Society: Power, Surveillance and the Monitoring Culture

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Abstract
This article investigates whether Turkish Cypriots perceive themselves under surveillance on social media. An online survey was conducted to 167 Turkish Cypriots to investigate the perception and factors of the social media surveillance and surveillance society in North Cyprus. Results indicated that social media surveillance perception had a significant relationship with age, gender, monthly income, colleague and superior surveillance, political party follower surveillance, and government institution surveillance. The study can be extended to Greek Cypriot sample to investigate the cultural differences in terms of surveillance perception.

Keywords: Surveillance, social surveillance, social media, North Cyprus.

Introduction
Social Media is the use of platforms like Facebook, Twitter, Foursquare, and Instagram to be informed of individuals, events and news. Facebook is the leading social network with 1.65 billion monthly users (FB, 27 April 2016). In an era where there is constant information flow among people, it is vital to look at how information flows, to whom does it flow and more importantly whether information should remain private or public. The internet in general, as engaging and entertaining, as it seems, is a source for exposed data and information of individuals in many aspects. People upload their credit card information to buy commodities, sign into social media platforms to keep in touch with one another and watch videos to stay connected with latest news. Social media is also a crucial source of information and a platform for news source for individuals. As Alice Marwick states: “These technologies are designed for users to continually investigate digital traces left by the people they are connected to through social media” (p.378, 2012). These traces are constantly monitored by social media users and thus raises the question of how social media is related to surveillance.

For Haggerty and Ericson “Surveillance involves collecting and analyzing information of populations to govern people” (p. 3, 2006) Throughout surveillance studies, George Orwell’s novel “1984” (2003) has been used as one of the primary metaphors to indicate how surveillance on the society is constructed. Written in 1949, The Big Brother in the novel is a symbol that controls not only the corporal existence but also the thoughts of the citizens in a totalitarian way. The idea of Surveillance Society has reached its peak when Michel Foucault proposed Jeremy Bentham’s Panopticon to emphasize on the concepts of surveillance, social control and power. In his book Discipline and Punish Foucault depicts the prisoner in the Panopticon as the object, “[s]he is seen, but [s]he does not see” (p. 200,1977). The common ideology of the Big Brother and Panopticon as metaphor is that they both show how power is present in societies as surveillance systems and social control mechanisms.

In 1998, the movie Truman Show has brought another dimension to the concept of surveillance. Inspired by the society that is obsessed on watching TV in the late 90’s, the audience watches Truman; unaware that his life is a TV show, find out the inevitable and shocking truth that he is being watched since the day he was born. The film is transformation from Foucault’s and Orwell’s surveillance society, in which there is a supervisor watching; to a surveillance society in which the “people” are watching “people”. The term surveillance society is first proposed by Gary T. Mark (1985) who referred to George Orwell’s Nineteen Eighty Four and with the arrival of the digital approaches to modern life, surveillance gathered momentum with scholars like Lyon (1994,2001). Today, the same question which many scholars asked still arise with every single step of technological and digital improvement: Who is watching who now?
Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

Panopticon versus Synopticon in the surveillance society

Although the ideology of surveillance is certainly formed around the panopticon metaphor, along with the technological developments other metaphors were introduced to indicate the existing social control within that time period. Mathiesen expands the discussion on Foucault’s Panopticon and states that for Foucault “Panopticism represents a fundamental transformation from the situation where the many see the few to the situation where the few see the many (p. 217, 1997). Foucault’s definition involves historical elements of a society which evolved from a theatrical spectacle watching the few, to the power and supervisors watching the many. Mathiesen, however, focuses on the term Synopticon as a concept that Foucault oversees, and indicates that with the rapid developments in the modern society and the mass media; few now are watching the many - VIP’s, stars and reporters- and identifies themselves as a new class in the public sphere. For Mathiesen, Synopticon accelerates the viewer society and the drastic increase of Synopticon through mass media is far beyond the power that is implemented through panopticism.

As technology developed the transformation of the metaphors concerning surveillance on society continued. Lovioe, (2011) reiterates the nonknowledge of the prisoner of being watched in the panoptic system however, with the emerging technology of cameras and the virtual environment, the society can now be called superpanoptic postmodern surveillance society and emphasizes that we are no longer in a private space with our self-inflicted paranoia that helps to self-regulate one in the society, just like a prisoner under control.

Haggerty and Ericson explains (2000), surveillance as an institutional components. These components of surveillance is explicitly present in governmental institutions such as police force and authors give FBI as an example in order to show how police computer systems gather data about the people. Although the emerging TV world brought back the synopticon society in which many are watching the few, the panopticon surveillance is still present in which governmental institutions monitor people in order to collect data about the population and the society. Based on the literature above I propose the following hypothesis:

H1 There will be a significant relationship between the perception of being monitored on social media by the state authorities and the scores participants receive from the Surveillance Society survey
H2 There will be a significant relationship between the perception of being monitored on social media by the families of the participants and the scores participants receive from the Surveillance Society survey

H3 There will be a significant relationship between the perception of being monitored on social media by the friends of the participants and the scores participants receive from the Surveillance Society survey

Social Media Surveillance and Turkish Cypriot Society
Cyprus, an island in the Mediterranean, has been divided into two parts with two different cultures – Turkish and Greek- with a war in 1974 and the North part of the island (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus) is only recognized by Turkey only as of today. Hence, there is no trade with any country excluding Turkey; flights are only via turkey and due to this, Turkish Cypriots live isolated on the island from the rest of the world. The isolation resulted in Turkish Cypriots living in a society closed to the outer world with embargoes and with the division of the island both cultures continued their family and neighbor relationships within the culture they were born into. The political embargos of the international world stopped direct flights to the island hence made it more difficult to travel which resulted in less travelling hence spending more time with the family and the community as well as having to see the same people around for many years and being well informed of one another either by talking and getting information from each other as well as monitoring the private life due to close neighbor and community relationships.

Internet; specifically social media has been an alternative way out to the outer world for Turkish Cypriots. With the transformation of villages to towns, the local culture of constantly being informed of one another still continues and with the introduction of social media to the North Part of the island, the boundaries stretched and the culture of ‘being informed of one another’ became easier. Consequently the aforementioned interaction among the Turkish Cypriot community and neighbors as well as being monitored by group of people and is immensely felt on social media. The collective aspect of the Turkish Cypriot community enables Facebook to be even more collective and follow what the population is doing. Wood (2009) argues that, the concept of surveillance may differ from one society to another and “Surveillance is historically, spatially and culturally located.” (p.179,2009) and Marwick (2012) cites that “Social surveillance is the use of Web 2.0 sites like Twitter, Facebook and Foursquare to see what friends, family, and acquaintances are “up to” (Joinson 2008; Tokunaga 2011). (2012:378) and points out that “Social surveillance is the ongoing eavesdropping, investigation, gossip and inquiry that constitutes information gathering by people about their peers, made salient by the social digitization normalized by social media.” (p.382, 2012). She separates social surveillance on social media from other surveillance types as in social media has three characteristics

- **Power:** Social surveillance assumes a model of power flowing through all social relationships.
- **Hierarchy:** Social surveillance takes place between individuals, rather than between structural entities and individuals.
- **Reciprocity:** People who engage in social surveillance also produce online content that is surveilled by others.” (p. 382,2012)

The aforementioned social dynamics of the Turkish Cypriots, due to the political situation, enabled them to adapt social surveillance to their lives on social media. People were informed of each other as it was an isolated community and now they are informed of each other because social media is the primary platform that connects the society to the outer world, thus majority of people in the society use it to see what everybody is doing, what everybody is interested in and what kind of engagements is everybody in the society.

The panoptic and synoptic society structure is explicit in this argument, for Turkish Cypriots monitor each other through social media to see who supports which political party, who is getting married, who is getting divorced, who is violating a rule in the society and so forth.

There is even a Facebook page called Yuh Dediklerim; a Facebook page in which people are displayed with photographic evidence if they park on a disabled parking area, if they pollute the environment, if they violate human or animal rights but above all, if members of the government are photographed violating laws in the society. The page elevates citizen journalism as every member of the group contributes by stalking another citizen who violates the rule and proves it by uploading a photograph. The page is an evidence of how social
surveillance can be constructed in a collective society through social media. Fuchs depict that “in participatory social systems power is distributed symmetrically” (p. 173, 2008) in people feel they can express their ideas and take part in decision making process. As much as social media encourages this kind of participatory and non-hierarchical power, it still consists the panoptic fear where surveillance might result in ‘being punished’. The fear of being openly published on social media and the fact that other people are monitoring every day actions in the Turkish Cypriot society regardless of age, gender and hierarchical position accelerated the fear of being published on Facebook because of any of the possible reasons mentioned above. The fear clearly involves the after effect of being published since employee monitoring can go far enough to be fired from the workplace as well as being blamed or being distrusted (Moussa (2015), Kovach K. A., Jordan J., Tansey K., Framinan E. (2000).

In UK it was announced that the government is paying several companies to monitor people on social media and in the same way the political parties pay companies to conduct surveys on elections and the results are distributed through social media for publicity. Especially during elections, Turkish Cypriot population follow social media as it is one of the richest news source and surveys are also conducted by the political parties to build perception management. Neil Richards states that “Critically, the gathering of information affects the power dynamic between the watcher and the watched, giving the watcher greater power to influence or direct the subject of surveillance… it gives the watchers power that can be used nefariously” (p.1934-1965, 2013)

Based on this, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4 There will be a significant relationship between the perception of being monitored on social media by the colleagues and superiors of the participants at the workplace and the scores participants receive from the Surveillance Society survey

H5 There will be a significant relationship between the perception of being monitored on social media by the political party the participants support and the scores participants receive from the Surveillance Society survey

Methodology
Participants
Current study was conducted with 167 participants; 88 (52%) of them were women and 79 (48%) were men. Age groups differed from 18 to 60. All of the participants were recruited on social media via online surveys. Majority of the participants had at least undergraduate degree or higher (88,6%). The study targeted only Turkish Cypriots. There was an item regarding nationality differences of the participants; Turkish Cypriot, Turkish, and Other Nationalities. Participants other than Turkish Cypriots were excluded from the study.

Materials
Participants were asked to fill a short demographic questionnaire, 5 questions regarding their social surveillance in Turkish Cypriot society (Family, Friends, Collogues and Superiors, Political Party followers, and Government Institutes), and Social Surveillance Scale.

Demographics
In this section, participants were asked to fill questions regarding their age, gender, education level, monthly income and the city they live. Participants were also asked to write the social media platform’s name they used most. However, the comparison analysis for this item was cancelled because Facebook was the most used platform with 89% response rate.

Social Surveillance Scale (S.S.S.)
The scale was created by CemileTokgöz (2011) to assess participants’ perception on surveillance and information control by the society and the government. It has 28 items; participants were asked to read statements and indicate their thoughts with ratings from 1 (Totally disagree) to 5 (Totally agree). The study focused the surveillance scores as a whole, rather than comparing different subscales. Higher scores in S.S.S. indicated higher perception for social media surveillance. Participants’ responses to 28 items were summed up and divided to 28 to calculate the mean score each participant in S.S.S. Internal consistency was .64.

Procedure
Opportunistic and convenient sampling methods were used to recruit participants. Research was conducted in online settings. Typeform (online survey website) was used to create online survey. After forming of the survey
on Typeform, social media was used for distribution of the survey. Average time for completing the online survey was 20 minutes. In total, 523 internet users visited the online survey page on Typeform, but only 217 (41%) of them completed the survey. After the exclusion of non-Turkish Cypriot participants and outliers, 167 participants’ data were analyzed for final results.

Participants were briefly informed about the study before their participation. Participants were told that their participation was voluntary and they were free to leave any time they wanted, without any explanation needed. Researchers also made sure that participants might ask questions about research if they needed more information. It almost took 20 minutes for participants to finish the survey.

523 internet users visited the online survey page on Typeform via smartphones (339 visitors), desktop and laptop computers (163 visitors), and tablet computers (20 visitors). 137 of the responses came from participants with smartphones, 75 participants used desktops and laptops, and 5 participants used tablet computers to complete the survey.

**Results**

IBM SPSS 20th version was used in the study for data analysis, and assumptions of homogeneity of variance and normality were completed for each scale. In addition, participants who have more than +3/-3 z-score was also excluded from the analysis, resulting with seventeen excluded participants at total, and further analyses were completed with 167 participants. ANOVA and Correlation analyses were conducted on the data entered into SPSS. ANOVA results were measured to compare means scores depending on demographic information of the participants. Correlation coefficients were measured to see the associations among the variables.

**Descriptive Statistics**

The number of participants, mean scores, and ANOVA results for the variables (gender, age group, monthly income, city, and education level) can be seen in Table 1. ANOVA were conducted with participants’ total score of S.S.S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>A.S.S.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>79</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>3,48</td>
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<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
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<td>18-24</td>
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<td>25-34</td>
<td>67</td>
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<td>35-44</td>
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<td>45-60</td>
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<td><strong>Education Level</strong></td>
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<td>High School</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3,69</td>
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<tr>
<td>Associate degree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3,43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Undergraduate degree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>3,48</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate degree or higher</td>
<td>86</td>
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<td><strong>Monthly Income</strong></td>
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<td>0-1500</td>
<td>22</td>
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Correlational Analyses
A correlation analysis was conducted to see the associations among variables. Correlation coefficients of variables can be seen in Table 2. As key findings, the correlational coefficients indicated that Social Surveillance Scale scores of the participants had a significant positive correlation with participants’ gender, age group, monthly income, perceived colleague and superior surveillance, perceived political party follower surveillance, and perceived government institutions surveillance.

Table 2: Correlation coefficients values (Pearson) of the variables

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Conclusion and recommendations for further research
This research was conducted to investigate the perceptions of surveillance in the Turkish Cypriot society and the factors that affected these perceptions. Although there was a significant positive correlation with participants’ gender, age group, monthly income, perceived colleague and superior surveillance, perceived political party follower surveillance, and perceived government institutions surveillance, no significant positive relationship correlation was found with participants’ perceived family and friend surveillance.

Further research could be conducted on Greek Cypriot society to investigate the relationship between the surveillance and collective society and whether the political power and state authorities is implementing surveillance on the society.

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Students’ Perception about Teachers’ Nonverbal Immediacy Behavior: A Case of Communication Sciences Faculty

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Abstract
Few concepts in instructional communication literature have received as much attention as teacher immediacy. Although it is very intensively researched in foreign literature, there are small amount of research in Turkey about in class communication especially nonverbal immediacy behaviors. The purpose of this study is to determine how communication students’ evaluate their lecturers’ nonverbal immediacy behaviors. Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (NIS), which was developed by Richmond, McCroskey, and Johnson (2003) were used to collect data. The NIS was applied to 185 college of communication students from a University located in the Central Anatolia Region of Turkey. Results indicate that colleges of communication students are finding adequate teachers’ nonverbal immediacy behaviors and there are no differences between males and females level of perception.

Introduction
Whether we realize or not interpersonal communication takes very important place in our lives. Interpersonal communication is the communication we use when engaged in face-to-face setting with one or more other people. While there are many definitions available, interpersonal communication is often defined as the communication that takes place between people who are interdependent and have some knowledge of each other. Interpersonal communication includes what takes place between a son and his father, an employer and an employee, two sisters, a teacher and a student, two lovers, two friends, and so on.

The Teacher-student Communication As an Interpersonal Communication
The teacher-student relationship, while unique, shares several similarities with other interpersonal relationships. Despite two differences in the teacher-student relationship are that it lacks the equality typically associated with friendship and has time constraints not typical of friendship, Frymeir and Houser (2000, s. 208) says that they don’t affect the basic functioning of communication in relationship development and maintenance. Teachers and students go through a process of meeting one another, exchanging information, and adjusting and developing expectations similar to what any two individuals would go through in developing a relationship. Both teachers and students have goals they wish to achieve. The achievement of those goals depends on the teacher and student’s ability to negotiate with one another and resolve conflict. These are communication intensive activities that go on all interpersonal relationships.

As an interpersonal communication, the teacher and student communication have very important place in educational settings. Historically, instructional communication scholars have focused their research on explicating instructor characteristics and behaviors and student traits and dispositions that contribute to classroom outcomes. The past thirty years of research on instructional communication, has identified several interpersonal variables that are positively related to learning. Variables such as immediacy, communicator style, self-disclosure, solidarity, humor, caring and compliance-gaining have contributed to understanding of the dynamic student-teacher relationship and how it result in student learning (Frymeir, & Houser, 2000). That is embedded within this body of research is the implicit idea that instructor can communicate with their students in ways that either enhance or inhibit what student bring the classroom interactions that contribute to learning (Witt, Schrodt, Wheeless, & Bryand 2014).

Interpersonal perceptions and communicative relationships between teachers and student are crucial to the teaching and learning process, and the degree of immediacy between teacher and student is an important variable in those relationships. Immediacy behaviors have been primarily used to describe and understand the teacher-student relationship.
Verbal and Nonverbal Immediacy

Immediacy is a perception of closeness between persons was first advanced by Mehrabian (1969) and adapted to the classroom by Andersen (1979). Richmond (2002) defines immediacy as “the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between people” (p. 68). Immediacy is a communication behavior and involves verbal and nonverbal elements. There are substantial amount of research has related it to effective teaching and to an increase in students’ motivation (See McCroskey et al., 2005).

Verbal teacher immediacy refers to verbal messages that show empathy, openness, kindness, reward, praise, feelings of inclusiveness, humor, personal knowledge and willingness to engage students in communication, among others. Inevitably linked to nonverbal immediacy behaviors, verbal immediacy has been associated with increased cognitive and affective learning and with increased motivation (Gorham, 1988; Cristophel, 1990; Plax, Kearny, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1986; Richmond, McCroskey, Kearny, & Plax, 1987; Rodriguez, Plax, & and Kearny, 1996).

What we say is an important way of getting our message across but using our voice is only the tip of the iceberg. We actually communicate more information using nonverbal signals, gestures, facial expression, body language even our appearance. Recognizing that nonverbal messages typically provide the framework for interpreting verbal messages, teacher nonverbal behavior in the classroom may well provide the context for students’ interpretations of those verbal messages teacher employ. This nonverbal signals-nonverbal immediacy behaviors- can give clues and additional information and meaning over and above verbal communication.

“Nonverbal immediacy may exist independently of verbal messages and this is why it is often given more importance in classroom research” (Ballester, 2015, p.11). Nonverbal teacher immediacy refers to nonverbal behaviors that induce physical and emotional closeness, which in turn increase students’ affect towards the teacher, the course and the content (Richmond, & McCroskey, 2000). Nonverbal immediacy consist of behaviors such as smiling at students, making eye contact, moving around the classroom, and using vocal variety. Similarly to verbal immediacy, perceptions of nonverbal immediacy have been shown to increase affective, cognitive and behavioral learning, motivation and perceptions of clarity and credibility (Richmond, Gorham, & McCroskey, 1987; Pogue & AhYun, 2006; Hsu, 2010).

Briefly we can say that by communicating through immediate behaviors, teachers establish a positive relationship with students and create a positive environment in class, which translates as students being more interested and motivated and learning more effectively.

Although it is very intensively researched in foreign literature, there are small amount of research in Turkey about in class communication (Akkuzu, & Akkaya 2014; Argon, & Zafer 2009; Basaran, & Erdem 2009; Çetinkanat, 1997; Hazneci 2012; Karagöz, & Kösterelioğlu 2008; Tarhan 2000), especially nonverbal immediacy behaviors. For this reason in this study researcher wonder that what is the situation in a Communication Science Faculty that is in the University located in the Central Anatolia Region of Turkey. How communication students’ evaluate their lecturers’ nonverbal immediacy behaviors?

Methodology

This study utilized a descriptive research design. In view of the descriptive nature of the case, just quantitative data were collected. To establish the conceptual framework of the study, a survey research, were conducted. A survey method is directed toward determining the students’ evaluation about teachers’ nonverbal immediacy behavior.

Measures

Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (NIS), which was developed by Richmond, McCroskey, and Johnson (2003) were used to collect data. It consists of 26 Likert type items (13 positively worded, 13 negatively worded). Scale adapted into Turkish Language by Küçük and İspir (2016). Results from exploratory and two step-confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated that the original form of NIS and its Turkish version were consistent in terms of hypothesized structure. Internal consistency reliabilities measured as Cronbach’s alpha coefficients and it is found .94.
Participants
The NIS was applied to 185 colleges of communication students from a University located in the Central Anatolia Region of Turkey.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data were collected during the first week of classes to avoid the possibility that the participants’ responses on the questionnaires would be influenced by content in the course.

Scoring
In the first step, once all scores in positive items were added, 78 (weighted value of the midpoint of the scale) was than added to the total score. In the second step all scores in negative items were summed up. In the final stage the values of the first step was substracted the value of second step. These scores show us, one students’ evaluation of the teacher.

Findings
According to independent sample T-Test scores there is no significant differences between males and females’ evaluation about teachers’ nonverbal immediacy behavior.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations By Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results, % 11.4 of the students think that their teachers show low level nonverbal immediacy behaviors. % 32.4 of the students think that their teachers show medium level nonverbal immediacy behaviors. % 56.2 of the students think that their teachers show high level nonverbal immediacy behaviors. Total mean score (M=91.3) indicates that communication students are finding adequate teachers’ nonverbal immediacy behaviors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Mean Score of All Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion
Establishing and sustaining a good climate in traditional learning environment is an important issue to consider. Communicating through immediate behaviors, teachers establish a positive relationship with students and create a positive environment in class, which translates as students being more interested and motivated and learning
more effectively. For this reason, teacher immediacy behaviors are needed to be investigated and instructors’ awareness about immediacy behaviors should be raised. Literature suggests that teacher immediacy results in higher levels of affect for the teacher and the content of the course, higher levels of cognitive learning, student motivation and teacher-student interaction, lower levels of resistance to the teacher, classroom anxiety and status differences between teachers and students, higher perceptions of teacher’s clarity, credibility and competence and higher evaluations from students and supervisors (Richmond, 2002). When we look at the general results of this study, we can say that communication students are finding adequate teachers’ nonverbal immediacy behaviors and there are no differences between males and females level of evaluation.

References


immediacy and student cognitive learning: Affective learning as the central causal mediator. *Communication Education, 45*, 293-305.


The Flipped Classroom in Mass Communication Education, Using Lynda.Com

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Abstract
The flipped classroom is a form of instruction with growing interest in academia. There are several papers that highlight the appeal and benefits of the flipped classroom, but they are primarily limited case studies and anecdotal accounts. Our dual quantitative/qualitative study explores the flipped classroom through two mass communication courses (a 3-D animation class and a single-camera video class taught over a year and a half, offering data from eight classes total) using lynda.com for outside-of-class instruction. The results indicate that the flipped classroom increases student performance over regular class instruction. Many factors often assumed to be correlated with better performance did not show significance in this study (i.e., preferential learning modalities, comfort with online structure), but there were other factors observed (e.g., self-efficacy, instructor knowledge...) that were significantly aligned with performance in the flipped classroom.

Introduction
Presently there is a growing academic interest in the flipped classroom for use in higher education. The flipped classroom is a form of instruction involving student use of video lectures, podcasts and reading material outside of the classroom, usually at home, while the on-site class period the next day is used for task-based learning, more personalized guidance and interaction with the instructor and other students. Basically, the lectures are conducted asynchronously (both spatially and temporally, and thus usually online) before the class commences. This is formally known as a submodel of the ‘rotation model’ of blended learning (Chen, et. al., 2014), allowing students to work at their own pace for much of the instruction and augmenting it with brick-and-mortar application and guidance. The basic theoretical approach relies on pragmatic theory and John Dewey’s learning by doing and development of practical life skills.

It is important to retain the fact that online videos are not the primary mode of instruction in the flipped classroom—as in the case of MOOCs (massive open online courses), for example, in which an entire course is delivered online—but rather supplemental to it (Herreid, 2002). This form of instruction is gaining momentum, in part due to the appreciation by students of the convenience of asynchronous learning (Lin and Overbaugh, 2007). Other factors also contribute to the growing pedagogical interest. Kathleen Fulton (2012) and Chen et. al. (2014) listed the following among the advantages of the flipped classroom:

- students move at their own pace, and thus information delivery is tailored for individual learning
- it is integrated with students’ facility with technology and appropriate for “21st century learning.”
- it stresses collaborative and independent learning as well as emphasizing problem solving
- doing “homework” in class gives teachers better insight into student difficulties and learning styles
- less transactional distance, and thus increasing the dialogue between students and teachers
- teachers can more easily customize and update the curriculum and provide it to students 24/7
- it equalizes student access to the instructor
- students can attend to homework in personalized time intervals, leading to lessened learner fatigue
- classroom time can be used more effectively and creatively
- teachers using the method report seeing increased levels of student achievement, interest, and engagement
- learning theory supports the new approaches
- the use of technology is flexible and
- The authors of this paper found some additional benefits to the flipped classroom:
• students who miss class for sports, etc. can watch the lectures while on the road
• the students perform better than those in the standard classroom

The flipped classroom is similar to other methods that depend heavily on student preparation outside of class. In team learning, developed by Larry Michaelsen, students are given reading assignments before class and then in class encounter individual quizzes, group quizzes, and finally case studies with increased achievement (Michaelsen, 1992; Michaelsen, Knight, & Fink, 2002). Herreid (2013) has described the successful use of Michaelsen’s method in STEM courses. Just-in-Time teaching is a method that requires significant student preparation as well. Students are required to accomplish web-based assignments that are due shortly before class. The instructor reads the student submissions to adjust the classroom lesson to suit the students’ needs. Class time is spent dealing with questions and introducing material on a need-to-know basis (Novak, Patterson, Gavrin, & Christian, 1999; Simkins, Maier, & Rhem, 2009). Other modalities, such as “Hybrid courses” or blended models have students learning their subject matter via a combination of traditional classroom interactions and some form of Internet-based learning. These and related methodologies share some of the same advantages as the flipped classroom and, as previously noted, the flipped classroom is considered a subset of the blended model. Like the flipped classroom, all of these methods allow instructors to cover principles, facts, and terms as part of out-of-class student preparation and to use classroom time to deliver the application side where students grapple with real-world problems and see the material in context. (Herreid 2002). It thus appears reasonable that the numerous reported benefits stemming from these approaches would also work for the flipped classroom.

A central theme in much of the research regarding the flipped classroom modality of learning is the idea that active learning works best, as opposed to only lecturing. Active learning is the key element in many of these accounts. Yet the research tends to rely on personal accounts of case studies and anecdotal reports; there is not much hard evidence of the flipped classroom’s superiority to the standard lecture/lab. On this basis, we conducted a more rigorous research study to test the effectiveness of the flipped classroom. We explored the use of online content through lynda.com, to implement a flipped classroom in our single-camera and 3-D animation classes, while assessing its effectiveness via empirical study. We also examined the effect of this approach on student satisfaction and performance.

Literature Review

While there is literature concerning online teaching and the effect of videos on classroom instruction, there is very little at present concerning the flipped classroom in mass communication courses and actual empirical research. Most of the research involves anecdotal, instructor accounts of the flipped classroom. And most of the literature relates to online teaching, which by extension may hold some keys for the flipped classroom but is a different pedagogic modality. There is one study looking at the use of the flipped classroom in a multimedia course that focuses on web development, which will be discussed below.

There are several authors who conceptually support the flipped classroom (Mull, 2012; Milman, 2012), with arguments ranging from time for increased creative instruction to increased student participation. But there are others (Nielsen, 2012) who note the increased time requirements without real evidence of improved instruction.

There is a reasonable amount of literature on the use of video podcasts as instructional material. The literature on the efficacy of video podcasts generally indicates a positive impact on student attitudes (Bolliger, Supanakorn, & Boggs, 2010; Hill & Nelson, 2011) behavior (Chester, Buntine, Hammond, & Atkinson, 2011; McCombs & Liu, 2007); and performance (Alpay & Gulati, 2010; Traphagan, Kusera, & Kishi, 2010; Vajoczki, Watt, Marquis, & Holshausen, 2010; Enfield, 2013). All of this indirectly bodes well for the use of video in the flipped classroom.

He, Swenson, and Lents (2012) examined the use of video tutorials as a supplement to learning in an undergraduate setting and they discovered an increase in student performance. Morris, Wu and Finnegan (2005) found a strong association of student locus of control and course success, lending indirect support for the flipped classroom where the student is more in charge of learning and final results depend on their own actions. Flipped classroom teachers almost universally agree that it’s not the instructional videos on their own, but how they are integrated into an overall approach, that is significant. Students cannot simply watch the video in a passive fashion. Instructors often request that notes are taken and turned in, or they administer random quizzes, to ensure students stay on task and concentrate (Tucker, 2012; Enfield, 2013).
Zappe, Leicht, Messner, Litzinger, and Lee (2009) flipped a large undergraduate architectural engineering course. Student evaluations of the course indicated that the classroom flip had a positive impact on self-reported student learning: students perceived the method of teaching as more effective than lecturing and reported that they enjoyed the class and benefited from watching the lecture videos outside of class.

Ruddick (2012) described a course redesign project based on the flipped classroom concept for a college preparatory chemistry course. Students in the flipped section of the course watched video lectures at home and spent class time working on problem-solving activities. Final exam scores and “percent success” (the percentage of students who finished the course with a letter grade of C or higher) were compared between the flipped and regular-lecture sections. In addition, student feedback was gathered using student course evaluations. Results showed that the flipped-class students outperformed the standard lecture-based students, with higher final exam scores (note this is not overall exam scores).

While there are no detailed surveys indicating predictors for success in the flipped classroom, there are some suggestions for indicators of success in the online classroom revolving around several indices. Some authors find that emotional support, self-efficacy and time and study management are the key correlated factors related to success and retention in an online course (Holder, 2007) as well as students’ sense of computer self-efficacy (Morris, Finnegan and Wu, 2005).

Enfield (2013) offers the most detailed survey of the flipped classroom for web-based development. He used personally-crafted videos centered on coding for the web. In terms of development time, it took him 50 hours to create 13.5 hours of video, with tailored editing still remaining to complete. However, he notes that the time taken in production was somewhat balanced by the decrease in preparation time required for each class session. His major findings indicate that students generally found the videos very helpful, despite some technical issues (i.e., streaming and downloading factors). In the subsequent class activities, group activities to practice were considered least engaging; rather, they favored instructor-led demonstrations where students where called on to proceed with the task.

Recent research has indicated a further elaboration on elements of the flipped classroom, although the suggestions are based on self-assessments and not hard data: adding emphasis on content planning and not just delivery; more opportunities for input from students during the course sessions; and using multiple computer platforms for ready access (Chen, et. al. 2014).

In summary, there are several studies indicating the usefulness of videos to augment lecture materials, although not in the flipped classroom mode (i.e., they are using videos during class time or as part of complete online instruction). There are also indications that use of multimedia tends to increase student interest and participation. And those who have used the flipped classroom, while having some implementation issues, generally find it a successful means of increasing student performance. It is on this basis that we decided to conduct an empirical study to determine its effectiveness in several mass communication courses.

Implementation

We used lynda.com offerings for the online portion of our study. Lynda.com provides excellent professional videos on many relevant applications in mass communication, and eliminates many of the problematic issues addressed in the literature regarding creating effective videos for the classroom. Applications were chosen based on class content, and the same applications were used by all instructors for the same class.

All students were given free accounts to lynda.com for the semester. Students were also canvassed for home-computer access. In the rare case this was not available, lab computers were opened during most school hours for their use, and computers were also provided in the library during school and evening hours.

Miller (2012) offers some cautionary advice for the flipped classroom that we implemented during this study: Reasons for knowing the content were embedded and transparent as the course proceeded, with continual emphasis on the accretion of knowledge.

We ensured that all students had access to the needed technology.

We linked the pre-watched videos with the content of in-class activities.
An introductory video podcast was assigned the night before the relevant in-class activity. In class, the instructor dealt with the material at hand and incorporated the relevant skills from the lynda.com session into both lecture material and into hands-on assignments. The next night, the lynda.com tutorials were resumed. These steps were repeated as the semester continued.

During night sessions, if students had questions they could use e-mail or social media (IM, D2L, Facebook) to contact peers and/or the instructor.

The study was conducted among two different courses, with five different instructors, over a one and a half year period:

- A single-camera production course, with a lynda.com focus on basic camera techniques and editing skillsets in FinalCut 7 or X (three instructors)
- A 3-D animation course, focusing on Maya (two instructors)

Data emanated from both quantitative results (a pretest and posttest survey of attitudinal factors using a Likert scale and a concept/skills based test) as well as qualitative analysis (focus groups, individual interviews by the researcher). The concept and skills based test was the same for pre and post examination. There were also data from classes without lynda.com that took a pre-test and post-test, which served as controls. The qualitative self-reporting instrument gauged index of learning styles; intrinsic motivation; comfort with computers and online work; and self-efficacy measures.

The qualitative measures gave depth to the survey results, but also helped gauge the interaction of attitudes and behaviors. Individuals cannot change attitudes as readily as behaviors (Delahoussaye, 2002) and attitudes and behaviors are often nonaligned (Kerr et al., 2006 and Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Thus the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was used in part to ascertain if students stating they were good with computers actually were good with computers.

**Results**

The students did require some instruction on both lynda.com and social media methods of instructional interaction. This took about a week in all classes. There also was reluctance at first with time-on-task; most instructors found quizzes the best way to ensure students stayed current with the material.

**Quantitative Study**

For the Likert scale and simpler survey questions (e.g., age), we used a Pearson correlation coefficient, and looked at scatter plots separate for each attitude question vs. the improvement in test score (improvement was measured in two ways: a) raw learning:(the percent score at the end minus the percent score at the beginning), and b) percent of possible improvement in learning (what percent of the gap to 100 percent did they reach). The latter offers a more accurate indice for those students who demonstrated strong knowledge at the start. Any correlation with p<.05 is noted for significance; others are also given to if there is a pattern that is not consistent with other, often anecdotal, research, or seems likely to deserve further study. We used Pearson correlation since both variables are scale variables.

The following table shows the correlation for the students in the 3-D animation (Maya) class. Due to space limitations, representative questions are included in rows for some measures (i.e., it does not include all the questions related to comfort with technology, only some representative ones). If they are representative, they also are representative in terms of significance values.

The first column is the factor/question being evaluated, the second column is the correlation of items with the raw change in scores (e.g. post-test minus the pre-test values) while the third column is the correlation of items with the percent of possible increase in scores (e.g., the raw change/(100-pretest score). The latter calculation indicates how well a student already familiar with the material (i.e., did relatively well on the pre-test) changed.
### Table One – 3-D Animation – 36 students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Correlation (raw)</th>
<th>Correlation(% possible)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>r=.37p=.01</td>
<td>r=.39 p=.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am using lynda.com for this class</td>
<td>r=-.31 p=.03</td>
<td>r=-.24 p=.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online training turns people into numbers</td>
<td>r=.16</td>
<td>r=.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online training is intimidating because it seems complex</td>
<td>r=-.25 p=.07 weak</td>
<td>r=-.21 p=.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward to online training</td>
<td>r=.09</td>
<td>r=.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident I can use online training</td>
<td>r=.06</td>
<td>r=.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An online training module will enhance this class</td>
<td>r=-.08</td>
<td>r=-.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a creative person</td>
<td>r=.13</td>
<td>r=.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy working online</td>
<td>r=-.12</td>
<td>r=-.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident in my technical abilities</td>
<td>r=.05</td>
<td>r=.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online training only helps in the beginning of the learning curve</td>
<td>r=.09</td>
<td>r=.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online training helps me make more efficient use of my time</td>
<td>r=-.11</td>
<td>r=-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers intimidate me</td>
<td>r=-.15</td>
<td>r=-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn best via lecture</td>
<td>r=-.04</td>
<td>r=-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn best via reading</td>
<td>r=-.28 p=.05</td>
<td>r=-.30 p=.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn best via hands-on</td>
<td>r=-.07</td>
<td>r=-.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We also evaluated the results to see if any Likert item changed significantly with the amount of learning. For the Maya group, the self-assessment item “I am a creative person” significantly increased with the amount of learning. The values for correlation with the raw score was $r=.62$ (p=.01) and for percent improvement $r=.69$ (p=.00).

The most significant correlations related to:
- age (the older students did better),
- the use of lynda.com (those who did not use it did not do as well),
- students’ comfort with reading as a means of learning (the less a student’s perceived comfort with reading as a mode of learning, the more likely s/he would do well with the flipped instruction).

Some measures of efficacy in relation to computer and online skills were weakly significant and may deserve further study, although on the whole there were no attitude variables that were strikingly significant, including the reading comfort variables.

The t value for this Maya group compared with the control group is 0.00001, which is strongly significant. Thus their technical knowledge improved considerably.

While it was clear that the digital animation students’ technical knowledge of the material did seem to improve as a result of the Lynda.com tutorials further analysis was needed to determine whether this enhanced technical knowledge resulted in better overall final grades for the students. To determine this relationship a regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between students’ final grades and how well they did on the posttest given to each of them after completing the Lynda.com tutorials. To do this, each student’s final grades had to be recoded into a quantitative variable. This scale includes grades graded on a plus or minus scale. For example grade values such as B+ and C-. No plus or minus values were added for letter grades of D or below or A or higher. This is illustrated below in Figure 1.

p-value=0.04
p-value=0.04
Figure 1 shows a statistically significant positive correlation between how well students perform on the Lynda.com posttest and their final grade in the digital animation course. As students’ posttest grades go up, so too does the likelihood of those students’ receiving a higher grade in the course.

The following table shows the correlation for the students in the single-camera classes. Again, due to space limitations, in the rows only representative questions are included for some measures (i.e., it does not include all the questions related to comfort with technology, only some representative ones). If they are representative, they also are representative in terms of values.

The first column is the items/questions being tested, the second column is the correlation of items with the raw change in scores, and the third column is the correlation of items with the percent of possible increase in scores. There are 81 students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Correlation (raw)</th>
<th>Correlations (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>r=.06</td>
<td>r=.2 p=.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am using lynda.com</td>
<td>r=-.17 p=.07</td>
<td>r=-.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am using an additional online application</td>
<td>r=.23 p=.02</td>
<td>r=.23 p=.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online training turns people into numbers</td>
<td>r=-.08</td>
<td>r=.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online training is intimidating because it seems complex</td>
<td>r=.07</td>
<td>r=.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward to online training</td>
<td>r=.06</td>
<td>r=.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident I can use online training</td>
<td>r=.02</td>
<td>r=.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An online training module will enhance this class</td>
<td>r=.12</td>
<td>r=.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a creative person</td>
<td>r=-.16 p=.08</td>
<td>r=-.20 p=.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy working online</td>
<td>r=-.00</td>
<td>r=.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I feel confident in my abilities  \( r = -0.08 \)

Online training only helps in the beginning of the learning curve  \( r = -0.01 \)

Online training helps me make more efficient use of my time  \( r = 0.07 \)

Computers intimidate me  \( r = -0.06 \)

I learn best via lecture  \( r = 0.00 \)

I learn best via reading  \( r = 0.04 \)

I learn best via hands-on  \( r = 0.24 \)  \( p = 0.01 \)

For the students in the video classes:

- age mattered in terms of relative increase in score (the older students tended to make the largest increase in improvement).
- Those students who did not use lynda.com for the course did not do as well as those who did, although it was very weak (not really significant).
- For the single-camera students, using an additional online instructional application of their choosing had a significant positive effect on their score – not a surprising finding.
- Having a preference for hands-on learning is also significant, and is understandable given the large ‘learn by doing’ component of the flipped classroom.

What is surprising is the consistent influence of not “perceiving oneself as a creative person.” This was consistently correlated with doing better in assessments. In this group, there was no significant correlation with change in Likert scale items in relation to amount of learning. The \( t \) value for this video group compared with the control group (no lynda.com instruction) is 0.00001, which is strongly significant. Note that this is comparing how students did on the assessment test, not on overall grades for the course. To determine how students’ grades on the posttest assessment compared to their final grades in the class a regression analysis was used. Similarly to the regression analysis conducted for the digital animation class final grades had to be recoded from alphabetical to a numerical quantifiable variable. To do this grades were recorded in the same way as the animation class (see explanation of Figure 1). Figure 2 illustrates the possible correlation between how well students did on the Lynda.com posttest and their final grade in the class.
As one can see from the above chart this relationship did not prove to be significant; this is primarily because all students did so well in the classes, there was little variation.
Qualitative Study

In terms of the qualitative study, the significant factors were instructor expertise both in the subject matter and in using lynda.com; the motivation of the student to achieve mastery of the material; and future orientation of the student (i.e., career-oriented with specific goals).

The interaction between students and instructor remains a key factor, not simply for educational support, but also for establishing socio-emotional support. Students who did well tended to use IM to ask questions of peers, but also wanted to know they could access their instructors when needed. For the instructors, this meant online resources needed to be set up and maintained, and particularly peer-to-peer interactions fostered. It appears from the qualitative information, that while online learning provides ample opportunity for individual learning (e.g., choosing time, place and regulation of learning), it also requires interactive opportunities to be offered for help and feedback.

Students tended not to favor group activities the day after the lynda.com tutorials. In part, they wanted the instructor to lead them through quasi-lectures that brought the material together, but they also wanted to personally work on projects that encompassed the material they covered the previous night, with pertinent feedback from the instructor. Again, they did not prefer group projects; most instructors felt this was due to their eagerness to individually demonstrate what they learned. But individual attention meant more time from the instructor as he/she dealt with the demands of individual efforts. The expertise of the instructor factored greatly in student assessment: both the instructor’s knowledge of the information covered in class and the instructor’s knowledge of the lynda.com material.

In terms of the students who did not do as well, the basic categories involved students who were not motivated at all, and those students who had external factors influencing their performance. In the context of student retention, some students were simply not engaged in education in a general sense. However, there were also students who had economic issues. Some students from poorer households did not have the experience of those whose background included home computers, video cameras and personal editing applications. Sometimes this was the result of a lack of commitment and interest, but at other times it was simply a matter of finances. This again is part of the mentoring/counseling role of the instructor, but some consideration given to more equitable structuring of equipment in introductory classes may be warranted.

Other students tended to have social interaction issues that benefited from the flipped classroom. Some seemingly introverted students tended to do well in the animation classes, and offered positive feedback concerning their interest in using lynda.com. Extroverted students also did well in the courses and appreciated lynda.com, but the shyer students indicated their preference for solitary learning and the preference for social media (vs. direct) contact. Several also mentioned that it helped their confidence for the next day, when the instructor would call on them for related information.

Many students commented on the advantage of having tailored access to materials, particularly the ability to learn at their own rate:

It’s great for going at your own – faster or slower – pace so no one is left behind!

It is important to retain that we used the flipped classroom to teach the technical and practical aspects of the courses, not the theoretical or critical thinking aspects. This may explain why some researchers have found flipped classrooms offer improvement in application-type questions but not overall test scores or knowledge-type questions (Seyedmonir, Bobbie, Barry, K., and Seyedonir, M., 2014). This was also observed among our professors, who unanimously noted that overall grades did not improve with the flipped classroom (more on this in the conclusion section). This may be due to the fact that theoretical and critical-thought aspects of higher education require intensive, lengthy collaborative Socratic processes, and the asynchronous nature of introductory hands-on flipped instruction plays against those forms of interaction (e.g., the focus is largely technocentric and individualistic).

Students’ achievement goals were often strikingly affiliated with learning achievement. Those who had the clearest charted career path (they are all mass communication students) did significantly better than those who were uncertain about career goals. These were usually the students who also were determined to master the material. (This was also observed by Bruisma, 2004 and Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). They were observed to
make more effort, engage in more elaborate processing of information, and devote more time to questions. This also aligns with Morris et al, 2005. – students’ motivation is a significant factor in course completion.

As mentioned above, it was observed that many students who in the survey perceived themselves as proficient with computers and online work were actually less adept than anticipated. This was distinctly observable with the students who performed poorly in the class. This observation will be addressed in the conclusion, below. Much of the qualitative research results reinforced the perception that the successful online student is self-directed, independent, and personally responsible for their efforts.

Conclusion
There are problems with the current literature concerning the flipped classroom. It is all too easy to report bias when one instructor, who may support a particular teaching modality, reports via anecdotal or case study. These forms of account have their place, but need to be augmented by quantitative and qualitative studies. The number of participants should be robust, and rather than test one instructor’s experience, several instructors should be included. There is a tendency in the research for reports with very limited numbers of respondents and usually only one instructor. The research reported in this paper should offer some remedies to these concerns in current scholarship.

While students who used lynda.com did do better in the final assessment, in single-camera there was not always a very significant difference from those who did not use lynda.com in the same class. Upon reviewing the data, this appeared to be due to the fact that there were only a few students who did not use lynda.com, and those students already possessed significant technical application knowledge, i.e., they did not require the tutorials to do well in the class. Further, the significant increase in the test group assessment scores versus the control group, which did not use lynda.com, clearly demonstrates that the online tutorials were very successful.

Unlike the animation students, the single-camera groups had a significant negative correlation for self-perception of creativity. This makes sense in relation to the topics: animation is an art-related class, while the latter is a production related course. It appears from both data sets that the less you consider yourself a creative person in single-camera, the better you perform in class. In the informal discussions, this also was evident in the animation students’ general concern with graphics and design, while the TV studio and single-camera students focused on technical aspects. This is not to say the latter are not creative, rather that they perceive themselves as more technically oriented than creative.

Interestingly, significant correlations were not found for factors related to general ability, comfort with computers, confidence with online media and comfort with online teaching; these are generally assumed to be important factors. Nor was there any clear, sustained demonstration of learning modality preference in either animation or single-camera, although there were some indications for animation students to prefer other learning modalities over reading and single-camera students’ preference for hands-on instruction.

We also tabulated the correlation results for those students who were at the top 20% of the class, reflected in both final grade in the survey test and final class grade. They followed the general trend of the correlations for the class, although with less of a tendency for favoring hands-on learning.

Interestingly, the students overall grades did not increase much compared to prior semesters. This was noted in both the quantitative data and in the qualitative surveys with professors. This result counters Ruddick’s (2012) finding of increase in final exam scores among flipped-classroom enrollees, but confirms the findings of Seyedmonir, Bobbie, Barry, K., and Seyedonir, M. (2014). Bergman and Sams (2012) note that the first year of flipped classroom practice is often problematic and one cannot expect to find significant grade improvement for at least a year. However, we found that even after one year, overall grades did not improve – although the assessment grades related to the technical components of camera use/editing or Maya application use did.

Along with Chen et al (2014) we found that most students who did not use the video instructional material (and did not have prior knowledge) or did so haphazardly quickly fell behind and did not do very well in the class. Interviews suggest this was due to learned passive behaviors and subsequent resistance to active engagement in activities and learning, and in a few cases to financial concerns. This finding does not support the premise of Goodwin, B. and Miller, K (2013) that the flipped classroom may provide more benefit for at-risk students. It is
not unreasonable to expect at-risk students’ concerns ranging beyond proffered advantages of the flipped classroom, especially for somewhat costly technological fields such as mass media. But more research is required to delineate the pertinent issues.

One important factor that emerged was the significance of the level of interactivity between the instructor and students and the level of interaction of students with other students. Students often need help negotiating online content, and while a faculty member cannot be available 24 hours a day, it is possible for students to work via IM and social media forms to get satisfactory responses from peers. This had to be carefully set-up and tested by the instructor to ensure workability. And while some authors argue that the use of videos creates lessened time for lecture planning, it is also true that the preference for individual efforts in this study meant more time interacting on a one-to-one basis. There is little evidence in this study that the flipped classroom offers time savings for the instructor; in fact, quite the converse. What it does offer, however, is streamlined access to far more foundational material in an efficient fashion.

Student’s assessment of the instructor’s level of knowledge, collaborative feedback, and self-motivation were the factors that most successful students indicated were important for their interest and success in the flipped-classroom.

There were issues related to conflicts between self-assessment and direct observation. Some students who claimed computer self-efficacy were deceptively accurate. Many were good at some computer applications and certainly excelled at video games. But they usually had trouble navigating lynda.com and lacked basic digital knowledge (e.g., MB vs Mb, PCM, understanding rates, etc.). What is also deceptive is that social media skills were not always fully developed. Some had difficulty with social media, particularly D2L, Wordpress and Facebook. They knew how to post, but not how to blog or negotiate Facebook well, or to conduct a good Boolean search. It may be worthwhile having an initial class session that introduces foundational material related to computers, the Internet and social media.

From this study, it appears the flipped classroom with lynda.com attains many of the factors of Chickering and Gamson’s “Seven Principles of Good Practice in Undergraduate Education” (the principles are in bold):

- Developing cooperation amongst students: via social media and next-day interactions. Not all students took advantage of this, but those who did tended to do well.
- Creates active learning: although individual activities are preferred over group
- Emphasizes time on task: students must keep up so they can negotiate and complete the following day’s activities. Quizzes were needed to remain on task.
- Respects diverse talents – this was especially true of introverted and perhaps hands-on learners– although no specific preference for learning modality emerged in the data as significant.

Where it does not work as well with the principles are as follows:

- Immediate feedback – this is definitely less available, unless one is on social media - constantly.
- Communicates high expectations – in some ways it does, but a high level of critical thinking and comparative skills is not the focus. Those elements need to be deliberately developed by the instructor and often there is not time or resources to develop these skills.

The issues with the flipped classroom we discovered were:

- There is greater instructor preparation time required
- There is greater instructor interaction required, both during class time and randomly during the day as students use social media for interaction
- Since practice opportunities are performed in-class, there is immediate instructor feedback, with perceived improved learning over standard homework with delayed feedback (results from qualitative data, both students and instructors)
- Student concern over new modalities exists, and we had to take time to orient students to this new method of teaching
- Students new to the method may initially resist learning at home. Consequently, they often would come unprepared for the active learning phase in class. Both experience and quizzes helped.
- The biggest factors contributing to student success with assessments were:
  - Self-efficacy and motivation
  - The knowledge and attitude of the instructor
  - Use of collaborative feedback
Assessed grades for technical knowledge improved dramatically, but there was no significant increase in overall class grades. This may indicate the insufficiency of purely technical skills in developing well-rounded professionals, but this will take further research to illuminate.

These results do indicate strong support for the flipped classroom in media production courses, using the rich catalog of lynda.com. The process, especially during initial stages, does take some extra effort in adaptation, and also entails significant extracurricular attention from the instructor and the students. This alone emphasizes the importance of continuing education for the instructors in learning the appropriate tools and techniques to be successful with this form of classroom instruction. But in general, it provides an enhanced experience that results in improved student performance, and even if it does not improve overall class grades, it does improve technical abilities in a way impossible to attain in a brick-and-mortar classroom. In the qualitative surveys, everyone indicated the efficient and significant increase in technical knowledge, even if this did not translate into increase in overall course grades. The specifics of determining who is best suited for the flipped classroom is not well supported by this study, save for overall issues of self-efficacy and motivation. This finding is not unique and applies to most teaching modalities. It appears the suitability for the flipped classroom is general and not readily categorized, with the caveat that there is some indication of financial burden in relation to some at-risk students who did not do well – this was largely unearthed during qualitative interviews.

Future research is needed to help illuminate this new form of instruction and its relevant application, as solutions are sought for increased performance and retention among mass communication students in higher education.

References


Three Biggest Turkish Football Team's Use of New Media- A Case Study of Facebook and Instagram

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Abstract
Football is one of the most popular sport branches that support countries’ economies. Either as a sportsman or as an audience, football has a place in people’s lives. Especially in the Turkish culture, mostly men prefer either to attend the stadium or watch their favorite clubs matches on the TV. However this is not enough for them; they would like to buy special commodities of their favorite teams. Also, they use positive word of mouth (WOM) about their teams and use negative WOM for the others. They are strongly tied to their favorite football clubs and they follow their official pages in social media to get the latest information and either comment, like or share the news.

The aim of the present study is to make a content analysis for the three largest and most popular Turkish football teams: Fenerbahçe, Galatasaray and Beşiktaş. In the study, these football teams’ official Facebook and Instagram pages will also be analyzed. Thus the usage efficiency and supporters’ communication styles not only during the matches but also before and after the matches will be analyzed. Findings show that Galatasaray have more Facebook and Instagram fans than others. With respect to the number of fans on Facebook and Instagram, Fenerbahçe is the second and Beşiktaş is the third. According to Instagram club store pages, it is observed that Galatasaray have more product variety and use these pages more efficiently and effectively than the others. All three clubs perfectly use their Facebook pages; however, there’s no new post on Instagram pages. In addition to this, Galatasaray and Beşiktaş fans are more positive than Fenerbahçe supporters. They motivate their teams in any case. Lastly, in Facebook and Instagram pages, there are very few posts about their licensed team products.

Introduction
Marketing communication is very important in this century no matter either it is related to production or service sector. Numerous researchers research about this field. Sports industry can be discussed under the service sector and we all know that, to be involved in right Marketing Communication (MARCOMM) is rather difficult.

Starting point in marketing and marketing communication is getting to know your target audience perfectly. People who consume some product or services, they named as target market however; these people are the people who communicate with us, so they are transformed to target audience. Thus, in sports marketing the clubs’ fans are named as the target audience.

Wakefield and Sloan (1995) team loyalty is an adhesion to one team and this is one of the factors that let them to attend the sports events. The loyal sports customers stay as their team’s fans for years (James, Kolbe & Trail 2002).

Funk and James (2001) point out that team loyalty is requires psychological consistency, in other words, having the fans possess continuous and cohere attitudes.

Normally the reason that companies looking some loyal customer because, the loyal customers, are the people that continue to purchase the same brand. Thus this influence the company’s sales rates, profit, shortly, it influences them financially. However, in sports, the real loyalty is not just focusing on how many people go to stadium and buy the tickets, it is more than that, it is identification with team (James, 2002).

Team identification is a psychological adhesion that fans feel that the clubs represent their identity (Wann 1997, s.331). Milne & McDonald (1999) indeed point out that this provides a personal cohesion and emotional interest for a sports organization.
Fans always expect the success of their team because when their team wins the match and succeed, that means they also succeed because they stand by their side and support the success (Dalakas, Madrigal & Anderson 2004). Licensed products are one of the resources that influence the sports club revenue and this provides the team continuous resources (Hinckley, 2004; Kolah, 2005).

Licensed products create brand awareness and increase adhesion to the team (Lee, Shin, Park & Kwon, 2010: 60; Kim & Trail, 2011: 63). As these sport clubs are companies or institutions and are trying to sell services and products for their customers. Thus, they have to determine most efficient and effective marketing strategies (Talimciler, 2008: 93). On the other hand since fans purchasing their clubs licensed products they want to get return on this investment so that they use their revenues efficiently. Revenue’s for licensed team products in Turkey were 70 billion in 2009 and this revenue tripled as 220 billion in 2013 (Kuburlu, 2013).

People buy these licensed teams’ product both because of functional (use as clothing, accessories or gifts for someone) and symbolic benefits (social acceptance) (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002: 154). As fans are the target market, sport clubs, and companies that produce licensed sport products have to know their fans attitudes, feeling, purchasing attitudes to fulfill their needs, wants with efficient and effective MARCOMM campaigns.

Beşiktaş was found in 1903, Galatasaray was found in 1905 and Fenerbahçe was found in Turkey.

**Fans’ purchasing attitudes**
- %81, 2 store, %33, 1 Internet buy licensed product
- %30, 7 get as gift
- %81, 7 uniform, % 63 scarf/chafe and % 62,2 other
- %64, 3 spends approximately 250 TL
- %45, 3 watches match on TV

Beşiktaş fans buy licensed products to make a collection. These products let them remember one of their successes or talents. Fenerbahçe fans buy licensed products, because they trust the quality of the products, find out the product price acceptable and they like product features. Galatasaray fans, feel that they are away from normal life, share more things with other fans, feel more relaxed and enjoy life (Kazancoğlu, Baybars; 2016).

**Social Media and Fans**
Web 2.0 and social media concepts especially Facebook provides opportunity for the fans to actively communicate with the fans and administration of their favorite team. Especially before, during and after the matches, they share videos, comments on scores or use emotional icons that represent their feelings.

In Turkish culture the scores of the matches especially football may have a chance to change the agenda of the country.

As this is a reality, a team tries all their best to put more information about their clubs and let their fans communicate with them. By doing that, they show that, they use the latest technology to easily reach their fans. These data help clubs to create campaign theme, do their advertising, be more reachable and communicate with their fans.
With respect to their clubs official Facebook pages, there are 12,631,417 on Galatasaray; 9,960,428 on Fenerbahçe and 5,877,594 on Beşiktaş fans. This means, the clubs pages admins reach that amount of target audience as short period of time and create interactive communication with a single post.

**Beşiktaş Facebook Page**
As it is seen in the below pictures, Beşiktaş isthechampion on this year’s league. They use “Şerefiyle Hakkıyla Şampiyon Beşiktaş”, “With its honor and its right, champion Beşiktaş”, as slogan. They designed a poster that an eagle (team symbol) as background picture and coach with players. This post gets 173,413 like 4784 comment.
On the other hand, there was one picture posted that only club managers holding cup. That post gets 11,007 likes and 54 comments. There are 4 different post that cup appears but the most commented and liked one was “Şenol Güneş ve öğrencileri” Şenol Güneş is the coach and öğrenciler (students) are the football players. That post gets 78,184 likes and 353 comments. As football is a team based sport, it is an obvious fact that, fans like to see the picture as a whole not either football player or coach separately.

Also it is seen that admin of Beşiktaş Facebook page wants to celebrate their football player’s birthday like Marcelo Guedas and gets 33,000 likes and 168 birthday messages (160 in Turkish and 8 in English language) and 98 people shared those posts on their walls, Cenk Tosun 52,965 like 439 birthday message 439 shared that post on their walls. Besides that, admin also posts the score of a goal for the players Mario Gomez and Jose Sosa and wait for their fans attitudes and comments. In almost all of the admin posts it seen that fans either like, find these magnificent or incredible. There is no any emotional icon that shows they get sad or angry on these applications.
Picture 2: The posts in Beşiktaş Facebook Official Page
Fenerbahçe Facebook Page
As it is shown in picture 3, Fenerbahçe Facebook admin generally shares some posts that show the team while being engaged in some training and try to get ready for the coming matches. Some posts shared during the match period that either a footballer running to catch the ball from their competitors or they are shooting the ball for a goal. Sometimes they write the score of the matches and in few minutes it is seen that the supporters either start to comment about the match and criticize all the positions if they did not like to score they show their emotions as angry. The emotions that are present on Facebook are; 😊 means like, 😍 means magnificent, 😂 means laughable, 😃 means incredible, 😞 means so sad, 😡 means so angry. When team loses their match and then posts their sponsors post such as use YANDEX, LUKoil card the supporter start to show their anger by using negative word of mouth.
Galatasaray Facebook Page
As it is shown in picture 4, Galatasaray Facebook admin generally shares some posts shared during the matches’ period that the footballer's reaction after shooting the ball for a goal. Also, they give information about the match’s dates, time and place. On Galatasaray Facebook page, the admin shares their sponsors’ information, consumer promotion information, products that they sell in their stores frequently. “If you buy your ticket by using Passolig card your signed uniform is ready to get” this post, motivates their fans to buy an e-ticket by using Passolig card. In other example is “special discount” that in that post, admin post the uniform that has special discount by showing the product in the post as well.
Thus, Galatasaray and Beşiktas fans are more positive than Fenerbahçe supporters. No matter what happened whether they lose or win the match, Galatasaray and Beşiktas fans are more positive. They keep continue to motivate their teams by using positive WOM. However, Fenerbahçe supporters show their feelings whether they angry for their team and not avoid using negative WOM.
Football teams care to share the moments in their videos to send their emotions for all their fans. Thus as obviously appeared in picture 5, Beşiktaş has 748 videos, Galatasaray has 494 and Fenerbahçe has 266 videos.

**Three Biggest Turkish Football Teams’ Instagram Pages**

On **Fenerbahçe** Instagram page (picture 6) they have 4756 posts and this page is followed by 2 billion fans and they follow 69 pages. The post that they shared is also seen in their official Facebook page. They post not only some pictures from football but also other sports branches such as basketball and volleyball. However, there is no post about team’s accessories to remind the fans to go and buy them.

On **Galatasaray** Instagram page (picture 7) they have 7904 posts and this page is followed by 2.6 billion fans and they are following 41 pages. The post that they shared is also seen in their official Facebook page as well. Like Fenerbahçe Instagram Page, Galatasaray also posts other sports branches as well. Also, they post some team accessories to remind the fans to go and buy them. Galatasaray is the only team among the three big football teams that gives information for their fans about their sales promotion activities.

On **Beşiktaş** Instagram page (picture 8), they have 6306 posts and this page is followed by 861 thousand fans and they are following 27 pages. The post that they shared is also shows this on their official Facebook pages as well. On **Beşiktaş** Instagram Page, they mostly post football players, fans and some historical memories. Like Fenerbahçe, Beşiktaş does not post team accessories to remind the fans to go and buy them either.
Picture 6: The posts in Fenerbahçe Instagram Official Page
Picture 7: Galatasaray posts in Instagram Official Page
According to the analysis of three big football team’s Instagram pages, it is obviously appeared that Galatasaray is using their pages under marketing communication perspective more efficiently and effectively.

On the other hand, there are some stores for teams in Instagram pages. The companies that sell some special products for their teams, they do not give too much information about the products, like their prices, and how the fans can buy the products posted in the products pictures.

As it is seen in picture 9 one of the Galatasaray Stores that opens their page as gs_store_one is the most popular one. It has 128 posts, 2101 followers and is followed by 5102. This page tries to promote all the licensed products of Galatasaray like team’s uniforms, caps, scarf/ chafe, baby sets, watch, mug, different varieties of bed sheets, minion toys, sweat-shirts, and wristbands. Thus by looking of that store’s page a fan can easily understand the type of Galatasaray licensed product that produced for Galatasaray fans. On the other hand, in Fenerbahçe stores that open Instagram page fenerbahçestore34 seems the most popular. However, they are not as good as gs_store_one. Fenerbahçestore34 (picture 10) has 54 posts, 284 followers and is followed by 1127. In this page, they try to promote just sweat-shirts, t-shirts and team’s uniforms (that Fenerbahçe use) as the licensed products of Fenerbahçe. In Fenerbahçestore34, they did not promote all the licensed product varieties that Fenerbahçe is producing. Thus, if people who check that page are not really, fan for that team, they may understand that, these are the only categories they produce for their fans. The worse ones are Beşiktaş stores. As seen in picture 11, among the many Beşiktaş stores besiktas_storee is the one that has the highest number of posts. It has 31 posts, 41 followers and follows 200 pages. Also in that store’s Instagram page, there is only one post that shows that they have chafe, one post shows they produce gloves and one post indicates that they have baby sets. By looking at fans pictures in that page it can be understandable that Beşiktas has twodifferent uniforms. For instance in besiktas_storee there is one of the actor’s wears chafe and scarf, one woman’s fun selfie picture shows that she wears the team’s uniform, 3 babies wear Beşiktaş baby sets and another picture shows girls volleyball team’s picture, a picture from football match. Thus, the name that is seen inbesiktas_storee and the post that seen in that page is contradicting, it does not seems as store’s page.
Picture 9: Galatasaray stores posts in Instagram Official Page
As mentioned earlier that creating brand awareness and increase adhesion to the team, licensed products have an important role, neither in Facebook pages nor in Instagram pages, fans can’t get information about the team’s products.
Finally, it is obvious that, sport clubs marketing strategies is not integrated in their marketing communication strategies efficiently and effectively.

**Conclusion**

Galatasaray has 12,631,471 Facebook fan, 2.6 billion Instagram followers till today they share 7923 post (football, team apparel product, basketball)

Fenerbahçe has 9,960,428 Facebook fan, 2 billion Instagram followers till today they share 4783 post (football, basketball, volleyball)

Beşiktaş has 5,877,594 Facebook fan, 866 thousands Instagram follower till today they share 6319 post (football, fan celebrations and so few team apparel product

According to 3 big Instagram store pages, it seen that Galatasaray has more product variety and use these pages more efficiently and effectively.

On the other hand, in Facebook and Instagram pages, when the teams lost in super league or the championship in football, they start to share other sport branches information especially basketball then volleyball.

Most of the post in Instagram also seen in their Facebook pages but the post in Facebook is more than their Instagram pages. Also to send their synergy and the feel to create affective/emotional attitude to their fans, the teams posting a different concept of videos (from stadium, from locker room, interview with footballer after or before the match) under their social media official pages.

No matter the match score, whether loss or win the match, Galatasaray and Beşiktaş fans are more positive than Fenerbahçe supporters. No matter what will be score they keep continue to motivate their teams by using positive WOM. However Fenerbahçe supporters show whatever they are feeling if they are angry for their team and not avoid using negative WOM.

Both in Facebook and Instagram pages, there is very few posts about their licensed team products.

**Recommendations**
- All three do not share the news that they shared in their web pages. Thus in Facebook and Instagram official pages have to be more informative such as the news appeared in media, new transfers, football academy….. shortly, the information that they announce in their web pages.
- They are not sending integrated messages in their posts.
- They are not sharing the social responsibility project that they are doing for their CPR
- The licensed product varieties have to be increased and have to post more.

**Reference**


The New Internet Discourse of Healthcare in Turkish Hospitals’ Social Media Pages

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Abstract
In this paper, discourse analysis of health is concerned with a critical analysis of the language use and the reproduction of dominant institutional ideologies in Turkish hospitals’ Facebook pages exploring the way in which health beliefs and the dissemination of health information are coded in the new media.

This paper aims to analyze the various discourses of healthcare on Turkish hospitals’ Facebook pages using “Sosyomod” new media monitoring tool. Analyzing identified health topics on these pages offers a substantial contribution to the growing field of health literacy in online health communication. How do hospitals describe their health concerns and ask for information and advice? In answering these questions, the new Internet discourse of healthcare takes an interdisciplinary approach to discourse analysis, corpus linguistics and recent work in computer-mediated communication, and shows how these fields interplay in establishing new frameworks for health communication and health literacy researches.

Keywords: internet discourse, discourse of healthcare, hospital, health literacy.

Introduction
Health communication is about communicating and computer technology has revolutionized communications. In many ways, the Internet and digital technologies have helped to reduce the psychological distance that exists between an organization and the publics that impact its success. As if Internet has become the organizations’ new front door, their target audiences are directed to various information sites within the corporate web site. Corporations have options to deliver their messages to highly targeted audiences with advanced multimedia platforms such as corporate websites, interactive media tools which aim to convert a casual visitor to a customer and then to a business partner.

The emergence and increasing popularity of social media have changed the practice of health communication. Social media offer numerous opportunities for health communication practitioners to interact with a wide range of stakeholders. Because of the prominent organizations engaging in social media and the growing popularity of social media among various communities, companies are becoming more involved in trying to measure and manage social media. Social media sites are virtual platforms for interactivity and information exchange (Perlmutter, 2008) where users collaborate in content creation and participation. Health organizations use social media to increase interactions with publics through a steady flow of inputs and outputs (Sundar, 2005) towards mutually beneficial relationships (Yang & Lim, 2009; 343).

Health Communication and New Communication Technologies
New information and communications technologies (ICTs) hold promise for the creation of effective and innovative health promotion (Thackeray, Neiger, Hanson, & McKenzie, 2008). Researchers argue that social media forms (which they define as email, texting, microblogging, and smartphone applications) can be used by health professionals to increase health engagement and improve health outcomes (Fisher & Clayton, 2012). Social media sites encourage self-expression, users may be more interested in representing an issue and belonging to a community than communicating personal insight, a perspective that contradicts accepted definitions of social media as a tool for self-expression (Rettberg, 2009; 452). Social media tools that facilitate issue alliance (i.e. retweets, forwards, “like” applications), may lead to more interactivity for their facilitation of user association with an issue. Thus, functional interactivity is based on an application’s ease of use in connecting a user to his or her intended interest.

In particular, Fisher and Clayton (Fisher & Clayton, 2012) state that future studies need to consider patient’s media preferences and their level of interest in the use of social media for health care. We argue that
understanding users’ preferences regarding different sources of health-promotion media, including ICTs, is an essential component of effective health communication (Halpert et al., 2008).

Digital technologies, including ubiquitous mobile devices, can play a key role in transforming health care system on-demand access to the medical records and powerful clinical decision support tools that empower patients to actively participate in their treatment plans (Doğanyiğit & Yılmaz, 2015).

RQ: How do hospitals describe their health concerns and ask for information and advice, and how do healthcare professionals’ online services are offered?

Methods and Procedures

Discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary field of inquiry which has been little employed by public health practitioners. The methodology involves a focus upon the sociocultural and institutional context in which text and talk occur. What distinguishes a discourse analytical perspective from other approaches to health is its focus on “language in use,” that is, on the way people use discourse as a tool to take concrete social actions. This focus is especially suited to the domains of health.

By the growing importance of social media in today’s world, brands will be able to follow the traces of their target audiences through developing monitoring tools and to keep up with their customer needs.

In this paper, we have examined Turkish public and private hospitals’ Facebook profiles via Sosyomod monitoring tool. Sosyomod is a website and social media monitoring tool which allows brands to read “big data” and identify their specific target audiences, thus to get insights about their needs through detailed analysis. With Sosyomod, all brand categories could monitor big data, described as large volume of data structured, processed and gathered from the internet and the social media in time, could develop business model and implement target-oriented communication with their consumers.

The findings obtained by Sosyomod indicated that 408 of the Turkish public and private hospitals, the universe of the study, have Facebook business accounts. The Facebook accounts of the hospitals that describe themselves as “hospital” in their profile description, whereas they do not offer health care service, were cleared and the research universe were limited to 308 hospitals. Sosyomod has performed following tracking for the 308 hospital profiles between the dates 01.01.2016 and 01.05.2016:
- The regional impact analysis of Turkish public and private hospitals’ Facebook pages by their number of likes,
- Keywords used related to health among the hospitals’ Facebook posts and number of posts including the keywords related to health,
- Number of times keywords used in users’ comment on the hospitals’ posts,
- Categories selected by hospitals while creating Facebook business accounts,
- Keywords selected by hospitals to define “about/description” section on Facebook pages and
- Number of posts and comments per hour/day.

Results

Quantitative and descriptive question sections are presented in the coding scheme illustrating how 308 hospitals use their Facebook business pages. To set an example, question sections were prepared concerning Facebook account type, account information, profile information, number of posts, number of likes on the posts, number of comments on the posts, number of posts with published date and time, distribution of posts per hours and distribution of posts “seen” and “interacted” by users per hours and, the most used 24 keywords.
Basing on the map above, we see that the most “liked” Facebook pages among the 308 hospitals are the hospitals densely locating in Turkey’s metropolises such as İstanbul, Tekirdağ, Samsun, Ankara, Bursa, İzmir, Konya, Mersin, Gaziantep, Kayseri and Eskişehir. We could assert that the impact distribution by “like” numbers shows consistency with hospital investment plans realized by public-private partnership of the Ministry of Healthy.

With Sosyomod, we tracked the most frequently searched following 24 keywords about healthy to figure out the content of the posts shared by the most “liked” hospital pages across the Turkey: health, happiness, polyclinic, consultation, doctor, home care, visit, lab, treatment, operation, baby, birth, cesarean, child, by-pass, obesity, cancer, allergy, well nutrition, fitness, laser epilation, hair transplant, eye brow filler, aesthetic.

Table 1: List of keywords used among the hospitals’ posts and the number of times "keywords" used in posts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>10242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>5022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>3514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>2918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baby</td>
<td>2693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>2381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation</td>
<td>2335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancer</td>
<td>1903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit</td>
<td>1682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>1100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>1064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obesity</td>
<td>743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness</td>
<td>725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well nutrition</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyclinic</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allergy</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair transplant</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laser epilation</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lab</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cesarean</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home care</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-pass</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyebrow filler</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gathered from Sosyomod (10.05.2016)
Having analyzed the most frequently used keywords among the 308 hospitals’ Facebook posts, it has been revealed that basic expressions concerning health services such as health, doctors, treatment, and visit are stated to admit more patients to hospitals. In addition to it, it has been observed that since the most frequently used keywords on the posts refer to child, baby, birth, operation and cancer, the surveyed hospitals focus on services for cancer diagnosis and treatment along with gynecology and pediatrics.

### Table 2: List of keywords used in users’ comments and the number of times keywords used in users’ comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>7599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>7595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>2622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation</td>
<td>2100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>1558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancer</td>
<td>931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baby</td>
<td>679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness</td>
<td>562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allergy</td>
<td>272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obesity</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cesarean</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well nutrition</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lab</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyclinic</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair transplant</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home care</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laser epilation</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-pass</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyebrow filler</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gathered from Sosyomod (10.05.2016)

According to users’ comment on the posts shared by 308 hospitals, the most frequently used keywords listed in the Table 1 are basic health expressions like health, doctors, treatment, consultation and visit and services for cancer diagnosis and treatment along with gynecology and pediatrics.

### Table 3: Lists of categories selected by hospitals while creating Facebook business accounts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Business</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital/Clinic</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health/Medical/Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Organization</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product/Service</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health/Medical/Pharmacy</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health/Beauty</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Person</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers/Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum/Art Gallery</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Website</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gathered from Sosyomod (10.05.2016)
Although hospitals, as health care facilities, operate within a certain area, it has been seen on their Facebook profiles that there is no common business category chosen by hospitals. Hospitals often describe their business categories on Facebook as local business, hospital/clinic and health/medical/pharmaceuticals.

Graphic 2: List of keywords selected by hospitals to define “about/description” section on their Facebook pages

In line with the hospitals’ business category descriptions on their Facebook pages, as indicated in Table 3, such keywords as health, hospital, patient, service and private were preferred in “about” section of these pages. Because of the dominant word “private” glaring from “word cloud” and pharmaceutical industry regulations, it seems that private health care facilities are more inclined to join the Facebook social networking site.

Graphic 3: Number of posts and comments per hour/day

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hour</th>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Post</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3416</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2028</td>
<td>333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>998</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>617</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparing daily post hours of the surveyed hospitals and hours of posts “seen” and “interacted” by Facebook fans, the Graphic 3 is inversonally proportional. While hospitals share posts between the hours of 9.00 - 14.00, users are interacted with the pages between the hours of 16:00- 22:00. By taking this comparison into account, hospitals should manage their Facebook pages in accordance with the current social media dynamics and they should provide instant mutual interaction.

**Conclusion**

Digital technologies, including ubiquitous mobile devices, can play a key role in transforming health care system on-demand access to the medical records and powerful clinical decision support tools that empower patients to actively participate in their treatment plans.

In the present paper we explored some of the social media tools in health uses and preferences of Facebook accounts of private and public hospitals in Turkey. Although we found very high levels of ICT and social media use in our sample, limitations in our sample do restrict the generalisability of our findings. We conclude that it is imperative that researchers examine how health consumers use new technologies and target health promotion strategies according to user trends. We cannot assume that everyone has the same level of access to, or experience of, ICTs such as the Internet (O’Mara, 2012). Numerous factors, such as socioeconomic background, education, ethnicity, language, age, gender, communication preferences and digital literacy, health literacy have a significant impact on how the people use new health technologies. In addition to this, these findings lead to build efficient health promotion strategies based on effective health communication.

**Acknowledgment:** Assistance provided by Mehmet Uc and M.Özgür Altuntaş with their data mining tool “Sosyomod” has been a great help in collecting and gathering data.

**References**


Understanding Smartphone Apps Usage among Young Adults in India

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Abstract
The objective of this paper is to understand use of phone apps and attitude towards selection and use of apps among young adults. This study addresses the following questions: What is the usage behaviour of people when it comes to phone apps? What do consumers prefer more and why – phone apps or websites, across categories? What are the most common issues that users face while using phone apps? What constitutes consumer satisfaction when it comes to phone apps? What drives purchase intention for paid phone apps? How do app users define ‘value for money’ phone apps? Ten young adults in the age group of 21 to 30 years were interviewed through purpsose and snowballing approach. Privacy and security of apps is important for this generation who are on their smartphone using apps all day.

Introduction
The number of Android apps in the market currently are 1.8 million (AppBrain) while there are more than 1.4 million apps in the iOS App store (Statista) and around 670k Windows apps available on Windows store (Microsoft). The fast growing market of phone apps, is the reason for innumerable brands increasingly tapping into this space to make profits and connect with consumers.

The overall worldwide mobile phone app downloads amounted to approximately 2.52 billion in 2009. This number is expected to reach 268.69 billion in 2017. Research has also shown that the earnings of all mobile app providers overall was almost 6.8 billion U.S. dollars in 2010 (Statista).

This research is focused on respondents who are either students or professionals in the age group of 21-30 years to determine their attitudes towards phone apps and usage. This helps understand their daily use of devices and smartphone apps for businesses to understand their consumers and create apps that will actually be useful to their patrons and become an integral part in their lives.

Literature Review
As smartphones work together along with a number of application softwares to make life convenient for every user, the demand for smartphones has significantly increased over time and with it the demand for phone apps. These apps which are software apps and run on smart phones and tablets are designed to perform specific activities such as to hire cars in an area, get directions to a place, play games or get health tips along with other information. These apps install within seconds and are generally free or have a nominal cost attached to them. Another advantage that they have is that they are always available to everyone and hence, their accessibility is extremely good. (Randolph, 2013)

Phone apps can be traced back to the invention of the mobile phones. The first recognisable apps emerged from early personal digital assistants (PDA) which ran programmes like database, word processor, diary and spreadsheet. After this a number of developments lead to the creation of various kinds of apps ranging from the simple game Snake which firstappeared on the Nokia 6110 phone to the more complex ones such as Facebook, Gmial and Skype.

This paper borrows theoretical framework of attitude to study "usage" of smartphone apps. Attitudes are learned predispositions before, during or after a purchase (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2008; Gordon W Allport; Wright, 2006).
Theory of reasoned action states that attitude is influenced by belief which in turn shapes behavioural intention (Lu, Hsu, & Hsu, 2005). The theory of reasoned action states that behavioural intentions are determined by attitudes to subjective norms and behaviours (Colman, 2015). According to this theory, individual behavioural intention is a result of two variables which are the social influence perception by an individual on whether to perform or not to perform a particular behaviour and the attitude towards behaviour. The social influence is considered to be a subjective norm.

This paper aims to understand the psychological process of consumers decision making related to phone apps. For this, the theory of planned behaviour has been adopted as the basic concept. This theory links behaviour and beliefs and explains that a person’s decision to take action and the control that he or she believes he or she has over their behaviour directly influences his or her behaviour (Baek, 2013). In other words, it states that the attitude towards subjective norms, behaviour and perceived behavioural control mould a person’s behaviour and behavioural intentions together.

The attitude of consumers, in turn also depends on how much competition already exists in the app market, which therefore, affects the purchase intention (Porter, 1974). In addition to all these factors, consumers are also interrupted during the purchase process by the external environment as well as internal impulses (Jaafar, Lalp, & Naba).

There are three types of smartphone apps:
1) Paid Applications – The users are charged a certain amount of fees for downloading and accessing such kind of applications and is paid through debit or credit card. These applications are not very popular amongst Indians as they usually prefer using free apps instead. (Business Standard, 2013).

2) Free applications – These applications are completely free and do not charge any fees for downloads or any kind of usage. Such applications are either completely not revenue oriented or have other forms of generating revenue such as in-app advertising and sponsored content. These account for nearly 90 percent of total mobile app store downloads (Business Standard, 2013)

3) Freemium – The basic version of these apps is available for free while a fees is charged for the premium and more enhanced version. The main aim of the app developers of these kind of apps is to attract people into downloading their apps and get them to try these out so as to convert a fraction of these users into buying the premium paid version.

This research is more applied than fundamental. Therefore, the gaps on the applied aspects are addressed in this paper.

Therefore, objective of this research is to understand how people use phone apps and what is the attitude towards selection and use of apps. This research aims to explore the consumers’ intention to use and continual consumption intention. The aim is to identify the main value determinants for a particular user of phone apps (which might be factors such as nature of usage of apps or education related etc) and also which do they prefer more and why when it comes to phone apps and websites.

Research question 1: What is the usage behaviour of people when it comes to phone apps?
Research question 2: What do consumers prefer more and why – phone apps or websites, across categories? (especially e-commerce)
Research question 3: What are the most common issues that users face while using phone apps
Research question 4: What constitutes consumer satisfaction when it comes to phone apps?
Research question 5: What drives purchase intention for paid phone apps? How do app users define ‘value for money’ phone apps?

Method
This is an exploratory study to understand usage of smartphones among young adults in India. Each respondent in this study is a smartphone user and has multiple apps downloaded. The respondents are digital natives, in the age group of 21 to 30 years of age. The respondents were first approached to send the snapshot/s of their smartphone screen with all the apps. The screen shots of the respondents were used to tabulate number of apps
and categorise apps. The respondents were asked a few initial questions about use of apps across categories. Table 1: App categories, shows the categories of apps and their description.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>This category of apps contains all the apps that are used for entertainment purposes such as watching movies or TV shows, listening to music, reading magazines or just for killing time by looking at viral images and funny jokes. Examples of well-known entertainment phone apps are Talking Tom Cat, Meme Generator Free, Solo 2, Saavn, Shazam, Jango Radio, History TV18, Discovery News, Apple Music, 8tracks, Guvera Music, Flipboard and Magzter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td>The apps that feature in the news category focus on day to day happenings of the world. Some examples of apps that are a part of this category are Times of India, News and Weather, The Hindu, Mint, afaqs, Feedly, inshorts, Financial Times, Business India, Stocks and comScore News.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social networking</td>
<td>This category includes all interactive and communication tools that are always based on the internet and typically handle the capturing, storing and presentation of communication, usually in the written format but also in the visual such as video and images or audio format as well. Usually the format of these apps is a mix of a number of these formats such as YouTube is mostly a mix of video and audio whereas WhatsApp is mostly text but also offers the option of sending audio, video as well as images via its server. Some examples of apps that feature in this category are Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest, Quora, LinkedIn, YouTube and WhatsApp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ecommerce</td>
<td>These apps vary in genre from fashion related e-commerce apps to booking tickets for travel or events such as concerts or stand up comedy shows. As these apps involve monetary transactions between the two involved parties, an extremely important feature for them is the security they offer while a payment is carried out. Some examples of these apps are bookmyshow, Flipkart, Amazon, Limeroad, Snapdeal, Myntra, Jabong, Foodpanda, Freecharge, Faasos and Paytm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utility</td>
<td>The utility category has been further divided into External and Internal sub categories with the apps that fall in the latter sub category directly helping out in the functioning of the phone whereas those in the former sub category not doing so. Some examples of phone apps that fall under this category and are external are Voice recorder, Chrome, Powerpoint, Microsoft Office, Samsung Gear, Google Maps, Pages Manager, QR &amp; Barcode Scanner, Dropbox, Evernote and VLC. Examples of utility apps that are internal on the other hand are Advanced Task Killer, Battery optimiser, Inbuilt phone’s themes, Power clean and Clock. Since the internal utility apps are usually always inbuilt and are hardly ever downloaded, this category in our study will be ignored as they are more of a necessity than something of desire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>6. Apps that fall under this category teach or help in improving some skill or the other. These apps aid in the learning process and aim to teach something quantifiable or clearly definable. Examples of such apps are Duolingo, Lumosity, Elevate, Strategy Deck and Marketing @ Mobile MBA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming</td>
<td>7. A Gaming app is any app that provides some form of engagement and amusement to its users and is available to individuals either online or offline at the touch of a button. They are always interactive and can be social or solo, intellectual or action oriented or just plain entertainment. Examples of gaming apps are Subway Surfer, Candy Crush, Logo Quiz, Quiz Up and FIFA.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents for this study were recruited based on the number of apps on their phones - at least 30 to 40 apps and usage of apps. Snowball and Purposive sampling techniques were used for selection of respondents. To target respondents who had a fair idea about apps and understand their app usage behaviour, purposive sampling approach was initially used in order to identify two participants from the researcher’s social network. After the completion of the two interviews, the respondents were asked to identify and suggest other potential
respondents from within their social circle who met the set inclusion criteria.

The sample was drawn from both students and working professionals for the interviews. The in-depth interviews were recorded after taking prior consent from the respondents. The responses of the participants were then transcribed and used for further analysis and to gauge detailed insights for the study. The questions of the interviews were designed in a way that helped gauge the user’s attitude and daily app usage patterns in depth.

The data analysis method employed for in-depth interviews was thematic content analysis.

Ten depth interviews were conducted from December 2015 to January 2016. See Table 2: Respondents’ profile - demographic, smartphone and apps for the respondents demographic profile, type of smartphone used and number of apps on smartphone.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL No</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Smartphone brand</th>
<th>OS</th>
<th>Internal Memory</th>
<th>Total apps on smartphone</th>
<th>No of apps in use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>Samsung GalaxyS3</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>HTC820S</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>Samsung Galaxy Note3</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>working</td>
<td>Samsung Galaxy Note4</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>Samsung Galaxy S6 Edge</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>64GB</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>iPhone5S</td>
<td>iOS</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>Nexus5</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>working</td>
<td>iPhone5c</td>
<td>iOS</td>
<td>8GB</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>working</td>
<td>MotoG3</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>working</td>
<td>Nexus5</td>
<td>Android</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average age of respondents was 25 years. Six of them were students and four of them working professionals. Eight of them used smartphones with android operating system and two of them had iPhones. There was an equal representation of girls and boys among the respondents. The respondents had an average of 80 apps downloaded on their smartphones. An average of 24 apps were used regularly.

Findings

Table 3: Total number of apps downloaded and apps in use across categories below shows the total number of apps downloaded versus the number of apps used by the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phone brand</th>
<th>Internal Memory</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>1a</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>2a</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>3a</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>4a</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>5a</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>6a</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>7a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Samsung GalaxyS3</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HTC820S</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samsung Galaxy Note3 Neo</td>
<td>16GB</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Entertainment – This category doesn’t feature very high on the number of apps that respondents had on their smartphone per category. However, it was observed that each respondent used at least one such app on a regular basis and this number proportionately increased as the number of entertainment apps.

2. News – This category is not popular amongst the youth aged 21-30 years as no respondent had the total number of news apps on their phone above a single digit, the highest being 9. The number of news apps that were used regularly is also low with most of the respondents having 0 to 1 apps that they turn to on a regular basis for news.

3. Social – This category is the most frequently used among all respondents. All the 10 respondents claimed to have social networking apps that were in the range of around 10 to 15. On an average, around half of the apps that were present on their phones were also used on a regular basis. The most commonly used apps in this category were Facebook, Gmail and WhatsApp.

4. E-commerce – Eight out of the 10 respondents had 10 plus e-commerce apps on their phones. However, only two of them used more than two of these e-commerce apps regularly. There seemed to be no commonly used app in this category with almost everyone having one of the popular apps such as Amazon and Flipkart but not everyone preferring the same app over the other.

5. Utility – This is the most popular category among all respondents. Every respondent claimed to have at least 20 plus utility apps on their phones. However, most of the respondents (9 out of the 10 interviewed) used around 10 of the utility apps present on their phones regularly.

6. Educational – This is the most unpopular app category among all respondents. All the respondents reported having less than 5 educational apps, with some of them having none. Even the ones who did report to having 4 to 5 educational apps hardly use them and use a maximum of one educational app regularly. The most popular app in this category was Duolingo, which is a language learning app.

7. Gaming – All respondents had at least one gaming app on their phone. However, not all of them used these apps regularly. The maximum number of apps that was found among all respondents was ten where the
particular respondent used seven of those on a regular basis. However, every other respondent had less than or equal to 5 gaming apps on their phones. Most of them claimed that they get addicted to a particular game for a certain duration during which they only play that game regularly. After they get bored playing it, they stop using it and install another app and begin using it instead. This is probably the reason why most of the respondents either played only one game or none regularly.

Smartphones and Mobile Applications
Today’s youth is constantly connected with the outside world via their smartphones. A lot of things that could have been previously accessed only by desktops and laptops, can now be accessed at the touch of a button via smartphone applications. All the respondents hardly ever use the messaging service anymore and say they prefer using apps such as WhatsApp, Google Hangouts and Facebook Messenger instead as they are more fun to use, faster, offer a lot of personalisation such as emoticons and also most importantly, free to use. Almost all the respondents actively checked their Gmail inboxes via the Gmail app on their phones on a regular basis. The respondents claimed that apps had made life easier and faster as all information was now available with them 24x7 and they could access it even when they were on the go.

App Download Sources
It was found that all of the respondents consider privacy and security an extremely important factors in deciding where to download their apps from. This is why most of them are wary of downloading apps from third party sources. A number of them also echoed the sentiment that they believe their trusted app stores already have all the apps that they need on a day to day basis so they don’t feel the need to go for any other third party source. Trust to them is very important when it comes to downloading any kind of content and hence, some of the respondents who mentioned that they might consider downloading apps from third party sources said that they would do so however, only if the apps have been recommended on a trusted website such as Cnet or Techcrunch.

Value of an App
All respondents believed that an app is something that is of value and keeps them updated with things and get more information on any topic. Many of them believed that an app should be something that offers the same things if not more that a browser does in addition to convenience and any-time access. All of them agreed that an app for them is something useful and that solves a particular problem or need that they are facing while making life easy in the process. Each of the respondents stressed on the term ‘utility’ while describing what an app means to them.

Browser or Apps?
Most of the respondents echoed the sentiment that although they like using e-commerce apps for browsing and going through new deals offered, they however, prefer using browsers when making the actual purchase. This is because using a browser lets them explore other product options at the same time and see user reviews and ratings at the same instant. Another factor that one of the respondents claimed to be worried about was how secure the payment was while she was purchasing products via an e-commerce app. A few of the respondents, however, said they don’t mind using apps if they get good discounts and deals via them but they would prefer a website otherwise. Most of them preferred using apps when it came to products they already had a lot of information about and for repeat purchases. Apart from e-commerce almost all of the respondents preferred using phone apps across all categories such as news, entertainment and social.

Regularly Used Apps
The most commonly used app category which all the respondents claimed to use extensively on a daily basis turned out to be social. Apart from this, they also used at least one entertainment related app on a regular basis and this number increased as the number of entertainment apps present on their phone increased. The least used app categories were Educational and News. The Gaming apps were mostly found to be addictive in phases. Most of the respondents claimed they got addicted to playing a particular game often and would keep playing it regularly until they get bored of it completely. After which, they usually would download another gaming app and repeat the cycle.

App Discovery Sources
Almost all the respondents claimed that they give a lot of importance to recommendations by friends as well as
other users. Expert reviews in blogs, TV shows like Tech Guru, websites like Tech Crunch and YouTube also mattered to most to a large extent. A lot of the respondents said they often browse through Google Play just to see which apps are being recommended at the store apart from this, if they face a particular requirement and need an app for a specific task, they search online for suggestions. One of the respondents also said that when she sometimes comes across aggregated lists of app suggestions on trustworthy websites by feebly or buzzfeed while browsing social networking sites, she checks them out and installs them if she finds them interesting.

Factors Impacting App Installation
The common theme that emerged from the interviews of all respondents was that recommendations and expert reviews mattered in both the discovery process as well as the installation of an app. The ratings and positive user reviews that an app had received a mixed response with some people trusting them while some not as they believed that they might be bought. One of the respondents even mentioned how he had downloaded an app a few months ago which had more positive ratings and reviews than the total number of downloads. A number of respondents also said that if the content is unique and different than all usual apps they will be open to installing it and experiencing something new. Almost all the respondents however stressed on the fact that they prefer installing free apps over paid ones.

Qualities That Make an App Good
When asked about the qualities that make an app good, all respondents said that they considered apps that are fast and less intrusive to be great applications. Apart from this, great content and an easy to use interface are some things that featured in almost everyone’s list. A respondent also said he really appreciates if an option to switch off push notifications is available in apps so the app doesn’t keep sending him notifications all throughout the day. Another important factor that most respondents believed made an app good was low memory usage as the internal memory of their phones was limited and hence, they could not opt for too heavy an app. One of the respondents also said that for an app to be good they would prefer it to be free.

Common Issues Faced On Apps
Crashes and hanging apps were the most common issues faced by all the respondents and they had faced these across apps sometime or the other. However, one interesting issue that came across was the issue of being asked too much information and data. Respondents felt that this hindered their privacy and they didn’t like that. One respondent remembered a time when he bought a paid app and downloaded it but once installed, it turned out that the app was not compatible with his device which left him frustrated. He said he would have preferred if he had been informed that the app wasn’t compatible before he made the payment itself.

App purchase intentions
Most of the respondents, although initially claimed they would not prefer buying paid apps confessed when probed further that having a trial period for an app is important to them. If they like the app in that duration, they would consider purchasing its full version then. Also, a common trend that was clearly visible among all respondents was that they were open to paying for apps that were education and learning related. This is particularly surprising as this category is the one which was hardly present in any of the respondent’s phones and wasn’t used very regularly. On probing further, a lot of the respondents said that the apps that are currently found on education don’t seem to teach anything unique or new that can’t be found online for free as well. This is why they prefer using browsers for such purposes instead. If an educational app, has interactive and unique content which is not available anywhere else, they would probably not mind shelling out some of their money for purchasing it. However, everyone constantly stressed on the fact that they supported the freemium model and would mostly never pay directly for an app without trying it out first. One respondent thought out of the ten interviewed believed that every app that is available for a price now will later be available for free in the future at some point or the other and so doesn’t see himself paying for an app atleast in the near future.

Features of a Value for Money App
Every respondent focused on the fact that if the app does not provide them anything unique, they wouldn’t even consider purchasing it. So uniqueness and value addition for them were two extremely important factors that would make them call a paid app, value for money. All of them also wanted the app to be economical and to be able to justify its price via its features. One of the respondents said he was willing to pay some money if the paid version of an app ensured no intrusive behaviour and high security. He also preferred the app providing him better service and multiple device compatibility and sync feature so he doesn’t have to worry about losing
his app data if the app or one of his devices ever stops working, making recovery extremely simple.

App Usage Barriers
The most common technological barriers that affect the user’s perceived behavioural control and could be observed from this study were the lack of accessible and reliable and mobile technologies, interrupted network access (because of the service provided by the network provider), availability of limited phone memory and compatibility-related problems. All these issues have a negative influence on the adoption of phone applications and affect the acceptance of these apps by reducing the people’s perceptions of behavioural control.

Conclusions
To conclude, the results address the research questions as below mentioned:

Research question 1: This study proves how extremely dependent today’s youth are on their smartphones and mobile applications. The most popular app categories among the individuals in age group of 21-30 years are Social, Utility and E-commerce. A few facets on which their attitude and behaviour towards an app depend emerged to be the app’s speed of functioning, how intrusive it was, it’s content, app’s user interface, ease of use, ability to customise, Memory usage and Pricing structure. The degree of involvement that the individual has with an app was dependent on the type of app with the user being more involved with apps that fell into categories such as social, utility and E-commerce.

Research question 2: Individuals in the age group of 21-30 years preferred browsers to apps when it came to matters involving purchase. However, in cases of re-purchase or when a certain product purchase was already pre-decided and even just for browsing to see the latest deals and offers, e-commerce apps were preferred more. For all other categories, they were more comfortable and preferred apps more as they often used other categories hen bored and as a tool to pass time. A number of factors however, affected the willingness of this group to purchase an app, these came out to be the app’s uniqueness, the value addition it provides, how economical it is, it’s features along with the level of security and privacy provided within the app.

Research question 3: The most common issues faced by the users when it came to using phone apps were frequent crashes, too much intrusion in the form of too much information being asked for or too many push notifications popping up on their phones regularly. Another issue that was spoken about by everyone was the high data and memory usage that many apps resulted in. This was also a little bit of a deterrent for many when using or deciding on installing phone apps.

Research question 4: The satisfaction of an app user was quoted as by many to be dependent on anumber of factors, the main ones however, were the speed of the app, the privacy and security it offered, the quality and uniqueness of the content, ease of use of the app’s interface, low intrusion, low memory usage and most importantly how economical the app was.

Research question 5: Individuals of this age group were found to prefer free apps over freemium and freemium over paid ones. They prefer buying education and learning related apps more than apps of any other category and are willing to purchase an app only if it offers something unique and offers interesting and engaging content which is not available anywhere else, especially for free. They will not consider buying an app if there are free substitutes of it available in the market unless it’s quality is vastly superior and there is an immense amount of value addition offered by the paid app. Even when they do consider buying an app, they will still look for an app that is economical and they feel is affordable and it’s features and content justify the price being demanded.

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Usage of Cell Phones by Children: A Qualitative Research in Turkey

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Abstract
The aim of this research is to specify the ways children use cell phones. The research has been conducted with the qualitative research method. The qualitative method, by definition, aims to "qualify" phenomena and studies. In-depth interview method, one of the most effective data collection techniques, was used and focus group discussions were held for this study. In addition, ethnographic observation studies at homes, as well as informal observation studies at schools were carried out with reference to previous research findings asserting that the ways children use cell phones and their daily lives should be studied as a whole.

This research, the findings obtained from which are going to be shared in the following pages, is a qualitative study on how children use cell phones. In theory, the observer sociology, the basic foundation of which is mentioned above briefly, was established through a model that takes reception studies and the "uses and gratifications" approach as references. Although not feeding on political economy theories in the overall, the model, at least at a macro scale, takes socio-economic conditions and the context (in order to establish a correlation between media practices, media utilization and the social and economic conditions of both media and the observer) into account.

As to be explained in the "method" section below, the research question and the target population (children between 5-14 years old) were the factors necessitating a qualitative method and ethnographic observations. The primary question intended to be answered in this study is: "what do children do with cell phones?"

This study, like all the researches utilizing the qualitative method, aims to provide a qualitative representation that offers a portrayal as comprehensive as possible, instead of a representation consisting of statistics only. Diversity through a minimum sample size involving various types of conflict and the separation of atypical examples are some of the criteria which are regarded when bringing forward a representation that answers the description above. The sampling characteristic of the research, stated in following, verify that our study has succeeded in achieving this objective. The research has been conducted in the centres of 4 cities; which are Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Gaziantep.

Standard and strategic parameters were used at the stage of selecting the children to be interviewed. These parameters respectively were gender, age range, socio-economic status of the family, number of siblings, job status of the mother and the qualification of the school children are going to (private school/public school; full-time, half-time).

The children to be interviewed were selected by the research team, representatives from the professional organizations supporting the study and local executives and educators. The "snowball" method, which can be briefly explained as one in which the interviewee is asked to recommend a relative fitting the criteria of the research, was also employed when deemed necessary. Within the scope of the fieldwork in the city centres of Istanbul, Gaziantep, Ankara and Izmir; 25 focus group discussions (154 children in total) 106 in-depth interviews 8 ethnographic observation studies, totalling 268 meetings and interviews have been carried out.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CITY</th>
<th>(n)</th>
<th>4-9 YEAR OLDS</th>
<th>10-14 YEAR OLDS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ISTANBUL</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANKARA</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IZMIR</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION
Introduction

The new concept of media involves all mobile communication devices including computer based digital platforms and mobile phones. The changes introduced to communication practices by the information society can be witnessed in a striking way in the utilization of the new media, by children. Using the new media, children can create contents in an online environment, participate in social networks actively, develop their digital game experiences, communicate, make searches and contribute to their education lives. All these varieties in utilization are being analysed under the titles of Mobile Phones/Smart Devices and Computer/Internet utilization.

The rapidly advancing technology has become a part of children’s lives just like it has become a part of ours. The mobile phones, in particular, that we can hardly drop, with all their qualities developing each passing day, besides meeting our needs of communication, are also occupying an important place in our lives with their features both entertaining us and rendering access to information possible. As Castelain-Meunier says in the article entitled “Self phones of the students: a paradoxale intimacy tool” the use of self phones is an important point of intersection between public space and private space (2002:233).

In recent years, smart phones have become indispensable devices, especially for the youth. Their familiarity with technology and their predisposition towards them, give the young the opportunity to use all features of these phones efficiently. They are usually using smart phones to communicate, play games or to reach information. Approximately half (46%) of the children who are between 10-14 years old and have participated in the study, have their own mobile phones. Mobile phones that can be used for a number of activities such as playing games, taking photos, surfing the web and social media, or briefly stated, the smart phones constitute half of this number (19%). In addition, one fourth (25%) of the same group, have their own personal computer (Figure 1).

Table 2 Percentages on having a personal electronic device/on the basis of age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mobile Phone</th>
<th>Total Average</th>
<th>10-14 Age Group</th>
<th>4-9 Age Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Computer</td>
<td>17 %</td>
<td>25 %</td>
<td>9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smart Phone (iPhone, etc.)</td>
<td>11 %</td>
<td>19 %</td>
<td>3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iPad/Tablet</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portable Computer / Laptop</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>11 %</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game Console</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iPod</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Answer</td>
<td>43 %</td>
<td>23 %</td>
<td>64 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Answers</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings
It has been discovered within the scope of our study that, having a mobile phone is clearly being correlated to age, by the children who participated in our study. In other words, having a mobile phone, from the perspective of children, as reflected in their expressions below, emerges as a symbol of growing, ending of childhood and gaining autonomy (Singly 2000):

“I do not have a mobile phone since I am small. I am a small kid yet.” (E,female, 9 years old, public school, C1, 3 siblings, Gaziantep)

Families are buying mobile phones to their children when the child reaches a certain age and a level of maturity. Corinne Martin’s research confirms that result. Martin explains that children are always kept their mobile phones in their hands even at nights to feel the vibrations (Martin, 2003).

The words of a 7 year old, “I do not have a mobile phone. Maybe I can have one in middle school” (Ö, 7 years old, male, public school, B, 2 siblings, Izmir) bear out the words of another, saying “My mother will buy me one in the 5th grade” (E, female, 9 years old, public school, B, Izmir) and emphasize that from the perspective of children, it is possible to have a mobile phone only at a certain age.

On the other hand, some children are of the opinion that the age they can have a mobile phone, corresponds to a certain grade at school. “One does not have a mobile phone in the 3rd grade!” (B, female, 10 years old, public school, C1, singleton, Izmir)

However, as a matter of fact, the perception of this ‘certain age’ is associated with socio-economical status and therefore with economic conditions, as well as a concept that can be put in the same equation with these, which is the ‘social circle’. A girl continuing her education in a private language immersion school serves as an example for this case.

“I used to have a phone but I do not use it much anymore, now I have an iPod and I am using it more often. (Do any of your friends in the class have a phone?) Everyone in the class, I mean they all have.’(C,female, 10 years old, A, private school, 2 siblings, Istanbul)

Although buying mobile phones to their children, parents see mobile phones as an instrument that children can play with only, or that keeps them ‘occupied’. The shared idea of a few 10 year olds who say ‘I have a mobile phone but there is no SIM card in it’, points out the way parents see mobile phones. (S, Female, 10 years old, private school, 2 siblings, A, Izmir)

Utilization with the Purpose of Communication
It is possible to name different reasons for using mobile phones with the purpose of communication. For an example from a family with a traditional structure, a child tells that, she is using her mother’s phone in order to communicate with her parents, by saying;

‘I also use my mother’s phone to call my father and Uncle Murat and bless their Friday.’ (S, female, 8 years old, public school, C2,3 siblings, Gaziantep)

For the relatively elder age groups, the children who go to private teaching institutions at weekends to prepare for the tests use mobile phones to communicate with their parents.

'Sometimes our parents get worried. That is why I am carrying the phone with me. My mother trusts me actually. She still gets worried when I go to or return from classes though.’ (S, Male, 11 years old, public school, C1, 2 siblings, Istanbul)

Sending messages is also another way of communicating among the children. A 14 year old child, who considers the mobile phone as a vital part of her life, describes the importance of it with the words: ‘It is quite everything to me. I am using it every day. I am sending messages to different people every day.’ (K, female, 14 years old, public school, C, singleton, Izmir)
Children who have mobile phones expressed that they use mobile phones in order to communicate with their parents and friends as well as to organize meetings with their friends.

'We go to ____ (a chain café). (She does not stop playing with her mobile phone in the meanwhile) The days I meet with friends I take my phone with me, I do not actually use it very often but I use it to organize meetings with my friends. The teaching institution is quite entertaining. We sometimes go to ___ (Shopping Mall) or to ____ (a chain café) et cetera, after classes. At those times we carry our phones with us. My mother might want to reach me via my mobile phone. (E, female, 14 years old, private school, A, 2 siblings, Istanbul)

Stating that mobile phones help parents track them, some of the children have also remarked that they envy the children of the past eras since they were acting more freely, in the nonexistence of such communication devices.

‘Okay but... I heard that it was interesting in the past. My grandmother tells me that they used to skip school... et cetera... Today, the phone starts to ring as soon as you are a few minutes late...’(E, female, 14 years old, private school, A, two siblings, Istanbul)

**Using Mobile Devices to Play Games**

Students who are the members of families with average and high income use the media when going to school via service buses and public transport, to listen to music and/or play video games. On the other hand, the children of families in lower SEC groups are unable to use such devices to play games or spend time since it is not very probable for them to have devices like mp3 players or tablets. A student from a low SEC explains the situation as:

‘The reason why we do not play with my father’s mobile phone is not that it is forbidden or that we do not like to play with it. I do not know how to put it. It is like we do not want to play with it anyway.’ (N, 12 years old, D SEC, public school, 3 siblings, Gaziantep)

As for the conditions determined by the parents, it can be seen that the parents do not want their children to install paid games and that they furthermore forbid their children to.

‘There are some games available. But they are paid games... I am not allowed to play them. (S, female, 9 years old, public school, singleton, D, Istanbul)

The words, ‘iPhone is the best in the world... It is the best for playing video games’, explain the reason why children want to have a mobile phone and that the primary reason of it is to play games. (B, male, 11 years old, public school, singleton, B, Izmir)

**Using Mobile Devices to Listen the Music**

Besides occupying an important place in their daily lives, mobile devices occupy an important place in also the education lives of children. Although being forbidden at most schools, it is possible to see children use mobile phones on the way to school or home, with the purpose of listening to music. The words of a 14 years old girl summarize the situation with the words below:

'We listen to music when going to school. Most of the time, I listen to music on my phone. I can take my phone to school with me but I am not allowed to turn it on without permission. So we cannot make a phone call. I keep it turned off at school but we are allowed to use it in the service bus, so we can listen to music with it.' (Z, female, 14 years old, private school, 2 siblings, A, Istanbul).

Another child summarizes the place her mobile device and music occupy in her life, with the words: ‘I always listen to music too. I take my earphones and find a silent place. I listen to music while doing my homework and sometimes I listen to music at a low volume when reading a book.’ (D, 10 years old, female, public school, C2, 2 siblings, Istanbul).
Intrafamilial Ownership and Conditions of Using

The children who do not have their own phones use their parents’ phones, under certain restrictions. Children in lower age groups, in particular, are using their parents’ phones to play video games. The primary condition under which the children are allowed to use the mobile devices is to install the games that are free to play only.

‘I do not have one but my father does and I sometimes use it. Once I had downloaded a game to my elder brother’s mobile phone and my father had gotten so angry.’ (N, female, 7 years old, public school, C1, 2 siblings, Ankara)

It can be observed among poorer communities that children can use the phones of their parents/elder siblings with different purposes.

‘I check the weather forecast on my mother’s mobile phone.’ (H, 8 years old, male, D, public school, Gaziantep)

Forbidding the child to use the mobile phone shows that, it might result in disciplinary action in some families. A 13 year old clearly expresses that his parents forbid him to use the phone in order to make sure that he is studying harder, especially during the exam weeks, by saying ‘No using the phone during the exam weeks!’ (M, male, 13 years old, public school, D, 2 siblings, Izmir)

However, depending on the economic standards of the family, these rules might as well be a reflection of the measures taken by the family in order to prevent ‘possible damages’. The elder daughter of a middle-class family who was interviewed within the scope of our ethnographic observation study in Izmir points out to this case, saying They do not let me touch it. My sibling had once pressed a button of my mother’s phone and had accidentally called our father 15 times or so... They also say that it might break.’ (7 years old, public school, 2 siblings)

Utilization of mobile phones and other electronic devices also emerge as an element of intrafamilial conflict. The sentences below can be helpful in exemplifying the said case.

‘My mother smacks me in the head and then she feels sorry for doing so, but that is when I make her angry... She tells me to get off the computer but I do not and then she gets angry. She once forbade my elder sister to use the computer for a week and she also forbade her to play with her mobile phone... It made my sister cry in anger.’ (Y, 13 years old, public school, B, 2 siblings, Istanbul)

Another child remarks that the aim of these rules and restrictions is to motivate children to study, with the words: ‘Tells me to drop the phone and study... Or to turn the computer off and read a book instead... My mother gets even angrier when she is nervous.’ (E, 14 years old, female, private school, A, 1 sister, Istanbul)

It has been observed that the children of families with average and high income use mobile phones but that some families limit their children about using their mobile phone.

‘It is possible to buy credits. You can buy credits to send messages and it is affordable but my mother does not allow me to buy it. They say ‘all you have to call is us, what would you need the credits for, anyway.’ (Ç, 14 years old, male, public school, A, singleton, Izmir)

In terms of their technology skills, children, besides adapting to using mobile phones faster than their parents do, also guide them in adapting to the technology. The 13 years old child guiding his parents in using mobile phones sheds light on the situation with the words, ‘I use mobile phones but sometimes when they get confused, they ask me to show them how to do the things they want to do.’ (B, 13 years old, male, public school, B, 2 siblings, Izmir)

Conclusion

The new media, from the perspective of the children who are unable to own it or to have access to it, is a centre of attraction, or even a goal. Since having a mobile phone, in particular, is correlated to age or growing, by the children, it would not be wrong to call it the modern ‘ritual of adolescence’. The priority of both mobile phones
and Internet in the perspective of children, which they attribute to the “game” function, is a finding that should be taken into consideration.

It can be seen that, the children who have the opportunity to access, turn computer and Internet into a part of their domestic, education and social lives and that they even start to develop different ways of using them, beginning from the early ages. To put it more explicitly, it was observed that some of the children, who can easily have access, even approach the situation from a critical perspective and limit the time they spend on the media, through self-control.

It has been ascertained that no audio-visual materials, except the basic tools, are being used in a majority of the public schools. It is also observed that employment of technology in these institutions could be rendered possible only in consequence of the personal initiatives of the teachers and by means of their (own) personal hardware.

It can be seen that parents, educational institutions and teachers have been adopting the same manner in making certain regulations and setting rules and restrictions on using the media. With this regard, the restrictions on using mobile phones and personal computers or smart devices at schools, aim to encourage children to participate in traditional kid games, informal sports activities or to spend time with others during the recess. Besides giving those who cannot regularly participate in the sports activities the opportunity to involve, this approach also plays the determining role in helping the children to build bridges with their peers and in promoting socialization.

It can be understood by means of this study that, the rules and restrictions determined by the parents or other adults, on children’s access to media, is a matter that rather focuses on ‘school/homework’ and a method employed to limit the time children are allowed to spend on it. Limits and restrictions on contents, on the other hand, are not that much. The reason of this, especially regarding the TV programmes, can be associated to the rules determined by the regulatory body on contents, target audience and airing times, that are considered to be ‘satisfactory’ by the families. However, what we have witnessed during the field works have shown that the bans imposed to television programmes can easily be flouted by the children, or in other words, that, strict limitations might not always result as expected, but sometimes might also result in adversity.

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ÇocuklarınMedyayıAlımama ve Kullanım Biçimleri Araştırma,Galatasaray University, MEDIAR, 2014.
What is Public Relations? An Analysis of Turkish Public Relations Job Advertisements Discourses

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Abstract
From Barnum’s publicities on his circus to Bernays’ studies with its emphasis on research, and to modern and contemporary practices, public relations have been transformed. As strategic communication process, public relations uses research, planning, implementation and evaluation. In a modern sense, its affiliations are corporate social responsibility, stakeholder management, corporate citizenship, corporate governance, crisis and risk communication, media relations, image, reputation and perception management.

In today’s Turkey, public relations has often been confused with customer relationship and marketing for many years. This confusion is also reflected in job advertisements. In this study, public relations job advertisements discourses on human resources network will be analyzed. The paper aims to answer the following questions: How academicians define public relations? What are the differences between public relation’s job advertisement discourses and public relations academician’s descriptive discourses? What is the image of public relations profession reflected by job advertisement discourses?

Conceptual Framework of Public Relations
The hundreds of definitions of public relations so far represent different dimensions of public relations. The definitions could be divided into academicians’ definitions and practitioners’ (professional associations e.g.) definitions. The most common definition of public relations no doubt is its managerial function. According to Wilcox and Cameron, the key words to remember public relations are; deliberate, planned, performance, public interest, two way communication and management function (2006:6-7). It could be seen that public relations is a two way communication process pursuing public interest with planned activities and also a management function of the business. Cutlip, Center and Broom also pointed out the management function of public relations: “Public relations is the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and its publics on whom its success or failure depends” (1994: 6).

The definitions regarding management function of public relations are followed by other definitions attributing to such roles of public relations as building relationship, communicating with public and social stakeholders. According to Grunig and Hunt, “Public relations is the management of communication between and organization and its publics”(1984). Coombs and Holladay define public relations as “the management of mutually influential relationships within a web of stakeholder and organizational relationships” (2007: 26). They argue that modern public relations has re-energized the term “relationship” and relationship oriented public relations reflects the corporate-centric view (2010: 5). According to Caywood, “Public relations is the profitable integration of an organization’s new and continuing relationships with stakeholders including customers by managing all communications contacts with the organization that create and protect the brand and reputation of the organization” (1997, xi). Johnston, Zawawi and Brand define public relations as “the development and management of ethical strategies using communications to build relationships with stakeholders or publics” (2009: 7).

As seen above, public relations, as a management function, is responsible for establishing and maintaining a relationship with all relevant social stakeholders influencing business processes. Naturally, relationship management perspective of public relations includes activities with strategic decision making, planning, implementation and evaluating processes. Center and Jackson’s public relations definitions show that: “Public relations is the systematized function that evaluates public attitudes and behaviors; harmonizes the goals, policies and procedures of an individual or organization with the public interest, and executes a program of action to earn public understanding, acceptance and supportive behavior” (2003: 12).

In addition to efforts of academicians, public relations practitioners also contribute to defining public relations. The earliest definition of Public Relations Society of America on public relations is that “public relations help an
organization and its publics adapt mutually to each other” (PRSA, 2016). In time, a new definition has been adopted with the changing role of public relations. Thus, some other roles of public relations have been added to the new definition. According to the new definition of PRSA, “Public relations is a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics.” (PRSA, 2016) The new roles of public relations are relationship building and dialogical communication. Besides, public relations are seen as a management process by the most important association. According to Chartered Institute of Public Relations, “Public relations is about reputation: the result of what you do, what you say and what others say about you. Public Relations is the discipline which looks after reputation, with the aim of earning understanding and support and influencing opinion and behavior. It is the planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain goodwill and mutual understanding between an organization and its publics” (2016).

No definitions of public relations have been found on the websites of the Institute for Public Relations (IPR), conducting key researches for public relations, and the Public Relations Consultants Association (PRCA), a significant platform bringing European public relations practitioners together.

On the other hand, when we review definitions of public relations in Turkey, Alaeddin Asna, one of the first private sector practitioners and, after then, one of the first academician in the field, defines public relations as follows: “Public relations is an art of management which private or legal person establishes and develops confidence and strong ties with relevant publics; directs them to goodwill and positive actions ;shapes their attitudes by viewing their reactions and thus, builds mutually beneficial relationship with planned efforts” (1983).

While Asna defines public relations as planned efforts, Balta Peltekoglu recognizes public relations as a strategic communication management. According to Balta Peltekoglu, “Public relations is a strategic communication management whose prioritization may sometimes vary from consumer to distributor and employees and it is grounded on organization’s interests and is performed by organizations’ publics (2007: 7).

On the other hand, there is no definition presented by Public Relations Association of Turkey.

As it can be seen above, public relations has been defined in many different ways. For this reason, Harlow reviewed 472 public relations definitions between the years of 1970 and 1976 and he put a very comprehensive study by using common aspects of all definitions in a new definition. According to Harlow, the public relations is defined as follows:

“Public relations is a distinctive management function which helps establish and maintain mutual lines of communication, understanding, acceptance and co-operation between an organization and its publics; involves the management of problems and issues; helps management to keep informed on and responsive to public opinion; defines and emphasizes the responsibility of management to serve the public interest; helps management keep abreast of and effectively utilize change, serving as an early warning system to help anticipate trends; and uses research and sound and ethical communication as its principal tools” (Harlow, 1976: 36).

As the Harlow’s definition suggests, the communication is between organization and its public and the communication is utilized to form public opinion, to tackle with problems and to provide desired behavioral change. In result, all mentioned definitions demonstrate that public relations is definitely the management function. By means of required tasks and qualifications of the profession, communication process is carried out strategically and in a planned way.

The Components of Public Relations

Being responsible for the strategic communication between an organization and its publics, public relations has various duties in the context of relative publics. According to PR News, the domains of public relations are; corporate responsibility, crisis management, digital public relations, internal communication, measurement, media relations, media training, non-profit public relations, research, social media, web tools and writing (PR News, 2016). As seen in the table below, public relations is involved in thirteen activities (Fawkes, 2004: 7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Relations Activity</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal Communication</td>
<td>Communicating with employees</td>
<td>In-house newsletter, suggestion boxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Public relations</td>
<td>Communicating on behalf of whole</td>
<td>Annual reports, conferences, ethical statements, visual identity, images.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organization, not goods or services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Relations</td>
<td>Communicating with journalists, specialists, editors from local, national, international and trade media, including newspapers, magazines, radio, TV and web-based communication.</td>
<td>Press releases, photocalls, video news releases, off the record briefings, press events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business to Business</td>
<td>Communicating with other organisations, suppliers, retailers</td>
<td>Exhibitions, Trade Events, News Letters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Affairs</td>
<td>Communicating with opinion formers, local/national politicians, monitoring political environment</td>
<td>Presentations, Briefings, Private Meetings, Public Speeches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Relations / CSR</td>
<td>Communicating with local community, elected representatives, headteachers,</td>
<td>Exhibitions, Presentations, Letters, Meetings, Sports Activities and other sponsorhips.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investor Relations</td>
<td>Communicating with financial organizations / individuals</td>
<td>Newsletters, briefings, events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Communication</td>
<td>Identification and analysis of situation, problem and solutions to further organizational goals.</td>
<td>Researching, planning and executing a campaign to improve ethical reputation of organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues Management</td>
<td>Monitoring political, social, economic and technological environment</td>
<td>Considering effect of US economy and presidential campaign on UK organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis Management</td>
<td>Communicating clear messages in fast changing situation or emergency</td>
<td>Dealing with media after major rail crash on behalf of police, hospital or local authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copywriting</td>
<td>Writing for different audiences to high standards of literacy</td>
<td>Press releases, newsletters, web pages, annual reports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publications Management</td>
<td>Overseeing print / media processes, often using new technology</td>
<td>Leaflets, internal magazines, websites.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Johnston, Zawawi and Brand, the roles and key activities of public relations are: communication, publicity, promotions, press agency, integrated marketing, issues management, crisis management, press secretary / public information officer, public affairs / lobbyist, financial relations, community relations, internal relations, minority relations, media relations, public diplomacy, event management, sponsorship, cause / relationship marketing and fundraising (2009: 8-9).

As the first ranked company on the world top 250 public relations company list, Edelman’s practices focuses on business and social purpose, consumer marketing, corporate communication, crisis and risk communication, digital communication and public affairs (2016). Being another global public relations company, Burson-Marsteller’s capabilities are consumer and brand marketing, corporate and financial communications, digital public relations, future trend analysis, healthcare communications and market access, issues and crisis management, media relations, public affairs, sports marketing and technology communications (2016). On the other hand, as the Turkey’s first public relations company, A&B Tanitim’s working areas are; corporate communications, integrated marketing communications, crisis management, media relations, leadership positioning, internal communications and event management (2016). Another important public relations company namely, Unite Communication, provides such disciplines and areas of expertise as media relations, crisis management, event management, advertising, digital communications, sustainability communications, corporate responsibility communications, financial communications, health communications and internal communications (2016).

In view of the opinions of academicians and practitioners on public relations, we see that there are many different activity areas of public relations. Basing on the working areas stated above, the most frequent activity areas are media relations, crisis communication and event management. There is no doubt that a public relations practitioner should be equipped with some qualifications to perform those tasks.
Personal Qualifications of Public Relations Practitioners

Wilcox and Cameron highlight that public relations practitioners should be qualified for the five basic areas which are writing skills, research, planning expertise, problem-solving and business-economic competence (2006, 27). According to Cutlip, Center and Broom, the following ten categories summarize public relations work assignments: writing and editing, media relations and placement, research, management and administration, counseling, special events, speaking, production, training and contact (1994:34). According to Johnston, Zawawi and Brand, there are certain key words that are required for a public relations practitioner:

- Possessing vocational skills: research, writing, listening, presentation and media,
- Possessing relationship skills: interpersonal skills, political nous, networking ability, listening,
- Possessing professional skills: the ability to meet deadlines and plan ahead,
- Having a strong ethical perspective,
- Understanding technology and how it can be used as a tool,
- Possessing industry knowledge; undergoing professional experience, understanding how theory informs practice, keeping abreast of current affairs, developing the ability for lifelong learning,

Naturally, those having the required duties above should perform public relations profession. A person being ineligible for writing skills could fail to manage media relations properly or a person lacking of deep cultural knowledge could fail to satisfy requirements of event management. If required qualifications for the profession are ignored, then the image of the profession will be perceived differently and it will often be confused with other jobs. Qualifications of public relations employees working in TV series and film companies play an important role in shaping the profession and this could give rise to some prejudices about the profession. Wilcox and Cameron touch upon some stereotypes about public relations: “The Sex and The City character Samantha Jones who owns PR agency, talks about her career as a way to meet men” (2006: 13).

As a result, in view of the findings above, a study on how public relations is defined in public relation’s job advertisement discourses and required skills for those to be recruited will reveal whether public relations is perceived as it is supposed to be in fact.

Research: Analysis of Turkish Public Relations Job Advertisements Discourses

As can be seen above, various components of public relations from management, strategic communication to maintaining mutually beneficial relationship were touched upon by academicians in their public relations definitions. In this context, initial starting point of the research is to measure differences between public relations academicians’ definitions in theory and published public relations job advertisements in practice. The research will seek answers to the following questions: 1) How public relations job advertisements describe the profession? 2) How the image of public relations profession is reflected in job advertisements? Within the given problematic, the following hypotheses will be tested.

Hypothesis

H1: “Employers in Turkey do not describe public relations profession as it is supposed to be.”
H2: “The requirements of job duties are not specified in public relations job advertisements.”
H3: “Jobs incorporating duties of public relations are evaluated in the context of corporate communication in job advertisements.”

Methodology and Scope of Research

The present paper examines job advertisements titled “Public Relations” and “Corporate Communication” which published on May, 1-15 2016 on web site “kariyer.net”, Turkey’s most visited human resources site. According to Alexa’s data recorded in 2016, the human resources websites ranking among the 500 most-visited websites in Turkey are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Web site</th>
<th>Ranking by the 500 most-visited websites in Turkey</th>
<th>Ranking by sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kariyernet.com</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yemibiris.com</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secretcv.com</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elemanonline.com</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The definitions of public relations discipline in job advertisements were analyzed to test the first hypothesis and a set of criteria were proposed basing on the literature review at the beginning of the research. Considering managerial function of public relations, the first criteria measures whether job advertisements involve duties such as working with senior management and close relationship with senior management. On the other hand, in terms of strategic communication dimension of public relations, the second criteria measures whether job advertisements include researching and planning qualifications and whether there is a discourse concerning having analytical thinking skills.

With the purpose of testing the second hypothesis, a set of criteria were determined in two different fields. In this respect, one of the first criteria measures whether public relations duties are specified in job advertisements. In the meantime, the job duties were compiled in line with duties defined by Fawkes. Besides, other duties observed through analysis of advertisements were also added to the criteria.

Another field that criteria were performed in is required personal qualifications and skills in public relations profession. In this sense, Cutlip Center Broom’s model was utilized and similarly, other duties observed through analysis of advertisements were also included to the criteria.

The criteria employed for the assessment of the first two hypotheses were also applied for analysis of the third hypothesis relating to corporate communication job advertisements and differences between public relations and corporate communication job advertisements was measured.

Research Findings
The number of public relations job advertisements that were posted between the dates of 01.05.2016 and 15.05.2016 on web site “kariyer.net” and their distribution by sectors are presented below.

Table 3: Distribution of Public Relations Job Advertisements by Sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Number of Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction/ Real Estate</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>59</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of corporate communication job advertisements that were posted between the dates of 01.05.2016 and 15.05.2016 on web site “kariyer.net” and their distribution by sectors are presented below.

Table 4: Distribution of Corporate Communication Job Advertisements by Sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Number of Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction/ Real Estate</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textile</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H1: “Employers in Turkey do not describe public relations profession as it is supposed to be.”
By viewing managerial function of public relations, it was examined whether job advertisements entail duties such as working with senior management and close relationship with senior management. Positioning of public relations as a strategic communication management was revealed in literature reviews. Therefore, the requirement of researching, planning and evaluating skills and analytical thinking skills for the practice of public relations were analyzed in job advertisements.

Table 5: The Place of Public Relations Job Descriptions in Public Relations Job Advertisements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Stated in Advertisement</th>
<th>Not stated in Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working with senior management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researching, Planning, Evaluating and Analytical Thinking</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research findings demonstrated that managerial role of public relations is not much mentioned in public relations job advertisements. Only 2 out of 59 advertisements point out managerial role of public relations. Besides, 12 out of 59 job advertisements deals with researching, planning and evaluating processes of public relations. For this reason, key findings presented above indicated that the hypothesis arguing “Employers in Turkey do not describe public relations profession as it is supposed to be.” were verified.

H2: “The requirements of job duties are not specified in public relations job advertisements.”
To assess the second hypothesis, job advertisements in the field of public relations were analyzed by two different steps. In the first step, an analysis was conducted to find out which duties were specified in public relations job advertisements. Likewise, existence of other irrelevant duties associated with public relations such as selling and customer relations were examined.

Table 6: Duties Specified in Public Relations Job Advertisements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>Number of Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Relations</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Relations</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Management</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertisement/Digital</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media Management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Identity</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The numbers indicated in the table above revealed that the majority of public relations job advertisements offer duties covering customer relations and selling. As persuasive ability referred in job advertisements is mostly associated with selling product and service, it was concluded that employers are seeking for salesman in reality. Furthermore, because of the fact that practitioners are required to fulfill such tasks as reception and answering telephones in job advertisements, the conclusion was drawn that employers are looking for customer relations representative in fact.

Another field that criteria were measured is personal qualifications and skills required in public relations profession. In this sense, Cutlip Center Broom’s model was utilized and new criteria were set by means of additions. These criteria could be summarized as follows: skills for writing techniques, media relations, event management, speaking skill in foreign language, computer skills, social media management and communication skill.
In addition to it, appearance, persuasive ability, diction and skills for issue management and crisis management were included to the criteria.

Table 7: Expected Qualifications of Public Relations Practitioners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Number of Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media relations</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS Office</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media Management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive Ability</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diction</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in the table above, the two key qualifications expected from public relation practitioners are communication skills and appearance. They are followed by computer skills, persuasive ability and diction skills. It was revealed that less number of advertisements covers essential duties of public relations such as media relations, writing skills, social media management and event management. In this respect, the analyzed 59 job advertisements were reexamined to see whether they were in accordance with public relation definitions in general. Within this framework, it was understood that only 12 job advertisements are compatible with public relations profession.

As it is seen in table 6 and table 7, job advertisements titled “Public Relations” are irrelevant to public relations profession. Similarly, it was discovered through the third evaluation that only 12 out of 59 advertisements are related to public relations profession. Therefore, the hypothesis arguing that “The requirements of job duties are not specified in public relations job advertisements.” was confirmed.

H3: “Jobs incorporating duties of public relations are evaluated in the context of corporate communication in job advertisements.”

Corporate communication job advertisements were evaluated in term of the criteria comprising working with senior management and researching, planning, evaluating and analytical thinking as a strategic communication function of public relations and following results were found:

Table 8: The Place of Public Relations Job Descriptions in Corporate Communication Job Advertisements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Stated in Advertisement</th>
<th>Not stated in Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working with senior management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researching, Planning, Evaluating and Analytical Thinking</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in the table above, as a criteria of public relations, working with senior management were ignored in corporate communication job advertisements. However, researching, planning, evaluating and analytical thinking qualifications that are employed in public relations process are appeared in many corporate communication job advertisements. On the other hand, following results were recorded after analyzing corporate communication job advertisements by duties.

Table 9: Expected Public Relations Duties in Corporate Communication Job Advertisements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>The Number of Advertisements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Relations</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Relations</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As seen in the table above, social media management, as a duty of public relations, is the most required qualification in corporate communication job advertisements. This is yet followed by media relations as sine qua non for public relations discipline. Then, customer relations, publicity, event management and advertising/digital advertising take place. The most critical data obtained in the table above is that only one corporate communication job advertisement seeks practitioners qualified for selling. Lastly, an assessment of required qualification from practitioners was performed.

Table 10: Expected Qualifications of Corporate Communication Practitioners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Number of Advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media relations</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS Office / Google Ad / Adobe</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media Management</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive Ability</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diction</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue Management</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis Management</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 10 indicates, the most key qualifications in corporate communication job advertisements are knowledge of foreign language and required computer skill. Although social media management, media relations and writing skills are duties of public relations practitioners, they are seen in many corporate communication job advertisements as well. The most significant result acquired from the table 10 is that there is almost no expectation in corporate communication job advertisements with respect to appearance, diction and persuasive abilities associated directly with selling. In conclusion, 11 corporate communication job advertisements were evaluated in the final overall analysis and it was revealed that all of the job advertisements are compatible with requirements of public relations discipline.

Consequently, the third hypothesis concerning corporate communication job advertisements was tested through the same procedure applied to public relations job advertisement. As it is seen in the table 8, the key findings suggest that although corporate communication job advertisement does not involve managerial function of public relations, the majority of advertisements are directly related to strategic communication aspect of public relations. As it is seen in table 9, corporate communication job advertisements are mostly concerned with social media management and media relations responsibilities of public relations. Yet, it is not interested in selling. The table 10 shows that contrary to public relations job advertisements, corporate communication job advertisements do not include qualifications regarding persuasive ability, appearance and diction and many duties specified in public relations are stated in corporate communication job advertisements. In result, the research findings indicate that the hypothesis suggesting “Jobs incorporating duties of public relations are evaluated in the context of corporate communication in job advertisements” was verified.
Research Result
According to findings in the table 5, the first hypothesis of the research arguing “Employers in Turkey do not describe public relations profession as it is supposed to be.” were verified.

Another hypothesis suggesting “The requirements of job duties are not specified in public relations job advertisements.” was also confirmed in line with the research findings gathered.

As it is seen in table 6 and table 7, job advertisements titled “Public Relations” are irrelevant to public relations profession. Similarly, it was discovered through the third evaluation that only 12 out of 59 advertisements are related to public relations profession. Therefore, the hypothesis arguing that “The requirements of job duties are not specified in public relations job advertisements.” was confirmed. Public relations job advertisements are mostly concerned with selling, reception and customer relations.

The criteria employed for the assessment of the first two hypotheses were also applied for analysis of the third hypothesis relating to corporate communication job advertisements and differences between public relations and corporate communication job advertisements were measured. The research findings demonstrates that public relations duties and expectations are much more prevalent in corporate communication job advertisements compared to public relations job advertisements and the hypothesis arguing “Jobs incorporating duties of public relations are evaluated in the context of corporate communication in job advertisements” was verified.

In the current research, 59 public relations job advertisements and 11 corporate communication job advertisements were analyzed in total. It was found that the number of public relations job advertisements is higher than corporate communication job advertisements result from being unawareness about public relations profession.

Conclusion
As a strategic communication between organizations and their social stakeholders and publics influencing business processes, public relations is a management philosophy as well. The place of public relations in the world and Turkey today is related to magnitude of its power. Public relations could turn negative ideas and opinions into positive views and exhibit a desired behavior change. Public relations may sometimes provide a social benefit, make profit or gain a political propaganda success.

In the study, a wide range of public relations definitions from academia to professional associations and private sector in World and Turkey have been analyzed. The problematic of the study is whether there is a connection between academician’s descriptive discourses and employer’s discourses. Public relations job advertisements on Turkey’s most visited human resources website have been examined for 15 days and it has been understood that common definition of public relations do not coincide with job advertisements posted related to public relations profession. Public relations are still mistaken for such jobs as customer relations, reception, product/ service selling and call center specialist. According to another result obtained from the study, public relations job advertisements do not include management function of public relations.

On the other hand, another finding suggests that duties in the context of public relations are stated in corporate communication job advertisements. Therefore, the less public relations duties are seen in public relation job advertisements, the more they become prominent in corporate communication job advertisements. This explicitly reveals that public relations is replaced by corporate communication in practice. Consequently, academia practitioners and more importantly, professional associations should take more responsibility to prevent this confusion and to fix the image of public relations.

References
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https://www.prsa.org/AboutPRSA/PublicRelationsDefined/index.html#.VyiIno9OJuk (3.05. 2016)
You’ve Been Followed: How Public Libraries Use Twitter to Engage Their Patrons

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Abstract  
The purpose of this study is to examine how public libraries in Canada and the USA use social media to communicate with their patrons. The authors identified Twitter as one of the most popular communication tools, which, however, is often not used efficiently. The researchers collected 38,000 Twitter messages from thirteen public libraries. The data was examined using network analysis based on four proposed dimensions: velocity, reciprocity, centrality and message control. The dimensions of velocity and reciprocity are two major factors in understanding the nature of Twitter messages, while the centrality and message control dimensions are very important in evaluating the impact on the flow of communication and the strength of connections between a library and its patrons. The authors devised a set of recommendations for public libraries to improve their communication strategies in order to increase the number of followers and more actively engage patrons on Twitter.

Libraries’ Use of Twitter  
Twitter is a popular social network that was launched in 2006 with a mission to “give everyone the power to create and share ideas and information instantly, without barriers”. It now has 320 million active users with 1 billion unique monthly visits to sites with embedded Tweets, 80% of which come from active users on mobile. Twitter has a global reach, with 79% of accounts outside of the U.S. in over 35 languages. (Twitter, 2016). According to Pew Research Center Survey of around 2,000 U.S. adults nationwide, the number of Twitter users grew up from 8% in 2010 to 23% in 2015 (Duggan, 2015).

Organizations around the world are using Twitter to communicate with their stakeholders. Libraries are not an exception. In a study of US public libraries in 38 states, Walt Crawford (2014) found that 953 out of 5,958 libraries (or two thirds of American public libraries) had a Twitter presence.

He proposed to categorize libraries by size as follows: small libraries are those potentially serving fewer than 10,000 people; medium libraries are those potentially serving 10,000 to 99,999 people; large libraries are those potentially serving 100,000 or more. Crawford found that while only 5.0% of small libraries had a Twitter account, 23.1% of medium libraries and 53.1% of large libraries were present on Twitter. 78.2% of the largest libraries in the sample, those serving over 500,000 people, had Twitter accounts.

Researchers have mostly focused on examining how libraries are using Twitter (Starr, 2010; Wanucha & Hofschire, 2013; Burgert, Nann & Sterling, 2014; Crawford, 2014; Taylor and Francis, 2014) and on evaluation of library activities, influence, and self-representation practices in Twitter (Carscaddon & Chapman, 2013; Mon & Lee, 2015). Researchers also studied the impact of social media on librarians and their readiness for this task, as well as the help of library administration in carrying out social networking activities for the library (Gaha & Hall, 2015). The use of Twitter has been found as mostly beneficial for public libraries, especially due to its low cost and the ability to take library service to users in their preferred spaces (Taylor and Francis, 2014). According to Burkhardt (as cited in Crawford, 2014), the use of Twitter enables libraries to: report library happenings; promote library resources/services; build community; engage users; monitor library related tweets; solicit feedback; and create greater awareness of the library. Additionally, libraries increasingly are using Twitter as a customer service tool (Taylor and Francis, 2014; Appleton & Tattersall, 2015) and collection development and management tool (Taylor and Francis, 2014).
Despite multiple benefits of Twitter demonstrated through various studies, it can both advantage and disadvantage information users. According to Appleton and Tattersall (2015, p. 23), “it has both the power to alienate and include participants…” as well as to “connect individuals and societies on a huge scale for better or for worse.”

Other challenges include considerable time and technological expertise required to maintain an active and visible account, and the pressure for an instant feedback to service queries, because only ever using social media tools to promote library services to patrons is not utilizing the full potential of these tools (Taylor and Francis, 2014; Appleton & Tattersall, 2015).

**Method**

In our study, we looked at 13 public libraries in Canada and the United States in order to assess their use of social media networks, and particularly Twitter, to communicate with their patrons. We gathered information from a variety of libraries, ranging from smaller provincial and county libraries to the largest libraries in North America. The libraries are located in the eastern, central and western parts of both countries, as well as in the northern and southern parts of the United States. Their annual budgets range from $2.8 million to almost $250 million and the number of cardholders from 24,000 to 3 million (see table 1).

All libraries in the sample had social media presence. We concentrated on their Twitter activities, but all of them also had Facebook pages and 9 libraries had Youtube channels. Eight libraries had Pinterest accounts, 6 Instagram, 4 Tumblr, 3 Flickr. Foursquare and Google+ were used by 2 libraries each, while LinkedIn, Yelp, History Pin, Soundcloud and Goodreads were used by 1 library each.

Table 1 summarizes the publicly available information about the libraries. It was gathered from respective libraries’ websites and their official Twitter accounts during January of 2016. We collected 1) all Twitter messages sent by the identified libraries, 2) all Twitter messages that mentioned these libraries, and 3) all replies to libraries’ messages from January 12, 2016 until January 26, 2016. The largest public libraries in our sample in terms of the number of cardholders/active users (over 1 million) are New York, Toronto, Los Angeles and Chicago. The next group of libraries (between 300,000 and 500,000) are San Francisco, Calgary, Montreal and Boston. It is followed by the libraries with 24,000 to 175,000 cardholders/active users—Halifax, Knox County (Tennessee), Newfoundland and Labrador, Miami-Dade, Cape Breton.

In terms of budget, the largest libraries (over $100,000,000 per year) are New York, Toronto, Los Angeles, Chicago and San Francisco. The next group (from $42,000,000 to $83,000,000 per year) includes Montreal, Miami-Dade, Calgary and Boston. The smallest group (from $2,700,000 to $23,50,000 per year) comprises Halifax, Knox County, Newfoundland, Cape Breton. It has to be noted that the dollar amounts obtained from libraries’ websites were published when Canadian and US dollars were more or less on par.

Collection wise, the largest libraries (over 10,000,000 items) are New York, Boston and Toronto. Next group (2,000,000 to 6,500,000 items) consists of Los Angeles, Chicago, Miami-Dade, San Francisco, Calgary and Montreal. The group with the smallest collections includes Halifax, Knox County, Newfoundland and Cape Breton (although we could not locate publicly available information regarding the two latter libraries’ holdings, it is safe to assume that they hold far less than 1,000,000 items).

At the moment of data collection, in January 2016, New York Public Library had the largest number of followers on Twitter – 1,130,000, while the next largest library, Toronto, had 34 times less followers - 32,900 – despite its number of cardholders (1,300,000) being only 2.4 times smaller than that of New York. At the same time, New York Public Library follows the least amount of other accounts in the sample (108).

In 2010, NYPL won the NonProfit PR Award: Use of Twitter by increasing its online presence and website visits through its @nypl handle. Among Twitter campaigns run by the library was a six-week advocacy campaign #SaveNYPL that it launched to fight a budget cut of $37 million - the harshest in its history. It developed a unique decentralized staffing model for coordinating social media effort that included creation of a social media working group to advance the use of Twitter and other social media channels. The group faced a challenge of coordinating over 100 social media accounts across library’s branches and divisions. In addition to using HootSuite dashboard, a popular tool for scheduling, monitoring and assigning tweets to staff for follow-up,
NYPL enlisted the help of SocialFlow to build the interest and traffic to their blogs via Twitter. SocialFlow, the leading social network optimization platform that “analyzes a customer’s real-time conversational data within their social streams and automatically delivers relevant social media content to the right audience at the right time for maximum engagement” (TLC to offer Social Flow to libraries, 2015, p. 9). As a result, @nypl following grew from just under 7,000 to over 90,000 in 2010, while the number of visits to nypl.org coming from Twitter increased by 353.98% over the previous year (Tinklepau, 2010; Brookes, 2011).

Taking into consideration the proportion of Twitter followers to the number of cardholders/active users, New York comes first with 36.22%. Halifax Public Library was the second best with 10.55%. For the remaining 11 libraries, this proportion on average is 2.77%, with Newfoundland and Labrador at 0.56% of followers to cardholders/active users.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Followers</th>
<th>Followers/Cardholders ratio %</th>
<th>Cardholders/active users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NYPL</td>
<td>1,309,690</td>
<td>182 mln</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPL</td>
<td>2,140,615</td>
<td>123 mln</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFL</td>
<td>3,118,477</td>
<td>245 mln</td>
<td>3,119,677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLP</td>
<td>184,328</td>
<td>109 mln</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHPL</td>
<td>169,420</td>
<td>104 mln</td>
<td>422,704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CKPL</td>
<td>139,031</td>
<td>102 mln</td>
<td>172,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTP</td>
<td>105,308</td>
<td>50 mln</td>
<td>1,016,541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFPL</td>
<td>104,408</td>
<td>42 mln</td>
<td>1,101,541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KFPL</td>
<td>4,807</td>
<td>23 mln</td>
<td>1,056,484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TKPL</td>
<td>84,386</td>
<td>14 mln</td>
<td>767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFL</td>
<td>25,600</td>
<td>7 mln</td>
<td>677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRPL</td>
<td>33,128</td>
<td>3 mln</td>
<td>212,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KLPL</td>
<td>30,294</td>
<td>7 mln</td>
<td>974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Los Angeles Public Library is unique because it’s number of followers (13,400) is almost identical to the number of likes it received (13,200). That is a 98.5%, with the Boston coming a distant second with 31% and the overall average for the sample being 22% of likes. Interestingly, New York Public Library only got 864 likes, which is 0.08% of the number of followers.

Data Collection Procedures and Evaluation Framework

In this study, we use a multi-dimensional approach to examine how public libraries in Canada and the USA use social media to communicate with their patrons. Four key dimensions were used to describe the type of communication occurring in the library networks. These dimensions are 1) velocity, 2) reciprocity, 3) centrality, and 4) message control.

In our data collection and analysis, we used a specific social media network analyzer called Netlytic. With its help, we collected all tweets posted by libraries in the sample and replied to them, as well as all tweets and retweets that mentioned these libraries from January 12 until January 26, 2016.

Netlytic is a Canadian “cloud-based text and social media analyzer that can automatically summarize large volumes of text and discover social networks from conversations on social media sites such as Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, blogs, online forums and chats” (Netlytic.org). This sophisticated tool allows researchers to build and visualize communication networks, making possible discovery and exploration of emerging social connections between individuals within online communities, and providing insights into the nature of the relationships between a library and its patrons.
Velocity. Velocity is a dimension that we use to describe how quickly a Twitter message spreads and resonates among library patrons. This dimension is measured by the network legitimation of messages and the library legitimation of messages.

The network legitimation of a message for Twitter is determined by the likelihood of a tweet to be retweeted within the network and the speed of this tweet’s spread. It is calculated by dividing the total number of retweets (within the network) by the number of all tweets and retweets, and then multiplying by 100. For example, we collected 2466 tweets that were either sent by Toronto Public Library or mentioned Toronto Public Library, as well as tweets sent in reply to Toronto Public Library’s tweets. Out of 2466 tweets, 1495 or 60% were retweets (1495/2466x100=60%). The highest percentage of retweets in the sample (74%) was observed in the New York Public Library network.

The library legitimation of messages was calculated by dividing the total number of a library’s tweets, being retweeted by other patrons, by the number of unique tweets sent by this library. For example, New York Public Library sent 154 unique tweets and these tweets were retweeted 4722 times (4722/154=30.66). This means that, on average, a message sent by New York Public Library was retweeted approximately 30 times.

Reciprocity. In our study, we define reciprocity as an ability to engage library patrons in two-way communication with a library and to initiate two-way communication among its patrons. We evaluated reciprocity using the following measures:

1. Organizational in/out ratio in name network
2. Organizational in/out ratio in chain network

In our analysis, we built two types of networks to analyze two-way communication, labelled ‘name’ network and ‘chain’ network (Netlytic.org). A name network (also known as a ‘who mentions whom’ network) is a communication network built from mining personal names in messages. The chain network (also known as a ‘who replies to whom’ network) is a communication network built based on participants’ posting behavior (Netlytic.org).

For example, for Calgary Public Library the total degree in name (‘who mentions whom’) network was 503. This number is composed of the in-degree value of 472 (the library’s Twitter account was mentioned 472 times in the collected tweets) and the out-degree value of 31 (the library mentioned 31 Twitter users in its messages). As to Calgary Public Library’s in/out ratio, it equals 15, the number derived from dividing 472 by 31. This means that Calgary Public Library was 15 times more often mentioned by other Twitter users in their messages than it mentioned other Twitter users in its own messages.

In terms of chain (‘who replies to whom’ network), for Calgary Public Library the total degree was 51 (in-degree = 41, out-degree = 10). The in/out ratio equaled 4.1, which means that Twitter users replied to the library’s tweets four times more often than the library replied to Twitter users’ tweets. Ideally, in a chain network, this number should be close to 1, which is the highest level of two-way communication between the library and its patrons and is an indicator of the library’s ability to effectively engage in conversations with its patrons and to entice its patrons to engage in conversations with each other. Overall, the lowest level of reciprocity was found for the New York Public Library.

Centrality. The centrality dimension is used to describe how centralized or decentralized a library’s Twitter network is, i.e. whether a library is playing a central role in initiating communication among its patrons. The centrality dimension identifies whether the library’s network is overall centralized or decentralized. The Netlytic tool calculates the centrality value automatically. According to Netlytic.org, “when a network has a high centralization value closer to 1, it suggests there are a few central participants who dominate the flow of information in the network. Networks with a low measurement of centralization, closer to 0, are considered to be decentralized, where information flows more freely between many participants.” Ideally, a balanced centrality is desirable, i.e. high centralization or high decentralization would be considered undesirable. The highest centrality value was found for Cape Breton Public Library, the lowest for New York Public Library.

Message control. The message control dimension is used to describe how well a library controls information flow within its network.
To understand the message control dimension, we first need to understand the concept of clusters in network visualization. According to Netlytic.org, “a cluster is a group of densely connected nodes that are more likely to communicate with each other than with nodes outside of the cluster.” The “node” in network analysis of Twitter usually represents a Twitter user who is involved in this communication network.

In the analysis of a library’s message control, it is very important to identify the following: 1) whether the library’s Twitter account is located in the major cluster as the central node of conversation; 2) whether major influencers are located in the same cluster as the library; and 3) what type of influencers the library has.

Identifying major influencers in a library’s Twitter network is very important in order to analyze the effectiveness of communication with its patrons. The major influencers in networks are identified by the size of the nodes, which is the same as a Twitter user’s total degree (as explained above in the discussion on Reciprocity). Major influencers or biggest nodes in the network are not necessarily the top posters in the network. The influencers may be active (actively share/post/retweet or reply to messages), passive (never or seldom share/post/retweet or reply to messages, but are often mentioned/replied to by other patrons) or balanced (actively share/post/retweet or reply and are often mentioned/replied to by other patrons). An influencer’s impact on a library’s network may be classified as high, medium, or low. The library should pay close attention to both high impact active influencers, as well as to high impact passive influencers, even though passive influencers are not active posters and therefore are not easily identifiable with the help of less sophisticated software applications. It is important to identify the location of major influencers within the network, i.e. whether major influencers are in the same cluster with the library or not.

Ten libraries in our sample had low to medium passive influencers in their networks. The New York Public Library is the only one library in our study that had a high impact passive influencer in its network. On January 15, 2016, this influencer, @paul1kirby, a Visiting Professor at the London School of Economics and Non-Executive Director at the Cabinet Office in the UK Government, sent one tweet “Before Google. People would call librarians with stupid questions. Love these 4 from @nypl New York Public Library https://t.co/n17OlnIoay”. This tweet went viral and was retweeted 8237 times by January 26, 2016. Paul Kirby is a prolific and popular poster. Since joining Twitter in September 2013, he tweeted and retweeted over 4,700 times. He follows 786 Twitter accounts and has over 8,000 followers. However, by tagging his post with @nypl, he got dozens of times more retweets and likes than he has for an average post. He acknowledged a month later that this was his most popular tweet in 2016 (see Figure 1).

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Graph 1 represents the New York Public Library network. This network consists of 28,599 messages posted on Twitter from January 12 till January 26, 2016. Out of over 28 thousand messages, 154 were sent by the New York Library, the rest of the messages were retweets, replies, and tweets which had mentioned the @nypl in the message. The NYPL network is relatively decentralised and consists of multiple clusters of conversations. The @nypl’s high impact passive influencer @paul1kirby is located in the first biggest cluster of the network (see Graph 2). The @nypl node is located in the second cluster and only one link (or one message) connects @paul1kirby with the @nypl, meaning that @paul1kirby’s cluster 1 constitutes a distinct conversation community from cluster 2 which has @nypl as its central node.
Discussion

In our study, we evaluated how public libraries in North America use Twitter to engage their patrons. We collected Twitter messages which were later examined using network analyses, based on four proposed dimensions: velocity, reciprocity, centrality and message control. We argue that the dimensions of velocity and reciprocity are two major factors in understanding the nature of Twitter messages, while the centrality and message control dimensions are very important in evaluating the impact on the flow of communication and the strength of connections between a library and its patrons. We found that New York Public Library and Halifax Public Library were the best in our sample of 13 libraries in engaging their patrons on Twitter. However, these
libraries have different approaches in how they use Twitter. The New York Public Library outperformed all other libraries on the velocity dimension. On average, a message sent by the New York Public Library is retweeted 31 times, due to the fact that it has 1,130,000 followers. This impressive number of followers makes its network somewhat decentralized, meaning that the library does not dominate the information flow in its network. Despite the fact that New York Public Library is so successful in velocity, i.e. in how quickly a Twitter message spreads and resonates among library patrons, they perform poorly on reciprocity and message control dimensions. Halifax Public Library outperformed New York Public Library on these dimensions, however, they did not do well on velocity. We conclude that replying to patrons’ tweets, following other Twitter users, mentioning patrons in messages, retweeting their patrons’ tweets, monitoring patrons’ conversations will lead to a better patron engagement.

References
Analysis of Gamification of Education

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Abstract
In the last decade, there has been considerable literature on gamification of education. Based on the resulting experience, the educational community indicate consensus on necessity of “gamification” of education to improve the quality of education. The study presented here is motivated by this necessity and aim to review literature related to the use of gamification of education.

“Gamification” is about motivation and engagement. Making learning fun does not require huge investments in technology. Instead, focusing on the ways that entertainment technology engages us can result in methods that we can transfer to any learning situation. Many educators have attempted, with varying degrees of success, to effectively operate game elements to increase student motivation and achievement in the classroom.

There have been many obstacles in their courses as the intellectual challenges of mastering the content of the course. To overcome these obstacles, students are expected to engage in critical thinking and push themselves to consider new ideas. In order to overcome these obstacles, a large collection of proven techniques such as abstraction, decomposition, iteration and recursion which has called computational thinking will be integrated to gamification of education.

Keywords: Gamification, gamification of education, computational thinking

Introduction
Gamification, defined by Deterding at al. as the use of game design elements in non-game contexts [1]. Also, gamification can be defined a process of providing affordances for gameful experiences which support the customers overall value creation [2].Although gamification has quite a few definitions; they all seem to show gamification to the goal of engagement and motivation.

Motivation and engagement are significant milestones for the completion of a task or confidence of a specific behavior. In today’s digital generation gamification in education has become a popular tactic to encourage specific behaviors and increase motivation and engagement. These are intelligent role because identifying, remembering and understanding were incorporating lower order, progressing to higher order thinking skills in subsequent levels such as analyzing, evaluating, critiquing, summarizing and finally arriving at the highest order thinking skills in the final levels as composing, creating, designing, planning and inventing [3].

There are two types of motivation such as extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation exists when motivation is aroused by forces outside of an individual. Intrinsic motivation is aroused from within an individual. Intrinsic motivation remains an important construct, reflecting the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate. However, extrinsic motivation is argued to vary considerably in its relative autonomy and thus can either reflect external control or true self-regulation.

The aim of this study to analyze the gamification of education and to build a framework related to this topic. Here I review the gamification characteristics, strengths and limitations in general. In addition to this, the underlying objective is to build a framework to understand the students’ point of view to use gamification in education. The next step of this study is to conduct a questionnaire for students and then to prepare a curriculum depend on their interest. At the end of statistical analyses of the data obtained by questionnaires, I will develop the most appropriate gamification tool based on students’ requirements and integrate it to the current education system within the University in Turkey.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 has included gamification in education analysis of gamification. Section 3 describes framework for development of an integrated module. Consequently, section 4 concludes the paper and prospects future work.
Gamification in Education

Computer science/IT educators are more preferred gamification. Utilizing gamification assumes a certain type of environment that supports incorporating and visualizing the selected game mechanisms and dynamics. I believe that the effective classroom adoption of gamification implies both certain technological infrastructure coupled with an appropriate instructional framework. Today’s course management systems, however still offer restricted support for gamifying courses. Since the general population of instructors lacks the necessary skills and time for creating, adopting, and/or maintaining an appropriate supportive technological infrastructure, the early application of gamification to learning emerged mainly in CS/IT disciplines. The lack of proper technological support is one of the major obstacles for applying game elements to education. Thus, the development of software tools that can efficiently support gamification in various educational contexts would contribute to a larger-scale adoption as well as to research on the feasibility and efficacy of the gamification of education.

Finding and sharing of new ways of applying gamification learning contexts that are not limited to extrinsic rewards like achievements and badges and that are more meaningful to the students is very important for increasing the application of this emerging technology in education. While the concept of gamification may look simple, the analyzed work demonstrates that gamifying learning effectively is not.

In the literature, there are underlying dynamics and concepts found in game design are shown to be more consistently successful than others when applied to learning environments, these are: freedom to fail, rapid feedback, progression, storytelling [4]. ‘Freedom to fail into classroom design is noted to be an effective dynamic in increasing student engagement. This dynamic provide student is using ongoing self-assessment or that the teacher is using ongoing assessment to inform their teaching [5]. Feedback is already a key element in education. If educators can increase feedback mechanisms, learners will have different ideas from different discipline. Progression has defined in the form of levels and missions throughout game design. Hackathorn and Lieberman used Bloom’s Taxonomy as a guide in designing the progression of the course. To illustrate this, lower order thinking skills into the first stages (identifying, remembering, understanding), higher order thinking skills in subsequent levels (analyzing, evaluating, critiquing, summarizing) and finally arriving at the highest order thinking skills in the final levels (composing, creating, designing, planning, inventing) [6]. Another aspect of game design that is called storytelling can positively impact learning in the classroom.

Framework for Development of a Gamification in Education

According to Werbach [7] gamification has put forward an iterative user centric six step: 1. Define objectives, 2. Delineate target behaviors, 3. Describe the players, 4. Devise the activity cycles, 5. Do not forget the fun, 6. Deploy the appropriate tools. The first five steps of this approach show the sociocultural aspect of gamification. And also step 6 is the deployment of technical components. Successful games use balanced combinations of some of these keys or categories.

The uses of educational games as learning tools reinforce not only knowledge but also important skills such as problem solving, collaboration and communication. Using gamification in education, improve learners’ engagement and motivation. Helping educators find the balance between achieving their objectives and catering to evolving student needs. Table show that result of the real world connections examples suggested by the experts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>Computer software, algorithms and electrical circuits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations, functions and operations</td>
<td>Machines, input/output and factory/product relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets</td>
<td>Classification of distinct objects which have common properties</td>
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<tr>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>Calculations in shopping, bank accounts and grades, word problems of numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polynomials</td>
<td>Architecture and civil engineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic equations, inequalities, and functions</td>
<td>Mathematics used in mechanics (vertical motion, speed and velocity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permutation, combination and probability</td>
<td>Actuary, statics and estimation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trigonometry</td>
<td>Architecture, engineering and measuring the length of objects on earth</td>
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<td>Complex numbers</td>
<td>Alternating current and electricity</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The intent of this study is to define gamification of education. Gamification directly effects engagement and motivation. Gamification also indirectly leads to acquiring more knowledge and skills. In addition to these, gamification encourages students to perform an action; for example, motivating students to practice computer programming will increase their skills and motivating students to memorize consistently can increase their knowledge.

Applying gamification strategies with technology to curriculums may often do a better job of teaching. However, it does not mean it should be a replacement for a comprehensive curriculum or face to face instruction.

**Conclusion and Future Work**

Gamification presents an opportunity to model and guide the enculturation process of computer science undergraduates. It also has the potential to make the matriculation journey more engaging for a broader range of students if done correctly. Understanding the current culture of CS and the readers department is critical to influencing change through gamification. This process, like any process that involves humans, needs to be adaptive and nondeterministic. What it means to be a computer scientist is subjective and the field of computer science is continuously changing. Werbach’s iterative design framework offers a good reference point for seeking change through gamification. Meaningful gamification should focus on creating engagement loops that motivate users to perform desired activity and can be done without explicit integration of game components. An in depth understanding of motivation and fun highlights why some approaches to gamification are not as successful as the researchers would have expected. Both internal and external feedback on the game mechanics and dynamics used are essential to ensure that any gamification process is objective and truly holistic in the development of the student [9].

According to Zichermann and Cunningham; gamification is the implementation of game based thinking or game mechanics in order to engage users and solve problems [10]. Gamification in education can be a powerful strategy when implemented properly, as it can enhance an education program and achieve learning objectives by influencing the behavior of students. So that, gamification of the classroom can leads to increased student engagement and success. The result of the study presented here in suggests gamification mechanics can provide an educational content for open minded students.

This is an ongoing project with increasing interest and involvement of educational experts. Further research will be conducted as proposed and scheduled. The final result of the study is expected to provide important evidence students and teachers. The optimum procedure for development of an integrated curriculum and the impact of deployed framework in quality of education. I suppose that instructors be able to integrate gamification strategies into course design to more effectively engage students.

**References**


Correlated-Features Sequence and Cognitive Strategy Education Based on Direct Instruction Model in Math Skills of Students with Special Needs

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Abstract
Math skills are one of the most important skills in daily and academic life for the individuals with special needs. As math skills have a hierarchical structure, students often encounter problems in math skills. Math education needs to be effectively designed for students with special needs. A well-designed curriculum constitutes the basis of the success. The Direct Instruction model differs from other models as it focuses on the generalization with long-term practices and the design of the curriculum. In Direct Instruction model, instruction needs to be analyzed in terms of content and the teacher needs to determine which association types the subjects are divided into within the content analysis. From the simple to the complex, association types are categorized as verbal associations (simple facts, verbal chains and discriminations), concepts, correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategies. The main purpose of the current study is to examine correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategy education based on the Direct Instruction model in math skills of students with special needs.

Keywords: Students with Special Needs, Math Skills, Correlated-Features Sequence Instruction, Cognitive Strategies Instruction, Direct Instruction Model.

Math, which has become an inseparable part of daily life activities, is becoming more and more important in the world (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 2000). Math has a significant place in everyone's life and math education is one of the most leading academic subjects which is considered critical for all individuals in both developed and developing societies. In classrooms, adaptations and arrangements are required in teaching mathematics not only for the students with special needs but for all students. It is pointed out in the studies that effective math education constitutes the basis of success of individuals in business and real life in the future (Bryant, Bryant, Kethley, Kim, Pool & Seo, 2008). Especially, individuals with special needs are required to have adequate acquisitions in math-related processes in order to adapt to the social life. As new concepts, terms, symbols and skills are being learned, previous skills need to be remembered and applied, as well.

The report of the National Mathematics Advisory Panel (2008) states the need for math curriculum that encourages student success and use the researched-based instructional strategies in maths. Achieving a level of mastery with basic math concepts for student is quite critical. Also special need of the student can further compromise student learning (Spear-Swerling, 2005). For instance, the studies show that students with learning disability have problems in recalling (Kavale & Forness, 1992; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1986; Cooney, & Swanson, 1986) and that children with emotional & behavioral disorder often have troubles with attention, memory and high-level thinking skills (Shaywitz, Escobar, Shaywitz, Fletcher, & Makuch, 1992). Individuals with special needs may have more difficulty in acquiring concepts, recalling the mathematical processes and rules as well as making them functional, and in analyzing mathematical problems (Butler, Miller, Lee & Pierce, 2001). Additionally, it was reported that students with special needs tended to drop out twice more than normally-developing students (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996). As math displays a high-level hierarchy (prerequisite skills), the problems especially in the basic skills (for example, counting with fingers/not having fluency in basic addition) make the processes more complicated (addition with carrying, etc.). Acquisition of a math skill greatly depends on the previous math skills. Therefore, math education needs to be designed in the best way that students can learn effectively. Instructional procedures, which are effective in functional math subjects, in accordance with the performances of the individuals with special needs are very important in understanding and applying academic subjects.

In effective instruction practices, one of the most important factors that affect the success of the student is the quality of the teacher (Billingsley & McLeskey, 2004). Therefore, it is very important for special education teachers to have the necessary educational background and experience to teach math skills to the students. Including effective teaching principles to help students acquire and generalize math concepts and skills are
practically explained. It is suggested in this approach that every child can learn when the factors of the teaching process offered to the student are well-controlled. In instructive approaches like Direct Instruction model, the role of the teacher in the learning process is well-defined and instruction skills are generalizable teaching strategies as well as written teaching processes (Engelmann & Carnine, 1991; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). Direct Instruction Model, theoretically based on the studies of Engelmann and Carnine (1981), emphasizes that the changes on students can be assessed and evaluated when a planned instruction is systematically offered to the students. In the model, the most significant characteristic of the instruction skills is that they do not vary from practice to practice and according to the personal styles of teachers. According to the Direct Instruction model, word problem solving instruction was proved to be efficient in the studies with different groups with special need. It was observed that the practices conducted by Bayram, Tuncer, and Karakoç (2002) according to the Direct Instruction model increased the performances of visually-impaired students. Furthermore, researchers examining cognitive strategies especially focus on teaching of multiplication (Irish, 2002), the teaching of test-solving steps (Kretlow, Lo, White, & Jordan, 2008) and addition & subtraction in fractions (Test & Ellis, 2005) in mathematics. There are extensive studies on other academic subjects such as physical sciences (King-Sears, Mercer, & Sindelar, 1992) and social sciences (Brigham, Scruggs, & Mastropieri, 1995). Yet, it is remarkable that uncorroborated traditional methods (e.g. modality instruction) rather than proven practices are often used at schools (Ysseldyke & Burns, 2009). The main purpose of the current study is to examine correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategy education based on Direct Instruction model in math skills of students with special needs and then to discuss the reflections of the studies in the literature.

The way to put these recommendations into practice may be to professionally develop the teachers and to enable them to use effective materials, and to encourage the teachers to use research-based practices (Sener & Belfiore, 2005). Walberg (1990) summarized the results of approximately 8000 studies. Based on the summary, one of the two common traits of the instruction methods supported with experimental evidences is overachievement expectation, and the other is incentives (Özyürek & Tuncer, 2003). One of the practices supported with experimental evidences is the Direct Instruction model. The most comprehensive research that tested the efficiency of the Direct Instruction model is Follow Through Project. Follow Through Project is the biggest educational research in history. The research was conducted with approximately 100,000 students in 170 residential areas. The Model was experimentally proved to be efficient with other studies conducted after the project as well.

According to the Direct Instruction model, word problem solving instruction was proved to be efficient in the studies with different groups with special need. It was observed that the practices conducted by Bayram, 2006, Tuncer, 2009, and Karakoç, 2002 according to the Direct Instruction model increased the word problem solving performances of visually-impaired students. Furthermore, researchers examining cognitive strategies especially focus on teaching of multiplication (Irish, 2002), the teaching of test-solving steps (Kretlow, Lo, White, & Jordan, 2008) and addition & subtraction in fractions (Test & Ellis, 2005) in mathematics. There are extensive studies on other academic subjects such as physical sciences (King-Sears, Mercer, & Sindelar, 1992) and social sciences (Brigham, Scruggs, & Mastropieri, 1995). Yet, it is remarkable that uncorroborated traditional methods (e.g. modality instruction) rather than proven practices are often used at schools (Ysseldyke & Burns, 2009). The main purpose of the current study is to examine correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategy education based on Direct Instruction model in math skills of students with special needs and then to discuss the reflections of the studies in the literature.

Direct Instruction Model

Direct Instruction Model was developed for the teaching of cognitive skills. The Model is described as a teacher-centered instruction model which focuses on curriculum design for the success of the student and which includes generalizable teaching strategies as well as written teaching processes (Engelmann & Carnine, 1991; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). Direct Instruction Model, theoretically based on the studies of Engelmann and Carnine (1981), emphasizes that the changes on students can be assessed and evaluated when a planned instruction is systematically offered to the students. In the model, the most significant characteristic of the instruction skills is that they do not vary from practice to practice and according to the personal styles of teachers. In Direct Instruction model, the role of the teacher in the learning process is well-defined and instruction skills are practically explained. It is suggested in this approach that every child can learn when the factors of the teaching process offered to the student are well-controlled. In instructive approaches like Direct Instruction model, the
importance of the factors such as supporting the curriculum in learning-teaching activities, selecting the examples to be presented for the teaching process, observing the improvement of the student, and systematically correcting the mistakes of the student is pointed out (Tuncer & Altunay, 2004).

The fact that the Direct Instruction model designs the instruction materials as well as the teaching process contributes to the students' reaching their objective in a short time. While designing the curriculum in Direct Instruction model, firstly, the content analysis should be conducted; in other words, it should be reviewed in terms of association types and "Big ideas" (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990; Kozloff, Lanunziata, Cowardin & Bessellieu, 2000/2001; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). The second important factor is open communication. Open communication is to organize a presentation in order that a student can make a maximum number of generalization out of the examples. The examples to be presented are carefully selected and arranged in an order so that the student can see the related and unrelated qualities of the concept. The third factor is the format of the instruction. Based on the association type with planned instruction, the teacher's way of presenting the examples, the questions to be asked to the students, and how to make a correction in incorrect responses are specified (Watkins & Slocum, 2003). The fourth factor is the ordering of skills. It is the teaching of easier skills before the harder ones (Carnine, Silbert, Kameenui & Tarver, 2004). Lastly, Direct Instruction Model has an organization which can be called as strand curricula (Przychodzin, Marchand-Martella, Martella & Azim, 2004). Thanks to the strand curricula, students have the chance to utilize various concepts and skills in wider concepts and to perform distinguishing practices (Watkins & Slocum, 2003). Carnine (1980) lists the help reduction, which is required in any well-designed curriculum, as follows: (1) from proceeding with open problem-solving strategies towards more closed problem-solving strategies, (2) from a simpler presentation towards a more complex context, (3) from performing a skill by taking clues towards performing it without a clue, (4) from massed exercises towards distributed exercises, (5) from instant feedback towards delayed feedback, (6) from the teacher as the information source to the student as the information source. There are four basic elements of the arrangement of teaching process in Direct Instruction Model. These are to group the students based on their educational needs, to utilize the instructional time, written teaching processes and to continuously evaluate the performance of the student.

Association Types in Direct Instruction Model
The fact that the teacher can discriminate the association types is very useful in instruction presentation and practice phases. Being aware of the type of association is very critical in terms of how to organize the class, how to select the examples, and what changes can be practiced on the teaching process.

![Diagram of Association Types](image)

**Verbal Associations and Concepts**

Verbal Associations are defined as the combination of a special stimulus and a special response type which constitutes the basis of high-level information (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). Verbal associations are categorized as simple facts, verbal chains, and discriminations. Basic addition (3 + 2 = 5) (simple facts), line counting, rhythmic counting (verbal chains) and numerical reading (discriminations) can be given as an example to verbal associations. Instruction phases are modeling, guided practice and independent practice. In modeling phase, the teacher instructs verbally or visually. In guided practice phase, the teacher and the student repeat the information together until it is ensured that students can express the information (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990; Marchand-Martella, Slocum, & Martella, 2004). Independent practice is the phase where the students express the information independently (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). Modeling and guided practice phases are the critical phases to enable the student to perform the independent practice.
Concepts differ from verbal associations in terms of content variation as well as example connection in order to use them (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). There are narrow and wide range of examples, example selection and sequence in concepts; however, in verbal associations, discriminating the other examples or recalling an example or examples arranged in order are required. A teacher who knows how to classify the concepts can specify the instructional requirements of concepts (example selection, sequence, presentation of teacher, etc.). The instruction of the concepts within the same concept variation shows similarity (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). For instance, the example sequence is the same in the instruction of "tilted" concept and "under" concept within the same concept variation; however, the example sequence differs in different concept groups. For example, the way followed in example selection and sequence to teach "more and less" concepts should be different from the way followed to teach "triangular prism, cube and sphere" concepts.

Correlated-Features Sequence
Kameenui and Simmons (1990) describe the correlated-features sequence as the proposition that determines the special relationship between at least two facts, discriminations or concepts. It is suggested that correlated-features sequence instruction can be utilized in order to present the connection between a stimulus and another event that occurs simultaneously, but cannot be observed (Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). "If the bottom number is higher than the top number, we break the decimal", "when we multiply a decimal with ten, we shift the comma to the right for one digit", "even if the place of the numbers changes, the result does not change in an addition process" can be given as an example to the correlated-features sequence.

The propositions regarding the correlated-features sequence also show which examples will be presented and how these examples will be figured for the presentation (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). Two questions are asked in the presentation of examples in correlated-features sequence. The first question enables to follow a routine by applying the rule specified in the proposition, and the second question enables to make a connection between the result and the proposition. For example, the teacher asks, "should we break a decimal?", and the student answers, "Yes". The teacher asks, "How do you know?", and the student answers, "the bottom number is higher than the top number".

Correlated-features sequence instruction differs as one-dimension inclusion and multiple-dimension inclusion. One-dimensional correlated-features sequence involves the relationship of an event or concept with another event or concept. If this relationship is one-dimensional, there are some principles to follow in order to organize a correlated-features sequence presentation. The correlated-features sequence to be taught in order to determine how to select the examples and how to arrange them in order is stated as a proposition. In order to determine if the proposition is a concept or if it contains another type of association, the proposition is resolved and the presentation sequence of the examples is determined based on this. As there are nouns in the proposition in some correlated-features sequences, the examples are sequenced as in the noun presentation. For example, the "on" concept is mentioned in the correlated-features sequence as "it is a full hour if the minute hand is on 12". As the "on" concept is a non-comparative sequences concept, the presentation is performed according to the example sequence of the non-comparative sequence concept. The teacher gives 3 positive "full hour" examples (01:00, 04:00, 08:00), and 2 negative examples considering that the first negative example is the least different example (08:10), and then asks the evaluation questions. An example of one-dimensional correlated-features sequence instruction is given in Table 1.

Some correlated-features sequences contain multiple dimensions. In such correlated-features sequences where two features are together, the presentation starts with the positive example. Some correlated-features sequences carry one or another of a few dimensions. In such correlated-features sequences, the presentation starts with the negative example. If the presentation starts with the negative example, the assessment is clearly seen (Engelmann & Carnine, 1991).Most of the rules in math field constitute the basis of high-level cognitive strategies. For example, the fact that a student learns when to use the carrying method makes it easier to make "addition with carrying" by using the rule of carrying method later. Therefore, it is very important for the student to learn these rules and to use them fluently in order to utilize them within cognitive strategies.

Table Example 1 and 2 show two sequences that derive from the fact; If you make the top and bottom of the fraction the same, you make a fraction the same, you make a fraction that equals one whole. The first sequence treats the relationship as a single-dimension discrimination and places a choice-response test. The second sequence treats the relationship as a transformation and requires the learner to different transformation responses. The sequence starts with a negative and three positives, The learner needs to categorize each example (Engelmann, S. & Carnine, D., 1991).
Table Example 1. A Choice-Response Sequence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Wording</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 5/4</td>
<td>My turn. Does this fraction equal one? No. How do you know? Because the top and bottom are not the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 4/4</td>
<td>My turn, again. Does this fraction equal one? Yes. How do you know? Because the top and bottom are the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 98/98</td>
<td>Your turn. Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 7R/7R</td>
<td>Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 7/7R</td>
<td>Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 14/8</td>
<td>Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 12/12</td>
<td>Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. 81/5</td>
<td>Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. 241P/241P</td>
<td>Does this fraction equal one? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table Example 2. A Transformation Sequence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Wording</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 12D/___=1</td>
<td>I am going to show fractions that equal one, but part of each fraction is missing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 12/___=1</td>
<td>My turn to say the fraction that equals one: 12D over 12D. How do I know 12D over 12D equals one? Because the top and bottom are the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 2/___=1</td>
<td>My turn again: What fraction equals one? 12D over 12. How do I know it equals one? Because the top and bottom are the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ___/2=1</td>
<td>Your turn: Say the fraction that equals one. How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ___/17=1</td>
<td>Say the fraction that equals one. How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ___/3+R=1</td>
<td>Say the fraction that equals one. How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 100R/___=1</td>
<td>Say the fraction that equals one. How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ___/2=1</td>
<td>Say the fraction that equals one. How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. 5R/___=1</td>
<td>Say the fraction that equals one. How do you know?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Table 1 and 2 are taken from the book of Theory of Instruction: Principles and applications by Engelmann, S. & Carnine, D., 1991.

Cognitive Strategies

Kameenui and Simmons (1990) defined cognitive strategy as the process of using a series of simple facts, verbal chains, discriminations, concepts and rules together with the purpose of solving a problem. As a cognitive strategy contains various data such as concept and correlated-features sequence, students need to master these skills. Although the majority of the success of a student at school depends on recalling the information in exams and keeping them in mind is discussed, there are researches in literature regarding that cognitive strategies enhance the students' data-coding & memorizing skills, and contribute to the class performance of the students as well as their success in standard exams (Scruggs, T. E., Mastropieri, M. A., & Boon, R., 1998). Cognitive strategies need to be presented in a way to enable the student to reach high-level knowledge and generalization by using the previously-learned data (Gajria, M., Jitendra, A. K., Sood, S., & Sacks, G., 2007). Many skills taking part in math curriculum are cognitive strategy skills. Addition with multi-digit numbers (related skills: correlated-features sequence as addition with carrying if the number obtained after addition is not single-digit, discriminating the units, tens and hundreds digit, mastering the basic operations), hour-reading (related skills: counting up to 60 in fives, numerical reading, discriminating the hour and minute hand, past & to rules), calculating the slope of the line, etc. can be given as an example to the cognitive strategies which contribute to high-level thinking (Kozloff, 2004). Word problem solving skill is a cognitive strategy skill. Word math problems require the utilization of well-known math skills to solve an unknown problem. As the instruction of calculation skills are prioritized in math, students have difficulty in solving math problems (Tuncer, 2009).

Cognitive strategies instruction is designed in a way to reduce the help of the teacher from the maximum structuring to the minimum structuring. In a fully-structured presentation, the teacher leads the students with the help of the simplifying questions and/or instructions in order to enable them to create a new skill by using the
previously-learned concepts and skills. And then, the teacher reduces the questions and instructions to help the student be independent in using the strategy. For example, after teaching the correlated-features sequence as “if the first number of the divided is equal to or higher than the divisor, we underline the first number” and “if the first number of the divided is lower than the divisor, we underline the first two numbers”, the presentation structured to do the process independently performs the process right after the worksheet practice structured by handing out the papers containing the division operations, as well as the worksheet practice less-structured by withdrawing the clues. It is observed that cognitive strategies instruction is an effective technique which is used in both acquisition and long-term recall of important data (Sener & Belfiore, 2005). An example of cognitive strategies instruction is given in Table 3.

Table 3 shows an example. Adding Two Numerals with Renaming

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHER</th>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART A: STRUCTURED BOARD PRESENTATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Write the following problems on the board.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36+27=</td>
<td>36+27=how many?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48+26=</td>
<td>The ones column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26+16=</td>
<td>6+7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Read this problem as 1 point.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What column do we start working in?</td>
<td>On top of the tens column.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What are the first two numbers we are going to add?</td>
<td>Under the ones column.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To correct: Point to 6 and 7. Repeat step 3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What is 6+7?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. We have a problem. Thirteen equals 1 ten and 3 ones. We can’t have a 10 in the ones column, so we put the 1 ten at the top of the tens column. Where do we put the 10? (Write 1 over 3.) We write three ones under the ones column. Where do we put the three ones? (Write 3 under 7)</td>
<td>1+3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What are the first two numbers to add in the tens column?</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What does 1 and 3 equal? (Pause)</td>
<td>4+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now what two numbers will we add?</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is 4+2?</td>
<td>6tens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many tens do we end up with?</td>
<td>We end up with 6tens, so I will write 6 under the tens column.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Write 6 in the tens column)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. We are finished. (Point to 63) What does 36+27 equal?</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read the problems and say the answer.</td>
<td>36+27=63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Repeat steps 1-5 with remaining problems.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PART B: STRUCTURED WORKSHEET PRESENTATION**

(Students have worksheet with the following problems.)

45+38= 45+38=how many? |
| 57+37= | The ones |
| 36+16= | 5+8 |
| 47+26= | 13 |
| 1. Touch the first problem on your worksheet. Read the problem. | 1 ten and 3 ones |
| 2. What column do you start working? (Pause) | No |
| What are the first two numbers you are going to add? | On top of the tens column. |
| What is 5+8? (Pause) | |
| 3. There is a problem. What does 13 equal? | |
| Can we have a ten in the ones column? | |
| So where do you put the ten? | |
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Write 1 on top of the tens column. (Monitor student responses)  

13 equals 1 ten and 3 ones  

How many are left?  

Write them under the ones column. (Check)  

4. Look at the tens column. What are the first two numbers to add in the tens column?  

What is 1+4? (Pause)  

Now what numbers will you add?  

What is 5+3?  

How many tens do you end up with?  

Write the tens under the tens column. (Monitor student responses)  

1+4  

5. You have finished. What does 45+38 equal?  

Read the problem and say the answer.  

45+38=83  

(Repeat steps 1-5 with remaining examples.)  

PART C: LESS STRUCTURED WORKSHEET  

(Give students a worksheet containing some problems that involve renaming and some that do not.)  

47+25=  

78+21=  

53+24=  

56+36=  

42-31=  

75-23=  

78+18=  

26+43=  

1. Everyone, read problem one on your worksheet.  

What type of problem is this, addition or subtraction?  

Addition  

2. What are the first two numbers you add?  

What is 7+5? (Pause)  

12  

3. Do you have to move a ten over to the tens column?  

Yes  

4. Now work the problem on your own. (Pause)  

5. What does 47+25 equal?  

72  

(Repeat steps 1-5 with remaining problems)  

Note: Table 3 is taken from the book of *Designing Effective Mathematics Instruction: A direct instruction approach* by Stein, M., Kinder, D., Silbert, J., & Carnine, D. W., 2005.  

Discussion  

In Direct Instruction model, the instructions presented in the lessons based on the association types simplify the teaching practices of the teacher. The teacher does not hesitate about the teaching process and knows exactly how to withdraw the clues and how to present the examples. In the model, the most significant characteristic of the instruction skills is that they do not vary from practice to practice and according to the personal styles of teachers. In Direct Instruction Model, the role of the teacher is specified and the instruction skills are practically defined (Altunay, 2008). In Direct Instruction Model, factors influencing the learning process can be categorized as designing the teaching curricula, selecting the examples to be presented and their sequencing, monitoring student progress and correcting student mistakes. When teachers consider the principles of Direct Instruction model, they can easily observe the changes in student behaviours (Engelmann &Carnine, 1991; Tuncer& Altunay, 2004). Furthermore, it is observed that the students are highly motivated and learn permanently as a result of the instructions which progress cumulatively. Also, it is very important to include the expanded teaching and worksheet items in Direct Instruction model, so that the students can master their math skills. Moreover, the teachers need to know how to conduct strategic integration into the subjects, how to review and evaluate, and how to apply the process of correcting mistakes in math classes.  

The present study contributes to the literature on teaching math considering correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategy education based on Direct Instruction model in math skills of students with special needs. In this context, it is vital that students with special needs continue to be taught correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategy education as well as test-taking strategies. Although valuable attempts have been suggested in order to conceptualize how to gain access to the general curriculum for students with special needs, more efforts are necessary to fulfill the gap. Teachers need to take into consideration the process through which the
educational programs of students with special needs. Overall, it is critical to use evidence-based practices in education in order to accomplish effective results from the curricula created for the education of the individuals with special needs. Evidence-based practices are the instruction techniques which fill the gap between research and practice, and which are supported with significant researches in terms of their efficiency in developing the acquisition of students (Slavin, 2002). Yet, teachers need to use more evidence-based practices in their classrooms. There is a need to build a bridge between the teacher’s practice in class and the research that highlights the effectiveness of the practice (Carnine, 1997; Cook & Schirmer, 2006).

While many of the support services and accommodations that students with special education might create a dependent environment while providing the support (e.g., notetaking), strategies suggest independency by decreasing external assistance. Strategies help students in taking the responsibility of their learning. Furthermore, generalizing strategic learning skills in new situations might be helpful for the well-being of the individuals with special needs.

In conclusion, as math skills have a hierarchical structure, math education needs to be designed in an effective way considering the requirements of the students with special needs. A well-designed and effective curriculum plays an important role, as well. In a review of research literature on the Direct Instruction model, it is noticeable that the Direct Instruction model differs from other models as it focuses on the generalization with long-term practices and the design of curriculum. In the present study, the Direct Instruction model is introduced as well as the significance and practices of the correlated-features sequence and cognitive strategies, which are the two of the association types described in the model, in math education.

References


Effectiveness of Direct Instruction Model in Acquisition and Maintenance of Geometric Shape Concepts for Students with Visual Impairment

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of Direct Instruction model in acquisition and maintenance of geometric shape concepts for students with visual impairment. Three 1st grade students attending an urban primary public school for visually impaired students participated in this study. The design of the study is a multiple probe-across-patricipants design. Criterion-referenced tests were developed and conducted to assess the sphere concept in participating students. The results of the study showed that the Direct Instruction model is effective on the concept acquisition and maintenance in all the participants. Generalization data showed that the sphere concept was mastered by the participants. Social Validity data revealed that all students enjoyed the intervention. Results of the study were discussed and recommendations for further research were provided.

Keywords: Visual Impairment, Concept Acquisition, Direct Instruction Model.

Concepts play a significant role in reasoning, classifying, learning, memory, deduction, language comprehension and language production, explanation, inference, problem solving and generalization (Özmen-Güzel & Ünal, 2008; Thagard, 1992). Concepts are mental representations of objects, events, actions, qualities, or relationships and other item classifications; therefore, individuals often use concepts to communicate in their daily lives (Jonassen, 2006). Concept learning consists of generalization among different examples and discrimination between examples and nonexamples (Hayes & Conway, 2000; Park & Tennyson, 1986; Özmen-Güzel & Ünal, 2008). However, one of the major limitations of visual impairment is the concept range and variety (Hill & Blasch, 1980). A great number of students learn so many concepts through different activities. They observe, experience and understand the world with the help of these facilities (Markle, 1975). Concept development for an individual with visual impairment provides a good background for learning academic, social and psychomotor skills. Mobility oriented basic concepts such as body schema, body concept and body awareness including body image, body parts and figure, right-left side, directions, spatial and environmental concepts are critical for the individuals with visual impairment. Moreover, the acquisition of geometric shape concepts and measurement skills facilitates the examination of the environment. Therefore, knowledge of geometric shape concepts enables the visually impaired person to use objects as clues while moving around.

Geometry is both a learning area and a tool to comprehend and interpret the world we live in (National Council for Teachers of Maths, NCTM, 2000). Mastering in geometry assists individuals to generalize acquired concept knowledge, to think critically and to explain the information concretely (Battista, 2007; Clements, 1998). Additionally, some certain factors affect geometry learning process such as teaching method, teacher qualifications, student attitudes, student readiness, families, teachers and physical conditions (Messick & Reynolds, 1992). In this context, teaching programmes need improvement to avoid student failure (Sener & Belfiore, 2005). In the literature, there have been a number of studies related to Concept-Instruction (Gagne, 1965; Merrill and Tennyson, 1977; Bruner, 1961) and Direct Instruction model (Engelmann & Carnine, 1982). Direct Instruction model (Engelmann & Carnine, 1991) provides a presentation of concepts through concept instruction and schematic organizers. Kircali-Iftar, Birkan and Uysal (1998) compared the structured language to the natural language presentation on colours and shapes for the mentally impaired through Gagne model. The presentation with natural language was found more effective. Furthermore, Özmen-Güzel and Ünal (2008) compared the effectiveness of Gagne model to Merrill and Tennyson model in teaching the mentally impaired the concepts of square and triangle. According to the results, two students succeeded in Gagne model and two in both of the models. The purpose of this study is to present the effectiveness of Direct Instruction Model in acquisition and maintenance of geometric shape concepts for the visually impaired students.
Direct Instruction Model was developed for the teaching of cognitive skills. The Model has been defined as a teacher-centered instruction model which focuses on curriculum design for the success of the student and which includes generalizable teaching presentations, assessments and strategies as well as written teaching processes (Engelmann and Carnine, 1991; Tuncer and Altunay, 2004). Direct Instruction Model, theoretically based on the studies of Engelmann and Carnine (1981), emphasizes the principle that the changes on students can be assessed and evaluated when a planned instruction is systematically offered to the students. In the Model, the most important feature of the instruction skills is that they do not show variations from practice to practice and according to the personal characteristics of teachers. In Direct Instruction Model, the role of the teacher in the learning process was specified and the instruction skills were practically defined. It is suggested that every child can learn when the elements of the teaching process offered to the student are well-controlled. The importance of the elements such as supporting the curriculum in learning-teaching activities, choosing the examples to be presented for the teaching process, observing the improvement of the student, and systematically correcting the mistakes of the student have been pointed out (Tuncer & Altunay, 2004).

In Direct Instruction Model, factors influencing the learning process can be categorized as designing the teaching curricula, selecting the examples to be presented, and their sequencing, monitoring student progress and correcting student mistakes. When teachers consider the principles of Direct Instruction model, they can easily observe the changes in student behaviours (Engelmann &Carnine, 1991; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). Three different types of Direct Instruction Model exist; non-comparative sequences, comparative single-dimension sequences and nouns. Non-comparative sequences are concepts that cannot be explained without showing the concept examples or their synonyms (Altunay, 2008; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). In a non-comparative sequence presentation, a case has been labelled; while in comparative sequence, change from one condition to another has been labelled. Both types of arrangement of examples in teaching are similar. In the positive-first sequences, two negative examples follow the three positive examples and assessment starts with the positive example with miscellaneous questions. In the negative-first sequences, three positive examples follow the two negative examples and assessment starts with the negative examples. Teaching of such a sequence has been completed according to a “continuous cycle” where changes between examples occur quickly. In the comparative sequence, a reference example is available for students to be able to compare with the first example. Error correction processes of both sequences are similar.

The geometric shapes used for instruction in this study belong to the noun category. Nouns are multi-dimensional concepts, defined as labels for object classes such as, trucks, numbers, letters and geometric shapes. Some nouns entail sub-categories called higher-order nouns. Hierarchically, examples of the higher order nouns are furniture, vegetables and clothes.

The arrangement in teaching nouns starts with three positive examples and assessment begins with two positive examples. If the student has already labelled a geometric shape, newly learnt concept has been questioned randomly. For instance, while teaching the concept “circle” to the student who has already known the concept examples or their synonyms (Altunay, 2008; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004). In a non-comparative sequence presentation, a case has been labelled; while in comparative sequence, change from one condition to another has been labelled. Both types of arrangement of examples in teaching are similar. In the positive-first sequences, two negative examples follow the three positive examples and assessment starts with the positive example with miscellaneous questions. In the negative-first sequences, three positive examples follow the two negative examples and assessment starts with the negative examples. Teaching of such a sequence has been completed according to a “continuous cycle” where changes between examples occur quickly. In the comparative sequence, a reference example is available for students to be able to compare with the first example. Error correction processes of both sequences are similar.

Several principles need to be considered in preparing the concept presentation. Engelmann and Carnine (1982) developed five principles for sequencing and ordering examples. (1) The wording principle: Presenting all the examples with the same statements. To make the sequence as clear as possible, same wording should be used on all items. (2) The set-up principle: Examples and non-examples selected for the initial teaching of concept should represent a great number of possible irrelevant features. It is suggested to use the same material for both material presentation and assessment. For example, while teaching the concept “on”, only “order and box” can be used to focus on the changing position of the box (for relatedness). (3) The difference principle: In order to visualize the limits of a concept, we should demonstrate examples and non-examples that are similar to one another except in the critical feature and indicate that they are different. (4) The sameness principle: To show the range of variation of the concept, we should use the examples of the concept that differ from one another as much as possible. Yet, it still illustrates the concept and indicates that they are the same. (5) The testing principle: To test the acquisition, we had better present new, untaught examples and non-examples in a random order (Watkins & Slocum, 2004).

Concept teaching within the same concept group shows similarities (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). For example, in the instruction of the concepts “cylinder” and “cat”, since they belong to the same group, their instruction shows similarities. Presentations with a single set have the risk of generalisation. To eliminate, presentation with
more sets and expanded teaching are necessary. Expanding teaching in Direct Instruction Model are divided into four: (a) manipulative tasks, (b) fooler games, (c) implied-conclusion tasks and (d) event-centered tasks.

A significant body of research demonstrated that Direct Instruction Model has been effective in teaching concepts. Granzin and Carnine (1977) investigated the effect of diversifying the examples in concept presentation on concept learning. Carnine (1980a) conducted a study with 65 children aged 4-6 to identify how negative examples in concept presentation affect concept learning. Results indicate that the group which received training with the set showing the least dissimilarity between the negative and positive examples for the negative examples, showed considerably higher numbers of accurate behaviours. Besides, Carnine (1980b) analysed the effects of varying the discrete features in concept presentation examples on the pace of concept acquisition. Gersten, White, Falco and Carnine (1982) examined the effects of differentiation while presenting the concepts statically or dynamically to children with or without disabilities in terms of concept acquisition rate. The results confirm that presenting the concepts through a continuous cycle to children with or without disability lead to quicker acquisition of the concepts. Literature lacks studies on teaching geometric shape concepts considering the principles of the Direct Instruction Model to the students with visual impairment. This study will serve as an important source to investigate the effectiveness of the Direct Instruction model on geometric shape concept teaching and identifying instructional design variables that are effective on the concept learning of the visually impaired students.

Method

Participants and Setting

Three 1st grade primary public school students with visual impairment attending an urban public school participated in this study. The participants in this study had not attended Pre-Primary education. The students were also Braille-literate. Specifically, each student referred for this study: (a) was able to label two dimensional geometric shapes and cylinder as a three dimensional shape, (b) was able to speak four-or-five-word sentences, (c) was only visually impaired, (d) was able to label the sphere concept, (e) had not been exposed to Direct Instruction prior to this study, (f) was ranging in age from 7 to 8. The chronological ages of three participants are as follows: the first participant was 7 years old; the second participant was 7 years and 6 months old and the third participant was 8 years old. The third participant was a boy and the remaining participants were girls. The study was conducted in the reading room, under the guidance of the first researcher. In order to assess inter-observer agreement and treatment integrity, a video-camera was used to record all the sessions.

Experimental design

As Kazdin (1978) have indicated, the rationale of single-subject designs is to compare the performance of the participants under different conditions. In this study, a multiple probe-across-participants design was used to demonstrate the effectiveness of Direct Instruction model in acquisition and maintenance of geometric shape concepts to students with visual impairment. In the multiple-probe design, prior to the intervention (independent variable) being introduced, probe data were collected for any case (behaviour, setting or participant). In the first case, baseline data were collected in sequential three sessions. When the baseline data show stability, the intervention (independent variable) was introduced to the first case (Tawney ve Gast, 1984). When the criteria were met or the baseline data showed stability in the first case, baseline data were collected for the second case. For other cases, probe data were also collected. This process continued until all the cases received the intervention (Güzel, 1998). Additionally, multiple-probe procedures suggest cost effective data collection time (Murphy & Bryan, 1980). The dependent variable of the study was the achievement level of meeting the goals of the sphere concept. Considering the principles of the Direct Instruction model, the independent variable was the teaching of the sphere concept. For each student, experimental procedures were applied for a week. The experimental process was conducted in two sessions per day. In order to collect data, criterion-reference tests were developed. The last objective attained by the participant was recorded on a graph during baseline and after the intervention and in the maintenance. Also maintenance data were collected to determine the effectiveness of the concept acquired by the participant.

Baseline. In order to collect the data, sphere-criterion referenced tests were conducted individually and participants’ performance level for the sphere concept was determined in three sequential sessions. When the data of the intervention from the first participant showed stability, baseline data of the second participant were collected in three sequential sessions and accordingly, and probe data of the third participant were collected in a single session. When the intervention data of the second participant showed stability, baseline data of the third participant were collected in three sequential sessions.
Intervention. After collecting steady baseline data, the first participant was instructed about the sphere concept considering the principles of Direct Instruction model and the sphere concept was taught individually. Criterion-references test was applied at the end of each intervention session.

Maintenance and generalization. Maintenance data were collected at 15, 25 & 35 days post intervention. The Criterion-referenced test of the acquired concept was applied to determine the performance level of the participants. Generalization data were collected once during baseline and once after intervention. During generalization, each student was asked to apply different geometric shape concepts into various situations.

Instructional procedures
Prior to the instruction, instructional procedures of the sphere concept were designed considering the principles and sample order of Direct Instruction model. After presenting three positive nouns, assessment was given accordingly. During the presentation, the objects were shown and labelled by saying that “this is spherical”. Assessment also started with two positive statements used in the presentation before. Considering the assessment principles (the number of positive examples should outnumber that of negative, examples need to follow an unpredictable sequence). The concepts which the participants had already labelled and acquired recently were questioned randomly. The presentation and assessment lasted 5-6 minutes per student. Table 1 shows the presentation of the sphere concept including examples.

Table 1. Table 1 Shows the Presentation of the Sphere Concept Including the Examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Presentation of the Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ![Image](1. positive example) | (1. positive example)  
Spherical |
| ![Image](2. positive example) | (2. positive example)  
Spherical |
| ![Image](3. positive example) | (3. positive example)  
Spherical |
| ![Image](Assessment) | Assessment  
(1. Assessment Question)(One of the examples used in the presentation before)  
What shape is it? |
| ![Image](2. Assessment Question) | (2. Assessment Question)(One of the examples used in the presentation before)  
What shape is it? |
| ![Image](3. Assessment Question) | (3. Assessment Question)  
What shape is it? |
| ![Image](4. Assessment Question) | (4. Assessment Question)  
What shape is it? |
| ![Image](5. Assessment Question) | (5. Assessment Question)  
What shape is it? |
| ![Image](6. Assessment Question) | (6. Assessment Question)  
What shape is it? |
Data collection
In order to collect research data, criterion-referenced tests were designed including ten labelling questions and generalization questions. Criterion-reference tests were applied prior to the intervention to determine baseline for each participant. Extension questions were asked to determine whether students were able to generalise acquired knowledge to different situations. A Criterion-reference test was conducted in the maintenance phase. Maintenance data were collected at 15, 25 & 35 days post intervention to determine whether the participants maintained acquired knowledge. During the criterion-referenced test, the researcher gave a sphere shaped object to the participant and said, “Examine it”. Physical assistance was provided when the student had difficulty with examining process. The researcher asked to the participant “Tell me its shape”. All sessions were videotaped.

Scoring procedures and data analysis
During the assessment with the Criterion-referenced test, %100 criterion principle was taken into consideration. When the participant responded all the ten questions in the test, it was accepted that the objective of the study was fulfilled. In this study, the performance of each participant was recorded in the phases of baseline, intervention and maintenance. Data were visualized in the graph.

Inter-observer agreement and treatment integrity
Agreement was assessed through the use of a second observer independently observing 35% of the recorded sessions across baseline, intervention, and maintenance equally distributed across the three students. Percentage of agreement was calculated by dividing the number of agreements plus disagreements, then multiplying by 100 (Barlow & Hersen, 1984). Inter observer agreement ranged from 98%–100% (X = 99%), and for generalization ranged from 98%–100% (X = 99%). Procedural integrity was monitored by a second observer during 25% of the all sessions. Integrity was assessed for teacher’s oral presentation, example sequencing and assessment principles. Procedural integrity was 100% across all session components.

Social validity
Social validity is referred to ascertain practice of a socially favourable study and to detect its socially momentous effects (Foster & Mash, 1999; Wolf, 1978). An important measure of a study’s success depends on its social acceptability or validity. Wolf (1978) suggests that assessing the goal significance, appropriateness of method and significance of consequences to identify the social validity of a practice is critical. As for social validity, a Likert-type questionnaire was developed and conducted on an individual basis. Results of the social validity questionnaires showed that all the students participated (n=3) liked the intervention very much. Within education, a single-subject research was used to determine main characteristics of behavior (e.g., theory) and to report interventions (independent variables) that practically changed in socially significant results (dependent variables) (Wolf, 1978).

Results
Figure 1 shows the baseline, the intervention and the maintenance data for the three participants with visual impairment. The performance levels of three participants towards the geometric shape concept are graphed on Figure 1. As it was seen in the graph the first participant was unable to perform any objective. She could not label the sphere concept for three sessions. In the intervention sessions, sphere concept instruction was presented considering the principles of Direct Instruction model. The first participant labelled sphere concept with 100% performance level in the assessment at the end of the intervention. While the baseline data were collected for the first participant, the probe data of the second and the third participant were collected. When the intervention data of the first participant showed stability, baseline data of the second participant were collected in three sequential
sessions and one more probe data of the third participant were collected. Second participant were not able to perform any objective. After the intervention, the assessment data showed that second participant labelled the sphere concept with a 100% performance level. When the intervention data of the second participant showed stability, baseline data of the third participant were collected in three sequential sessions. Third participant were not able to perform any objective. After the intervention, the assessment data showed that third participant labelled concept sphere with a 100% performance level. In order to determine whether the participants maintained acquired knowledge or not, maintenance data were collected at 15, 25 & 35 days post intervention. In the light of maintenance data, it can be easily stated that the participants were able to label concept shapes after a while. After the instructional process, extension activities were practised. Extension activities (generalization) are highly important for the permanence of the concepts. Figure 2 shows the performance levels of the participants in the generalization phase.

Figure 1
Figure 1 shows the baseline, intervention and maintenance data of the participants.
Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to show the effectiveness of direct instruction model in acquisition and maintenance of geometric shape concepts to students with visual impairment. Results indicated that the Direct Instruction model was more effective than the traditional model in teaching concepts. Results also demonstrated that Direct Instruction model was highly effective with these students. In addition, the evidence from this study suggested that Direct Instruction model required less instruction time with all three participants. In this study real-life materials were used for labelling the sphere concept (ball). In a study by Fielding, Kameenui and Gersten (1983) stated that using authentic materials like a ‘ball’ in Direct Instruction model facilitates student success. This also supports the results of the current study. In general, the results indicated that the Direct Instruction model was effective on the sphere concept acquisition and maintenance for all students. Previous studies showed that students’ ability to focus on the attribution of examples and their overall attention increase when the language used in concept instructions is clear and straightforward (Engelmann & Carnine, 1991; Tuncer & Altunay, 2004; Özmen & Unal, 2008).

In Direct Instruction Model, the instructions are prepared based on the association types enchance the teaching practices of the teacher. The teacher knows how to withdraw the clues and how to present the examples. In the Model, the most important feature of the instruction skills is that they do not vary from practice to practice and according to the personal styles of teachers. In Direct Instruction Model, the role of the teacher in the learning process of the individual was defined and the instruction skills were exactly explained (Altunay, 2008). Furthermore, it is observed that the students are highly motivated and learn permanently as a result of the instructions which progress cumulatively. Also, it is highlighted that including the expanded teaching and worksheet items in Direct Instruction Model helps students to master their acquired knowledge. Therefore, the teachers need to know how to conduct the subject, how to review and evaluate, and how to apply the process of correcting mistakes in teaching.

In conclusion, evidence from this study supported the Direct Instruction model in teaching academic concepts to students with visual impairment. It is important to use evidence-based practices in education in order to result in effective outcomes from the curricula created for the education of the individuals with special needs. The interventions that positively affect the performance of the student need to be applied in classes. That is why it is critical to build a bridge between the teaching process in class and the research that suggests the efficiency of the practice (Carnine, 1997; Cook &Schirmer, 2006). Yet, evidence-based practices are the instruction techniques which fills the gap between research and practice.

In future research, the researchers have demonstrated the success of this model within a primary school setting for students with visual impairment. This study targeted only three students in a 1st grade classroom in Turkey, further research with different grade level, subject level, and countries programs are warranted to note generalized effects. Therefore, this study suggests that the effectiveness of Direct Instruction model in teaching
different concepts should be compared with students from different age groups and different special needs, too. The above-mentioned results of the current study and the following constraints should prompt future research in other academic areas within the Turkish education system. But more importantly, this study provides a systematic research model to evaluate research-based academic model in an applied setting. Instituting such an applied research model must be expanded within the Turkish public education system to further assist those students in need of academic support, both for qualifying for special education services and for general education services. To break the cycle of students’ learning failure, the awareness in Turkey regarding the special education and specific learning disabilities should improve with the support of the governments’ education programs (Sener & Belfiore, 2005). The result of such an applied research agenda for Turkish public education will only benefit all involved, promoting educational success for all students.

A primary purpose of the present study was to provide further evidence on the effectiveness of concept instruction considering the Direct Instruction model. The potential significance of such evidence for teacher educators lies mostly in the good options it might suggest for effective concept instruction. Concept Instruction considering the principles of the Direct Instructional model might as well require well-designed protocols. With the growing demand for accountability and the functional significance of assessing the effectiveness and generality of interventions, further studies related to the Direct Instruction model will be beneficial.

References


EFL Learners’ Preferences for Feedback Types for Their Written Products

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Abstract
In recent years, while research on various feedback types has gained increasing interest, the studies investigating language learners’ preferences for the effective feedback type and amount which complement with their needs in writing skill have been neglected. Furthermore, existing research merely focused on learners who have high level of language proficiency in ESL context, but ignored the preferences of EFL learners who have lower level of language proficiency. In this sense, the current study aims to examine EFL learners’ preferences for the effective feedback type and amount for writing skill. For this purpose, the participants of the study were selected among low level EFL learners. As part of the data collection procedures, a questionnaire including yes/no, Likert Scale; and open ended items based on qualitative and quantitative research design was administered to learners to collect data and the findings imply that EFL learners prefer to receive feedback for their errors.

Key words: EFL learners, writing, feedback, preferences.

Introduction
While feedback is commonly defined as the informing process about expected outcomes based on the learners’ language production (e.g., Mory, 2004), it is suggested to be a significant element in language teaching and learning, therefore, an opportunity for learning by leading students to develop their future performance (Knight & Yorke, 2003). To this end, feedback is one of the key elements of language teaching for the improvement of learners’ spoken and written production. Since feedback has been a popular research area for both speaking and writing skills, studies have been conducted to improve feedback practices. While the research has focused on timing of the feedback (immediate or delayed feedback) (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008) or the effect of corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a; 2009b; Sheen, 2007), a limited number of studies have focused on learners’ preferences for the types of corrective feedback (e.g., Armhein & Nassaji, 2010), so taking little research on language learners with low proficiency level into account, the current study aims to contribute to the understanding of preferences of these learners.

Review of Literature
2.1. The notion of feedback
Feedback which can be defined in various ways and specifically refers to “an attempt to draw learners’ attention to problems in their writing” (Shintani, Ellis & Suzuki, 2014, p. 105) and particularly corrective feedback that is defined as “any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form” (Russell & Spada, p. 134) have been prominent research topics in second language learning as they are regarded among ways to improve learners’ ability in the language. In terms of writing skill, corrective feedback can be provided to learners in two ways, namely direct corrective feedback such as crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme and indirect corrective feedback such as underlining or circling the error; recording in the margin the number of errors in a given line; or using a code to show where the error has occurred and what type of error it is (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

The effectiveness of feedback on writing skill has been investigated extensively and various findings have been revealed. For instance, a number of studies have focused on the effect of feedback in a general way (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Hartshorn, Evans, Merrill, Sudweeks, Strong-Krause, & Anderson, 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). In this sense, one of these studies, the study of Truscott and Hsu (2008) which was carried out with 47 EFL graduate revealed that students who received feedback were more successful in writing than the control group who did not receive any feedback. The effect of revision has also been explored (e.g., Bruton, 2009; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). To this end, it emerged in the study of Truscott and Hsu (2008) that revision of the written products had no effect on students’ success in writing. Furthermore, a great number of studies have been conducted to examine the effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback on the learners’
grammatical accuracy (e.g., Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Evans, Hartshorn, & Strong-Krause, 2011; Sheen, Wright, Moldawa, 2009) and they concluded that students who receive focused written corrective feedback achieve the highest accuracy scores (e.g., Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009). Additionally, studies have been conducted to explore the effects of different feedback types (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener, Young, Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003). For example, Chandler’s (2003) study that was carried out with 31 conservatory students revealed that direct feedback and underlining of errors are better than other feedback types such as explaining the type of error. Yet, the study of Bitchener and Knoch (2009) has revealed no significant difference in the effect of different feedback types such as direct corrective feedback and metalinguistic explanations. On the other hand, a limited number of studies have focused on teachers’ and learners’ views about the feedback types (e.g., Carless, 2006; Lee, 2004; Ormond, Merry & Reiling, 2005; Poulos & Mahony, 2008; Armhein & Nassaji, 2010) as also stated by Poulos and Mahony (2008): “Few studies have been identified in which the research focus is specifically on students’ views of feedback.” (p. 144) These studies have suggested that students’ preferences for a feedback type have significant impacts on their learning. In this sense, if a student prefers a particular type of feedback, he or she may tend to focus on the feedback provided by using this type (e.g., McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 2001, in Armhein & Nassaji, 2010). In other words, students are selective in their preferences for the type and amount of the feedback even though it is suggested in the literature that direct corrective feedback is only effective for certain types of errors (Sheen, Wright & Moldawa, 2009). For example, it is suggested in the previous research that direct explanations on structural and lexical errors and comments on content are preferred by the students for their errors (e.g., Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985; Woroniecka, 1998; Ashwell, 2000; Leki, 1991; Ziv, 1984 as cited in Armhein & Nassaji, 2010). On the other hand, a few studies have indicated that students find indirect correction such as underlining and coding more effective than the other types. (e.g., Lee, 2005) With regard to varied research findings, it can be implied that there is still a need to investigate students’ preferences. Considering that most of the studies conducted have been carried out with ESL learners (Armhein & Nassaji, 2010; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005) with high level of proficiency (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010;Ellis et al, 2008; Hartshorn et al, 2010), therefore, the current study aims to contribute to better understanding of preferences of EFL learners’ with a low level of proficiency for amount and type of feedback. With this regard, the following research questions will be addressed.

1. What amount of feedback do EFL learners prefer for their written products?
2. What types of feedback do EFL learners prefer for their written products?
3. For what types of errors do EFL learners prefer correction in their written products?

3.1. Setting and Participants
Due to convenience and eligibility issues, Bülent Ecevit University, School of Foreign Languages has been selected as the setting of the current study. Therefore, participants consist of 120 EFL learners studying at the Department of Basic English of the same school. The learners obtain a one-year long language education before they carry on their studies in their own departments and their proficiency is determined by a proficiency exam administered at the beginning of the academic year. The students failing the exam with a lower grade than 60 are placed in classes appropriate for their language levels which range from A1 to A2 and they obtain approximately 26 hours of language instruction in an integrated course design in which writing skill constitutes 15% of the whole distribution of language knowledge and skills a week. In writing classes, the learners are provided with various authentic writing tasks and genres based on real life and their writing skill is assessed in proficiency exams administered at regular intervals. Additionally, with new trends and approaches, one of the alternative assessment tools, portfolio, has taken its part in this language program. Thus, learners are involved in the assessment process by self-evaluating their progress in writing. Implementation of portfolios proceeds in this way: Students write their assignments, teachers give feedback to their assignments by using correction codes and students revise their assignments in light of the correction codes provided, finally keep their written products in their portfolios. At the beginning of each academic year, students and teachers are informed about this process through norming sessions and explanations. Students evaluate their own progress at the end of each term and their grades combined with teachers’ grades constitute 5% of total proficiency scores at the end of the year. In order to provide variety in procedures related to writing skill and gain the utmost use of alternatives, new ways are searched in the school. Therefore, implementation of different feedback types has been a fruitful experience for the purpose of finding better ways of giving feedback by focusing on students’ preferences at the school.

3.1. Material
As the data collection tool, the questionnaire of Armhein & Nassaji (2010) was adapted following getting permission of the authors to use the material since it was appropriate for the context and likely to be an effective
tool to collect data in light of the aim of the study. With this regard, the questionnaire includes closed ended (Likert-scale, Yes/No) items that constitute quantitative data and open ended items that constitute qualitative data of the study.

3.2. Research Design

In order to investigate students’ preferences in depth and obtain more reliable and valid data both quantitative and qualitative research designs were used in the present study. Besides, getting students’ preferences in a 5-likert scale question type, open ended and Yes/No questions were used to analyze the reasons for their choices. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used for descriptive statistics and percentages of the analyses. As for the qualitative data analysis, students’ explanations for each choice were analyzed through thematic analysis. Finally, both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were organized in tables and figures.

Findings and Discussion

The questionnaire includes items about the amount of feedback and types of feedback. Considering that the first question of the questionnaire is related to the first category, findings are listed as follows:

4.1. Amount of feedback

In order to examine students’ preferences for the amount of feedback provided, the question “If there are many errors in your writing, what do you think your English teacher should do?” (\(M=1.12, SD=.53\)) has been asked to the students in the questionnaire and the findings suggest most students (N=113, 94.2 %) prefer that all mistakes are corrected by their teachers. Learners’ preferences for this choice and the other choices are illustrated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preferences for the amount of feedback</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should mark all errors.</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>94.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should mark all major errors but not the minor ones.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should mark most of the major errors, but not necessarily all of them</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should mark only a few of major errors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should mark only the errors that interfere with communicating your ideas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should mark no errors and respond only to the ideas and content.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in the table, 94.2 %, in other words 113 students prefer that all of their errors are corrected by their teachers. When qualitative data have been analyzed, it emerged that the reasons for their preference are that they find it more useful and effective as it both explains the errors better and enhances self-evaluation. Furthermore, according to the students, it prevents misunderstanding since errors can be noticed easily and reduced. They also suggest that as it provides an opportunity for revision of grammar, every grammar point should be focused on. Since these learners have a low level of proficiency (A1 and A2) they think that all mistakes are corrected is highly effective for their learning. In this aspect, the findings are in line with Lee’s (2004) study and the study of Armhein and Nassaji (2010) in which students have stated that they prefer to receive feedback for all of their errors. However, in the current study, the students suggest that this feedback type can be changed as language proficiency gets higher, which is in line with what Knight and Yorke (2003) have suggested. According to Knight and Yorke (2003), students should have the chance of receiving feedback appropriate for their learning. As also demonstrated in Table 1, 7 students also prefer other options. The reasons for their preferences are as listed:

- Teachers should mark all major errors but not the minor ones. (2.5 %)
- Students can correct minor errors themselves.
- Teachers should mark only the errors that interfere with communicating your ideas. (.8%)
Since communication is of great importance, these types of errors should be marked.

Regarding the preferences for the amount of the feedback, the other question has been concerning repetition of the errors and teachers’ corrections. Most of the students (91%) have answered the question “If you repeat the same error in a writing assignment more than once do you think it is useful for your teacher to mark it every time it occurs?” \( (M=1.12, \text{SD}=0.39) \) “Yes” while the percentage of the answer “No” is only 9%. However, students have not explained the reasons for their preferences. As conclusion, considering the amount of feedback, the findings of the study suggest that these learners prefer written corrective feedback for all of their errors in their written products since they think they can learn better by analyzing their errors.

### 4.2. Types of Feedback

Besides the amount of feedback, students’ preferences for feedback types for their written products have also been investigated in the study. To this end, students have been provided with the options of clues or directions on how to fix an error, error identification, correction with comments, teacher correction, commentary, no feedback on an error, and a personal comment on the content and their preferences for each option have been analyzed. Table 2 illustrates EFL learners’ preferences for feedback types for their writing assignments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feedback types</th>
<th>useless</th>
<th>not useful</th>
<th>doesn’t matter</th>
<th>quite useful</th>
<th>very useful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clues or directions on how to fix an error ( (M=3.56, \text{SD}=1.36) )</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error identification ( (M=2.4, \text{SD}=1.31) )</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correction with comments ( (M=4.03, \text{SD}=1.13) )</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher correction ( (M=3.32, \text{SD}=1.24) )</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commentary ( (M=3.33, \text{SD}=1.34) )</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no feedback on an error ( (M=4.14, \text{SD}=1.04) )</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a personal comment on the content ( (M=2.03, \text{SD}=1.29) )</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, among these varied answers, it has emerged that the most preferable type of feedback is correction with comments since 54 out of 120 learners (45% of all) have regarded it as very useful and the qualitative data revealed that students find it useful as they think this feedback type enhances permanent learning. Apart from correction with comments, the second most preferable feedback type has been clues or directions on how to fix an error with 39 students (32.5%) and encouraging discovery, providing an opportunity for revision and variety in the feedback types, enhancing studying and permanent learning are the positive aspects of the feedback type noted by the students. One student has explained his/her choice by using the proverb “Give a man a fish and he will eat for a day; teach a man to fish and he will eat for a lifetime.” On the other hand, a number of students have expressed drawbacks of the feedback type as follows:

- Clues are sometimes incomprehensible and not clear enough.
- Students do not research their errors in the book, so it is not effective especially for lazy students.
- Since there is no focus on the error, it is not useful.
- Looking up the errors is time consuming.

Considering qualitative data for other feedback types, it has emerged that students do not prefer error identification since the error is not clarified, it is not useful. Similarly, they do not prefer overt correction by the teacher as it is not effective and students write the corrected form without thinking. As for the comment with no correction, one student has indicated that “Crack in the wall plaster is not excreted without being seen”. Concerning no feedback on an error, a huge number of the students \( (N=100, 83.3\%) \) find it useless indicating that they prefer being corrected. Lastly, considering personal comment on content, data have revealed that
learners do not prefer it since they think it can be indulging and offensive, also not content but the errors should be given feedback.

While a number of the findings are in accordance with the study of Armhein and Nassaji (2010), a few of them are different. For instance, both studies have revealed that majority of the learners prefer correction with comments. However, while the learners in the current study have found teacher correction as an ineffective type of feedback, the participants in the study of Armhein and Nassaji (2010) have found this feedback type effective. The findings indicate that participants in each setting are aware of their needs and learning process as they can comment on what may be an effective practice for them.

The other question related to preferences for the error type has been “If there are many different errors in your written work, which type(s) of error, do you want your English teacher to point out most?”. The options provided and students’ preferences for them are illustrated in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of error</th>
<th>Useless</th>
<th>not useful</th>
<th>doesn’t matter</th>
<th>quite useful</th>
<th>very useful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher points out organization errors (paragraph structure, sentence order) ( (M=4.35, \ SD=.88) )</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher points out grammatical errors ( (M=4.63, \ SD=.69) )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher points out content/idea errors ( (M=3.84, \ SD=1.20) )</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher points out punctuation errors ( (M=3.62, \ SD=1.21) )</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher points out spelling errors ( (M=4.26, \ SD=1) )</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher points out vocabulary errors (wrong word choice, wrong meaning) ( (M=4.62, \ SD=.63) )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in the table, students have different preferences for the type of error that they would like to get feedback. To start with, 85 students (70.8%) prefer to receive feedback for their grammatical errors. Secondly, majority of the students \( (N=84, \ 70\%) \) prefer feedback for their vocabulary errors as they state that corrective feedback on vocabulary and content is significant to improve their language. Considering the findings, it can be concluded that learners are aware of their choices and the reasons for them, which may be supported by the literature: If a student prefers a particular type of feedback, he or she may tend to focus on the feedback provided by using this type (e.g., McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 2001, in Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010).

**Implications and Conclusion**

In recent years, with the improvements in language teaching and changing shifts, language learners’ communication and real language use have been of great importance. Therefore, new ways have been sought to improve their language production. As for learners’ written products, learners have been encouraged to use real language in authentic contexts and writing skill has been an ongoing process in which students are involved to correct their errors, therefore, improve their skills. In terms of corrective feedback, various studies have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of the amount and types of it (e.g., direct or indirect corrective feedback, error identification, and comment on content). While these studies have commonly focused on the effects of written corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy, only a little research has focused on teachers’ and students’ views about these feedback types (e.g., Armhein & Nassaji, 2010). These studies have revealed that learners tend to have positive attitudes towards corrective feedback and they have different feedback preferences. However, as the research has focused mostly on ESL learners with high level of proficiency, new studies are necessary to understand learners’ preferences from different perspectives. Therefore, the current study has aimed to examine feedback preferences of EFL learners with low level of proficiency. In this sense, these learners were administered a questionnaire adapted from Armhein and Nassaji (2010) including items
about their preferences for the amount and types of feedback and types of errors that they would like to receive feedback on. The findings revealed that students prefer to receive corrective feedback for all of their errors as they think it is important to notice all the errors to learn better. Furthermore, regarding their preferences for the feedback type and the type of their errors that they would like to receive feedback, it has emerged that they have different preferences, which indicates the significance of providing variety in the methods and techniques employed in language classes as each individual differs in needs and learning styles. One of the important findings of the study is that a huge number of students have negative thoughts about overt correction by the teacher as they think it is no use for learning, which suggests that it is of great importance to encourage students’ active participation and critical thinking in learning teaching process. Thus, teachers should involve students in learning practices and provide opportunities for discovery learning. Furthermore, as for the types of the errors students would like to receive feedback on, the findings have revealed that students prefer receiving feedback for their vocabulary and content errors, which implies that students are aware of their needs and learning process.

Overall, the study provides significant findings and implications about the discussion of the written corrective feedback in language teaching by revealing EFL learners’ preferences for amount and types of feedback for their written products. However, it may not be possible to generalize the findings since they only reflect the case of a particular setting and context. Therefore, more research is needed to enrich understanding of the related research with new participants and contexts. As a conclusion, implications of the current study and the future studies are likely to contribute to future practices in language learning and teaching.

References
Bruton, A. (2009). Improving accuracy is not the only reason for writing, and even if it were. System, 37, 600-613.
Is Psychological Capital a Form of Emotional Intelligence? A Research on University Students

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Abstract
Psychological capital (PsyCap) is defined as one’s being hopeful, resistant, self-confident and optimistic (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Whereas emotional intelligence stated by Goleman (1998) as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships”. Emotional intelligence is a combination of individuals’ personal competence and social competence (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Both emotional intelligence and PsyCap has been evaluated as inner resources of positive outputs like success, satisfaction, well-being, health etc. But it is not clear to what extent emotional intelligence and PsyCap were similar. The purpose of this research is to examine the interaction between emotional intelligence and psychological capital by employing a quantitative approach of scientific inquiry. A demographic data sheet, Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Luthans et al., 2007) and Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI, Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000) has been implemented. Correlation, and multiple regression techniques were conducted. Significant results revealed that PsyCap and emotional intelligence were significantly associated. The correlation between PsyCap and EI is (r=.540, p≤.01). Subfactors of EI, social awareness and self-awareness, explained 28.8% of the variance on PsyCap.

Keywords: Psychological capital, emotional intelligence, positive psychology, positive organizational behavior

Introduction
The new positive psychology paradigm pointed out the importance of individual’s well-being from a various perspectives. The efforts to increase not only performance, but also well-being and happiness leads to focusing on new phenomena, namely emotional intelligence and PsyCap. Positive psychology paradigm differs from previous approaches by giving importance to the happiness as much as pain, in order to increase individuals’ happiness by improving their awareness and strengths (Seligman, 2007; Seligman et al., 2005). Positive psychology is not focused on curing the people who are patient, in contrast increasing the happiness of normal individuals (Seligman, 2007). The positive psychology paradigm applied to psychology, social psychology, sociology, marketing, management and economy in a short period (Sirgy et al., 2006). Emotional competence is “a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work” (Goleman, 1998b). PsyCap could be associated with emotional intelligence. The purpose of this study is to examine the interaction between emotional intelligence and psychological capital.

Psychological Capital (PsyCap)
Positive Organizational Behavior (POB), based on positive psychology, examined positive psychological resource capacities. Luthans et al., (2001) underlined the importance of determination and application of required skills in the psychological and human resources from an individual oriented perspective. Positive psychological capital, including hope, resilience, self-confidence and optimism, should be measured to enhance performance and well-being of individuals (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007).

Some individuals perform better than others under stressful conditions. Organizational researchers generally focused on to determine the traits of higher performers. First studies explained these performance differences by general mental ability-intelligence levels (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Schmidt & Hunter, 2000). PsyCap consists of four dimensions: “(1) having confidence (self-efficacy) (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) (3) persevering toward goals and redirecting paths to goals (hope) (4) when faced by problems sustaining and bouncing back (resilience) to attain success” (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007,
The PsyCap is mostly associated with overcome the psychological problems in order to find new solutions (cited in Simsek & Sali, 2013).

Emotional Intelligence

Some individuals could understand and evaluate themselves, others and manage the emotions, relationships, communication practices and performance scores better than others no matter how intelligent they are (Simsek & Aktaş, 2013). These differences were explained historically by social intelligence, multiple intelligence and emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189). Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) model of emotional intelligence defines four discrete mental abilities: (1) perception of emotion, (2) use of emotion to facilitate thought, (3) understanding of emotion, and (4) management of emotion.

One of the most impressive books about emotional intelligence was written by Goleman in 1997, although related term social intelligence was used first in 1920’s by Thorndike (1920). Goleman (1998a, p. 317) defined emotional intelligence as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships”. Social skills require adaptability at inducing desirable responses in others (Goleman, 1998). Emotional intelligence reduced two dimensions: personal competence (self-awareness and self-management) and social competence (social awareness and relationship management). Goleman’s model has been presented in Table 1 (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Goleman’s framework of emotional competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Competence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognition</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Self-Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Emotional self-awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Accurate self-assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regulation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Self-Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Self-control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Trustworthiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Conscientiousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Adaptability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Achievement drive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Teamwork &amp; collaboration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individuals with higher emotional intelligence were found to experience more positive life events than others. Individuals with higher level EI manage their life better than lower ones. (Goleman, 1998a). The positive results of emotional intelligence were higher leadership performance (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001), work performance (Khokhar & Kangri, 2009), successful career in the organization (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Emotional intelligence has similarities with PsyCap in terms of evaluating and solving problems, developing different perspectives to a problematic situation. Self-awareness, managing emotions, self-motivation, empathy and managing relationships were basic concepts of emotional intelligence.

There are only a few studies focusing on the PsyCap and emotional intelligence relationship. Tugade and Fredrickson (1990) found that resilient individuals use positive emotions to bounce back from negative emotional experiences. Resilient people find positive meaning in negative circumstances. Ignat (2010) found positive and significant relationships between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, high life satisfaction, a healthy way of coping with stress. Tomer (2005) evaluated both personal capital and emotional intelligence from economic perspective as an increasingly important intangible source. Mellão and Mónico’s (2013) studied direct relationship between PsyCap and emotional intelligence in Portugal. They pointed out as a significant and high correlation between two variables. Malik and Masood’s (2015) also found significant correlations between PsyCap and emotional intelligence ($r = .599$).
The main purpose of this study is to investigate the association of PsyCap with emotional intelligence and the research questions are given below:

1. What are the levels of PsyCap as emotional intelligence?
2. What is the correlation between PsyCap as emotional intelligence?
3. How much of the PsyCap variance is explained by emotional intelligence?

Research Method

In this study a quantitative approach of scientific inquiry, descriptive, relational, and comparative models were used for exploring the interactions between PsyCap and emotional intelligence. The research model was illustrated in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Research Model](image)

Research Sample

The working sample consisted of 400 undergraduate students in a Public University in Istanbul. Data was collected from 176 individuals. 6 cases were deleted due to missing data and being outliers. After excluding missing values and outliers, data for 170 cases were analyzed. Regression assumption, normality, linearity, multicollinearity were tested.

Research Instruments

**Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)-Version 2:** Inventory, 5 point Likert type with 72 items, was developed by Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000). Tunca (2008) translated into the Turkish in his doctoral study. Items numbers and Cronbach alphas for dimensions are given respectively: self-awareness (8 items, 0.622); self-management (24 items, 0.819), social awareness (12 items, 0.576), relationship management (24 items, 0.804).

**PsyCap Questionnaire:** Questionnaire, consisted of totally 24 items with a 6 point Likert type each, was developed by Luthans et al. (2007) and Çetin & Basım (2012) translated into Turkish. Items numbers and Cronbach alphas for each dimensions are given respectively: hope (4 items, 0.598); resilience (5 items, 0.776); self-efficacy (6 items, 0.773); optimism (5 items, 0.883).

**Procedures:** The questionnaires were filled by undergraduate students by online and paper-pencil. Pearson Correlation and Regression analyses were reported and the results discussed in context of the literature.

Results

**Descriptive Statistics**

The means and standard deviations of the emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship management) and PsyCap (hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism) scores were illustrated at Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Resistant</th>
<th>Hopeful</th>
<th>Optimistic</th>
<th>Self Confident</th>
<th>Self Aware</th>
<th>Self Manag</th>
<th>Social Aware</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>PsyCap</th>
<th>ECI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>M</strong></td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Min.</strong></td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Max.</strong></td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>5.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation Analysis between PsyCap and Emotional Intelligence**

The interactions between PsyCap and emotional intelligence were evaluated by Pearson correlation coefficients. Pearson Correlation Coefficients are given in Table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>(7)</th>
<th>(8)</th>
<th>(9)</th>
<th>(10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Resistant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.608*</td>
<td>.509**</td>
<td>.665**</td>
<td>.339*</td>
<td>.361**</td>
<td>.459**</td>
<td>.375**</td>
<td>.819**</td>
<td>.434**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlations are significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).**Correlations are significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
As shown on the Table 3, all of the dimensions of PsyCap are positively correlated with all the dimensions of emotional intelligence. The range between two variables were .339-.459. The highest correlation were between resistant (PsyCap) and self awareness (EI), (r=.549, p≤.01). The correlation between PsyCap and EI is (r=.681, p≤.01).

**Regression Analysis**

In order to predict PsyCap, four dimensions of emotional intelligence were regressed onto PsyCap, using stepwise regression. R was significantly different from zero, R=.544; F(2, 167) = 35,156; p=.000. Social awareness made the highest contribution to the prediction of PsyCap, explaining 26.4% of the variance. Both social awareness and self-awareness, explained 28.8% of the variance on PsyCap. Detailed regression results were presented in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. Regression Analysis</th>
<th>Psychological Capital</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent Variable:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Independent Variable:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Awareness</td>
<td>0.392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Awareness</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R=.544; <strong>AdjustedR²=0.288;</strong></td>
<td>F=35,156; <strong>p=0.000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results demonstrated that emotional intelligence explained significantly high variance on PsyCap. As given above Table, β coefficients of Social Awareness (0.392) and Self Awareness (0.209) are statistically meaningful. So the regression equation for \( PsyCap = 1.206 + 0.392 \times Self\,\,Awareness + 0.209 \times Social\,\,Awareness \).
Discussion
The aim of this study was to explore the association between emotional intelligence and PsyCap, considering both explains individual’s capacity from different perspectives. Emotional Intelligence and PsyCap were relatively new phenomena with many positive outcomes in work and non-work life. PsyCap is hypothesized as being not independent from emotions. Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007) claimed that PsyCap is more stable than the positive emotions and moods but less stable than core self-evaluation and the two personality traits. Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007) underlined that PsyCap could be potentially related to positive constructs like creativity, wisdom, well-being, flow, humor, gratitude, forgiveness, Emotional Intelligence, spirituality, authenticity, and courage.

The role of emotional intelligence on PsyCap was investigated, in a sample of university students. The sub-factors of PsyCap were resilience, hope, optimism, and self-efficacy. Emotional Intelligence’s dimensions were personal competence (self-awareness and self-management) and social competence (social awareness and relationship management). A positive and significant correlation was found between all dimensions of variables. The correlation between PsyCap and EI is (r=.540, p≤.01). The results were consistent with Malik and Masood’s (2015) study in Pakistan and Mellão & Mónico’s (2013) study in Portugal. Regression analyses of this study were different from Malik and Masood’s (2015) research in terms of the shifting independent and dependent variables in regression analysis. In this study, Emotional Intelligence explained 28.8% of the variance on PsyCap. Whereas Malik and Masood (2015) regressed control variables (age, gender and organization) and PsyCapon Emotional Intelligence, explaining 25.8% percent variance. All results confirms that PsyCap and Emotional Intelligence were relevant concepts.

This study has some limitations, focusing only the relationship between emotional intelligence and PsyCap. The effects of core self-evaluations and personality traits on emotional intelligence and PsyCap association could be tested. Moreover, research on outcomes of emotional intelligence and PsyCap association, like well-being, performance, positive work attitudes, behaviours, workplace spirituality, and psychological empowerment has been suggested.

References


Origami Mathematics

Colin Graham

During the past 20 years or so, origami and the mathematics behind it has had several unexpected impacts in many different fields. Not only does origami help with a better understanding of geometry, but paper-folding techniques and principles can be used to introduce or help with the visualization of mathematics up to and including college-level calculus. Origami can also be used in language teaching. In this presentation, I will be demonstrating how I am using origami to explore some basic mathematical principles, with the environment of English as a Foreign Language, with students on an English Prep programme - prior to entering undergraduate engineering, architecture or business courses at an English-medium university in Turkey. We will look at both how origami can be used in foreign language teaching and also at how origami can be used in the teaching of mathematics, and it's language, from basic geometry up to undergraduate concepts.
Prospective Elementary Teachers’ Data and Graphs Knowledge

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The aim of the study is to analyze the solution strategies of the third grade prospective elementary teachers about solving graphs and data problem. The problem was designed by TIMSS 2011 and it was translated to Turkish language by Department of Measurement and Evaluation of Ministry of National Education. It was one of the released items. The cognitive domain of the item is applying. 74 third grade prospective teachers solved the item during their Mathematics Teaching II course. Approximately, half of them (32) solved the item correctly. Their solution strategies based on either fractions or percentages. 35 of the remaining teachers only draw the percentages on the scale. They did not show the percentages and how they find these parts. Only 6 of these teachers solved in a wrong strategy. Therefore, Turkish prospective teachers solved the data representation by fractions and they were using fractions unit to solve the data and chance items.
Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Prospective Teachers

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Abstract
The purpose of the study is to examine the prospective teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001) with demographic part was administered to prospective teachers at the first at fourth grade at a state university in Turkey. TSES was adapted to Turkish language by Çapa (2005). Their study confirmed that three sub-scales of TSES is valid for Turkish prospective teachers. The sub-scales of the TSES: efficacy of instructional strategies and efficacy of classroom management strategies an efficacy of student engagement. 213 first grade and 240 fourth grade prospective teachers’ data was analyzed by independent sample t-tests. Means of efficacy sub-scales of first grades’ are Minstructional= 6.80, Mmanagement= 6.84 and Mengagement=6.72. Means of efficacy sub-scales of fourth grades are Minstructional= 6.73, Mmanagement= 6.73 and Mengagement=6.59. Based on means, Turkish prospective teachers’ efficacy beliefs were high. There was no significant mean difference between first and fourth grade prospective teachers with respect to their efficacy beliefs in student engagement (t (485) =1.378. p= .169), instructional strategies (t (471.497) =0.726. p= .486), and classroom management (t (472.451) = 1.119. p= .264).

References
The Effect of Worksheets which were Designed Based on Constructivist Learning on the Academic Achievement of 6th Grades at the Unit of Particle Structure of Matter

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The aim of the study is to explore the effect of using worksheets on learning sixth grade elementary students. The worksheets were designed based on constructivist learning theories. The worksheets were related to unit of particulate structure of matter. The study explored the difference of sixth grade students’ achievements which were measured based on particulate structure of matter with these worksheets between constructivist learning environment and traditional teaching method environment. This is quantitative study with pre-test post-test control group experimental study. For the study, 10 worksheets were designed by controlling misconceptions about the particulate structure of matter. Worksheets were administered to 57 sixth grade students during 4 weeks. Data of the study were collected through the concept test of particulate structure of matter. At the end of the study, there is a significant difference between the constructivist learning group and traditional learning group in favor of constructivist learning group. Worksheets should be designed for assessing students’ misconceptions.
The Examination of Teacher Views about Various Factors Related to Applicability of the Multiple Intelligence Theory in Primary Schools

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to examine the views of primary school teachers about the applicability of the multiple intelligence theory based on variation of gender, educational status, seniority and place of duty. This study is a mixed methodical examination that use quantitative and qualitative research methods together in the scanning model. The universe of the study consists of primary-school teachers who work at public primary schools in the province of Diyarbakır in 2015-2016 academic year. The sample consists of 100 village, 100 district, and 100 urban center, and a total of 300 primary-school teachers in the province of Diyarbakır for the quantitative dimension; and 5 village, 5 district, and 5 urban center, and a total of 15 primary-school teachers in the province of Diyarbakır for the qualitative dimension. A survey form was used to collect quantitative data for the present study, while semi-structured interview form was used as data collection tool in the qualitative dimension. Study results demonstrated that primary-school teachers had positive viewson the applicability of the multiple intelligence theory in general.

Keywords: Multiple Intelligence Theory, Views of Teachers, Intelligence

The present study was derived from second author’s master’s thesis prepared under the supervision of the first author.  
This study was sponsored by the Dicle University Coordinatorship of Scientific Research Projects (DUBAP).

Introduction
Issues such as the formation of thought, how and through which mechanisms human behavior is formed in the brain, how cognitive processes such as learning, perception, decision making, keeping in memory, problem solving, communication, creativity, intuition developed occupied the minds of philosophers and scientists throughout history and several studies have been conducted over time to find responses to these questions. Specialists that researched the mind determined that the abovementioned cognitive processes are the main components of intelligence and their sum constitutes the intelligence (Pfeiferand Scheier, 2001: 1-11).

Although intelligence is an abstract concept, it has been always the focus of curiosity as mentioned above. Definitions of intelligence demonstrate traces of different scientific approaches as well as a common ground. Certain definitions of intelligence could be summarized as follows:

Avicenna argued that intelligence emerges by learning provided by both the learning process and the knowledge created by perceptions originating from the external world (Selçuk et al., 2004:2). On the other hand, Wechsler defined intelligence as the individual’s ability for expedient behavior, rational thinking and active interaction with the environment (Özgüven, 1994).

Spearman (1927), who claimed that intelligence, was not dependent on one factor, believed that intelligence was based on two factors; “g” factor related to general abilities and “s” factor related to special abilities. On the other hand, Thurston stated that intelligence consisted of seven elements: (a) numerical problem solving, (b) verbal comprehension, (c) memory, (d) general reasoning, (e) verbal fluency, (f) visualization of figurative relations, and (g) perceptive speed (Gleitman, 1987). According to another proponent of multi-factor intelligence Guilford, intelligence has three faces; (a) cognitive operations (thinking processes), (b) content (things we think about), and (c) product (outcomes of thought). These faces divide into categories, creating 180 combinations of intelligence (Açıkgöz, 2008:281-282).
A significant portion of intelligence studies consists of intelligence tests. It was not possible to observe intelligence determined by the interaction between environmental factors and the gene pool. To measure intelligence, auxiliary tools, in other words “intelligence tests” were needed and several intelligence tests were developed (Demirel et al., 2006: 11).

Upon request of French education minister, psychologist Binet, in cooperation with his colleague Theodore Simon, developed the intelligence test called intelligence quotient (IQ) in early 1900’s to determine the children under risk. This test was found quite effective for the determined purpose; however, later on it was expanded beyond the original goal and became a psychometric scale used to measure general capacities or intelligence of individuals (Bümen, 2005:2).

Due to this conventional approach related to intelligence and “IQ-style thinking,” individuals were divided into two categories: (1) intelligent individuals and (2) unintelligent individuals. IQ tests became the only criterion to determine whether an individual is considered among intelligent ones or not. In other words, IQ has become the only and constant determinant for the intelligence of an individual. Furthermore, according to conventional approach, individuals are either intelligent by birth or not and there is nothing that can be done to change this fact (Saban, 2005:5).

Although intelligence tests have been used for a long period of time, recently intelligence tests are widely criticized. The critics usually focus on the facts that intelligence tests ignore cultural differences, inappropriate implementation of these tests, lack of validity and reliability studies, and use of test results for diagnosis and selection purposes, not to help the students, and the existence of several cognitive abilities that are not measured by intelligence tests (Açıkgöz, 2008:282). Thus, material used in intelligence tests include usually numerical, verbal, form-space content. It could be argued that numerical material have a universal structure across all cultures. However, symbols and concepts utilized in verbal section differentiate among cultures. Forms could be perceived differently as well. Thus, implementation of intelligence tests designed for a particular culture in others could create negative outcomes. It seems like developing an intelligence test that eliminated intercultural differences is rather difficult (Ülgen, 1997).

Intelligence tests developed from early 1900’s up to 1980’s have been utilized in several fields (education, health, etc.). However, starting from 1980’s, multiple intelligence theory suggested by Prof. Howard Gardner in his book Frames of Mind marked a new epoch in intelligence studies.

The theory proposed by Howard Gardner in 1983 made conventional intelligence tests and definition of intelligence that takes only language and mathematics intelligence into account and the ever-present effect of intelligence on the society and education a part of the past. Gardner argued that intelligence does not have two but eight dimensions. Thus, he proposed that, not only those who are successful in mathematics and language, but also individuals that are prominent in music, sports, dance, communications, nature and painting and who have self-knowledge were intelligent (Demirel, 2000:149).

Gardner defines intelligence based on his theory as follows. Intelligence is defined as the ability to shape a product with one or more cultural value or to solve problems. This definition makes intelligence about what individuals do and create in the real world, and this new understanding is just the opposite of the conventional intelligence which is identified via tests. The new understanding is a qualitative expression and definition of individual’s collection of intelligence. Whereas, the old understanding was a quantitative expression of a holistic skill (Bümen, 2005:5).

Gardner argued that conventional intelligence approach had the advantage of facilitating the assessment of the student based on common criteria, however, it did not promote the discovery of the strengths and weaknesses of the student and claimed that intelligence had eight components that operate independent from each other (Başaran, 2004). Eight components of Gardner (1993) mentioned in his intelligence theory were the following: 1) Verbal / linguistic intelligence; 2) Logical / mathematical intelligence; 3) Visual / spatial intelligence; 4) Bodily / kinesthetic intelligence; 5) Musical / rhythmic intelligence; 6) Social / interpersonal intelligence; 7) Intrapersonal / annealing intelligence; and 8) Naturalistic intelligence.

In traditional instruction, it is possible to behave assuming that all students possess developed verbal-linguistic or logical – mathematical intelligence. It is assumed that students could learn it all through activities based on verbal – linguistic and logical – mathematical intelligence such as listening, reading, answering the questions,
explaining, taking notes, doing written or verbal exercises, and problem solving. This fact renders classes unbearable for students whose other intelligence components were developed (e.g., bodily – kinesthetic). Since we possess different cognitive structures, differences in our ways of learning are inevitable. For instance, a subject that normally requires four –five hours of instruction could be taught quite rapidly using figures to visual – spatial students or motions to bodily – kinesthetic students (Açıkgöz, 2008:288).

According to Gardner (1999), multiple intelligence theory could be applied in schools for three purposes. These are;

- Developing desired skills in students
- Approaching a concept, course subject or a scientific branch using different methods
- Individualization of education.

There is no reason why the schools should not address all multiple intelligence areas. On the contrary, the duty of schools is to improve all intelligence abilities of the students. If any school considers itself void of necessary means to develop all abilities / intelligence types of students, it needs to provide these means from the environment (family, local government, non-governmental organizations) (Baysal et al., 2009:296). Furthermore, based on the multiple intelligence theory, the objective of education is not merely to improve academic success of the students, but to unravel and develop multiple intelligence potentials in students at the same time (Saban, 2005:61).

Several studies were conducted to scrutinize the reflections of multiple intelligence theory in primary education. The following could be counted among them: Yenilmez and Bozkurt (2006); Canbay (2006); Erdamar (2009); Yılmaz Kalaycı (2009); Ozan, Taşgün, Bay and Kaya (2010). However, along with the introduction of 12 year compulsory education system, known as 4+4+4, registration of 60 – 66 month old children in school became possible with parent permission and registration of 66 – 80 month old children in school became compulsory. Due to commencement of school life at early ages, Ministry of National Education implemented a change in the curriculum and cancelled 2 hours per week physical education course in primary school 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades and replaced it with five hours per week game and physical activities course. In primary school curriculum, where the system was implemented in 2012 – 2013 academic year and the gradual transformation was completed in 2015 -2016, no studies were conducted about applicability of multiple intelligence. The present study reflects teacher views on applicability of multiple intelligence in primary schools under the light shed by the recent changes in curriculum.

METHOD
In this section, information concerning the research model, universe, sample and data collection tool that was used in the study and data analysis will be provided.

3.1. Research Model
In the present study that aims to examine teacher views on applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education based on various variables, mixed methodology was utilized. Fundamental assumption of mixed method research is to utilize qualitative and quantitative research methods in conjunction to better understand the research problems and questions when compared to using these methods separately (Creswell, 2008). Furthermore, the mixed method provides a selective approach for the researcher in methodology and design to conduct a comprehensive, pluralistic, supplementary research. Several research questions could be completely answered using the solutions provided by the mixed method (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, significant characteristics of the mixed method such as plurality and selectivity could render the mixed method superior when compared to single method designs (Johnson and Christensen, 2004).

In quantitative dimension of the present study, a descriptive survey was conducted. Survey methods are research approaches that aim to describe a past or present case as is. The event, individual or the object that is the subject of the study is attempted to be described under its own conditions and as is (Karasar, 2011:77). In addition, the objective of studies conducted with survey method is generally to take a picture of the existing condition related to the research subject and make a description. To achieve this aim, survey studies usually collect information from a wide audience using the response choices determined by the researcher (Büyüköztürk et al., 2010:231).

In qualitative dimension of the study, interview technique with open-ended questions was used. Glaser defines qualitative research as an approach that prioritizes investigation and understanding of social events within the environment they belong to with an understanding based on theorization. In this definition “theorization” means
a modelling study that explains a group of previously unknown results based on their interrelations (Cited by Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008:39-40). In addition, the most frequently used qualitative research method is the interview technique. Interview technique is a data collection tool that aims to reveal what individuals think and why, what are their emotions, attitudes and feelings, and the factors that guide their behavior. In brief, it is a scientific tool that aims to enter the mind and heart of the individual (Ekiz, 2009:62).

3.2. Universe and Sample
The study was conducted with classroom teachers in Ministry of National Education primary schools in Diyarbakır province during 2015 – 2016 academic year.

“Cluster sampling” method was used in the quantitative dimension of the present study. Cluster sampling is the sampling method where all clusters in the universe have individual selection chances in the sample (Karasar, 2011:114). The sample included a total of 300 classroom teachers that work in Ministry of National Education primary schools in Diyarbakır province. One hundred of these were working in village primary schools, 100 in townships and 100 were employed in city center primary schools.

In qualitative dimension of the study, purposive sampling was utilized. Researcher could assign information sources directly to obtain most usable information (Kaptan,1998:119). Thus, the sample included 15 classroom teachers that work in Ministry of National Education primary schools in Diyarbakır province.

3.3. Data Collection Tool
To collect the quantitative data for the present study that aimed to investigate teacher views on applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education, the survey form developed and revised by Canbay (2006) was utilized. The survey form included two sections. In the first section, information on teachers’ years in service, gender, educational status, and place of duty is collected. The second section in the form of 5-point Likert-type scale included 20 statements that could be responded as (1) completely disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somehow agree, (4) mostly agree, (5) completely agree. Reliability analysis of the survey was conducted using Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient and this figure was found as 0.92. Validity of the scale was established with the approval of two field experts.

To collect qualitative research data, a semi-structured interview form designed by the author was utilized. The data collection tool included four open-ended questions. Teachers were allowed to respond to the questions freely. The interview audio was recorded after permission from the interviewees was obtained. Questions included in the interview were examined by two specialists for clarity, comprehensibility and validity dimensions.

3.4. Data Analysis
Analysis of quantitative data was conducted with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Descriptive statistics parameters of arithmetic mean and standard deviation were calculated on quantitative data. Homogeneity test (Levene) was applied to determine whether the data was distributed homogeneously. Level of significance for the Levene test applied for this purpose was determined as p>0.05. To determine whether there was a significant difference between the groups, independent samples t-test was conducted for the gender variable; one-way analysis of variance was conducted for place of duty, term in office and educational status variables. Conducted analyses were tested in p<0.05 level of significance. Scheffe test was applied to determine the source groups and the level of significance found as a result of analysis of variance.

Survey data was interpreted using the scoring that follows: 1.00 – 1.80: completely disagree, 1.81 – 2.60: disagree, 2.61 – 3.40: somehow agree, 3.41 – 4.20: mostly agree, 4.21 – 5.00: completely agree.

Content analysis was used in collected qualitative data in the study. During the analysis, the views of teachers derived from their answers were coded. After the coding process, the data were matched. In the matching process, codes were associated to form sub-themes and each sub-theme was grouped under the themes.

FINDINGS
Arithmetic mean and standard deviation data on teacher views about applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education are presented in Table 1.
### Table 1. Arithmetic mean and standard deviation values for teacher views on multiple intelligence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have adequate knowledge on multiple intelligence theory</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I search for research and developments on multiple intelligence theory using Internet or written resources</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. New curriculum and textbooks are suitable for instruction based on multiple intelligence theory</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. All intelligence areas are equally important for me in multiple intelligence theory applications</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I try to prepare my syllabus based on multiple intelligence theory</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I design activities that would develop all intelligence areas or utilize all intelligence areas when presenting material</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I think instruction based on multiple intelligence theory gives better results when compared to conventional methods</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I implement multiple intelligence theory in all classes</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. As a result of multiple intelligence theory, each student could feel useful</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I take types of intelligence into account during instruction</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I think multiple intelligence theory motivates both the teacher and the student and increases communications between teacher and students</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Students find multiple intelligence theory based instruction more entertaining and participate in the class more</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Students that used to exhibit difficulties in learning showed improvement since I started to utilize multiple intelligence theory based instruction</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I believe that multiple intelligence theory applications are more effective on learning retention</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I can find material for multiple intelligence theory applications</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Assessment of students based on multiple intelligence theory demands more time and effort from the teachers (observation forms, interview notes, etc.)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Parents do the project work that are conducted within the context of multiple intelligence theory applications rather than the students</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I find it difficult to meet the time requirements during multiple intelligence theory based instruction</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. We experience chaos and much noise during multiple intelligence theory based instruction, especially during group work</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Educational environment should be improved to implement multiple intelligence theory comfortably</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean Total</strong></td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were no statements on multiple intelligence that classroom teachers “completely” agreed, “completely” disagreed or disagreed. Classroom teacher views on multiple intelligence theory mean score (X=3.52) demonstrated that the views of teachers on multiple intelligence theory were generally positive. However, responses to item 15, “I can find material for multiple intelligence theory applications” (X= 2.71) showed that teachers experienced difficulties in finding material for multiple intelligence theory applications.

T-test results for teacher views about applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education based on gender variable are given in Table 2.

### Table 2. T-test results based on gender variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Ss</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.576</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>-.746</td>
<td>.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.639</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 demonstrates that there was no significant difference based on gender variable in t-test conducted to determine whether gender variable had a significant effect on views of teachers on multiple intelligence theory ($t_{298} = -0.746, p > 0.05$). Thus, it could be stated that gender variable had no significant effect on teacher views about applicability of multiple intelligence theory.

One-way analysis of variance results on teacher views about applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education based on education status variable are given in Table 3.

### Table 3 Analysis of Variance Results Based on Education Status Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Status</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Mean of Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>16.729</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.364</td>
<td>26.197</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-Group</td>
<td>94.829</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111.557</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 demonstrates that there was a significant difference based on education status variable in the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted to determine whether education status variable had a significant effect on views of teachers on multiple intelligence theory ($F = 26.197, p < 0.05$). Scheffe supplementary post-hoc test was conducted to determine the source groups for the difference after ANOVA and a statistically significant difference was found between teachers with a master’s degree and undergraduate degree favoring teachers with a master’s degree, and between teachers with a doctorate and undergraduate degree favoring teachers with a doctorate degree. The differences between other sub-dimensions were statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$). Based on these results, it could be stated that teachers with a master’s or doctorate degree could implement multiple intelligence theory methods and techniques more when compared to teachers with an undergraduate degree.

One-way analysis of variance results on teacher views about applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education based on term in service variable are given in Table 4.

### Table 4 Analysis of Variance Results Based on Term in Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term in Service</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Mean of Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>16.039</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.010</td>
<td>12.384</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-Group</td>
<td>95.518</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111.557</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 demonstrates that there was a significant difference based on term in service variable in the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between the views of teachers on multiple intelligence theory based on term in service variable ($F = 12.384, p < 0.05$). Scheffe supplementary post-hoc test was conducted to determine the source groups for the difference after ANOVA and a statistically significant difference was found between teachers who had 1 – 5 years term in service and teachers who had 11 – 15 years, 16 – 20 years and 21 years and over term in service favoring teachers who had 1 – 5 years term in service, between teachers who had 6 – 10 years term in service and teachers who had 16 – 20 years and 21 years and over term in service favoring teachers who had 6 – 10 years term in service. The differences between other sub-dimensions were statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$). Based on these results, it could be stated that teachers who had 1 – 5 years and 11 – 15 years term in service could implement multiple intelligence theory methods and techniques more when compared to teachers who had 16 – 20 years and 21 years and over term in service.

One-way analysis of variance results on teacher views about applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary education based on place of duty variable are given in Table 5.
Table 5 Analysis of Variance Results Based on Term in Service Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of Duty</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Mean of Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>6.408</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.204</td>
<td>9.050</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-Group</td>
<td>105.149</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111.557</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 demonstrates that there was a significant difference based on place of duty variable in the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between the views of teachers on multiple intelligence theory based on place of duty variable (F= 9.050, p<0.05). Scheffe supplementary post-hoc test was conducted to determine the source groups for the difference after ANOVA and a statistically significant difference was found between teachers who worked in the villages and city center, favoring teachers who worked in the villages, and between teachers who worked in the townships and city center, favoring teachers who worked in the townships. The differences between other sub-dimensions were statistically insignificant (p >0.05). Based on these results, it could be stated that teachers who worked in the villages and townships had more positive views on applicability of multiple intelligence theory when compared to teachers who worked in the city center.

Qualitative data were obtained by posing 4 open-ended questions to 15 classroom teachers using the semi-structured interview form in the study. Obtained findings are presented in below tables.

**Question 1:** ‘’What comes to your mind when you hear multiple intelligence theory?’’

Participants’ responses to Question 1 are presented in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It means more than one areas of intelligence.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö8, Ö9, Ö12, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distinctive intelligence of the individual.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ö6, Ö10, Ö14, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the instruction method and techniques used in education.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ö4, Ö11, Ö12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It means contemporary intelligence.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ö2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 demonstrates that twelve teachers stated that it means more than one intelligence areas(Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö8, Ö9, Ö12, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15), four teachers stated that it means distinctive intelligence of the individual(Ö6, Ö10, Ö14, Ö15), three teachers stated that it is an educational instruction method and technique(Ö4, Ö11, Ö12), and one teacher stated that it means contemporary intelligence(Ö2) in their answers to Question 1. Responses given by certain teachers to this question were as follows:

“Multiple intelligence means more than one areas of intelligence” (Ö15)

“It means that there is not one single field of intelligence in each individual, but there are areas of intelligence that change from one individual to another” (Ö6).

Based on these results, it could be stated that teachers generally had adequate information about multiple intelligence theory.

**Question 2:** ‘’Do you utilize multiple intelligence theory in your instruction methods and techniques? Can you explain how by giving reasons?’’

Participants’ responses to Question 2 are presented in Table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It promotes retention of education - instruction</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö3, Ö6, Ö7, Ö10, Ö12, Ö13, Ö15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It reveals students’ interests and abilities 6  Ö3, Ö5, Ö6, Ö8, Ö13, Ö14
It makes classes more entertaining 3  Ö4, Ö12, Ö15
MNE textbooks support multiple intelligence 2  Ö7, Ö8

NO
Educational environment where multiple intelligence could be implemented is not available. 2 Ö2, Ö9
I do not have sufficient information 1 Ö11

Table 7 demonstrated that eight teachers stated that they used multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques because it promotes retention of education – instruction(Ö1, Ö3, Ö6, Ö7, Ö10, Ö12, Ö13, Ö15), three teachers stated that they used it because it reveals students’ interests and abilities(Ö3, Ö5, Ö6, Ö8, Ö13, Ö14), two teachers stated that they used it because Ministry of National Education textbooks supported multiple intelligence(Ö7, Ö8), while two teachers stated that they did not utilize multiple intelligence theorem in their instructional methods and techniques because they were not able to find an educational environment where they could implement it (Ö2, Ö9), and one teacher stated that it couldn’t be implemented due to the lack of adequate knowledge (Ö11) in teachers’ responses to question 2. Responses given by certain teachers to this question were as follows:

“Resources permitting, I try to implement it as much as possible. Because, I think the retention of course instructions based on multiple intelligence theory is higher” (Ö15).

“The reason why I implement it is the interest students demonstrate and the knowledge is better reinforced” (Ö7).

Based on these results it could be concluded that teachers utilized multiple intelligence theorem in their instructional methods and techniques because it provides retention in education, reveals the interests and abilities of students, makes classes more entertaining and MNE textbooks support multiple intelligence. Furthermore, among the reasons for teachers’ inability to implement multiple intelligence theorem in their instructional methods and techniques, lack of educational – instructional environment suitable for multiple intelligence and lack of teachers’ knowledge about multiple intelligence theory could be mentioned.

**Question 3:** ‘What are the difficulties you experience while implementing multiple intelligence theory in your methods and techniques?’

Participants’ responses to Question 3 are presented in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is a shortage of hardware and material</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö8, Ö9, Ö10, Ö12, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom sizes are quite large</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö2, Ö4, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö9, Ö11, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents do not have adequate knowledge about multiple intelligence</td>
<td>Ö3, Ö5, Ö13, Ö14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is too much information in the curriculum</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö6, Ö8, Ö14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It takes too long to implement</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö4, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is difficult to determine individual intelligence areas</td>
<td>Ö8, Ö13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 demonstrates that thirteen teachers stated that there was a shortage of hardware and material(Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö8, Ö9, Ö10, Ö12, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15), eleven teachers stated that the classrooms were too crowded(Ö1, Ö2, Ö4, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö9, Ö11, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15), four teachers stated that parents did not possess adequate knowledge about multiple intelligence(Ö3, Ö5, Ö13, Ö14), four teachers stated that the implementation
took too much time (Ö1, Ö6, Ö8, Ö14), three teachers stated that there was too much information in the curriculum (Ö1, Ö4, Ö15), and two teachers stated that it was difficult to determine individual areas of intelligence (Ö8, Ö13). Responses given by certain teachers to this question were as follows:

“Primarily, I experience the problem of the material shortage when I implement multiple intelligence in my methods and techniques” (Ö9).

“Since the classrooms are too crowded, I experience difficulties in designing an individual activity plan for each student” (Ö13).

Based on these results, it could be argued that teachers experienced hardware and material shortages while implementing multiple intelligence theory and this made it difficult to implement multiple intelligence theory comprehensively, furthermore, crowded classrooms made it difficult to determine individual intelligence areas of students and due to the lack of parents’ knowledge on multiple intelligence theory, they desired the dominance of verbal and mathematical intelligence in their children whether they exist or not, the implementation of the theory took time, thus, decreasing its usability. It could be also claimed that the existence of too much information in the curriculum results in teachers being weary not to be able to finish the subjects in the curriculum, making it difficult for them to utilize this method that takes longer to implement.

**Question 4:** "What are your suggestions for implementation of multiple intelligence theory in education and instruction?"

Participants’ responses to Question 4 are presented in Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational environment should be improved (material, hardware, infrastructure, etc.)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö4, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö8, Ö9, Ö10, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom sizes should be reduced</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö4, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö9, Ö11, Ö13, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum should be designed suitable for multiple intelligence and it should be extenuated</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ö1, Ö4, Ö6, Ö8, Ö10, Ö13, Ö14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should receive applied training for multiple intelligence in college</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ö2, Ö10, Ö11, Ö12, Ö14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch teachers should instruct music, visual arts and physical education courses starting from the 1st grade</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ö3, Ö7, Ö13, Ö15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools should be open outside hours of attendance and mathematical, visual, physical, musical, etc. classes should be initiated</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ö6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 demonstrates that thirteen teachers stated that educational environment should be improved (material, hardware, infrastructure, etc.) (Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö4, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö8, Ö9, Ö10, Ö13, Ö14, Ö15), eleven teachers stated that classroom sizes should be reduced (Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö4, Ö5, Ö6, Ö7, Ö9, Ö11, Ö13, Ö15), seven teachers stated that curriculum should be designed based on multiple intelligence and it should be extenuated (Ö1, Ö4, Ö6, Ö8, Ö10, Ö13, Ö14), five teachers stated that teachers should receive applied multiple intelligence training in the college (Ö2, Ö10, Ö11, Ö12, Ö14), four teachers stated that branch teachers should instruct music, visual arts and physical education courses starting from the 1st grade (Ö3, Ö7, Ö13, Ö15), and one teacher stated that schools should be kept open outside hours of attendance and mathematical, visual, physical, musical, etc. Classes should be opened (Ö6). Responses given by certain teachers to this question were as follows:

“Since retention of visualized subjects is higher, I think projection devices and smart boards in each classroom would benefit greatly” (Ö7).

“Primarily, classroom size should be reduced from 40 – 50 pupils to 15 – 20 students” (Ö13).
Based on these results, to apply multiple intelligence theory, teachers primarily considered it necessary to improve the educational environment and then to reduce the classroom size, to design of the curriculum based on multiple intelligence theory and extenuation of the curriculum, teachers to receive applied multiple intelligence theory training in the college, instruction of music, physical education and visual arts classes by branch teachers starting from the 1st grade in primary schools, and to keep schools open beyond hours of attendance to direct the students to fields such as musical, visual, sportive activities based on their interests and intelligence areas during these periods.

Result, Discussion and Recommendations

Based on the results of the present study that was conducted to investigate teacher views on applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary schools, it was observed that gender variable had no effect on teacher views.

Based on the results of the present study, it was observed that teachers with 1 – 5 years and 11 – 15 years in service were able to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques better than teachers with 16 – 20 years and 21 years and over in service. This could be due to the fact that Ministry of National Education curriculum was designed based on conventional instruction approach before 2005. Ministry of National Education changed the curriculum in 2005 and designed the new curriculum based on constructivist instruction model. Thus, teachers who started the service before 2005 implement the conventional method in their classes and although the curriculum had changed, they stick to their old habits.

Based on the results of the present study, it was observed that teachers who worked in villages and townships desired to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques more when compared to teachers that worked in city center, but they were limited in their utilization of multiple intelligence in their methods and techniques due to material and hardware shortages.

Based on the results of the present study, it was observed that teachers who worked in villages and townships desired to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques more when compared to teachers that worked in city center, but they were limited in their utilization of multiple intelligence in their methods and techniques due to material and hardware shortages.

Based on the results of the present study, it was observed that teachers who worked in villages and townships desired to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques more when compared to teachers that worked in city center, but they were limited in their utilization of multiple intelligence in their methods and techniques due to material and hardware shortages.

Based on the results of the present study, it could be stated that the facts that it promoted retention in education and instruction, revealed interests and abilities of the students and rendered classes more fun could be counted among the reasons why classroom teachers implemented multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques.

In the present study, teachers stated that the primary problem they faced while implementing multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques was hardware and material shortages. Thus, it is necessary to remove these shortages for classroom teachers to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques. In this context, interactive (smart) board application initiated by MNE within Fatih Project, which aims active utilization of IT technologies in educational and instructional activities, could be considered as a sound and good application. Furthermore, teachers stated that it was difficult to determine individual intelligence areas of the students due to the classroom size and there was too much information in the curriculum, leading to an ability to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques. Thus, classroom sized should be reduced and the curriculum should be extenuated by removing unnecessary information to enable teachers to implement multiple intelligence theory in their instructional methods and techniques.

Based on the results of the present study, it could be observed that classroom teachers received theoretical training on multiple intelligence theory during their undergraduate education, however, they did not receive applied multiple intelligence theory training. Thus, in addition to theoretical training on multiple intelligence theory during their undergraduate education, teachers should be trained in applied multiple intelligence theory as well.

Based on the results of the present study, following recommendations could be made on applicability of multiple intelligence theory in primary schools:

- Hardware and material shortages should be resolved.
Classroom sizes should be reduced.
Student textbooks and activity plans should be designed based on regional differences and by taking environmental conditions into account.
Branch teachers should instruct game and physical education, music education and visual arts education classes starting from the 1st grade.
Teachers should be required to have at least master’s degrees to improve academic knowledge of teachers, similar to the implementation in Finland.
Schools should be open all day long and mathematical, visual, verbal, social, nature, physical and musical classes should be established outside hours of attendance and students should be directed to these classes based on their predominant intelligence areas, these classes should be supported with courses such as drama, chess, theatre, etc., and love for nature should be inspired to children who never experienced natural life in their lives in the city.
Seminars should be organized to provide information for school administration, teachers, parents and students on multiple intelligence theory and multiple intelligence theory specialists who authored studies in the field should conduct these seminars.
Courses such as musical education, game and physical education, visual arts education and free activities should be instructed in a manner to serve their original objectives.

References
The Importance of Using Metaphors in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

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Abstract
Several studies on language teaching and learning have been conducted to explore the teachers’ perceptions of their professional practice. However, there are only a few studies that focus on student-produced metaphors related to the process of foreign language. Researchers have studied how teachers’ metaphors affect their methods and strategies in order to understand the complex processes of teaching in a classroom environment. Metaphors not only include crucial information about teachers’ growth as professionals but also reveal their educational values, beliefs, and principles. Personal beliefs play a significant role in teachers’ classroom practice, which are the result of their self-construction. This study attempts to explain the importance and effectiveness of using metaphors in foreign language teaching and learning. 32 university students in the department of Teaching Mathematics and Turkish attending in the 1st class in Sinop University Faculty of Education in Turkey. With the help of content analysis, we tried to investigate students’ attitudes towards English course by using metaphors. While a conceptual metaphor program is being designed in this study, we found out that figurative language is not incidental but omnipresent in daily language. This ubiquity of metaphors and idioms is concerned with the high proficiency of figurative language. The results of the study indicate that metaphor awareness of understanding idiomatic expressions is highly significant in foreign language.

Keywords: Metaphor, English, Foreign Language, Turkey

Introduction
As a literal meaning, a metaphor is described as a ‘figure of speech’ used to give a special effect. Moreover, two types of figures of speech are mentioned: simile is described as something compared to something else by using a function word such as ‘like’ or ‘as’. Metaphor uses no function words; instead, one notion is described by another notion’.

Metaphors have been extensively used in poetry in the past but in the recent years it has also been used in second language acquisition. For instance, when Shakespeare’s Romeo says “Juliet is the sun”, we can understand her personality as pretty, positive and bright. This metaphor shows that, Juliet is as important as the sun for Romeo.” With the impact of Lakoff and Turner (1989), the meaning of metaphors has changed their origin by becoming ‘unconscious and automatic’. Metaphors are “important tools of cognition and communication” (Ortony & Fainsilber, 1989, p. 181). Metaphors not only constitute our thinking but guide our actions (Lakoff, & Johnson, 1980; Richards, 1936). Metaphors act as a screen, through which the metaphoric subjects are seen. They facilitate the way people try to perceive what goes on around them. They also help us formulate our thinking and our understanding of events. Therefore, the way teachers conceptualize their teaching experience can be examined by using metaphors.
Teachers’ beliefs come from their self-instruction, which is piled up via culture, personal experience and education." (Xu, 2012, p.1398)  Kelly (1995) suggests in his Personal Construct Theory, the teacher, like any individual, makes sense of his/her own world on the basis of his/her own personal experiences and constructs. Individuals are affected by constructs-cognitive structures formed as a function of background events and they can change their constructs at any time. On the basis of a constructivist view, it is likely that teachers’ experiences change over time.

The need for articulating personal beliefs of teachers is of great importance for professional development but personal theories mostly exist at an implicit level; hence it becomes difficult to examine them. If teachers’ beliefs and attitudes are not identified and examined, professional development can hardly be achieved. In general, metaphor acts as a symbolic language in which two different ideas or concepts are used to make comparison (Hansen, 2004 in Balim and Çeliker, 2011, p.331). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), we can experience one kind of thing in terms of another by using metaphors. Besides, our thoughts and perceptions become more vivid and interesting with metaphors. When a metaphor is employed, the schema is transported from its customary realm to a new realm. As for the personal and professional development of teachers the challenge is to bring operating metaphors into conscious awareness and to consider how metaphors could be encouraging or restricting growth (Bowman, 2007).

Metaphors are not just figures of speech, but constitute an essential mechanism of the mind allowing the modeling and reification of prior experience. With the increasing interest in the use of qualitative methods in examining teachers’ beliefs, metaphors have widely been used to elicit personal theories of teachers (Balim and Çeliker, 2011; Saban and Keleşoğlu, 2011).

Metaphors have been used as a research instrument in a large number of studies in the fields of teacher education, teacher beliefs and reflection (Akilli and Seven, 2010; Block, 1992; Saban, 2004; Saban, Koçbeker, & Saban, 2007; Tobin, 1990). In a study by Seferoğlu et al (2009), metaphorical images of pre-service and in-service teachers as windows into their schemata for thinking about teachers were examined elaborately. The changes in teacher candidates’ metaphorical images about classroom management in a social constructivist learning environment and concluded that most teacher candidates held a traditional teacher-centered view of classroom management before they were subjected to a constructivist curriculum practice.

In another study carried out by Cerit (2008) classroom teachers’ metaphors about teachers have been investigated and it discovered that teacher is perceived as an individual who provides and disseminates knowledge for students. Çelikten (2006) stated that culture and teacher metaphors used in the educational system were explored by revealing that the teacher is usually seen as a doctor or a gardener.

Metaphors were also used by researchers to show the change that occurs in teachers’ beliefs and attitudes (Tobin, 1990; Marshall, 1990). The studies emphasized that “a change in metaphors may indicate a change in how the world of teaching is conceived, a change in the evolving story of the self” (Bullough, 1991). Martinez, Sauleda and Huber (2001) investigated metaphorical conceptions of teachers regarding their images of learning and most of the metaphors were behaviorist and empiricist. Studies which used metaphors as the research tool in investigating teachers’ beliefs and attitudes are not limited to teaching in the general sense.
Studies in the field of foreign language teaching also provided significant results and implied the power of metaphor as a research tool. In one of the studies in the context of language teaching and learning, Shaw, Barry and Mahlios (2008) explored English and foreign language teachers’ metaphors and their connection with the conceptions of literacy. The findings of the study indicated that beliefs fall into nine themes including nurturing and guiding. In addition, Nikitina, Larisa & Furuoka, Fumitaka (2008) collected samples of metaphors that students generated about language teachers, and it was found out that metaphors support the enlightened eclecticism approach toward language teaching.

Metaphors claim that ‘human thought processes are metaphorical’ and we use metaphors all the time, everyday without even noticing. They represent our cognitive processes and our way of understanding and interpreting the world.

Method and Procedures
Based on the literature review, the research questions of this study include:
1. Can metaphors describe a student’s state of mind?
2. What are students’ perceptions regarding metaphors in language teaching and learning?

The study was carried out in the second semester in the academic year 2015-2016 in Sinop University. Acknowledging convenience sampling, the subjects who participated in this study were attending the Foreign Language English II course in the department of Teaching Mathematics and Turkish in Faculty of Education.

Participants
32 university students in the department of Teaching Mathematics and Turkish attending in the 1st class in Sinop University Faculty of Education in 2015-2016. Their ages range from 18 to 21. Females constituted 24% of the sample group (n=24) with the remaining 16% being male (n=8).

Instrumentation
Semi-structured interviews with volunteer students were undertaken to substantiate the essential findings of the content analysis. More precisely, thematic content analyses based on Neundorf (2002) have been made in order to measure psychological characteristics of individuals.

Data Collection and Analysis
“Learning is acquisition” is a metaphor that rooted in the behaviourist movement in psychology and supported by cognitive constructivist assumptions. The new knowledge is an outcome of transforming the old schemata into new ones. The aim of learning is “gaining possession over some commodity. Knowing is indistinguishable from “having” or “possessing”. Two prominent educational metaphors view learning as “acquisition” or “participation”. Both metaphors are important and serve as a “sense-making” tool (Sfard, 1998, p.12).

The students completed the sentence “Learning ENGLISH has been like…” with their own metaphors and provided a short explanation of the images. The students were given a short questionnaire with some sentence beginnings which they had to finish. These sentences became metaphors by which students described their imaginations. Subsequently, metaphors were compared to identify themes and topics, followed by student interviews to substantiate the survey results. Finally, frequency statistics were applied to analyze and inferences were made to report the results.

Limitations
The scope of the study is limited to university students and it can be argued that one of the limitations of this study is its small sample size. A second limitation derives from the gender imbalance generated, in this case, from the convenience sampling approach.

Findings
As to the findings of the study, total 26 metaphors were classified into 4 categories:
1. Metaphors that described learning in terms of a “journey”, “travel” or “movement” from one place to another;
2. Metaphors that compared learning to various types of a “solitary experience”;
3. Metaphors that linked language learning to other (familiar) kinds of learning experiences;
4. Metaphors that described learning in terms of “communicating”.

1) Journey-related metaphors
Learning is a self-centered experience; learning is attaining something (e.g., new knowledge, new emotional state or the destination itself).
→ “Learning is acquisition”

... bottle floating in the sea. It makes its journey from one shore to another.
... Ahmet falling into a deep hole. We keep wondering what will happen next and we never know how it will end.

2) Learning as a solitary experience
No reference to the important ‘others’;

Knowledge needs to be ingested (“eating”); knowledge is a precious possession (“mining for gold”)
→ “Learning is acquisition”
... eating a sour or sweet apple. ... being an ant. We need to work hard and we need strong commitment.

... mining gold day and night. It is so difficult and it requires a lot of energy to master the language.

3) Learning as a familiar experience
Some metaphors showed the awareness that learning is a social act. However, these images described learning as a socially useful but essentially self-centered process
→ aligned with the “learning is acquisition” metaphor.
... learning to drive. Before we know how to drive we need someone to guide us.
To be a good driver we must practice a lot.
Being a kid who learns proper behaviour. We must have solid basics.
Being a child learning to talk.
... a starting point for communicating with others. Without communication we are lonely.
... befriending a stranger. If the person is nice we want to know more about him.
... doing as the Romans do even if you are not Roman yourself.

4) Metaphors that described learning in terms of “communicating”
Learning viewed in terms of developing bonds between the individual and other people. Awareness of the cultural difference between the nations.
More importantly, learning involves adapting to the prevailing cultural practices and becoming “a part of a greater entity” (Sfard, 1998, p.6) as in the metaphor “doing as the Romans do”.
⇒ “learning is participation”

Discussion
Based on the use of ‘conceptual metaphors’, Bailey (2003) has used metaphors to elicit concepts concerning language teaching and learning. This study tries to examine the value of metaphors for students learning foreign languages by gathering experimental evidence from the student evaluation of foreign-language learning courses.
Further, it explores to gather practical evidence for the value of critical thinking development, a strategy identified as useful for teachers, researchers, policymakers and curriculum developers in promoting learner autonomy.

The metaphors about learning a foreign language supported both the established “learning is acquisition” and the emerging “learning is participation” educational metaphors. However, the former metaphor prevailed. Interestingly, 10 out of 26 metaphors were journey-related. Learning as a journey is one of the oldest and most widely employed educational metaphors (Caballero, 2006; Hunt, 1976). This metaphor crosses cultural boundaries. The findings indicate a strong universal appeal and cross-cultural applicability of the “learning is a journey” metaphor.

From the learner’s perspective, this metaphor embeds the connotation of the point of departure and the movement. There are ‘fellow travelers’, including the teacher, which implies the existence of a learning community to provide social support on one’s learning route. More importantly, a journey undertaken together as a group does not preclude individual intellectual enrichment.
“Learning is a shared journey” could be a suitable platform to reconstruct the classroom reality. It can combine the “acquisition” and “participation” metaphors.

From the teacher’s perspective, the “shared journey” metaphor places emphases on progress, involvement and participation. It supports practicing advanced pedagogy based on social constructivist assumptions.

Results
Personal beliefs play a significant role in teachers’ classroom practice, which are the result of their self-construction. While a conceptual metaphor program is being designed in this study, we found out that figurative language is not incidental but omnipresent in daily language. This ubiquity of metaphors and idioms is concerned with the high proficiency of figurative language. The results of the study indicate that metaphor awareness of understanding idiomatic expressions is highly significant in foreign language. Students believed that their teachers were responsible and committed to their profession. They pointed out that other than the English grammar rules, they were quite pleased with their own imaginations and preferences. While answering to the questions, the respondents interviewed mentioned that they were highly motivated about metaphors and metaphor usage.
Conclusion and Suggestions

The students participating in this study showed that they were confident using various metaphors to explain their ideas, perceptions and satisfaction levels, and to describe their feelings about their teachers, courses and personal states of mind. The metaphor strategy applied in this study provided useful feedback to the teacher in evaluating the course, instruction and students’ feelings. Applying the strategy with a structured survey, students were challenged and provoked to think critically and respond reflectively to the course evaluation. The results of the study indicate that metaphor is strongly motivating. Yet, the small sample size of this study and the ambiguity of some of the metaphors suggest that there are several areas requiring further research. In particular, discourse analysis of case studies over a longer period of time is suggested. Using and collecting metaphors on a daily basis as a reflection of the lesson, focus groups after each week, month, etc. would give a deeper insight in assessing the classes daily and over a long period of time while, at the same time, affirming the use of metaphor by students as an effective and enjoyable learning strategy.

Metaphors we use reflect our thinking and feelings. Furthermore, they influence our behavior. Verbalizing and sharing the perceptions of the educational reality through metaphors provides a vantage point from where we can re-evaluate our preprevious conceptions of the educational practice. Perhaps in future we should ask ourselves when we meet in the classroom: “What will our journey be like today?” or “Are we here for work or a most glorious kind of play?”

References


Understandings and Tendencies of Edutainment in Turkey: An Evaluation Based on Neil Postman’s Criticism on Education, Entertainment and Technology

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Abstract
There have been a wide range of studies on the interplay between education and technology. Furthermore, there are many other studies aimed at analyzing the scholarly output on this subject with a holistic approach. However the studies are mostly focused on the facilitator role of technology. Although the idea that educational processes have become more fun thanks to the widespread use of technology, there is strong need for the critical analysis of the interplay among education, entertainment and technology. Taking this need into account, and drawing on Neil Postman’s critical approach on this trio, this paper aims to discuss and evaluate the tendencies and understandings in relation to the notion of “edutainment” primarily with reference to “edutainment” studies carried out in Turkey. It is expected that this evaluation would contribute to similar future studies on this topic, thus helping the policy development. According to findings of the study, although the edutainment studies in Turkey reflect the general tendency throughout the world, there only a few of them quantitatively. There is no consensus on the designation and definition of the concept of edutainment. From Neill Postman’s point of view, it could be said that the edutainment studies in Turkey lack a critical perspective with regard to technology and entertainment, and there is a quite limited framework.

Keywords: Edutainment, Educational Technology, Entertainment, Neill Postman, Technopoly

Introduction
Educational organizations, educational processes as well as views and functions of teachers, administrators, students and parents concerning educational processes are influenced by scientific and technological developments. In different ways and with an increasing intensity, technology is transforming the education experience for all stakeholders. Edutainment is one of the most original example of this transformation. In this study we aimed to evaluate the edutainment studies in Turkey based on Postman’s legacy. In this regard it could be very useful to mention edutainment’s history and Postman’s thoughts briefly.

When a grassroots movement that started in households early 1980s put pressure on schools to ensure that the computers are taken into classrooms, people started to think that the initiation of the use of computers in classrooms was a revolution (Molnar & Deringer, 1984). The transformation process which started with the use of computers in classrooms caused the interaction between education and technology to gain new dimensions. While the educational processes were revolutionized, the impacts of technology on education continued to be an important matter of debate. Technology has transformed the nature of educational processes, individual learning and also expectations regarding the learning. As a result of the gradual spread of innovations in the field of education and communication, new methods and approaches emerged with new software and hardware tools. This situation has caused an educational understanding that pays regard to the active participation of students, their individual preferences and individual learning methods and tools (Sorathia & Servidio, 2012; Goffe and Sosin, 2005). The transformation that occurred in educational systems is not over. As indicated by Anikina and Yakimenko (2015), there is an ongoing search for more interactive learning methods, which also further attract the students to itself, as well as the educational transformation and transition. At the same time fast and remarkable developments in communication and information technologies have produced remote education which has no spatial and time constraints (Yamamoto & Watanabe, 2013).

We are living in a world, where technology is formed in an unprecedented manner. This new world produces specific educational and learning forms. The understandings regarding the objectives, content and quality of education try to harmonize with new conditions in societies living in the new world of communication and information technologies. While the children live with hyper speed of the age of information and communication, there are likely to be influenced with messages surrounding them. The media that produce
reality designs shape the character of individuals and particularly the children (Pembecioğlu, 1997; Alver, 2004). As indicated by Jarvin (2015), the children and adults spend most of their time for digital entertainment elements, and thus new approaches aimed at responding to that situation and also directing that energy into self-motivated learning are needed in the education in digital era. A tendency that could be evaluated in this context is related with the concept of entertainment. Since the development of educational television in the 1960s, there has been a growing interest in incorporating features of entertainment in informal and formal education (Jarvin, 2015). Within the context of the combination of entertainment and educational processes, edutainment has emerged to define new tendencies. There are some considerations that the edutainment started with the initial involvement of computers in classrooms (Molnar & Deringer, 1984). The edutainment in which technology and entertainment are combined for educational purposes for the general public. Rapeepisam et.al. (2006) pointed out the difference between learning through the game-based learning and edutainment. According to the body of literature, while the game-based learning is likely to consist of activities with or without media, the edutainment is based on media.

The concept of edutainment was firstly used in order to define the CD-ROOM programs which were used for edutainment purposes (Rapeepisam et. al., 2006). The word edutainment is a concept that refers to a situation combining both the entertainment and education or the marriage between education and entertainment (Colace et. al., 2006 cited in Aksakal, 2015) and edutainment could be seen as an empirical application of the constructivism theory (Ozkal, K., et. al., 2009 cited in Sorathia & Servidio, 2012). Edutainment is a feature of the technology implementation of modern forms of entertainment in traditional lectures, lessons, classes, workshops and master classes. Without television programs, desktop, computer and video games, movies, music, web sites, multimedia software is already impossible to imagine a modern training and communication (Anikina & Yakimenko, 2015). Edutainment is the new technology of the real learning, consisting of the basic motivation of entertainment and happiness and focusing on the methodological understanding of the game and game technology. Edutainment is considered by the authors as a training concept used in training for the museums, environmental education, leisure centers, information and mass media (Němec, Jiří & Trna, 2007 cited in Anikina & Yakimenko, 2015). Although the computer technologies and edutainment are closely associated with each other, edutainment has more comprehensive definitions as well. Edutainment refers to a set of activities that could be realized in drama, story, television and computers (Aksakal, 2015). The virtual reality has been recently used within the context of edutainment. As De Paolis et.al. (2009) stated, the Virtual Reality technology makes it possible to create applications for edutainment purposes for the general public. Rapeepisam et.al. (2006) pointed out the difference between learning through the game-based learning and edutainment. According to the body of literature, while the game-based learning is likely to consist of activities with or without media, the edutainment is based on media.

Based on the common ground of the definitions of edutainment, it could be said that the basic characteristics of edutainment is to ensure that the learning process is made entertaining and facilitated, learning is achieved by having a good time, the interest in learning is boosted and thus it is rendered permanent. As a result, edutainment combines education with entertainment aspects; thus enhancing the learning environment, making it much more engaging and funfilled. The most legitimizing aspect of edutainment is that it makes the learning both entertaining and attractive (Aksakal, 2015; De Paolis et.al, 2009; Yamamoto & Watanabe, 2013).
The theoretical discussions about edutainment reject the existence of a considerable resistance (Singhal & Rogers, 2002). There is a strong need for critical approaches within the context of edutainment. Nevertheless, it would not be wrong to argue that there are at least some concerns with regard to edutainment in the body of literature. One of the basic concerns are cited as the fact that the edutainment practices are considered as a structure not replacing the conventional education, but supporting it. For example, one of the supporters of Edutainment in Russia D. Perushev notes that Edutainment - is the transfer of knowledge, the opportunity to learn something new from reliable sources, and not an alternative to academic education (Perushev, 2009 cited in Anikina & Yakimenko, 2015). Furthermore, possible drawbacks of the combination of education and entertainment in an environment occupied by the media technologies were mentioned as well. The convergence of education and entertainment is favoured by the diffusion of technology and its use. The application of the new technologies to edutainment reinforces the convergence between education and entertainment (Addis, 2005).

According to Singhal and Rogers (2002) in highly saturated media environments, and to a somewhat lesser degree in developing countries, entertainment-education messages face competition from, and are resisted by, various other media discourses, which are often of the “entertainment-degradation” or “entertainment-perversion” type.

**Education and Entertainment in Postman’s Technopoly**

Entertainment is a concept, which is difficult to be defined with a common and single definition. A large variety of activities could be covered by the definition of entertainment and it varies across the individuals. The basic function of the modern entertainment is likely to ensure that the individuals fatigued by the modern life are relaxed and returned back to that life or prevent the individuals from going outside the system, while they relieve tiredness (Kocabay Şener, 2016). In fact, as Bates & Ferri (2009) said, entertainment has been a part of all cultures, from the Chauvet Cave paintings to the iPad. But now entertainment is making increasing inroads into people’s personal lives (Postman, 1985 cited in Singhal & Rogers, 2002). Entertainment is becoming a more integral part of our shopping, traveling, eating, driving, exercising, and working experiences (Singhal & Rogers, 2002).

The authorities dealing with the field of communication defined the entertainment experience with concepts of pleasure, thrill, relaxation, diversion, and enjoyment (Wirth, Hofer & Schramm, 2012). Similarly, the difference between hedonic and eudaimonic entertainment could be mentioned. What is experienced in the process of watching the movies with a happy ending is an example of the eudaimonic entertainment. The state of eudaimonic well-being has been transferred to entertainment (Wirth, Hofer & Schramm, 2012). As Thompson (2007) and Kim and Vishak (2008) stressed that the idea that popular culture and entertainment media influence us in both conscious and unconscious ways is not new and gradually the entertainment media have begun to be recognized as an important venue of “infotaining” citizens. However as with traditional media, we need to view these spaces with a critical eye, especially as they gain popularity and advertising dollars. We also need to ask, who has the access, knowledge, and skills necessary to be the “you”s who shape the media? Whose voices are not being heard? How will this interactive medium influence individuals and society? The answers lie in the future (Thompson, 2007).

Some people have identified the US as the “republic of entertainment” (Bates & Ferri, 2009), but according to Postman (1993; 2013), the US is the single example of the technopoly. Technopoly paves a useful way for a discussion on the interaction between technology, education and entertainment.

At this stage, it would be useful to briefly touch upon Postman’s concept of technology, his understanding of technopoly and his opinions on the relation between education and entertainment. According to Postman’s (1998) understanding, we need to have a different point of view on the issue of technology and be on the alert:

In the past, we experienced technological change in the manner of sleep-walkers. Our unsung slogan has been “technology über alles,” and we have been willing to shape our lives to fit the requirements of technology, not the requirements of culture. This is a form of stupidity, especially in an age of vast technological change. We need to proceed with our eyes wide open so that we may use technology rather than be used by it (Postman, 1998).

Postman (2013) begins his book entitled “Technopoly” with the story of the Egyptian King Thamus, which he describes as considerably informative. According to him, the story told by Plato in his book entitled “Phaedrus” consists of several principles as to how to think with wise circumspection about technology. At this point, the warnings made by Thamus to Theuth, who has made complimentary remarks about the invention of writing, as
well as his ideas that the writing would make it easier to have knowledge, but damage wisdom. It could be argued that those who keep a wary eye on technology are represented in the person of Thamus, who says that making an invention and imagining if it would bring any benefit or harm are different from each other, and the group of technophiles are represented in the person of Theuth. According to Postman, there are five things we need to know about technological changes in order to be able to develop a point of view about technology (Postman, 1998):

a) The first idea is that all technological change is a trade-off. I like to call it a Faustian bargain. Technology giveth and technology taketh away. This means that for every advantage a new technology offers, there is always a corresponding disadvantage. Culture always pays a price for technology.

b) The advantages and disadvantages of new technologies are never distributed evenly among the population. This means that every new technology benefits some and harms others.

c) Embedded in every technology there is a powerful idea, sometimes two or three powerful ideas. These ideas are often hidden from our view because they are of a somewhat abstract nature. To a person with a TV camera, everything looks like an image. To a person with a computer, everything looks like data.

d) Technological change is not additive; it is ecological. What happens if we place a drop of red dye into a beaker of clear water? Do we have clear water plus a spot of red dye? Obviously not. We have a new coloration to every molecule of water. A new medium does not add something; it changes everything. In the year 1500, after the printing press was invented, you did not have old Europe plus the printing press. You had a different Europe. After television, America was not America plus television. Television gave a new coloration to every political campaign, to every home, to every school, to every church, to every industry, and so on.

e) Media tend to become mythic. I use this word in the sense in which it was used by the French literary critic, Roland Barthes. He used the word “myth” to refer to a common tendency to think of our technological creations as if they were God-given, as if they were a part of the natural order of things. Cars, planes, TV, movies, newspapers—they have achieved mythic status because they are perceived as gifts of nature, not as artifacts produced in a specific political and historical context.

The above-mentioned five quotations refer to the key criteria of developing a deep and critical perspective regarding technology. The critical analysis concerning edutainment should also take these criteria into consideration.

According to Postman, there is an existential conflict between technology and human. He suggested the dominance of technology over everything has started with Comte. According to Postman, August Comte said at the beginning of the 19th century that none of the invisible and mathematically non-concretizable things are real, and thus presented the measurable, countable and orientable human design of the future as an object. Frederick W. Taylor underlined the process of putting this idea into practice. Hereafter, the system has started to think and decide on behalf of the worker, instead of him/her thinking and deciding on his/her own. At this point, the first signs of the prospect of replacing the thought with technology in the future could be seen (Alver, 2004).

In Technopoly, modern secular education has no moral, social or intellectual center (Postman, 1993). With the rise of Technopoly, one of those thought-worlds disappears. Technopoly eliminates alternatives to itself in precisely the way Aldous Huxley outlined in Brave New World. It does not make them illegal. It does not make them immoral. It does not even make them unpopular. It makes them invisible and therefore irrelevant. And it does so by redefining what we mean by religion, by art, by family, by politics, by history, by truth, by privacy, by intelligence, so that our definitions fit its new requirements. Technopoly, in other words, is totalitarian technocracy (Postman, 1993: 48).

**Purpose**

In Postman’s (2013:8) own words, “technology is both friend and enemy.” Accordingly, it deserves a cautious and also skeptical evaluation. The studies regarding the information technology in education are usually on a technical level (Conlon, 2002). This situation is valid to a great extent in terms of the studies conducted in Turkey as well. Although the edutainment is a new concept in Turkey in terms of its practical examples and as a research subject, it should be evaluated from a critical perspective. Within this context, this paper aims to discuss and evaluate, the tendencies and understandings of “edutainment” with reference to “edutainment” studies.
carried out in Turkey based on the views of Neil Postman’s critics on technology, education and entertainment. We sought answers to the following questions towards that end:

a) What is the general situation about the years in which the studies on Edutainment are published?
b) How are the articles on Edutainment distributed in terms of the number of their writers?
c) How are the studies on Edutainment categorized in terms of their languages and naming of the concept in Turkish?
d) How are the articles on Edutainment distributed in terms of the journals they are published?
e) How are the studies on Edutainment distributed in terms of their fields?
f) How are the studies on Edutainment distributed in terms of their approaches to edutainment?
g) What are the main results and suggestions of the studies on Edutainment?

Method

Model. This study aimed to evaluate the tendencies of edutainment in Turkey. In this regard, the study was designed as a qualitative, descriptive study to make a comprehensive evaluation based on the edutainment studies in Turkey.

Working Group. Criterion sampling was used to determine the working group and in this way 25 published articles directly related edutainment constituted the working group of the study.

Process. Document analysis was used to collect data. The data was analyzed based on the categories; naming of edutainment, method, field, and approach towards edutainment, main results and suggestions. The data were analyzed through the frequency and categorical analyses. In the first phase, two researchers made a search to collect the articles related edutainment on the internet. The articles were found on the Turkish Academic Network and Information Center (ULAKBİM), the Google Academic, Web of Science All Database. In the second phase, the year of publication, number of authors, journals covering the publication, language of the article and its field were separately analyzed by authors of the article in terms of the Turkish definitions, which were used to refer to the concept of education. The conclusions drawn by the articles, as well as their suggestions, were analyzed and expressed in the form of themes. In the third stage, authors discussed the tables and themes they have prepared on the basis of categories, and integrated the findings. The findings obtained and the conclusions drawn were discussed within the context of Postman’s views on the interaction between technology, entertainment and education.

Findings

The findings of the study are presented on the basis of the categories, the articles’ publishing years, author numbers, method, field and journals which published the articles, naming of edutainment, and approach towards edutainment, main results and suggestions.

Edutainment Articles’ Years of Publication

Figure 1 shows the distribution of studies on edutainment in Turkey by their years of publication. It is seen that the concept of edutainment has been mentioned for the first time in a study in 1998. A relative increase occurred in the number of publications on edutainment in the period covering 2009 and 2013. It is seen that there was a decrease again to a level of publication in the later years.
Number of Authors of Articles on Edutainment
Table 1 shows data on the number of authors of the articles on edutainment. As seen on Table 1, nearly two-third of the articles (16 articles) on edutainment was written by one writer. Five articles were written by two writers and one article were written by three writers. Total number of the authors whose articles regarding edutainment were published is 35.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Author</th>
<th>Edutainment Studies</th>
<th>Total Number of Authors in Articles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>35</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Methods of the Articles on Edutainment
As seen on Table 2, most of the articles on edutainment are theoretical, literature reviews or qualitative studies. There are 3 quantitative research articles. Furthermore, there are one book review and one translated theoretical articles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method/Type of the Articles</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical-Literature Review</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative Study</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book Review</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translated Article-Literature Review</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fields of Articles on Edutainment
Table 3 shows data on their fields in terms of the contexts to which the articles on education are related or on which researches are carried out. As seen on Table 3, a little more of the articles (15 articles) are in the field of education, learning and teaching technologies. Nearly one fourth of them are in the field of communication and media (6 articles), and there are two articles in the field of computer games and one in each of the fields of library science and linguistics.
Table 3. Fields of Articles on Edutainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fields of Edutainment Studies</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education, Learning and Instructional Technologies</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication and Media</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Games</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Science</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Journals in which Articles on Edutainment are published

Table 4 contains the data on the journals that have featured the articles on edutainment. It demonstrates that 19 edutainment-related articles have been published in 17 different journals. 5 of them have been published as part of conference proceedings, and one of them is based on a master thesis on foreign words in Turkish language. Half of the journals (9) are the ones dealing with education research, theory and practice, while 4 in social sciences and humanities, another 3 in communications, and the remaining 1 in natural sciences. Each of the Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE and Istanbul University Faculty of Communication Journal have featured two edutainment articles as the others have published one article for each. Table 4 Journals in which Articles on Edutainment are published.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Istanbul University Faculty of Communication Journal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Dokuz Mayis University, Journal of Education Faculty</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Eurasia Social Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eurasian Journal of Educational Research</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigma Journal of Engineering and Natural Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İLETİ-Ş-İM: Galatasaray University Journal of Communication</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Turkish Educational Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marmara University Journal of Atatürk Educational Faculty</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.U. Journal of Faculty of Languages, History and Geography</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marmara Journal of Communication</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kastamonu Education Journal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemporary Educational Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RumeliDE Journal of Language and Literature Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Research in Education and Teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Journal of Educational Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language of the Articles and Naming of the Concept

Nearly one-third of 22 articles on edutainment (9 articles) are in English, whereas most of them (16 articles) are in Turkish. In line with an analysis of examples on the expression of the concept of edutainment in articles in Turkish, it was seen that it was used in English without any translation into Turkish in nearly half of the articles. The most commonly used naming in Turkish consists of the terms ‘entertaining education’ and ‘education by entertainment.’ Besides the Turkish word for entertainment, a version of the word learning in Turkish was used in an article. In other articles, some namings were used by combining or uniting the words ‘entertaining’ and ‘education.’
Table 5. Language and Naming

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edutainment in Turkish</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edutainment</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertaining education (Eğlenceli eğitim)</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education by entertainment (Eğlendirilen eğitim)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and entertainment (Eğitim ve eğlence)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment-learning (Eğlence-öğrenme)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu-tainment (Eğitilence)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educating entertainment (Eğitici eğlence)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amusing education (Eğlenceli-eğiti)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Approaches towards Edutainment

Table 6 shows the general approach towards edutainment in the articles analyzed in such dimensions as positive, cautious-positive and critical-negative. Approaches towards edutainment are expressed within the context of sub-themes on Table 7. Accordingly, there is generally a positive approach in nearly all of the articles (23 articles). There is a critical and negative approach only in two articles. As for the sub-themes, the positive impacts on learning were highlighted in 23 studies and it was stated only in 4 articles that it’s likely to create negative impacts on learning. It was pointed out in three studies that there should be more studies on the field of edutainment, whereas the need for technical improvements on practices of edutainment is indicated in seven studies. The impact of environmental conditions were discussed in two studies.

The quotations from certain articles with a positive approach towards the issue of edutainment are as follows;

- Games to turn education into edutainment. When we consider the characteristics of young children, edutainment would be a better term rather than education (Çelik Korkmaz, 2012)
- Teaching can be made easier by attracting the learners’ attention and making the subject and information to be taught more enjoyable with the Edutainment approach (Aksakal, 2014)
- Although some people access information whenever they want in today’s world, there are also many people who fail to use information technologies, and thus access information. Television is the source of information to many people, but this situation could be resolved with the ETV and the digital divide could be prevented. Self learning – Learning at Home

The quotations from the articles consisting of positive, yet cautious approaches towards education, are as follows;

- Digital games comprise of both advantages and disadvantages. What’s important is to transfer digital games into the process of education at the right time, in direct proportion, in a planned manner and in line with certain objectives (Bozkurt, 2014)

Table 6. General Approach towards the Edutainment Phenomenon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Approach towards Edutainment</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cautious / Positive</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical / Negative</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Sub-themes of Approaches towards Edutainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive effects on learning</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative effects on learning</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation to the entertaining enviroment</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflections of popular culture</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edutainment as a research field</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The views on the issue are reflected in various dimensions by certain quotations from the articles highlighting the positive impacts of edutainment on learning:

It was observed that it makes the children’s process of learning more interesting (Ateşci & İslamoğlu, 2014)

More importance should be attached to dimensions of the web-based learning. The finding of a positive impact, satisfaction from the class (Tokay Argan, 2009)

(Participants of the research) said that an entertaining atmosphere has been created, there is a positive impact on learning (Başarmak & Mahiroğlu, 2015)

(Participants) (Believe that) the education through educational games created an entertaining atmosphere of learning (Batd, 2012)

The educational computer games could be combined with other learning methods, and thus learning could be achieved as a whole (Çatak, 2011)

It was seen that the studies conducted with regard to atmospheres of customizable learning were applied usually on the level of secondary education and higher education. It’s suggested that these applications are used in previous levels. The atmospheres of customizable learning are gradually getting more widespread and popular. It’s considered that the web 3.0 and semantic web technologies would make great contributions to such atmospheres with the advancement of technology (Şahin & Kışla, 2013)

Some views evaluated in the sub-theme of negative impacts on learning could be indicated as follows:

In the process of preparing software with a hybrid design such as the entertaining education software, the educational objects and entertaining elements should be prevented from clouding each other and it should be remembered that the main purpose is to achieve the learning goals (Kara, 2007).

However, one unforeseen danger of adapting computer technology into education so enthusiastically is that learning is seen as fun and entertainment. Learners who are exposed heavily to the Internet, video games and ready-made images presented by multimedia develop a new attitude towards learning. As Bloom and Hanych (2002) observe, equating learning with fun suggests that if students are not enjoying themselves, they are not learning. In other words, learning becomes an obstacle that learners need to overcome. To Bloom and Hanych, “such an approach doesn’t promote learning; it trivializes the learning process.” (Okan, 2003)

Some opinions within the context of the sub-theme of adaptation to the entertaining environment are as follows:

It has been seen that various kinds of augmented reality applications on each level and for many needs in the educational environments started to be commonly used throughout the world (Çetinkaya & Akçay, 2013).

The augmented reality is capable of turning both the digital environment and physical space into a basis for games, it’s much more interesting than the hybrid games, and it will be possible to see its effective examples in the near future (Çatak, 2011)

There are certain opinions evaluated in the sub-theme of technical support, as indicated below;

In today’s Turkey, some investments are made and arrangements and studies are conducted in order to enable students to make educational subjects more meaningful in the process of education and teaching. Nevertheless, it’s hard to say in what ways the computers without any educational software designed and developed in accordance with the intended population could provide the students with educational benefits (İnal & Kiraz, 2008).

The views evaluated in the sub-theme of reflections of the popular culture could be exemplified as follows:

The concepts of ‘edutainment’ or ‘infotainment,’ deriving from various combinations of the English words education, information and entertainment, which are often used in the nature and scientific documents, both highlight the entertainment, namely, the superior ideology of television to some extent, and also refer to the public broadcast’s mission to inform and educate. Although the ‘infotainment’ or ‘edutainment,’ which are one of the important foundations of popular culture, appear as the concepts that combine information, education and entertainment, it’s significantly indicated in academic literature that the information is sacrificed to entertainment in mass media. The concern for entertaining seems to have thoroughly penetrated into the texture of mass media. Concerns/requirements for having people ‘watch,’ ‘like’ and selling (Narmanlioğlu, 2011).
Discussion

Postman (2013: 26) divides cultures into three types, namely, tool-using cultures, technocracies and technopolies. Technopoly is the order consisting of the submission of all forms of cultural life to the sovereignty of technique and technology (Postman, 2013: 54). And according to Postman (1993; 2013) USA is the only society that is transformed to technopoly and some European countries and Japan is striving to be technopolies. Obviously, Turkey is not one of the technopolies as defined by Postman (1993), but we can extend Postman’s conceptualization to include Turkey, at least within the context of education. The edutainment applications could be considered as one of the signs of being a prospective technopoly in terms of Turkey, in which technology and entertaining elements find their place with regard to education. According to findings of this research, the concept of edutainment and the studies covering edutainment are quite new for Turkey.

Similarly, the number of articles published regarding edutainment are quite few as the concept of edutainment dates back to a longer time throughout the world. There are 284 studies entitled edutainment from the WOS review (2016). The first study is the publication prepared by Molnar and Deringer in 1984. 10 studies were published in 1990s, 163 studies in 2000-2010 and 110 studies in the period of 2011-2016 with regard to edutainment (WOS, 2016). Concerning specifically the WOS, the increase that occurred especially in the number of studies on edutainment throughout the world in 2000-2010 created an impact on an increase in the number of articles on edutainment published in Turkey after 2010.

In Postman’s words (2013:13), “new things require new words.” As something other than the education in its original sense has emerged, a new name should be found for that. As indicated in one of the articles analyzed, edutainment is a word better than the education in order to define the thing experienced by the young people today. According to findings of this study, it was highlighted that it refers to a new understanding aimed at uniting the education and entertainment. The combination of education and entertainment has been often mentioned. This situation is likely to confirm Postman’s finding (1985) that the entertainment is making increasing inroads into people’s personal lives (cited in Singhal and Rogers, 2002). It is seen that there is not a common stance towards the Turkish definition of the concept in articles covering edutainment in Turkey. It is observed that the concept is used in English in many studies, whereas different definitions comprising of the combination of the Turkish words of education and entertainment are made in certain studies. According to Turgut Şahin’s (2009) findings, the use of edutainment in press is also in the form of the education by entertainment in computer environment. In this regard, it could be said that there is yet to emerge an accumulation in the context of the meaning and definition of the concept. It could be actually argued that producing new concepts with the combination of the concepts of entertainment and education is not quite consistent. Indeed, the best name to be designated for a non-confusing education without any precondition and comment is the word entertainment (Postman, 2006: 182).

According to findings of the study, there is a higher number of qualitative studies conducted regarding edutainment. It could be said that the qualitative paradigm has been gradually preferred in terms of the academic studies in Turkey, but the increase in the number of qualitative studies falls behind the general tendency throughout the world. In this regard, it’s striking that the qualitative method have been further used in studies regarding education. This situation could be seen as an indication of the need for a deep analysis based on the opinions of parties to the interaction between the technology and entertainment and education. There’s a need for more qualitative and quantitative studies regarding edutainment on various levels and samples. It was seen that the studies on edutainment are mostly prepared by one author. It could be said that there is a tendency towards an increase in the number of joint studies prepared by multiple writers. Accordingly, joint studies on the subject of education are significantly required to be prepared by authors from various disciplines as well. The multidimensional studies combining various disciplines could ensure that the concept of edutainment is understood in a much better manner. According to the results of this study 16 edutainment-related articles have been published in 14 different journals. According the findings concerning the mentioned journals, mostly journals featuring edutainment article are mostly from the field of educational sciences, social sciences and communications. Considering this fact, it can be concluded that there is need for more multidisciplinary studies on edutainment in accordance with the nature of this phenomenon that cut across a wide range of study areas.

Postman (1993) stressed that the only way of improving education is to improve learning technologies in Technopoly. Teachers, from primary grades through college, are increasing the visual stimulation of their lessons; are reducing the amount of exposition their students must cope with and are concluding that the principal means by which student interest may be engaged is entertainment (Postman, 2006: 182). There are
certain approach towards edutainment in the articles included in the scope of this study shows that most of the articles consist of a strong and enthusiastic support, as well as a positive stance. It was stated in studies with a positive stance that particularly the trio of education, technology and entertainment would make the learning more attractive, entertaining, interesting and permanent. It could be argued in Postman’s words (2004) that there is such an understanding as “teaching as an amusing activity.” The edutainment applications are considered as the best way of improving the learning. It corresponds to findings in the body of literature that the edutainment applications lead to learning and motivation, as well as enjoyment (Bertacchini et al., 2012). The remarks made by Postman (1993, 2004) within the context of introducing televisions and computers into classrooms are likely to predict such findings; why televisions or computers should introduce into classrooms? The only answer is to make learning more attractive and effective. Being attractive does not need any justification in Technopol. But this kind answers is always about technique but it is not about the essential question: education for what (Postman, 1993). Nevertheless, such questions as to whether students learn math in a better way thanks to computers fail to teach us anything; on the contrary, such questions divert our attention from social, intellectual or institutional crises to other directions. As a result, what’s important with regard to computers or edutainment is not related with what sort of educational tools they are. What’s important is how they change our understanding of education and slowly destroy the longstanding school structure (Postman, 2013: 23-24).

In Postman’s (2004) view, television for example does not offer only entertainment, but it transforms everything to entertainment. Entertainment is meta-ideology for TV (cited in Kocabay Şener, 2016). As Alver (2004) observed that the consequences of communication technologies, that Postman mentioned, with the developments in computer technology and especially the internet, are felt more strongly. In such an atmosphere, the expectation for rendering education and learning primarily entertaining has been gradually strengthened. As stressed by Conlon (2002), everything should be satisfactory in the consumption culture and regarding learning as a hard-earned victory is considered as quite boring (Conlon, 2002). As Postman (1998) expressed, every advantage a new technology offers, there is always a corresponding disadvantage. While the majority of educators believe that the combination of education and entertainment is important in terms of educational success, some educators are of the opinion that such a combination is quite difficult (Rapeepisam et. al., 2006). Some of the articles reviewed stress that the small number of articles with a critical approach about education in line with Postman’s approach are likely to lead to both advantages and disadvantages. In this regard, such concerns over the initiation of negative impacts on learning and education by the identification of learning and education with entertainment were shared, rather than the positive impacts of edutainment on learning. Postman sees some problems beyond some side effects or negativities in the combination of education and entertainment.

Postman (2013) predicts that in the long run, television may bring a gradual end to the careers of schoolteachers. Schoolteachers have been part of the knowledge monopoly created by printing, and their existence will come to an end with the breaking up of that monopoly with new technologies. It could be considered that the information technologies and edutainment evoke a bad end in terms of educators. In this regard, the educators’ optimism which is generally emphasized in the articles reviewed could be considered as quite interesting and weird. “Such enthusiasm always calls to my mind an image of some turn-of-the-century blacksmith who not only sings the praises of the automobile, but also believes that his business will be enhanced by it,” Postman (2013: 15) says, thinking that such enthusiasm caused by introducing technology into classrooms and also all the transformation deriving from it is not reasonable. Postman’s (2013: 16) finding that in cultures that have a democratic ethos, relatively weak traditions, and a high receptivity to new technologies, everyone is inclined to be enthusiastic about technological change is considerably relevant with the studies conducted on edutainment in Turkey.

According to Postman, from Confucius to Plato, Cicero, Lock or Dewey, no one thought that education would be successful with entertainment (Conlon, 2002). The improvements in electronic technology could ensure that the individual desires are fulfilled in a more perfect manner, but it leads to some results related with simpler ways of entertainment. For example, although television is the most popular means of entertainment, it encourages more individual way of entertainment at home (Çakır, 2005). The impact of the entertainment concept on political information, namely, “just laugh, you don’t need to remember,” is also evident in education (Kim & Vishak, 2008). Moreover, “Entertainment, involves communication featuring external stimuli; it provides pleasure to some people, though not of course to everyone; and it reaches a generally passive audience” (Bates & Ferri, 2009). As stressed by Bates and Ferri (2009), despite the entertainment’s central location in social life, academics have had negative approaches. Some academics consider entertainment and popular culture as the same concepts. A great many of academics have considered that as a trivial field of study. As a result, it could be
said that multidimensional studies are required within the context of the relation between entertainment and education.

Some authors distinguish between entertainment and game. It was suggested that the relation between edutainment and play-learning should be considered separately. Buckingham argues (2005) that a lot of learning can be done through play, but not all play is learning. Edutainment software is a great idea, if it is used in the correct manner. Although the terms learning through play and edutainment are usually used to refer to the same meaning, there are some differences between them (cited in Rapeepisam et al., 2006). Resnick (2004) suggests that people’s best learning experiences come when they are engaged in activities that they enjoy and care about, the play and learning should be united and the concept of ‘playful learning’ is preferred rather than edutainment, explaining why he doesn’t like edutainment as follows: “the problem is with the way that creators of today’s edutainment products tend to think about learning and education. Too often, they view education as a bitter medicine that needs the sugar-coating of entertainment to become palatable. They provide entertainment as a reward if you are willing to suffer through a little education. I also have a problem with word “edutainment” itself. When people think about “education” and “entertainment,” they tend to think of them as services that someone else provides for you. Studios, directors, and actors provide you with entertainment; schools and teachers provide you with education. New edutainment companies try to provide you with both. In all of these cases, you are viewed as a passive recipient.

As emphasized in the articles analyzed, a market has emerged, where the edutainment studies regarding the out-of-school learning activities turned into strong rivals competing with schools in terms of being entertaining and attractive. Contrary to schoolbooks, the educational materials designed for home should meet the parent’s demands and capable of being worth the time spent by children, and the children should be able to have fun and have a good time thanks to such books. This is how the edutainment has emerged. A hybrid mix of education and entertainment relies on visual materials, game-like formats and more informal, less didactic styles of address. Computers, online learning, etc. are inevitably marketed as fun (Buckingham & Scanlon, 2005). These new forms of edutainment are a glamorous alternative to the tedium of school work (Buckingham & Scanlon, 2005). While the parents were being placed under increasing pressure to ‘invest’ in their children’s education by providing additional resources at home, companies started to take a wider place in the market targeting this field. There has been a significant increase in the market of educational materials designed for domestic use (Buckingham & Scanlon, 2005). The commercial involvement in out-of-school-learning (Buckingham & Scanlon, 2005). This situation shows a gradual increase in the commercial involvement in education. Education appears as a significant market for media companies (Buckingham & Scanlon, 2005). The appearance of more individual and tailor-made forms of learning with the involvement of edutainment, computer technologies, etc. into classrooms is enthusiastically welcome. Nevertheless, as indicated by Postman (2013: 22), over four centuries, the peace between print and oral culture at schools is now facing the risk to be destroyed due to computers. In this process, egocentrism is likely to be perceived as a virtue.

According to findings of the TUIK (Turkish Statistical Institute) for 2013, the children are surrounded with the new media. The majority of children who begin to use telephones at the age of 10 have their own computer and nearly half of them use the internet every day (Kılcı & Kılıç, 2014). In other words, the children are already living in a world dominated by technology and entertainment. Children come to school having been deeply conditioned by the television world. The children who cannot learn to read, organize their thoughts into logical structure even in a paragraph or attend to lectures for more than a few minutes at a time are all the casualties of the battle taking place between the world of television and printed publications (Postman, 2013:21). It is emphasized in most of the articles analyzed in this study that the out-of-the-school environment in which the individuals, young people and children live is gradually rendered more technological and entertaining and that the school should harmonize with this situation. Furthermore it is stated that new out-of-the-school forms of learning have begun to develop in this way. It seems the predictions made by Postman and Weingartner (1993: 154) are realized; “developments in electronic information processing make the school as it presently exists unnecessary.”

The school’s harmonization with the technologic and totally entertaining world outside and the existence of more fun and permanent learnings outside the school makes the school weary. The Sesame Street could be displayed as the beginning of this process. For example, the “Sesame Street” that began in 1969 was embraced quite positively, as it ensured that the children who had not yet been to school sit transfixed in front of a television screen and the television which has a function to entertain was used for educating activities. What’s more, the
The style of television learning is by its nature hostile to the book learning and school-learning. And now we know that Sesame Street encourages children to love school, provided that the school is like Sesame Street (Postman, 2006: 175-176). The school should be entertaining on the criteria of the entertainment world. The studies consisting of a critical approach towards the edutainment issue emphasize that the mentioned environment comprises of other qualities, besides being entertaining. There are some concerns that these elements have penetrated into schools with edutainment applications in an environment dominated by the popular culture elements based on the consumption culture. According to Postman’s (cited in Alver, 2004) point of view, this is a natural result of the mechanization and technology. According to Postman, with mechanization and technology, homo economicus has aimed maximum profit so people no longer seen the children of God or citizens but they considered as market factors and consumer (Alver, 2004).

A few studies, consisting of a positive but more cautious approach on the edutainment issue, emphasize the technical incompetences regarding edutainment. Moreover, it is suggested that although the edutainment applications create positive impacts on learning, there is lack of sufficient findings as to whether they lead to a better realization of learning, and further studies are required. It is seen that the critical approach in these studies are limited to emphasize that the edutainment should not replace the contact between teacher and student. As stressed by Anikina and Yakimenko (2015), there are certain considerations that generally the education technologies and specifically the edutainment applications should not be seen by the supporters of edutainment in the body of literature as a replacement for the contact between teacher and student, but used as the elements to support the student’s learning.

It could be argued from Postman’s perspective that the mentioned limited critical approaches fail to touch upon the essence of the matter. Media tend to become mythic. Cars, planes, TV, movies, newspapers—they have achieved mythic status because they are perceived as gifts of nature, not as artifacts produced in a specific political and historical context (Postman, 1998). As an example of this mythicizing, we can argue that the technological intervention into educational environments is not questioned, but practical deficiencies are brought into the forefront most of the articles analyzed. Nevertheless, the interaction between technology and entertainment and education deserves more in-depth analyses. It is essential that such analyses are accompanied by a critical approach towards the nature of technological changes, because, on the contrary, has serious consequences: “New technologies alter the structure of our interests: the things we think about. They alter the character of our symbols: the things we think with. And they alter the nature of community: the arena in which thoughts develop” (Postman, 1993: 20).

Technological change is not additive; it is ecological. “A new technology does not add or subtract something. It changes everything.” After television, America was not America plus television. Television gave a new coloration to every political campaign, to every home, to every school, to every church, to every industry, and so on (Postman, 1998; Postman, 2013: 22). As emphasized by Postman (1995), for example, the invention of the mechanical clock provided men with a new conception of time and the invention of the telescope brought a new conception of the space and scale. Each new technology changes and reshapes the men’s consciousness (Kuyumcu, 2008). Embedded in every technology there are powerful ideas. To a person with a TV camera, everything looks like an image. To a person with a computer, everything looks like data (Postman, 1998). As a result, we are not talking about an education in which the entertainment is attached along with technology, in other words, the education+entertainment+technology, but something totally different, which is formed by the combination of these three. Accordingly, it would not be sufficient to mention the practical deficiencies or some possibly negative consequences.

According to Postman (1998; 2013: 16) people believe that the advantages of new technologies are distributed among the population sooner or later, but every new technology benefits some and harms others. It could be argued that there is lack of research about the accessibility of technology and edutainment applications at schools or home by the children from different socio-economic environments. Accessing such educational materials and edutainment create differences between families due to financial conditions. There is not much information as to the children’s enthusiastic engagement in such materials. “Anxious parents may represent a soft touch for marketers, but children may not be so easily persuaded” (Buckingham & Scanlon, 2005).

**Conclusion**

According to Postman (2004, 2013), childhood is going through a transformation. These transformations are closely related with technological developments. Accordingly, the first influence to childhood came from
printng press, the second one from telegram (Postman, 1995, 2013; Alver, 2004). Now electronic media, computer technologies has more powerful effects on childhood’s nature. Electronic media is demolishing borders between childhood and adulthood. Clothes, alcohol use, crimes, sexual relationship now common children and adults (Alver, 2004). It could be argued that an analysis of such transformation and technological developments within the context of entertainment and education is a quite meaningful and necessary effort.

Accordingly, in this paper, which aimed to discuss and evaluate the tendencies of edutainment in the context of studies carried out in Turkey, 22 studies were examined in following categories: years of publication, numbers of authors, naming of edutainment, method, field, approach towards edutainment, main results and suggestions. We can argue that despite the positive approach in most of the studies on education, a few critical studies remain quite limited within the context of Postman’s (1993, 1995, 2013) criticisms on technology and entertainment. Postman’s criticism is related with the essence, rather than being technical. As indicated in a great number of articles, there are only a few studies on the edutainment issue in terms of those who have a positive or a negative approach.

As part of the studies on edutainment in Turkey, in Postman’s (1993) words, technophile researchers could be mentioned. It could be argued that there is an enthusiastic support for the education shaped by technology and entertainment. This situation also corresponds to Postman’s (2013; 59) finding that the social science is a vigorous ally of technopoly. It seems that what is called as the “American optimism” by Postman (2013:17) has penetrated into us as well. As indicated by Ahioğlu-Lindber (2012), childhood in Turkey is in a modernization process, whose repercussions are ongoing in the form of the adaptation of technological developments into daily lives and educational environments. Nevertheless, there are sound reasons for being cautious and critical about the education, which is shaped by technology and entertainment.

As suggested by Milberry (2010: 50), technology has been inspired both by the respect and fear since the break of modern dawn. Technology is on the one hand like the humanity’s victory over nature, and on the other, it’s like its impending doom (Kılıç & Kılıç, 2014). As emphasized by Conlon (2002), technology without any philosophy is blind, and technology could bring us to some choices that we have not chosen. As a result, it is essential that a healthy philosophical stance on technology is developed specifically in terms of education and edutainment. It could be said that the beginning of this process refers to starting to think about the primary goal of education.

Postman (1993) indicates that the education merely aims at providing students with a job in the US, which is an example of technopoly. In this way, the US educates itself to compete with the Japanese or the German economies. Such an approach reflects the understanding that the US is not a culture, but merely an economy. The basic problem is somewhere out there. What’s more, there are some efforts aimed at filling the gap with technology in the context of educational purposes (Postman, 1993). The question as to the basic purpose and function of education specifically in Turkey should be answered in a consistent and intellectually deep manner. The growth and material wellbeing should not be perceived as irrefutable facts as the criteria for everything. The educational dimensions of a humanitarian rise like the one mentioned by Postman (2004; 2013) should be able to be discussed irrespective of the technological enthusiasm.

Postman (2013) suggests that the competition between technologic tools is actually their competition for the dominance of their world view in the background. We see it most evidently in schools. There are two major technologies at school which are unable to reconcile with regard to the control of students’ minds; printed word and television. The printed word emphasizes logic, sequence, history, exposition, objectivity and discipline, whereas there is the world of television with its emphasis on imagery, narrative, presentness, simultaneity, intimacy, immediate gratification and quick emotional response (Postman, 2013: 21). It could be argued that the competition in which the school is required to struggle and doomed to be beaten easily, has started right here. Entertainment versus tedious classes. Technopoly has no place for a transcendent purpose, meaning or cultural cohesion (Postman, 2013: 65). The interaction between technology, entertainment and education fills the gap created by the lack of a transcendent purpose with its operational liveliness and tempting attractiveness. Educators and academics should keep in mind the negative impacts of a learning process shaped by technology and entertainment, and thus work to ensure that original learning processes are built on the basis of a critical understanding. Contrary to the rapid, widespread and apparent success of technology and entertainment; the presence of examples in which the humanitarian dimension of education is emphasized both practically and in terms of studies is essential.
According to main findings of the study, although the edutainment studies in Turkey reflect the general tendency in the "the world, there only a few of them quantitatively. There is no consensus on the designation and definition of the concept of edutainment. It could be said that the edutainment studies in Turkey lack a critical perspective with regard to technology and entertainment, and there is a quite limited framework. To this respect we can say that there is a strong need for studies focus on the interaction between education and entertainment and also negative and positive aspects of edutainment practices with a critical approach.

References


Water Usage Awareness of Middle School Students

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to determine middle school students’ awareness about water usage. The quantitative data were collected through the administration of “Water Usage Questionnaire (WUQ)”. The qualitative data were collected through semi structured interviews. In the study the stratified sampling method was employed. The participants of the study were 1050 middle school students attending schools in Afyonkarahisar. The qualitative data were collected through semi structured interviews with 18 middle school students who had lower scores (n=6), moderate scores (n=6) and higher scores (n=6). The quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS, while the qualitative data were investigated using descriptive analysis techniques. It was found that the participants mostly supported for being careful about water use. Female students had significantly higher levels of awareness about water use. In addition, it was found that those students whose parents had university education had higher levels of awareness about water use. The quantitative findings support the qualitative findings.

Keywords: middle education students; water awareness, water education, environment.

Introduction
One of the most important problems in today’s world is environmental problems (Günindi, 2010). Although climate change has been attributed to various reasons during the period from the Industrial Revolution until today, scientists have reached a consensus as to the fact that environmental problems with regard to climate have emerged due to human activities (Legget, 2007). Humans continuously change the environment by struggling with it. The changes occurring in environment are regarded as environmental problems if they are adverse and disruptive (Alım, 2006). Environmental problems, which were initially disregarded for the sake of development, have become quite important today (Aracoğlu & Tatlıdil, 2009). One of the most important resources that face the threat of being exhausted is water resources. In addition to the reduction of the amount of water per capita, water worldwide is getting more contaminated at a fast rate and the distribution of water across the world is changing (Ergin, Akpınar, Küçükcankurtaran & Ünal-Çoban). Therefore, it is important that people should be aware of the circumstances affecting local water resources (Suvedi, Krueger, Shrestha & Bettinghouse, 2000). For this reason, there is a great deal of responsibility to be assumed by schools that undertake the task of raising responsible, conscious and qualified generations and in turn by the educators in these schools within this context. The purpose of this study is to determine middle school students’ awareness about water usage.

Significance of the study: As known, environmental education is a lifelong process. Therefore, teachers should primarily acquire sufficient level of environment awareness of students. Water usage is an important part of environmental education. The studies towards water usage have increased in the last few years in Turkey. A few studies in this field are carried out in the middle school education level. However, middle school students have an important role in the solution of water related environmental problems. When we examine the limited studies towards water usage prepared for middle school students.

Methods

Data Collection Tools
The quantitative data were collected through the administration of “Water Usage Questionnaire (WUQ)” developed by Ergin, Akpınar, Küçükcankurtaran & Ünal-Çoban (2009). The qualitative data were collected through semi structured interviews. In the study the stratified sampling method was employed. Stratified sampling method also can be used in descriptive analysis (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

1 This research was supported by Scientific Research Projects Unit of Afyon Kocatepe University (Project number 15.SOS.BIL.09)
a. Water Usage Questionnaire (WUQ)

“Water Usage Questionnaire (WUQ)” has been developed by Ergin, Akpınar, Küçükçankurtaran & Ünal-Çoban (2009). Researchers have stated that WUQ is made up of 26 items and its reliability coefficient is 0,85. “Water Usage Questionnaire (WUQ)” has been applied to 1050 middle school students in the current study and its Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient has been found to be 0,83.

b. Semi-structured interview forms

In order to identify the level of awareness of water usage among middle school students in a more detailed manner, semi-structured interview forms devised by the researchers have been used. In the process of devising such forms, we have asked the opinions of 5 academic members, who are experts in their respective fields.

Findings

Participants

The participants of the study were 1050 middle school students (from the 6th, 7th and 8th grades) attending schools in downtown Afyonkarahisar, districts and towns during the school year of 2015-2016. The qualitative data were collected through semi structured interviews with 18 students who had lower scores (n=6), moderate scores (n=6) and higher scores (n=6). The quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS, while the qualitative data were investigated using descriptive analysis.

Results

In accordance with the quantitative results of the study, we can say that the awareness of water usage among the middle school children is in the level of “I agree.” Based on this result, it can be said that the level of awareness of water usage among the middle school students is as expected.

We can see that there are significant differences between the attitudes towards water usage based on their gender. These significant differences have been found to be in favour of girls. Other studies conducted on the subject (Gökçe, Kaya, Aktaş & Özden, 2007; Yaşar, Yaşar, Yalçın, 2012; Önder, 2015) have also demonstrated that female students have a more careful attitude towards the environment.

It has emerged from this study that there aren’t any significant differences between the attitudes towards water usage of the middle school students based on their grades. However, when the values of arithmetic means have been examined, 7th graders have been found to have the highest arithmetic means. This result in our study can be attributable to the fact that students focus on TEOG, which is an exam that determines the high school they will attend in the future. Other studies carried out before (Aslan, Uluçınar & Cansaran, 2008; Teyfur, 2008) haven’t identified any significant differences based on their grades in the points that the elementary and middle school students got with regard to their attitudes towards the environment.

We can see that there aren’t significant differences between the attitudes towards water usage among the middle school students based on the place they live in. Nevertheless, when we examined the arithmetic means, we identified that the students living in districts have the highest arithmetic means. This may result from the fact that the students that live in districts are more involved with the environment. This result of the study bears similarities with a large number of studies in the literature of this field. Similar studies conducted (Günindü, 2010; Gürbüz & Çakmak, 2012) have also found out that students living in city centres have lower points with regard to their attitude towards the environment.

We can see that there are significant differences between the attitudes towards water usage among the middle school students based on the educational backgrounds of their mothers and fathers. It has also been identified that these significant differences are in favour of those whose mothers and fathers have higher educational levels. Similar studies conducted (Aydın-Çepni, 2012; Özpmar, 2009; Tayci-Ünal, 2009; Tecer, 2007) have also demonstrated that students whose mothers and fathers have higher educational levels have higher points with regard to their environmental awareness.

When we examine the qualitative results of the study, we come to the conclusion that middle school students are in the awareness level of “I agree” in the quantitative analyses and similarly their level of awareness is high based on the qualitative data. In addition, when we examine the qualitative data, we have concluded that the students’ knowledge about the importance of water awareness is sufficient. Students have also proven to have awareness with regard to handing down water to future generations. Furthermore, we can see that the students are conscious of the importance of water awareness for a liveable world and they are also aware of the
responsibilities on part of individuals and societies to further raise this awareness. However, we have also identified through our qualitative data that students don’t have enough knowledge as to “World Water Day”. This demonstrates that schools don’t put much emphasis on “World Water Day”.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

In current study was found that the participants mostly supported for being careful about water use. As known, middle school students have an important role in the solution of water related environmental problems. Therefore, current study is important for awareness towards environment of middle school. The other conclusion determined to middle school students’ environmental literacy levels in terms of different factors. Researchers found that sex effect environmental literacy only in behaviors. Researchers showed that at higher class levels the points of students was increasing with a meaningful difference. Besides, researchers showed that for their parents’ education level, students’ that have high school graduated mothers and bachelor’s degree fathers have higher means than other parents. Similarly, in a study conducted by Toili (2007), it was found that secondary school students tended to sustain or improve the quality of the environment by conserving local resources, controlling visual pollution, and improving environmental health, safety and aesthetics. As known, it is important the role of the teacher in environmental education. Therefore, teachers should primarily acquire sufficient level of water awareness of middle school students.

**References**


Why and How Do University Students Use Facebook in Interpersonal Communications?

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Abstract
The use of Facebook in interpersonal communications has become widespread all around the world regardless of countries and cultures. The largest group of Facebook users consists of young people, particularly university students. This study investigated the attitudes of university students toward Facebook, their major reasons for using this social media application in interpersonal communications, and the factors affecting the types of desired relationships with Facebook friends. A survey consisting of 63 items about demographics of participants and their preferences for the use of Facebook was administered to collect data. The sample of the study included 924 undergraduate students from a large public university in North Cyprus. A number of descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were employed to analyze data in relation to the research questions. Results suggest that the students generally have positive attitudes toward Facebook, although there are certain differences in terms of demographics. The primary reason for using Facebook is everyday communication with close friends. The most powerful factor affecting the types of relationships in Facebook is perceived quality of communication and/or socialization. Implications of the results for both researchers and practitioners are discussed.

Keywords: Facebook, Social media, Virtual relationships, Interpersonal communications

Introduction
Social media has become an inevitable part of everybody’s life in recent years. The number of users for various social media applications is ever burgeoning. Users from all segments of the contemporary society use at least several tools, platforms or applications of social media for their daily communication. Facebook, WhatsApp, Tumblr, Instagram, Twitter, and YouTube are among the most commonly preferred tools. Because these tools or applications connect people with each other and let them form their own web of ties, they are also called social networking sites.

According to the current statistics, Facebook is the most preferred social media application around the world. As of March 2016, there are over 1.65 billion monthly active Facebook users worldwide. Average time spent per Facebook visit is about 20 minutes. Approximately 30% of these users are between ages 25-34, and this is the most common age demographic. Moreover, 50% of 18-24 year-olds go on Facebook when they wake up (https://zephoria.com/top-15-valuable-facebook-statistics).

Facebook is used for various purposes. The users can form a personal profile for themselves, share information in multiple modalities, post photographs, make comments on the information sent by others, like or dislike the content of exchanged messages, find friends, build and maintain relationships, update personal information when they wish, post announcements of important events etc. All these features are important for interpersonal communications among the users, particularly young people since they tend to communicate with their friends more frequently than other segments of the population.

Majority of university students in many countries are away from home or families. They usually stay in dormitories or studio apartments with several roommates. They also have close friends in the school with whom they spend most of their time together. University students keep their ties with former friends such as those from the high school, while making new friends in the college. They generally consider that friendship is vital both for
on-campus and off-campus activities. For example, they study together, complete instructional tasks in groups, prepare each other for exams, carry out collaborative projects, share common educational resources and so on. Similarly, they involve leisure time activities jointly, entertain together both inside and outside the campus, attend sports in teams, visit each other, chat about almost everything that generates mutual interests.

Social media, particularly social network sites, provide ample opportunities for interpersonal communication (Safko, 2012). Appropriate social media applications in this regard can be classified as messaging applications, conferencing applications, and sharing applications. Messaging has traditionally been one of the primary virtual communication applications between individuals. Electronic chat programs used between “buddies” can be given as examples of early applications of interpersonal communication in virtual environments. Because traditional messaging tools have become extremely popular among millions of users, their text-based features were integrated with audio-visual capacities of new media to make communication richer and better. Many conferencing applications started out as audio calling tools, using voice-over-IP (VoIP) technology to replace phone technology with free computer network connections. As network bandwidth and processing power have increased over the years, most of these applications have first evolved into more complete audio and video communication platforms and recently added group conferencing capability. Although sharing applications are developed mainly for team collaboration, most of them can also be used for interpersonal communication. They support sharing a variety of content beyond just chat or video. Sharing applications range from simple scheduling tools to commenting platforms for sophisticated issues including corporate affairs so that some authors call these applications “social business” (Simsek, 2013).

Facebook is a social media application that has features in several of the categories mentioned above. For example, one can send messages to those in his/her list, share photographs, and generate dialogue among the users who have access to the content displayed in one’s page. Its unique array of distinct features make Facebook as the most popular social network site worldwide, particularly among young users.

Cyprus is the third largest island in Mediterranean Sea after the Italian islands of Sicily and Sardinia. It is a divided island with Turkish Cypriots living in North and Greek Cypriots living in South. Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU), where the present study was conducted, is the largest university in North Cyprus. It has a truly international population over 20 thousand students coming from about 35 different countries mostly from Asia, Africa, and Europe. Thus, it is assumed that the results of this study will reflect to some degree the attitudes and uses of Facebook among university students.

The purpose of the current study is to identify attitudes of university students toward Facebook, assess primary reasons for using Facebook, and discover the factors affecting the types of interpersonal relationships in Facebook. It appears that the interconnectedness of these dimensions need to be uncovered based on empirical evidence, considering that so much discussion is taking place in the literature.

**Methods**

**Research Model**

This descriptive study employed asurvey model. Survey studies usually describe the current situation as it is and make no effort to change it. Through various techniques, they collect data about the present state of the things to determine the current status of things. Questionnaires, scales, special forms, interviews, and observations are used in this respect. The present study employed a specifically-designed survey form (a mixture of structured questionnaire and Likert-type scale) for collecting data. Therefore, it was conducted as a descriptive study.

**Population and Sample**

The population of this study was defined as undergraduate students of Eastern Mediterranean University in the city of Gazimagusa in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The student body of EMU consists of students from about 35 different countries; mostly from Asia, Europe, and Africa. Native students are citizens of TRNC, which makes approximately 25% of the total number of students. Another 25% of students come from Turkey. The remaining 50% of students are from countries in the Middle East, Africa, and Central Asia. The language of teaching is English and the diploma is recognized worldwide. All these characteristics make EMU a truly international university.

The sample of the study consisted of 924 undergraduate students from the Faculties of Education, Engineering and Architecture, Communication, and Economic and Administrative Sciences. Education majors made the largest portion of the sample, whereas communication majors made the smallest portion. As far as gender
distribution is concerned, 398 (43%) were male and 526 (57%) were female. Age distribution was as follows: 19 and less (n=133, 14%), 20-25 (n=699, 76%), 26 and older (n=92, 10%). Grade point average (GPA) of the students showed that 147 students (15%) had 2.00 or less, 455 students (49%) had 2.00-3.00, 141 students (15%) had 3.00-4.00, and 181 students (20%) were new comers so that their GPA was not calculated yet. Of the total number of students, 841 (91%) had computer and 796 (86%) indicated Internet connection.

**Instrumentation**

A survey form was used to collect data in the present study. The survey had two main sections. The first section, which was like a questionnaire, included 28 items about demographics of the participants as well as their reasons, habits, and uses of Facebook in interpersonal communications. A sample item for the first part of the survey was: “How many friends do you have in your Facebook group?” The second part, which was like a Likert-type scale, included 35 items about attitudes of students toward Facebook. Each item in this part had a statement and the students indicated their level of agreement with the proposed statement. Possible responses ranged from Strongly disagree (1) to Strongly agree (5), the midpoint being Undecided (3). A sample item for the second part of the survey was: “I use Facebook to share information about daily events.”

The data gathering instrument was developed through a systematic process. First, the researchers reviewed the relevant literature and similar forms used in other studies. Although these instruments were useful to some extent, none of them appeared to be totally appropriate for the present study. Therefore, the researchers decided to design their own data gathering instrument. With the theoretical support of the current literature, the researchers wrote a number items of their own and adapted some items from the materials in similar studies. By combining them to create a single instrument, they prepared the draft of the survey form. Then, a five-member panel of experts, which included academics working in the field of educational technology and social media, reviewed the draft. By considering their comments and suggestions, the researchers revised the survey form. The panel approved the revised form after a second round of review. Then, it was pilot-tested with a small group of university students (n=25). Based on the results of the pilot-test, the final version of the data gathering instrument was produced. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the scale part of the survey was calculated as .81, which is considered satisfactory in the literature.

The survey form was distributed to the students during their regular classes. They responded to the survey under the supervision of one of the researchers. When they completed the survey, they returned it directly to the researcher. In other words, the survey was administered face-to-face. Average completion time for the survey was about 30 minutes. Following the data gathering process, each completed form was checked whether there was any problem that might jeopardize data analysis. Research data were collected from 990 students but 66 cases were deleted because of missing or misleading data (7 were univariate outliers and 3 were multivariate outliers). Eventually, data from 924 students were analyzed. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the scale part of the survey was calculated to be .81, which is considered satisfactory for an attitude scale.

**Data Analysis**

A number of descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyze data collected in the present study. Nominal data (responses to items in the questionnaire part) were analyzed through descriptive techniques such as frequency distribution, percentages, measures of central tendency, and variability measures. Ordinal data (responses to items in the scale part) were analyzed through inferential techniques such as correlation, t-test, and analysis of variance. The findings as outcomes of statistical analyses were presented in the relevant tables and corresponding interpretations were presented right after the tables.

**Findings**

Data collected through the survey form were analyzed through appropriate statistical techniques and the findings were presented under the related headings/subheadings.

**Ownership of Facebook Accounts**

The first finding is about ownership of Facebook accounts; both active and inactive accounts were considered to see whether accounts are really used (Table 1).
Table 1. Ownership of Facebook Accounts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of accounts</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 account</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 and more accounts</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inactive accounts</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appears that a great majority of the students (83%) owned one Facebook account, 8% of them owned at least two accounts, 9% had inactive accounts (either never used or deliberately made inactive). Students also indicated that 65% of them use their Facebook accounts once or twice a day, 50% of the students access their accounts for a duration of 1-2 hours per day. These findings together provide a very good ground that the participants of this study were active users of Facebook.

Number of Facebook Friends

Table 2 exhibits the number of Facebook friends. It is interesting that 38% of the participants indicated that they have no Facebook friends. Approximately 31% had 1-25 friends, while 8% had more than 100 friends. The average number of Facebook friends as reported by the participants in this study seems to be less than the average number of friends in a typical Facebook account.

Table 2. Number of Facebook Friends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Facebook friends</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No friends</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-25</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-50</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-100</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100+</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>924</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked about their profile names in Facebook, 92% of students indicated that they use their real names, 3% use fake names, and 5% use both real and fake names for different accounts. These findings clearly show that at least 9 out of 10 Facebook users prefer their real names in personal profiles.

Profile Information

Facebook users share certain information about themselves when they create a personal profile. They also make a decision about the people who are allowed to see such information. Table 3 shows personal information used by the students when they have created their own personal profiles.

Table 3. Profile Information Shared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Yes (f)</th>
<th>No (f)</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Favorite songs</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas of interests</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorite proverbs</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hobbies</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorite movies</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorite books</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>63.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorite TV programs</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appears that more than 50% of the students share their favorite songs, areas of interests, favorite proverbs/sayings, and hobbies in their Facebook pages. The students sharing information about their favorite movies, relationships, favorite books and TV programs range between 35% and 45%. Favorite songs are at the top of the lists, while favorite TV programs are at the bottom. It should be noted, however, all the percentages
People use Facebook for many reasons. University students may have distinct reasons for using Facebook compared to general users. Table 4 presents their particular reasons of using Facebook.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Yes (f)</th>
<th>No (f)</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication with friends</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Findings old friends</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure time activities</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>66.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following recent events</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>694</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>75.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being part of friendships</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>85.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making new friends</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>802</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental influence</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>804</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>87.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning new things</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing personal research</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>89.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Approximately two-thirds of the students indicated that they use Facebook mainly for communication with their friends, half of them use it for finding their old friends, one-third use it for leisure time activities, and approximately one-fourth of them use Facebook for curiosity and following recent events. All the other reasons ranged between 10% and 15%. It can be said from these findings that the students mostly use Facebook for reaching their old friends and communicating with their existing friends, rather than being a part of someone else’s friendship networks or making unknown people their friends.

Relationships are important for Facebook users. In fact, the emergence of Facebook as a social media tool is all about interpersonal relationships of university students. However, types of relationships sought may vary for users. Table 5 presents information about intended types of relationships.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of relationship</th>
<th>Yes (f)</th>
<th>No (f)</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friendship</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure time partnership</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>62.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social companionship</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>867</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>93.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most preferred type of relationship of the university students using Facebook is friendship (62%), whereas the least preferred type of relationship sought is dating (6%). Leisure time partnership and social companionship are between these two categories. These findings make sense because campus life is mostly about friendships, although it also provides ample opportunities for further relationships. It appears that very little is left for social networking sites.

It is interesting to note that gender doesn’t play an important role in relationships. Approximately 70% of the students indicated that they are interested in both genders or gender doesn’t matter for them (The percentages were 62% for males and 38% for females). For the reaming 30% of the students, 24% were interested in women and 6% were interested in men. When gender was considered important in relationships, members of both genders showed greater tendency for women. This was particularly visible for females (134 seeking women, 17 seeking men) than males (89 seeking women, 35 seeking men).

How do the students communicate with their friends? Approximately 44% of them said that they communicate face-to-face, 42% mentioned other communication tools including Facebook, and 14% provided no answer preference. From these numbers, it can be assumed that the students use both physical and virtual communication tools to communicate with their friends.
Attitudes toward Facebook

Attitudes of the students about Facebook, by nature, represents a wide spectrum including both positive and negative attitudes. Table 6 demonstrates the top 5 attitudes from both ends.

Table 6. Top 5 and Bottom 5 attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Top 5 Attitudes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Facebook to chat with my friends</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Facebook to find friends</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Facebook to send messages</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Facebook as a communication tool</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Facebook to learn what my friends do</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bottom 5 Attitudes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I contact my Facebook friends when I have a problem</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look at only the profile picture when selecting a new friends in Facebook</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use Facebook to form a group</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I rely on Facebook to share personal information</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that the number of friends on Facebook show sociality of a person</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in the table, the highest-rated statements are usually about finding, communicating and sustaining friendships as interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, the lowest-rated statements are mostly about features, attributions and thoughts about Facebook as a social media tool.

Comparisons by Demographic Variables

Table 7 exhibits descriptive statistics (minimum/maximum values, means, and standard deviations) about categories of attitudes as grouped in the present study.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics about Categories of Attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of communication</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialization Effects of Facebook</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication tool</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure time activities</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes in general</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious that attitudes of the students toward Facebook are moderate because mean scores for categories range from 2.97 to 3.60. Considering the critical value as 3.41 for a positive attitude on a five-point Likert scale, only one category (leisure time activities) produced high mean, all the rest were at the medium level.

Based on the scores for categories of attitudes, a number of statistical tests were run to examine whether the differences were significant for demographic variables of the study. The following are the findings:

**Gender:** Males (M=2.88, SD=0.66) had more positive attitudes than females (M=2.55, SD=0.75) on communication quality (p<.001) and attitudes in general attitudes (p<.001). There were no significant differences in other comparisons by gender at the .05 level.

**Age and School Year:** Those who were younger than 19 had significantly more positive attitudes than 20-25 year-olds on the variables of communication quality (p<.002) and leisure time activities (p<.05). In general, younger the students, more positive the attitudes; the students in the English preparatory school had more positive attitudes than others, particularly sophomores (p<.05).

**Major:** Pre-school education majors had significantly less positive attitudes than economics and business majors on the variable of communication quality (p<.05). Psychology majors had significantly less positive attitudes than economics and business majors on the variable of leisure time activities (p<.05).
GPA: New students and those who had lower GPA (below 2.00) had significantly more positive attitudes than those with higher GPA on the variables of communication quality (p<.001) and leisure time activities (p<.001). The students with higher GPA (above 2.00) had significantly more positive attitudes than new students and those with lower GPA (below 2.00) on socialization (p<.001).

Access: Those who access to Facebook through mobile phone have more positive attitudes on leisure time activities (p<.001) and attitudes in general (p<.05). Ownership of personal computer and Internet connection did not affect the attitudes toward Facebook at the .05 alpha level.

Conclusions and Recommendations
This study investigated why and how university students use Facebook in their interpersonal communications. The study particularly focused on reasons for using Facebook, attitudes toward Facebook as a communication tool, personalized or preferred uses of Facebook, and interactions of demographics with all these variables. The data were collected through a survey form (including both a questionnaire and a scale) from 924 undergraduate students at an international university in North Cyprus.

The results deserve particular attention because the students involved in the present study were active users of Facebook as a social media application in interpersonal communications. They use their real names in Facebook communication and this is consistent with the result of Young and Quan-Haase (2009) reporting that “99% students used their real names in personal profiles. All the students had Facebook accounts, 90% of these accounts were active, and a great majority of the students use their accounts for several hours a day. This comes as no surprise based on the findings of other studies or surveys reporting that 85% to 95% of college students use Facebook on daily basis (Arlington, 2005; Viner, 2014). However, the number of friends as reported by the students in the present study (the average being less than 100) appears to be a little bit low compared to the number of friends mentioned in past studies (100-200 in Lewis & West, 2009 and 200-350 in Sheldon, 2008). This may be either due to the lessening popularity of Facebook among young people over the years or the characteristics of the students in the present study.

The students share their favorites as the profile information and allow only friends to see this information (Facebook options are friends, friends of friends, non-friend users of the same network, and non-friend users at a different network). To some extent, it may be due to profile fields provided as options by Facebook itself (Lewis, Kaufman & Chris, 2008). However, the results of previous studies regarding the level of privacy settings on Facebook appear to be mixed (Hew, 2011). Nevertheless, privacy has become a serious concern over the years and affected the profile information shared (Johnston, Chen & Hauman, 2013).

The students use Facebook mainly for communication with their friends and sharing information about leisure time activities as well as current events that they involve. They do not perceive Facebook as a learning or research tool. This proves that Facebook is a social networking site, not a learning technology. When they are required to use Facebook in learning, they prefer to use it for peer communication as a part of their group work (Donlan, 2014) and they are concerned that they don’t want to mix social purposes with class work (Gettman & Cortijo, 2015). Based on a review of a number of empirical studies, Hew (2011) concludes that Facebook has very little educational use and it is mainly to keep in touch with known individuals.

The students do not try to attend networks of unknown people for making new friends; instead, they try to find their old friends and keep rapport with the current friends. This result is supported with the findings of other studies (Bosch, 2009; Elison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Lewis & West, 2009; Sheldon, 2008). The students assign high value to friendship as a mode of interpersonal relationship. They are not really interested in the opposite gender because they seek friends from both genders, although females tend to prefer members of their own gender in relationships more than males do. This result is partially supported by Pempek, Yermolayeva, and Calvert (2009) reporting that female students have significantly more friends than male students as well as by Wang, Moon, Kwon, Evans, and Stefanone (2010) reporting that females do not differ in their willingness to initiate friendships with both genders but males prefer to initiate friendships with females. Considering its potential for establishing friendships, Facebook appears to play an important role in helping students form and maintain social capital (Hew, 2011).

The students have moderate attitudes toward Facebook. As many suggest, they do not perceive Facebook as the ultimate technology for social communication. They think that Facebook may be useful for finding friends and sharing information with them in an interactive manner that allow instant exchange of messages. However, they
see little value in Facebook for sharing personal problems or sensitive information with friends. This is consistent with the concern raised by Turkle (2012) and empirical evidence reported by Hew (2011). The users of Facebook (in fact users of all social networking sites) assume that more friends on Facebook does not mean that you are more social. What counts is the real friends that you know in the physical world because they feel that they should be able to communicate with their friends face-to-face when necessary. For the most part, communication in Facebook is seen by the students as fun and not serious (Lewis & West, 2009). This may explain why the students use Facebook for daily communication with friends but are not really satisfied with the quality of communication.

As the differences in attitudes are examined by demographic variables, the present study produced a number of interesting results. Gender-based comparisons were significant in favor of males on communication quality and attitudes in general but not on other categories. Younger students had more positive attitudes for communication quality and leisure time activities, this was more so for the students in English preparation school as new comers. Psychology and pre-school education majors had less positive attitudes than economics and business majors; no other comparisons were significant for majors. Surprisingly, the students with lower GPA had more positive attitudes on communication quality and leisure time activities but the students with higher GPA exhibited better attitudes on socialization though Facebook.Finally, the students who access to Facebook through mobile phones had more positive attitudes on leisure time activities and attitudes in general. Some of these results are unique so that it is not possible to compare with the results of previous studies, while the literature suggests mixed results for other comparisons.

Considering all these results and their implications, several recommendations for future research can be made. First, this study was about the use of Facebook only so that more research is needed on other social media applications. Secondly, comparisons of use by younger and older generations may be helpful. Third, future research should investigate uses and gratifications of more-educated and less-educated audiences. Fourth, effects of capability and self-efficacy of users should be examined in more details. Finally, more research should be conducted on the role of braggadocian and preventative behaviors regarding the use of social media.

References


