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Introduction

The advancement and development of communication technology which is focusing to support more demands of receivers, has transformed communication channels from mainstream or traditional media to computer-mediated communication. This new technology is accessible to more users and responds to various demands, especially with communication through Internet which is a new trend.

The Internet is the new, powerful and unlimited medium for making changes in society, culture, technology, and communication. Those in the “digital society” use Internet in daily life for various objectives such as finding knowledge and information, and functioning as a tool of business organization, government sector, and non-profit organizations. It’s also used for social interaction as well as a stage for political and economic forums.

As the outstanding features of internet as a “new media” have made it very popular among people for both positive and negative objectives, it is becoming a topic of social discussion to consider the proper range in using it.

The purpose of Internet usage is to gain access to a huge source of knowledge, entertainment, and information. A website is like the source of a variety of information which is chosen to read. The frontier of learning is opened for children and youth who can choose what to read and find the knowledge. On the other hand, it is a problem for society when people use it for improper purposes, such as deluding, convincing, criminal activity, gambling, and posting or broadcasting the opinions and/or text with mudslinging and lies. Since these things can spread very easily and quickly, it may make users neglect the right things without checking the reliability of information which may easily convince them.

For the social relations aspect, internet is the source to connect friends beyond frontiers. It gathers groups of friends who have common interests, which leads to closer relations and no boundary for age, job, or venue, so that they can see and talk to each other easily. It also creates many powerful groups who have the same interests and ideas, called “cyber society” or “virtual community” or “internet community”. These societies are like traditional communities which gather members by geography or occupation and focus on networking and supporting the group.

Alter and Hage (1993) said that a network is the pattern in society which makes interaction between organizations for exchange, unification and cooperation. The network consists of a number of organizations which either have a certain area or not. These organizations’ status is equal. Barnes (1954) was the first person who mentioned the social relations pattern which is not limited only to family or workplace. The study showed that the support from a social network is one factor that helps people stressed with health problems. It indicates that social relations are related to health and behavior. Cassel (1976) discovered the relations between the social support and health problems. The study found that social support is like a barrier to protect people from the stress of health problems. Therefore, social networks play a very important role for the social support group.

The Internet community was generated from the technology development together with problems of modern society, which are more complicated and serious than in the past. To consider problems and their solutions, one cannot be limited to a small area. The internet community goes beyond frontiers, joined by all members who can access the communication technology. This kind of social relations web is very powerful, supported by a technology network which connects community and communication of people not limited by nationality, sex, age, religion, and financial status. Presently, there is a huge number of members who can be classified in many categories such as by occupation, common interest, health, and gender etc.

The rapid growth of the internet community has been supported by this very important technology and affected all kinds of communication and social structures. It is also connected to daily life and communication styles because of the computer-mediated communication and...
information society which contains lots information. It makes the social interaction available through computer and also supports group negotiation and discussion forums. These do not occur in a common location but as a virtual community because it is not actually located physically or dependent on face-to-face communication but uses computer mediated communication instead. Moreover, there are groups that do not gather physically but form by their ideas with no limitation of time and venue. When they are online, they will be selected to the group automatically, which shows that they have a common interest. It is not about the close distance. (Licklider and Taylor, 1968) This interaction leads to digital culture formulation which also causes the interaction process between individual and group. It becomes a new culture. (Gordon, 2007). An Internet community popular among Thai youth, is the meeting point with the opposite sex, for finding new friends. The topic of their communication is mostly related to sex. One of the most criticized communities in Thai society is LGBT community. LGBT is the abbreviation for a person who has a diversity of sexual orientation. LGBT stands for; L=lesbian, G=gay, B=bisexual and T=transgender/transsexual. It is the community of ‘man-love-man’ or ‘woman-love-woman’ where the number of members is increasing more and more.

According to the view of Thai culture, homosexual behavior is unnatural and abnormal. Broadcast media or journalists always report about this group with bias. They assume that the homosexual is furious and their sex behavior is abnormal. Homosexual group is classified as a subculture different from general society in terms of taste and attention. Although there are some trying to claim that homosexuality is mostly acceptable, this is not really approved by Thai society. Since the status of homosexuals has been denied by society, therefore, some try to cover their real orientation and remain separate from the gay community. Some people may believe that homosexuality is unusual. It will take time for society to learn that this kind of behavior is normal and is an individual alternative.

So homosexuals take pressure from society and internally. Social pressure is caused from the belief that homosexuality is abnormal or disgusting. So they have to hide their real status, and may become depressed and uncomfortable to spend their lives as normal people. Internal pressure comes from the inner conflict because they always think that they are different from others.

The mentioned viewpoints of society embarrass this homosexual group who then need to cover up the truth in public. They have to find their social group through the cyber world. It makes the social network which is called “internet community”. The internet is an enormous social network beyond frontiers, without boundaries, so people can connect to each other without the limitation of culture, economics, society, nationality, religion, time, or distance.

The internet community is the alternative for homosexuals to declare their status. Here they can interact with other members who have the same behavior. They can share information, learn the subculture, join activities, exchange experiences as well as convince more members to join their homosexual world.

Hence, internet can be counted as a medium and an important channel for homosexual groups to spread information. It is also the area for them to release their needs which are hidden due to the limitations of the social context. Thanks to the internet feature that broadcasts information around the world widely and interactively, it strengthens the group and makes more power in social negotiation.

The grouping of homosexuals may be an alternative source of supportive communication, which is to encourage and inspire each other in the same society. In real society, they may not be accepted by the majority so that communication among the group who has the same behavior, common interests and needs can help them to release the suffering from society.

Glanze (2002) mentioned that the foundation concept of social support is communication between givers and receivers. Interaction pattern should contain at least the message that shows the receivers that they are beloved, cared for, and affirmed. It should make the receivers believe that they are part of the society, valuable and acceptable. One factor of the supportive
communication may be the psychical or mental supports which help them fulfill their objectives. The individual will find various supports from his/her social network and should have various contents (Mitchell, 1969). There are 4 categories of supportive communication behavior (Berkman, 2000) 1) emotional support is about exchanging life experience such as satisfaction, expression, honor, care, love, motivation, 2) appraisal support is to give useful information for self-evaluation such as feedback, certification, confirmation, social comparison, or affirmation including social support which may become direct or indirect help, 3) information support is recommendation, warning, advising, or giving information to people who have problems and need some advice, and 4) instrumental support is to support something that they need such as giving from best friend in academy, work place or neighborhood such as manpower, money, or time.

As for the number of LBGT websites in Thailand, the study shows that these are increasing and more categories are appearing. They categorized the contents from target groups, referring to those about “man-love-man”, “woman-love-woman” and “homosexual” websites. For the contents, the study found that it is more useful. It is the channel for communication, discussion forum, exchanging information, and advertisement of products or services including the sexual service trade. It is increasing by number of the websites’ visitors. These websites consist of photographs, web boards, chat rooms, finding friends, up to date news from the group, Q&A about sex, news, and songs. The members can interact using various tools such as posting comments, messaging, and pictures voting etc.

The content and popularity of using LBGT websites leads to the issue for social discussion which is broadly disputed about the power of the internet for Thai LBGT youth. The study found how the internet community was formulated and retained its membership, how it related to Thai LBGT behavior, what the advantages and disadvantages to society were, response to or fulfillment of needs, whether it leads the youth to be homosexual, the sense of release which can not be obtained from society, or whether it was designed to respond to physical needs and tend to social problems. The LBGT websites gather those people to do social support activities such as demonstrate for their rights or social equality or even to cater for those absorbed in sex. Moreover, there was a question about how powerfully LBGT websites affected Thai LBGT youth.

**Theoretical framework**

This study was a qualitative methodology which followed the phenomenology. The purpose of phenomenology was for understanding the meaning of people’s experience and to research for understanding on the fundamental methodology to find the answer of LBGT websites, which are assumed to be a social problem. It was the responsibility of the researcher to gather information, review attitudes and opinions from sampling groups naturally for understanding the meaning of LBGT website using behavior and the influence of LBGT websites on the youth by describing the phenomenon from LBGT youth usage. This study was under the concept of social support and symbolic interaction theory.

**Methods**

The population for this study was the Thai LBGT youth who joined LBGT websites categorized as ‘man-love-man’ and ‘woman-love-woman’ who are particularly chosen from 25 voluntary homosexual undergraduate students. The range of age was 17-24 years old. The population was divided into 2 groups; 1) man-love-man, 13 persons, consisted of “the extrovert group” or “lady boy-kratoey” and included introvert group of gay men. 2) woman-love-woman, 12 persons, consisted of women with a male appearance or “tom” and female appearance who satisfied a woman acting like man, called “dy” (from Tomboy and Lady) and included woman who satisfied a woman called “lesbian”.

To gather wider and in depth information, for reliability and accuracy, the researcher used focus groups and informal interviews as tools for this study.
Results

From the survey of the sexual and internet usage behavior of the sample group, the study found that sexual behavior began during their secondary education. It found that they were satisfied with the same gender. The LBGT behavior clearly appeared when they were in high school. That feeling was stated when they experienced homosexual sex. Most of the sample group experienced homosexuality and were satisfied by it. However, the attitude of these 2 sample groups were different. The ‘man-love-man’ group thought that sex was not a serious thing and for sex, love was unnecessary. Also, love was not a bond. Whereas the ‘woman-love-woman’ group were seriously interested in love. It was so much more meaningful mentally than physically. However, most of them said that they will not marry a heterosexual.

The study found that all of them had experience using internet from primary or secondary education. Most could access the internet at home and their parents allowed them to use it without monitoring. Then they curiously visited the LBGT websites. The study also found that they were satisfied using LBGT websites regularly and started to communicate with others by online chat, facebook, and telephone, making an appointment if they were attracted to each other.

From the number of LBGT websites in Thailand, the study found that the majority of them used Thai as the language for communication. There were more ‘man-love-man’ than ‘woman-love-woman’ websites. There were more ‘gay’ than ‘ladyboy or kratoey’ websites. Both websites consisted of web board the most, and followed by general information and photo posting. It was very rare for knowledge and academic articles to appear on these websites. The most popular ‘man-love-man’ website was www.postjung.com. The most popular ‘woman-love-woman’ website was www.narak.com. The academic ‘man-love-man’ website www.bangkokrainbow.com was not popular among them. Most contents were for homosexuals to post in the web board, advertise for various objectives such as finding lovers, friends, or sexual partners including categories and matching according to their needs easily. The study also found that contents and words in ‘man-love-man’ websites were specific to sex more than ‘woman-love-woman’. However, there was only one academic ‘woman-love-woman’ website in Thailand. It was www.anyacharee.com which is closed now due to the lack of funding and being unpopular.

Considering the communication behavior of homosexual websites, the study found that ‘man-love-man’ group would like to find only temporary sexual partners especially ‘gay’ which were not always out. The ‘woman-love-woman’, ‘tom’, ‘dy’ and ‘lesbian’ visited LBGT websites to find friends in their lonely time. ‘Man-love-man’ group used words to clearly communicate about sex. Whereas ‘woman-love-woman’ carefully used the polite words more than ‘man-love-man’ group. The content of LBGT website about ‘gay’ was about sex and sexual desire topics because they could not come out to the society what they were and had only temporary relations. While the content for ‘ladyboy’ in LBGT website was about how to find sexual partners or lovers but not much like ‘gay’. The content and the words of ‘ladyboy’ websites are less sexual than ‘gay’ because ‘ladyboy’ could come out to the society and were known so they could show their behaviors.

For the usage of websites for both ‘man-love-man’ and ‘woman-love-woman’ groups, there were their group’s languages especially sex words and slang which could be understood among their group, and was not acceptable in regular daily communication including short form and the aphesis.

From focus groups and informal s it was found that all samples had similar opinions that using the LBGT websites did not affect their homosexual behavior. It also encouraged them to come out or show off with more confidence.

For the effect of the usage of LBGT websites, the ‘man-love-man’ group was found to have more unhidden sexual behavior, such as an appointment from online chat, more sexual experience, and most of all were relaxed, which satisfied them for a short period. This shows that they were not interested in long relations. For ‘woman-love-woman’ group, use of the websites
did not affect their extrovert sexual behavior. They were focusing on finding more friends who have common tastes, being accepted by the group and not being isolated from society.

The LBGT websites were the first communication channel to create relationships with others. Their satisfaction were only having new friends or sexual relations which fulfilled their various needs. However, the range of LBGT website usage was not too long, if their needs were not met, they became disappointed or bored, and then the usage would decrease.

In Thai society, the social network such as Facebook became a new media for LBGT youth interested in finding new friends and sending short messages. Nowadays, if they don’t have a Facebook account, then they are considered out-of-date. The popularity, having many friends, and posting messages has become a source of pride to Facebook account owners. It was turning into a competition about whose Facebook was the most popular by posting attractive images, and setting status to invite people to press “like” for them.

Communicating through Facebook, members can leave the message or so called “ment” among teens (from comment). When someone posts a comment in Facebook, the account owner has to respond in order to make good relations.

The comment on Facebook was general, such as “say good morning”, “have a good dream”, “love you”, “don’t forget to have lunch” etc. Using the words to express their feeling in general became the basic words in LBGT group but it doesn’t really mean the same thing. Those messages do not reflect real relations, but it was only a well-mannered greeting.

**Conclusions**

Presently, the internet extremely influences Thai children and youth because of its features which can be accessed anywhere and anytime. It reduces the problems of time and place to access the internet. The internet community is freely opened without limitation of the content, information, discuss forum and coming out of the closet. This makes LBGT youth use the internet more and more. Many LBGT websites have been created and are being used by the LBGT community for their survival in the cyber world. The study found that LBGT youth visited the LBGT websites without parental monitoring even though they were at home. It also found the reasons of visiting LBGT website were to find friends and to spell out their status to the society.

The external context and objectives of groups are also factors that create their own identity. The context of LBGT website supports LBGT youth to hide them by using fake name and not showing the image. It’s found that the communicators and website’s identity are significantly related. So the LBGT youth can create a new identity which may be the same, or slightly different, or definitely different up to their coming out behaviors to society. The study found that the coming out group will create an identity in the LBGT website which contains the same features. While the covered group will create a different identity in order to be accepted by others in the internet community.

From the study, we found that LBGT youth were fearless to come out to the internet community more than in the real world. They have been seen as abnormal by society and were unfairly treated, by being teased, accused as being an “unusual person”, so they were afraid of coming out to society. In fact, the community should treat them equally based on humanism. It will help them gain more warmth and confidence. The social network websites influence the LBGT group by making social viewpoints to fulfill their needs as they want which may different from the real world. The internet society is like the ideal world which helps LBGT youth to know their identity and community or run away from the regulations of sexual society and Thai custom. The internet gives chances, freedom, sexual desire, and a new society for LBGT youth who can be persuaded confidently back to the real world.

On the other hand, each person can make a better on-line identity than their own truth and identity. Many LBGT youth try to cover themselves up, carefully keeping secret and keeping the personal information confidential by using a fake name, not giving personal information to online strangers. It found that many of the sample group try to present great images such as
identifying better age, height and weight than the truth and using the image of other people instead of the real one to attract other persons.

In Thai society, although the internet is the social network, it is a web which doesn’t involve real feelings, but it is sometimes responded to with sexual desire. Even though they communicate in order to get to know each other, exchanging information doesn’t make them confident that they are lovable, cared for, or sincerely receiving goodwill because the communication pattern can be predicted, such as starting with a greeting, asking about living and if they have sexual desire, they may ask about the appearance of partner. When they are satisfied, they may develop their relations or even end them and seek another person. For the conclusion, we can say that the internet is the new powerful media to present identity, create relations but it is not powerful enough to strengthen the LBGT network. It can only be the seeking equipment and for a temporary response to desire.

Bibliography


Abstract

Framing analysis is administered in this thesis to compare the news reports about the Great East Japan Earthquake of the Yomiuri Shimbun (1223 pieces) and the People’s Daily (22 pieces) from March 11 to one week later March 18 in 2011. The results identify that the Yomiuri Shimbun uses more hard short news while the People’s Daily uses more long features and opinion commentaries. The findings also support the hypotheses that they concentrate differently in the severity frame, attribution of responsibility frame, consequences frame and partly supported the hypothesis that both use sympathetic frame when reporting the big earthquake and sequent events.

Key words: framing analysis, the Great East Japan Earthquake, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the People’s Daily
News coverage of the Great East Japan Earthquake:  
A framing analysis of the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People's Daily

Background
At 2:46 pm on March 11 in 2011, a most devastating earthquake in Japan’s history with a magnitude of 9.0 on Richter scale, hit the east coast Japan. Several cities experienced tremendous shock. The earthquake also caused huge tsunami, destroying Miyagi, Iwate and Fukushima in the east coast. As people suffering the anguish of losing their family members and homes, another horror of nuclear radiation started after sequent explosions of the Dainichi nuclear power plants in Fukushima. This is an unprecedented disaster not only for Japan and the Japanese people; it also caught global attention and subject to fear among East Asian people, afraid of being affected by the radiation.

Japan was under the spot light of international media over night, not only in the natural disaster aspect, but also in political and economic concerning aspects. During this event, Kyoto News Agency, Nippon Hoso Kyokai (NHK), and the Four Big Newspapers including the Yomiuri Shimbun (読売新聞), the Asahi Shimbun (朝日新聞), the Mainichi Daily (毎日新聞) and the Sankei Shimbun (産経新聞) together have played an essential role of the major news source of the progress of the event. Most foreign media use news reports and news pictures of these sources mentioned above.

Introduction
This thesis conducts a framing analysis of the news reports of the Great East Japan Earthquake of two newspapers, from March 11 to March 18 in 2011: the People’s Daily (人民日報) from China and the Yomiuri Shimbun (読売新聞) from Japan.

First, this research depicts the overall news coverage through examining the report amount and report frequency of each newspaper; second, the analysis is conducted in four frames of the two newspapers: (1) severity frame (portray of the devastation); (2) attribution of responsibility frame (portray of the government, the national leaders and other responsibility subjects); (3) consequences frame (all aspects including economic loss); (4) sympathetic frame (expression of emotion and concern) to see whether they utilize different frames when covering the news.

The major objective of this thesis is to gain an understanding of what kind of frames these two newspapers adopted when reporting the event, how they constructed the frames, and why there are similarities or differences between the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily.

Literature review
News framing is “the process of organizing a news story, thematically,
stylistically and factually, to convey a specific story line” (Lee, Maslog, & Kim 2006, p.502). Entman (1993) argues that mass media establish the media frame when selecting and emphasizing certain aspects of reality. Larson (1984) describes mass media as “a window on the world” through which people learn about the world outside their country. But according to Park (2003), “the window does not show the world as it is; people only see the world within the frame of the window” (p.145). Hanusch and Servaes (2010) define news more from a cultural perspective, they argue that “news cannot be considered purely a series of facts or a window through which we look at the external world: ‘rather it is a cultural product and the accounts and description of the world which it gives are produced from within a specific interpretative framework’ (Glasgow University Media Group, 1980, p.3)” (p.54).

**Quantity: report amount and frequency**

The site where an incident happened can often be the news source center for the reason that local media have the nearest distance with the incident site and can get access to more local places thus obtain more first-hand news. As Japan is the site of this serial event, Japanese media could obtain the first-hand news sources within the least time, so all the Japanese media as a whole became the major news sources of the media around the world. Besides, one point needs to be mentioned that in other countries other than Japan, there were always other news emerged during the Japan earthquake in their own countries, hence, the earthquake and its sequent news had to compete with other news happened in these countries (Hanusch, & Servaes, 2010, p.56). Therefore, the amount of news report from Japanese media was supposed to be the greatest among the world media.

According to the data on the website of World Association of World Newspapers and World Publishers in the report of the World Press Trend (http://www.wan-press.org/worldpresstrends2010/articles.php?id=86), the Yomiuri Shimbun is the newspaper has the largest circulation rate (10,020,000 copies per day) in Japan. So it can reach the most of the audiences in Japan. The People’s Daily is the most central authority nation-wide newspaper of the Chinese Communist Party of China. It is also one of the most major news sources of other media in China. Although it can reach the audiences all around the nation for the subscription requirement in the government offices, due to its Party newspaper nature and that this serial event as “foreign” and “international”, we form our first hypothesis as:

H1a: The report quantity of the Yomiuri Shimbun is larger than the quantity of the People’s Daily over the whole week (from March 11 to March 18).

H1b: The Yomiuri Shimbun has a higher frequency of reporting news than the People’s Daily per day of the week (from March 11 to March 18).

Beaudoin’s (2007) analysis of the frame prevalence when covering SARS in
China and the US provides support to the four frame dimensions: attribution of responsibility, human interest, economic consequences and severity. The research analyzes the news coverage in story and word two analysis units (p.509). Results show that “attribution of responsibility and severity frames were more common in Associated Press; for economic consequences, story frame prevalence was higher in Associated Press, while word frame prevalence was higher in Xinhua” (Beaudoin, 2007, p.509). As for the both types of analysis unit measurement, the research also found that the frames changed over time, such as “economic consequences decreased over time, while attribution of responsibility and severity increased” (Beaudoin, 2007, p.509).

Although the earthquake, the tsunami, the explosion of the reactors in the nuclear power plant and the leaking radiation threat are not disease, such as SARS, they have the similar nature of devastation especially to human beings, and they cause the same fear of people of losing their lives. They are the same also in the sense that it is no longer a national threat to Japan, rather a threat to the whole world.

The literature above shed light on the framework of this research. We adopt the frames used in the SARS research and formed our frames as: severity frame, attribution of responsibility frame, consequences frame and sympathetic frame, which is renamed from the “human interest” frame. However, since our analysis focuses on news coverage in one week after the earthquake, we do not include time changing of frames of the two newspapers.

Severity frame

Hanusch and Servaes (2010) give an example on the terrorist attacks in Bali in 2002, where more than 200 people were killed, 88 out of them Australians. But the Australian newspaper seems to report the event as if there were only these 88 people died. Another TV program broadcast a special anniversary “entitled ‘88 Seconds of Silence,’ completely neglecting those other 100-plus people who died in the bombing. This showed a clear lack of equal emphasis on the lives of those who died in Bali” (p.52).

In accordance with these studies, we hypothesize that:

H2a: Both Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily use the number of how many people died frequently to report the update severity of the event.

H2b: The Yomiuri Shimbun reported the events and people in an overall perspective (no matter Japanese and foreigners); while the People’s Daily paid more attention on the conditions of Chinese people who were in Japan, which shows an unequal emphasis in the news coverage.

Attribution of responsibility frame

A research examining the news coverage about China’s top party-state leaders of
Time and Newsweek from 1978 to 2008 shows that when covering the Sichuan earthquake, more space in Time and Newsweek has been allocated to reports about the corruption of county and town cadres, and the burial of innocent children under collapsed, shoddily made schools with few photographs of the top leaders (Law, 2009). In contrast, Chinese media allocated much space on the national leaders’ visit to the damaged districts, their compassion to the victims and large numbers of heart-touching scenes.

According to this result, we propose the research first question as:

RQ1: How do the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily frame the Japanese government and the Japanese national leaders?

**Consequences frame**

As for the consequences of this event including the earthquake, tsunami and the nuclear leak, it has caused countless loss on many aspects: people’s lives, damaged buildings and houses, sequent impacts on the export industries, and invisible psychological agony of Japanese people. For Japan, all these losses are equal because every piece of damage influences the national society. But for China, that is not the case since only some aspects will have influences on China, for instance, the radiation contamination of the air, marine environment and seafood. So the third hypothesis comes out as:

H3: The Yomiuri Shimbun covers all the consequences of the event to Japan; the People’s Daily concentrates more on the consequences related to China.

**Sympathetic frame**

The event is definitely a disaster not only for Japanese people, but also for all human beings. It caused people die, economic depression, disease and trauma which can hardly be cured. In this sense, we human beings as a whole, experiences the same sorrow and sympathy to the people who are still suffering; many media also convey such sympathy in reporting the event. So the fourth hypothesis follows:

H4: Both the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily reports the event including the earthquake, the tsunami and the nuclear crisis in a sympathetic frame.

Different framing applies different techniques thus shows different characteristics in the news. In a study of news coverage of the Iraq War and Asian conflicts in eight newspapers finds that in war journalism framing, hard news stories are dominating; in peace journalism framing, features and opinion pieces are dominating (Lee, Maslog, & Kim, 2006, p.499).

The Yomiuri Shimbun plays a major role to serve as the news source to the other media. As the event changes, it delivers the news as soon as possible, helping to bridge the information gap between the event subjects and the public. But as an indirect “outsider” of the disaster, China brings the news to its audiences as
international news and shows its sympathy to the disaster which caused thousands of people died. Therefore, in terms of the news type, we form a research question as:

R2: What type of news do the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People's Daily utilize more in reporting the event including the earthquake, the tsunami and the nuclear leak?

Methodology

This thesis first draws a general picture of the reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People's Daily in terms of the report quantity, news type, and whether specific frame has been used in their reports. Then framing analysis is administered to compare the news reports of the two newspapers in detail. The purpose is to identify when they use different frames and what exactly the differences are.

Data are collected through Factiva and CNKI newspaper databases respectively for the full-text publication reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun (Tokyo edition, in Japanese) and the People’s Daily (normal edition and overseas edition, in Chinese). Searching date is limited between March 11 and March 18 in 2011. Among all the reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun, this research only choose the news about “the East Japan Great Earthquake (東日本巨大地震)” to examine, meanwhile narrowing down the search span and excluding the New Zealand earthquake and Yunnan Earthquake which occurred right before it. Besides, this research also takes into account of the special edition and the newspaper extra. The Yomiuri Shimbun released one extra on March 11, one on March 12, two on March 14, and one on March 15. It also released two “special edition” on March 15, two on March 16, two on March 17, and two on March 18. These are all included in the analysis.

Analysis

Quantity

According to the searching result in the Factiva database, limited by the date from Mar.11 to Mar.18, 2011, there are 1223 reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun are related to the East Japan Great Earthquake; result from the CNKI data base shows that there are 22 reports of the People’s Daily during one week after the event occurred. The reports distribution in every day of the week is presented below.
We can see clearly that the report quantity of the Yomiuri Shimbun is much more larger (nearly 60 times) than that of the People’s Daily. Moreover, it is also true that in each day, the Yomiuri Shimbun has more reports than the People’s Daily. Thus, the H1 (The report quantity of the Yomiuri Shimbun is larger than the quantity of the People’s Daily over the whole week) and H2 (the Yomiuri Shimbun has a higher frequency of reporting news than the People’s Daily per day of the week) are both supported.

Severity frame

The earthquake, with a Richter magnitude of 9, is the most severe earthquake in the Japanese history. Two newspapers frame the event in their specific ways. But one point is clear that both newspapers take the number of died/missing/injured people as a direct way to show the severity of the event. As the number grew larger, the severity upgrades.

On Mar.12, the People’s Daily reported that more than 300 people died from the earthquake and tsunami (“Great earthquake and tsunami,” 2011 March 12) and on Mar.15, the number increased to 1,800 (“More than 1800,” 2011, March 15).

The Yomiuri Shimbun updated the statistics every day, in the whole Japan and in different regions. It presented the latest number on the head of the first page, including the number of died people (死者), missing people (行方不明), injured people (負傷) and damaged houses/buildings (建物). Besides, it also updated the names of died people in the “died people” reports such as on the March 15 (亡くなった方々, 2011, March 15), exact magnitude of earthquake in different cities, the height of the waves and so on in a special series called “the information board of the disaster” (震災掲示板). There are also reports showing timetable of the latest situation every day, for example there is a report called “3 ·16 document, the sixth day”
(3・16ドキュメント, 2011, March 16), telling the audiences what happened at what time on March 16. More than one hundred reports are published each day on the Yomiuri Shimbun, and nearly all of them mentioned the latest condition of the disaster.

Both newspapers use numbers and statistics to show the severity. So the H2a (Both the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily use the number of how many people died frequently to report the update severity of the event) is supported.

The differences between the People’s Daily and the Yomiuri Shimbun lie in the details. When mentioning how many people died from the disaster, the People’s Daily pays more attention to the situation of Chinese people who were in Japan. Examples are as follows: the first news report in the People’s Daily mentioning the great earthquake is entitled as “Great earthquake and tsunami hit Japan” (Yu, & Cui, 2011a). The first paragraph describes the general situation of the disaster, and the second paragraph starts to report how the Chinese Embassy in Japan prepared to ensure all Chinese people safe in Japan. Another example is the report on March 12, entitled as “No death or injuries reports of Chinese tourists in Japan contemporarily” (Yu, & Cui, 2011b), focuses only on the condition of Chinese people in Japan. This result echoes the literature arguing that the Australian media only concentrate reporting the Australian people died in the terrorist in Bali in 2002, neglecting other people died in that event who are not Australian. Thus, hypothesis of H2b (The Yomiuri Shimbun reported the event and people in an overall perspective (no matter Japanese and foreigners, while the People’s Daily paid more attention on the conditions of Chinese people who were in Japan, which shows an unequal emphasis in the news coverage) is supported.

The result is also reflected when reporting the international aids. The People’s Daily focuses more on how the Chinese government send rescue materials and teams to Japan, neglecting the fact that there are tens of other countries donating aid materials to Japan (“China will send,” 2011, March 12; “Going to the disaster,” 2011, March 14); but the Yomiuri Shimbun covers the international aid equally, albeit the American aid is mentioned more times than others (“米英中から,” 2011, March 14; “各国から支援次々”, 2011, March 13; “海外から「心配…」” 2011, March 13).

Another difference needs to be mentioned here is that when the People’s Daily explains the severity of the earthquake, it compares it with the Sichuan Earthquake (Liu, 2011), but Yomiuri Shimbun mentioned the Hanshin Earthquake (阪神大震災) in 1995 much more often (“東日本巨大地震,” 2011, March 12; “もっと救助したかった”,” 2011, March 14). When reporting how severe an event is, the media tend to compare it with the historical things in their own country which are more familiar so more easy for the audiences to understand the new event.
Attribution of responsibility frame

The event in Japan is not simple. Although it begins with a natural disaster of earthquake which naturally caused great tsunami, it caused a serial explosion of the reactors in the Fukushima Dainichi nuclear power plant (福島第一原子力発電所) (http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-13047267), which might involve information withhold of the government and the Tokyo Electric Power Company (TEPCO, 東京電力株式会社), making the event (especially the nuclear crisis) even more like man-made disaster. According to a news report on the website of Reuters, the reaction and information communication with the public of the government and the TEPCO seem not satisfied, leaving a question mark to “whether it is a natural or a man-made disaster” (Wang, 2011). How the People’s Daily and the Yomiuri Shimbun portray the Japanese government and national leaders might convey some messages of the attribution to the nuclear crisis. The analysis of the attribution frame separates into two parts for the event includes two different events: the earthquake and the tsunami are natural disasters; the nuclear crisis seems to be man-made.

Both the People’s Daily and the Yomiuri Shimbun portray the Japanese government and the Japanese national leaders as fast, efficient and responsible right after the earthquake and the tsunami.

Take the first report the People’s Daily published relating to the earthquake and the tsunami as an example. It reports that the Japanese government held a meeting immediately at the night on March 11 and proposed specific rescue methods on how to collect the information, ensure the transportation, rebuild the basic living equipments, and send rescue teams. It also quotes the Prime Minister Kan’s words expressing his rescuing resolution (Yu, & Cui, 2011a).

All the news reports updated one by one on the March 12 of the Yomiuri Shimbun also reflect the efficiency of the government’s decision on how to rescue, such as how the government establishes special offices on solving the problems, how the coastal guard has been enforced, how all ministries of the government made decisions to save the people and ensure basic equipments, and how the ruling and opposition parties stopped debating and discussed on the solutions together. One editorial on March 12 describes the government’s actions in detail, framing the government as fast and assertive in saving people’s lives (“東日本巨大地震,” 2011, March 12).

However, as the first explosion of the reactor in the Fukushima nuclear power plant occurred, the event turns from a purely natural disaster to a more complicated one, including the government’s irresponsible late actions in solving the nuclear leak problem and also the blockage of the information to the public. The frame difference appears between the two newspapers.
The People’s Daily avoids mentioning the Japanese government and leaders for the nuclear crisis, since there is not a single report discussing whether the government’s actions is good or not, it only focuses on the rescue aspect. Take one report of the People’s daily on March 13 (Yu, & Cui, 2011c) as an example. When reporting the first reactor’s explosion, it mentioned this big news in the second paragraph in the report, quoting one sentence of the Chief Cabinet Secretary Yukio Edano, answering the cause in a press conference, without mentioning the fact that the press conference was several hours later after the explosion. Then it puts most emphasis on the rescue activities in the other 9 paragraphs, including how the Prime Minister Kan flew to inspect the disaster area and made the decision to add the rescue self-defence force, quoting Kan’s sentence saying that the most urgent task is to save people’s lives. It mentions how a community radio in Kobe used six languages to broadcast in order to serve all the people in the area; and how the Fire and Disaster Management Agency (FDMA) and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) took action immediately to prevent the situation going worse. All these information helps to build an efficient and responsible image of the government and the Japanese national leaders. As the explosion was mentioned equally in the news’s title, it does not gain equally emphasis in the content obviously.

The Yomiuri Shimbun acts as the medium to send information on one hand definitely; it also acts as a watchdog of the government and the national leaders on the other. On March 13, the day right after the first reactor’s explosion, one editorial discusses the government’s late action critically. It suspects the crisis management ability of the government on solving the explosion problem, and it criticizes its late explanation of the truth. The first explosion occurred at about 3:30 pm, yet the government came out to meet the media about two hours later, without mentioning the most important topic of the nuclear leak. The late decision the government made to alleviate the severity was also doubted, “it should make the decisions more earlier and find a safe method to solve the nuclear crisis” (“原発事故の対応”, 2011, March 14). When making the arguments, it also uses some words such as “naiveness” (甘さ) “reaction after the event” (後手) to describe the immaturity of the government’s crisis management ability. From March 13, editorials discussing this topic were published more ( “計画停電,” 2011, March 15; “政府の避難指示,” 2011, March 13; “政権無策”, 2011, March 15; “福島第一原発 相次ぐ爆発,” 2011, March 15; “首相に与野党,” 2011, March 15; “福島第一原発 放射能,” 2011, March 16; “「政府、信用できない」,” 2011, March 18).

Thus, the RQ1 (how do the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily frame the Japanese government and the Japanese national leaders) has been answered by the analysis above.
**Consequences frame**

In terms of the consequences of the events, the two newspapers report the aftershock and tsunami, death and injuries, damage of buildings, houses, transportation, telecommunication, airlines and public facilities in the same frame using numbers, descriptions and interviews. They also report the damage to the Japan economy such as the manufacture and fishing industry in the same emphasis. But the differences are obvious as well.

The People’s Daily focuses more on the influences this event brought to China, such as one report concludes that the influences are temporary and limited according to some experts (Liang, Qin, & Zhou, 2011). But the Yomiuri Shimbun covers more aspects not only the economy or industries, it also contain the influences to education, such as the entrance examination to universities cannot be held on time; the sport matches such as the baseball and horse racing; the sequent inconvenience in daily life after the electricity stopped such as the ATM being out of work. The consequence frame of the Yomiuri Shimbun is more detailed and comprehensive. In accordance with these arguments, the hypothesis of H3 (The Yomiuri Shimbun covers all the consequences of the event to Japan; the People’s Daily concentrates more on the consequences related to China) is supported.

**Sympathetic frame**

No matter the event is a natural disaster or a man-made disaster, one thing is for sure, that it caused huge damage to Japan even the whole world, materially and psychologically. Tens of thousands of lives were lost, countless houses and buildings were crashed and disappeared suddenly. In one word, it is absolutely a devastating disaster. Even though most of the people living in the world are not in Japan, they all care about the people in Japan. Thus we hypothesize that both of the newspapers utilize the sympathetic frame to report.

The People’s Daily published 22 reports of this event, many of them use sympathetic frame to show concern and care about the situation in Japan, such as the words of “huge damage”, “重大損失” “損失巨大” (Yu, Q., & Cui, Y., 2011a, March 12) “重大損失” (“China will send,” 2011, March 12). There are also many long reports use emotionally touching words to express care and sorrow for all the sufferings. Vocabularies and sentences are used in the reports such as “大爱无疆，有难同当” (love is without boundaries, we will share the difficulties together), “8.8级特大地震虽然发生在日本，却牵动了亿万中国人的心” (although the disaster happened in Japan, it brings billions of Chinese hearts there), “天灾无情，人有情；患难当头，见真情” (disaster does not have sympathy, we do; only when the difficulties came up, the true love shows up), “面对地震海啸灾害，中日两国人民要心连心 手拉手 有难同当 有难共抗” (in the face of the earthquake and the tsunami
disaster, we Chinese and Japanese will share the difficulties together and defeat the quake together, heart to heart, hand in hand) (Liu, J. Y., 2011, March 13), “自然是无情的 本是强大的 但我们要告诉自然 人类同样可敬” (the nature is ruthless and powerful, but we need to tell the nature, life is respectful as well) (Zi, 2011).

However, most of the reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun are short hard news and do not use that much heart touching expressions, except that some news reports which only contains photos (“希望 離さない”, 2011, March 13). Some articles based on the interviews of some Red Cross rescue members and doctors of the medical teams express the unbearable sorrow and sympathy indirectly (「街中がれき 信じられず」, 2011, March 13). Among all the news reports, very small amount are heart touching ones of the Yomiuri Shimbun, compared to this kind of reports of the People’s Daily. Most of the news reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun are fact statements without obvious emotion. As the fourth hypothesis is that both the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily reported the event including the earthquake, the tsunami and the nuclear crisis in a sympathetic frame, it is partly supported, since it is true to the People’s daily, but not to the Yomiuri Shimbun.

As for second research question of the new type, the People’s Daily uses more long reports, features and editorials among all the reports it published. According to the statistics, there are 8 short news (less than 550 words), discussing the Chinese aid, Chinese leaders’ greetings, conditions of Chinese people in Japan, and one discussing the American carrier leaving the place near the nuclear power plant; 4 commentaries among which 3 (more than 1800 words) discussing the economic influences the event caused, 1 (more than 900 words) describes the severity and the damage to Japan; all the other 10 articles (more than 600 words) are long features and editorials discussing the severity and expressing the sympathy.

The Yomiuri Shimbun uses more short hard news among all its reports. There are more than 100 articles published each day, but the quantity of editorials, photo news, commentaries and features is no more than 10. Among all the news reports, many of them are functional notifications sent by the government to tell the people what to do in what situation. The reports also establish a platform for people to find their family members and even express their feelings.

**Conclusion**

In analyzing all the news reports of the Yomiuri Shimbun and the People’s Daily from March 11 to March 18, the results support most of the hypotheses proposed in the beginning.

The results show that the Yomiuri Shimbun uses more hard short news while the People’s Daily uses more long features and opinion commentaries. The findings also support the hypotheses in the four frames. In terms of the severity frame, both
newspapers use numbers frequently to describe how severe the disaster is, but they refer to different historical events when explaining the severity. The Yomiuri Shimbun refers to the Hannshin Earthquake while the People’s Daily refers to the Sichuan Earthquake. As for the attribution of responsibility frame, both the Yomiuri Shimbun and People’s Daily portray the Japanese government and the Japanese leaders as fast, efficient and responsible in terms of the rescue activities; yet when the nuclear crisis upgrades, the People’s Daily seems to avoid the attribution frame and only focuses on the rescue news; the Yomiuri Shimbun, acting as a watchdog of the government, starts to suspect the government’s sincerity, efficiency and ability through a serial of editorials. When covering the consequences, both newspapers report the natural and economic losses, but the Yomiuri Shimbun reports more the consequences to Japan, the People’s Daily concerns more about the consequences brought to China. Both newspapers use sympathetic frame, but obviously the People’s Daily uses it more frequently; the Yomiuri Shimbun seems to be more calm since its uses more hard news when reporting the event.

To conclude, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the newspaper with the largest circulation in Japan, not only reports more articles in the quantity aspect, it also reports more frequently, into detail and critically when covering the event than the People’s Daily. It not only acts as an essential information communicator, but also makes use of its influences to establish some functions to help the government and the people overcome the difficulties. The People’s Daily, as one of the authority media in China, covers the Great East Japan Earthquake in a sympathetic way, but it seems to be true that “Chinese” and “China” is more important among all the things.
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東日本巨大地震 被災者の救助と支援に全力を. (2011, March 12). The Yomiuri
Shimbun.
The Use of News Graphics and Infographics in Iran's Modern Public Relations

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Introduction

Modern public relations have gone beyond traditional methods of organizing, writing, speaking, and eventually advertising. The main reason for this great change is the virtual space and its operation tool, the Internet, which has revolutionized different ways of individual, social, local and global communications. Meanwhile, communication tactics have also undergone massive changes in the new environment. In the new environment, the hegemony of visual tactics has been more effective than written and spoken tactics; as the visual tactics become more prominent, appropriate and simpler, the communications between senders and receivers become stronger, more balanced and faster.

Therefore, in order to establish a stronger, more balanced and faster communication with the audience, modern public relations are expected to start applying methods in which visual and graphical tools and elements are of paramount importance. Considering the audience's needs and meeting them, especially in gathering information and news in a competitive environment, have intensified the necessity of using these tools and elements. "The visual language can spread knowledge more effectively than almost any other means of communication. This language enables human to experience and document his experience in a visible form. Visual communication is a global and international communication: it does not have the limitations imposed by language, dictionary and grammar, and the illiterate can understand it just like an educated individual," (Kaps, 2005: 16).

Considering the fact that "visual element strengthens readable material" (Dalvand, 2008: 8), and "messages are conveyed more quickly by seeing" (Fine Arts Association, 1996: 266), we must say that the atmosphere in the environment of web underlines the need for summarizing and using visual elements and tools. "The audience cannot tolerate circumlocution and verbosity. Upon seeing long texts, web readers feel uneasy. Reading a computer screen is nearly 25 percent slower than reading a newspaper page, it also strains the eyes. As a result, the content of a text in web must be half of that in paper" (Ziayeeaparvar, 2008: 144).

Experience shows that if graphical and visual elements and tools are put together and arranged in accordance with text, news and information will be more effective. In 1989, for example, the Society for News Design (SND) and Poynter Institute presented interesting data about Eyetrack. Poynter's designers designed a series of newspaper pages all of which reported the same event. A number of people were killed in the crash of a burning plane at a local airport. The story was
given to four groups of readers. Group 1 read a page which had only words. Group 2 words and picture. Group 3 words, picture and graphics. And the forth group read only words and graphics. Finally, each group filled out a questionnaire about details of the story. The results showed that those who read words, picture and graphic could remember the most details. The second rank belonged to words and graphic, the third rank to words and picture, and the last belonged to words.1

One type of graphic which properly uses words, pictures, icons, maps, figures, tables, graphs etc to transfer news or information in a quick, attractive and objective way is infographics or news graphics.

The present study tries to introduce news graphics and infographics and examine their usages in Iran's modern public relations.

1. Theoretical Concepts

1.1. Infographic

"The term infographic is coined by combining the words information and graphic." (Fine Arts Association, 1996: 262). This type of graphic is closely connected to people's everyday lives. Its examples include various maps (maps of underground stations and inner-city transportation, geographical maps, roads, tourism, statistics, meteorology etc), various visual instructions on the use of goods and services or observing safety and medical codes, demonstrating human body, animals and plants, or structure and function of different goods and products with the purpose of informing and educating or sometimes advertising. Graphic makes scientific and historic suppositions and events more objective. In an Infographics Seminar Handout in Mumbai, India in 2005, infographic was defined as: "Infographics clarify and explain the hidden, complicated and vague points of a text. Visual presentation does not mean only translating the readable into visual. These graphics must necessarily include the following: filtering information, identifying and demonstrating the relations, fully understanding the existing patterns, and finally presenting information in a way that the audience can perfectly understand it."

In designing this type of graphic, different colors, spatial arrangement, various graphs (such as bar graph and polygon) and various diagrams (such as icons) are used. Considering the process and framework of its designing, we can say that in order to design a successful infographic, three very important stages must be taken into account:

1. In the first stage, we must specify the type of information which is to be presented: spatial, chronological, and quantitative or a combination of three. 2. The kind of presentation (charts, diagrams, maps etc) is chosen based on the available information. 3. Suitable form of presentation (static, dynamic or interactive) is decided upon. (Rajamanickam, 2005, 8-9)

Based on means of communication and its demonstration and presentation, infographics are divided into three general categories of static, motion and interactive. In static type (figure 1), the whole information is presented together. Its examples include journalistic graphics, files containing maps, manuals of products and descriptive diagrams. In dynamic type, information is presented gradually and in a linear and dynamic way. In interactive type, information is presented selectively and according to the audience choice.
Internet information units are naturally narrative, educational, provocative and explanatory (Ibid, 9). Based on the purpose of their usages, infographics are divided into two types of information and news graphics (Figure 2). The information type is not generally urgent, but the news type is; because in news graphics, the speed with which the news and information are spread is of paramount importance. Some of the experts in this area call infographics with news-giving purposes infographic news, and some other call them news graphics.

1.1.1. Infographics in Iran and in the World

The first creators of infographic are considered to be primitive people who lived in prehistoric era and created works like drawings on cave walls and then maps. "Map is probably the first systematic effort to visually demonstrate the news which is still used and understood (Cairo, 2005: 14). The professional models of infographics are traced back to 1622 in which an astronomer, called Christopher Shiner, tried to visualize the results of his research on the movements of the sun and used a lot of graphical pictures. Another effective example in the development of infographics is the primitive infographic of Napoleon's defeat against Russia which was created by Charles Minard in 1861. "In the late 18th century, a new discipline, called Information Designing, came into existence thanks to the works of William Playfair from Scotland. He designed the most important statistical table called the Political Atlas which is still used" (Ibid, 14). Infographics were introduced to the media in early 18th century. A famous model was a map of Kariz Gulf published in Daily Courant in 1702. Although such examples are good models of infographics use, infographics and news graphics emerged generally in the 20th century particularly during World War II" (Cairo, 2005: 15). After being used in journalism, infographic came to the realm of television. Its TV type expanded especially after establishment of Peter Sullivan Company in 1987. With the emergence of Internet, great steps were taken to use online infographics in media and organizations, and after 2005, this movement accelerated.
By reviewing the history of infographics in Iran, we can say that maps are the first examples of infographics in Iran which were used mainly for specifying roads and borders after wars. Some models can be found in Iranian military history books. Other examples include maps of different Iranian towns in travel accounts of Europeans after the 12th century. After the beginning of publications and newspaper in Iran in 1853, gradually models of infographics emerged to present information in a limited space in the form of tables, graphs, maps etc. Using infographics for advertising, scientific, educational, statistical and comparative, historical, political, military and forecasting (such as weather or air pollution) purposes happened after 1961 in Iran. Some examples of these usages can be found in early publications like Roshanfekr (figure 3), Tamasha and Bamshad, and some contemporary publications like Hamshahri, Khorshid Newspaper and Javan. In publications after the Islamic Revolution, Keyhan Newspaper is one of the newspapers that have had infographics and news graphics. Hamshahri Javan Magazine has made professional efforts to develop infographics in Iran and worked as team in this regard. Using the experience of activists in the field of non-journalistic infographics and reading some such books as The Newspaper Designer's Handbook, written by Tim Harrower, paved the way for creation of infographics in Hamshahri Javan. Interest in infographics in Hamshahri Javan increased in 2008; currently you can see examples of such graphic in almost every publication of Hamshahri. Another newspaper which has taken effective steps in developing infographics in Iran is Khorshid Newspaper, which, in 2008, embarked on dedicating two pages to infographics.

Regarding the history of using infographics and news graphics in Iranian public relations, there is no accurate document. It is not clear which organization's PR was the first to use infographics for the purpose of advertising, educating etc. However, a number of Iranian old companies and organizations have used this type of graphic particularly for advertising and educational purposes. The review of formation of professional infographics in Hamshahri Newspaper after 2005 reveals that this newspaper initially has made use of the experience of infographic designers who had non-journalistic experience and designed customer manuals in such companies as Iran-Khodro. The conducted reviews show car manufacturers and other companies which produce products which need instruction on their usage, and also companies and institutes which need educating specific rules and procedures are more likely to use infographics. However, by reference to websites of car manufacturers like Iran-Khodro and Saipa (figure 4) we can say that in using this type of graphic, the static form has been sufficient and other forms have not been used. This is true of websites of Ministry of Health, Treatment and Medical Education and Helal Ahmar Organization (figure 5) which have some educational responsibilities.

Fig 4. Portal, Sales and Customer Service of Saipa Group, Safety of Passengers  
Fig 5. Website of Education and Research Institute of Helal Ahmar, Education on preventing bleeding
1.2. News Graphic

News graphic or infographic news, as called in some countries, is a kind of infographic which is different in content and purpose of production and is similar in the process of production and its presentation (static, dynamic, interactive and multimedia news graphic). The difference between this type of graphic and infographic can be found in information and news (particularly values and news elements). News graphic can be defined as: "News graphic is, in fact, a picture of the news which shows part or the whole of an event," (Shokrkhah, 2001: 78). Besides objectifying the news from media, news graphic is able to fill in the gaps in their visual coverage (Shokrkhah, 2000: 12). News graphics are designed by graphic designers who are competent in journalism and based on principles of this type of journalism and based on reality. One type of news graphic is called 'breaking news infographic' or 'breaking news graphic'. Its printed and online form are prepared and published respectively in a working day before finishing the design of lay-out and with emergency in step-by-step fashion (Cairo, 2005: 38). (First, map, then updating the map, then preparing the flash copy and finally displaying the dynamic) (Cairo, winter 2005: 16). In the print form, the designer is faced with limitation of space and in the online form, with limitations of time and space (Ibid, 17). Formerly, first the print form of news graphic was made, and then it was changed to online form. Nowadays, however, the print and online forms are produced simultaneously and with almost independent processes (Cairo, 2006: 3). This type of graphic is used not only in media, but also in public relations and organizations and institutes associated with media, and presents the important and controversial news graphically and visually. In this type, the emphasis is on the news which has news value.

1.2.1. News Graphic in Iran and the World

Emergence and development of news graphic are due to newspaper. In 1982, USA Today embarked on using this type of graphic to facilitate the studying of some readers – mostly international tourists and businessmen – who did not have enough time to study. Afterwards, some newspapers like Independent in Britain, Frankfort Rondahaw, Fukas and Schpigel in Germany used it for competition purposes (Fine Arts Association, 1996: 268). In the emergence of news graphic, many factors have contributed, from special graphical equipment to efforts and creativity of individuals like Nigel Holmes and John Grimvid. "The practice, introduced by Holmes, Grimvid and Peter Sullivan is now followed by graphic designers in a more diverse and more practical form; it is also taught at universities. The new generation of news graphic designers has started to produce two- and three-dimensional works. The interesting point is the presence of the latest type of news graphic called animated news graphic which was first created by BBC and CNN," (Shokrkhah, 2000: 12). In the 1990s, news graphic was formally introduced. It was a time when pen and camera could do nothing and the climax of its usage was during the Persian Gulf War (Fine Arts Association, 1996: 267).

Censorship and preventing reporters, cameramen and photographers from going to the region caused USA Today to create news graphic in order to fill in the visual gaps (Tavakkoli, 2000: 134). Measures taken by media to develop news graphic have created different types of print, electronic (TV), digital and online, and also different presentation forms of static, dynamic, interactive (figure 6) and combination. Depending on the topic, specialized designers choose the type and form to design and produce news graphic.
Fig 6. BBC website, 2001, Trade Center disaster, an example of interactive news graphic

As for the history of news graphic in Iran, although there have been a lot of examples of news graphic in Iranian publications especially after the 1960s, in fact news graphic in Iran has never been beyond breaking news graphic and there are few examples of professional news graphic (graphical report of an event). The professional news graphic produced in Iran was called The Story of a Crash (C130 plane crash) which was published in Hamshahrī Javan on December 17, 2005 (figure 7). In websites and publications related to public relations of different organizations, few examples could be found in which organizational news is presented in the form of news graphic.

1.3. Modern Public Relations

After its traditional period, PR entered a new era which is called modern public relations. Modern PR has some evolution stages: "a) electronic PR (PR 1), after the end of traditional PR, electronic PR began. Electronic PR includes any communication which is done through electronic ways to communicate with the audience. The use of internet networks, the Internet and extranet were raised in this period. The purpose of electronic PR is mainly to speed up information-giving and help customers work with the organization. Another purpose is to increase efficiency and clarity of the organization in providing services for customers and to put the audience first. B) Online PR (PR2), in this kind of PR, tools and services are expanded online. At this stage, communication is interactive and the user, as an active member, is able to engage in plans and activities of the PR. Games Horton, professor of communication science and a pioneer in online PR, defines online PR as: online PR is traditional PR expanded in an online way. C) Cyber PR (PR 3), in cyber PR, we enter a stage at which software makes decisions instead of humans and it tries to discover meanings. Once the raw data are given to the relevant software, after a short process, the advertising and media plans of the PR are formulated. Here, PR plans are inclined towards qualification and the standards for assessment are very different. This definition is adopted from web 3," (Permanent Secretariat of International Conference for PR in Iran, 2009: 96-97).
2. The Use of News Graphic and Infographic in Public Relations

Capabilities of news graphic and infographic have caused this type of graphic to be used in different media, organizations and institutes. The reasons for using infographics and news graphics include: making the news more believable and more objective, economizing on media space, organizational websites and also on audience's time, enabling the audience to understand news and information more easily and visually, and filling the visual gaps of cameras.

Infographics transfer complicated relations and facts. They demonstrate pictures and numbers more clearly so that the content can be understood in one glance. Infographics encourage the audience to study more. An interesting infographic can arouse the readers' curiosity. In infographics, signs are used, like speaking. One single picture depicts thousands of words. Furthermore, pictures of infographics can present a lot of signs regarding the topic, which can be understood unconsciously by the reader. Infographics present the information and data visually. These pictures are used where a simple and quick description of the data is needed, like maps, signboards, educational posters and newspapers. Mathematicians and specialists on statistics and computer also use this tool in order to visualize complicated concepts. Infographics enable readers to receive a considerable amount of information in a simple and visual way or even to memorize it; however, the written form of the same information can create a ling article. Nowadays, infographics can be found everywhere, from publications to signposts. Information which is difficult to write is usually depicted in a brief infographical design. In newspapers, this type of graphic can be used to show weather, statistics, maps and charts. Children's books are usually filled with infographics. Many examples can also be found in scientific books, such as physics systems, graphs and microscopic pictures. Modern maps, particularly road maps for transits and signposts, are very dependent on infographics. On most pages of the manuals of technical tools, we can find graphs and pictures for standards, warning, danger etc. The reason why infographics are used is that human mind is interested in analyzing and storing information visually. It even stores the relations between things and information visually not lexically. For example, think of the three words pencil, telephone and TV. What comes to your mind first? Do you think of the letters of these words or their physical forms? As you see, human mind can understand and learn physical and visual forms of data and information more easily than their written form. Therefore, infographic is one of the best ways to transfer new or complicated material.5

Capabilities of infographic enable public relations of organizations, companies and institutes to easily present a large amount of information with graphical and visual elements especially in web space. The interactive and multimedia types of this kind of graphic give audience a wider choice to access more details and information. In introducing a product like a car, for example, the
online PR can easily present information on its specifications, facilities, power, acceleration etc with an interactive infographic; and users can access more details about the car by pressing certain keys. This type of graphic removes the need to study long texts in order to learn about the specifications and facilities of a car. Using the dynamic type, in addition to increasing attraction, enhances the understanding of a product by the audience. In order to introduce a car, the website of Volkswagen (the largest car manufacturer in Germany) used an interesting infographic which had interactive, dynamic and multimedia capabilities. In the middle of this infographic, which is designed with the software Flash, there is a car that can be moved and controlled by the user. It is like a map. On the four sides of the car, there are stations showing performance, comfort, safety and style. The user can stop at them to get information about each aspect. These stations include different colors of the car, capabilities, pictures etc. in the stations of pictures, there is a red carpet laid under the car, and like a movie star, when the car is moving on the carpet, different pictures from various perspectives are taken. And the user enjoys watching these photos in an attractive visual atmosphere. In the station of colors, after choosing the desired color, some devices around the car use spray paint and within a few seconds the color changes to the desired one (figure 8).

A good example of dynamic infographic can be found in TV commercials where different devices and pills for losing or gaining weight are advertised. In these commercials, a TV infographic explains the usage and power of the products.

As for the usage of news graphics, we can say: "news graphic objectifies the events, particularly those which photographs and cameramen cannot reach," (Shokrkhah, 2000: 12). This type of graphic is used for news which has the following features: a) the ability to be visualized, b) urgency, c) having diverse audience (Sadeqi, 2003: 43).

News graphics are also used in public relations, e.g. to visualize the events happening in an organizations. Capabilities of news graphic are so high that it can clarify the ambiguities and questions regarding an event or crisis and make the organization more responsive. A simple example is the accident which happened in Iran Khodro car manufacturing in February 2011 and caused a number of its employees to be killed or injured. Following this event, the PR of Iran Khodro announced some very general news including "the Condolence Expressed by the Managing Director of Iran Khodro Industrial Group," "On January 25, 2011 at
11:3 pm, a dump truck containing the load of a contractor was entering Door 9 of Iran Khodro when, due to carelessness, it ran over a number of company's employees and killed four people injured 13.6

There were a lot of ambiguities regarding how the event occurred and the high number of casualties. All of these could be explained and visualized with a simple news graphic (static, dynamic, interactive or multimedia). By making news graphic, the PR could prevent the spread of rumors and make the company more responsive; it could also reduce the pressure, manage the crisis, clarify the issues for public mind, and make the event objective and believable.

One of the most important responsibilities of PR is to represent facts and prevent deviant behavior and stick to PR principles. These behaviors include: a) exaggeration, which means making an event seem more important than what it really is, adjustment, which is the opposite of exaggeration meaning reducing the significance of a program or project, classification, which means demonstrating a person or product as good or bad, labeling, which means giving qualities to a person or product regardless of facts (Sefidi, 2006: 42-43). News graphic enables PR to visualize events and represent facts based on moral principles established by International Association for Public Relation. "They must not publish news that is not based on investigated facts or facts that cannot be investigated. They must respect the audience and their position (both friends and opponents) and distinguish fact from pseudo-fact or anti-fact (Ibid: 43).

Furthermore, we must say that using infographics and news graphics enables PR to play the Presentational Role out of the total five roles, which include Representation Role, Presentational Role, Negotiational Role, Advisory Role, and Interpretative Role. In Presentational Role, attention is given to activities that PR does in order to give information and through announcements and statements. Such examples include delivering speech and making news (Ibid: 74).

In the evolution of PR from traditional to modern, and concerning the features of modern PR, it is necessary to make use of infographics and news graphics, particularly dynamic, interactive and multimedia types; because "modern public relations need a new sign language, which is basically different from the traditional world. This language relies more on picture and dynamism rather than words and inertia. In this new communication environment, meaning is conveyed through picture not words, it is picture that makes a common meaning environment, which is necessary for real communication," (Permanent Secretariat of International Conference for PR in Iran, 2009: 44-45).

Conclusion

Infographic and news graphic are useful tools for public relations – especially modern ones – to meet the audience's needs and fulfill the organizational objectives. Considering the fact that the future world of PR is a visual one, and in the new communication environment, picture and dynamism are more responsible for transferring meaning and making common meaning environment than words and inertia, it is necessary to use dynamic, interactive and multimedia infographics and news graphics to facilitate and accelerate the transfer of a huge amount of information and news. This tool can also help PR play the presentational role and carry out such duties as responding, informing and clarifying. Considering high capabilities of infographics and news graphics, it so seems that Iranian PR should equip their websites and hire competent designers so that they can create infographics and news graphics to meet audience's needs and fulfill organizational objectives. The prerequisite for this is the familiarity of managers with this effective tool and their determination to use it in Iranian PR and pay the costs of producing it.

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GROWTH OF PRINT MEDIA IN PAKISTAN FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INDICATORS

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Abstract
This research article aims to analyze the economic and social conditions of the country to its impact on the functioning of the print media and its relations with the government. It also sheds light on various economic and social indicators and its impact on the growth of the press. It was found the obstacles in the way of media development are, market conditions, political insecurity, economic backwardness, linguistic diversity, illiteracy, technology and responsibilities in the journalists. More over it was dug out that the relationship of economy and literacy is directly proportional to the media development. Better economy, good literacy rate leads to media development. But in developing countries, it has been observed that the press tends to be used to facilitate the functioning of the economy and to perpetuation the power of the rulers.

Key words: Print media; Growth; Social; Economic; Pakistani Press and Media development

i. Introduction
The birth of Pakistan is based on an idea. An idea of the separate homeland for the Muslims in order to shun submersion in Hindu community was the kernel of Pakistan’s birth story. The idea changed into a reality when the British plan to divide the Indian subcontinent into two independent states. Due to this division Pakistan emerged as an independent state on the map of the world on 14 August 1947. (Cohen, 2004) Multi-linguistic, multi-ethnic, and class-divided texture is the characteristics of Pakistani society. Punjabi, Sindh, Pashtun and Baluch are major ethnic groups in the four provinces i.e. Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtoonkhaw and Baluchistan of the country.

Both the provinces Punjab and Khyber Pakhtoonkhaw have relatively influenced the spheres of armed forces and politics. English is acknowledged as an official language in the country. Moreover, Civil servants, upper classes and intelligences feel pride to do interaction in English language. Whereas Urdu, as a national language is undoubtedly spoken as lingua franca in all regions of Pakistan. While regional languages and dialect are spoken in the country side and remote areas of the four Provinces including Gilgit-Baltistaan and FATA (Federally administrated Tribal areas). The ratio of Punjabi language is estimated 44 percent. 15 percent Pashtuns spoke Pushto while Sindhi is mother language of 14 percent; ratio of Seraiki language was found by and large 8%. Similarly Urdu is mother language of 7.5
Percent population of the country. Approximately remaining more than Six percent population of Pakistan communicate in other regional languages (ibid, p.232).

According to World Development Report, the per capita income in Pakistan, which is a country of 180 millions, is estimated 840 US dollars in the last year. (World development report 2009)

54% population is estimated literate. The ratio of literacy was found greater among males (68%) as compared to females (40%). (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2009) Similarly, the ratio of literacy was found greater in urban areas, means low literary rate in the villages of the country. In the year 2005-06, it was reported that alarming figure of 62% percent children between the age group of 5 to 9 were enrolled in the primary schools. (National Education Census; UNESCO Islamabad, 2007.)

Moreover, the survey indicates that 15 to 25 Lac students have been enrolled in the madarssess- religious educational institutes. Males are more educated than females in Pakistan. That was the terse gist of Pakistan background now let us have look at the economic and social conditions of the country during civil and military rules it will help us to evaluate that the application of structural functional approach on the subject of media development and its relationship with the economic institution. Contemporarily, the term mass media development is defined as the level of availability of mass communication products per person in any given society. The hurdles and obstacles in the way of media development are, market conditions, political insecurity, economic backwardness, linguistic diversity, illiteracy, technology and responsibilities in the journalists. All these obstacles in the way of media development would be analyzed in this part of research.

In spite of growth of cities, Pakistan, like many others developing countries remains primarily and predominantly a rural community. The population of the country was estimated at 160 million in 2004. The ratio of the rural population has fallen from 80% to 64% in 2003 (UNESCO population report 2003, Islamabad).

The majority of the rural community due to low per capita income and many other factors have no access to any form of mass media. A survey was conducted in remote areas of the country about the availability of reading material. Findings signifies that availability of reading material is approximately nil. If it exists, the local people cannot afford it due to economic reasons. It was pointed out that authors in remote areas have little opportunity to publish their books (Khawaja, 2003).

The flow of information emanates from the big cities and tends to be owe way since there are no affective dissemination mechanisms to assemble news from the regions and much less from more specific localities.

**Print media**

In the last decades of the 20th century, the newspaper industry has gone through noticeable changes. It was estimated that total number of daily, weekly and other related publication was 4455. This ratio of publication reduced to 945 within six years. But on the other hand, the circulation of print media was increased in that specific period i.e. year 2003. The overall ratio of all type of print media’s publication was estimated 62 Lac in 2003. As reported by Pakistan institute of peace studies, the total figure of regular newspapers is 142.Circulation
statistics are tentative. In an interview Zafar Abbas, editor of Daily Dawn depicted that total circulation of all type of newspaper publication was approximately four millions in the last year (International Media Support, 2009).
Since independence and even during the British Raj, the print media is the oldest form of media in the country. It can be classified into public and privately owned media. The privately owned media independently played its sacred role of witch dog to expose the wrong doings, of ruling elite. Majority of the newspapers are published in Urdu language and Sindhi newspapers are considered the second largest group. While newspapers are published in eleven languages. Urdu newspapers by and large more tendencies towards right wing school of thought widely read in rural areas whereas newspapers in English language, with more liberal flavor are read by educated and elite class of Pakistani society. Influence and impact of English print media has been greater in power corridor of the country i.e. bureaucracy, civil and military, parliamentarian and other members of elite groups.
Jang, Dawn and Nawa i waqt groups are considered as the three major groups of newspaper in Pakistan. Daily Jang (Urdu newspaper), The News (English newspaper), Akhbar e Jahan (Urdu weekly magazine), Mag (English weekly), Al Awaam (eveninger) are published under the umbrella of Jang group of newspapers. Its policy is termed as moderate. Whereas, Daily Dawn, Herald (monthly) and the Star (eveninger) are published under the aegis of Dawn group of publications. Its policy is more liberal and secular with blench of moderate flavor.
Daily Nawa i Waqt (Urdu newspaper), Daily Nation, Weekly Family magazine and Nida e Millat are the publication of Nawa i waqt group. This group support right wing school of thoughts and its policy is more conservative. To safe guard ideology of Pakistan and democracy in the country are the main objectives of Nawa i waqt group of newspapers.

Apart from the four main streams newspaper groups plus dozen of prominent newspapers and weeklies there are 1700 newspapers in the country most of which are dummy (Ibid).

Mostly regional newspapers are ill-equipped to compete with the Metropolitan newspapers. A large number of these papers are dummies; these are published to fulfill the Government requirement, as a mouth piece of various vested interest groups and for the benefit of advertisers. The circulation of these regional papers is nominal. These regional papers have to rely heavily on official advertisements. Low literacy rate, low per capita income and others socio economic factors are contributing factors for poor circulation of regional newspapers.

Similarly, the content, material layout and make up of these papers are not up to the mark. That is why, regional press is not in this position to cater and capture the attention of common man. Owner of these regional newspapers like their counter parts, in metropolitan cities, are entered in this arena of journalism just for two objectives, first to earn money and second to enjoy the dignity and influence of owning a newspaper (Ibid).

Money generating is secondary objective; virtually they use newspaper as a tool to influence, pressurize and bully local administration, politician and others, influenced persons in their respective localities. Literally speaking, press card is the green card for them.

Additionally, most of these papers have nothing to do with social reforms or other noble causes. Yet these are working as a tool of public relation either for the Government or
for those local politicians, businessmen and other powerful groups, who provides financial assistance to these papers. Most of the regional papers are product of one man show. Most of the staff members are only part timer, the journalists attached with regional press don’t have any formal education as well as training in the field of communication. It may be divulged in rather simple words they are semi literate, untrained and under paid (Ibid).

Following are the main problems which are being faced by the regional press and to some extent have stagnant the growth of the press (Ibid).

- Lack of capital investment
- Expensive cost of production and distribution
- Low circulation
- Slow rate of return on investment
- No charm for advertiser / lack of advertiser interest.
- Tough competition with metropolitan press.
- Ill equipped infrastructure
- Lack of formally trained personnel.
- Problems of news collection etc.

**GROWTH OF THE PRESS IN PAKISTAN**

At the time of independence the infant country was comprised of only four major Muslim owned newspapers: Pakistan Times, Zamindar, Nawa I waqt and civil and military gazette. All these newspapers were of Lahore-Dawn, Morning News, Urdu language dailies Jang and Anjam moved to Pakistan in 1947. The number of newspapers and journals surpassed to 1500 till 2000s in Pakistan and the Press sustained strong and vital to public life in spite of govt. efforts to muzzle it.

1. By the early 2000s, 1,500 newspapers and journals exist in Pakistan, including those published in English, Urdu, and in regional languages; and the press remains strong and central to public life in spite of government efforts to control it (Owais, 2000). The press in Pakistan has had tough and turbulent phase since the partition of India / subcontinent with only limited and meager financial resources. UNESCO report states “before partition there were 556 dailies, weeklies and periodicals in the areas now constituting Pakistan” (World communication, UNESCO publications Paris: 1951. P. 92).

During early days of infant state, the growth of the media was halted by numerous factors such as low literacy rate, low expansion of urbanization, poor economic conditions low per capita income. According to Daniel Learner paradigm of development that urbanization has tended towards greater media exposure, similarly others inter linked factors like, high degree of literacy; political participation and economic development are correlated with media exposure (Lerner, 1958).

After independence, within seven years there had been effective development in the growth of press, the number of dailies, weeklies and other periodicals increased from 556 to
The total number of dailies in 1947 was 34, where as in 1954 there number touched to 79 (Ibid).

Similarly, total circulation also increased from 1, 25,000 to 7, and 16,000. There was significant increase from 1.7 copies to 9.5 copies of daily newspapers per thousands within seven years (Siddique, 1974).

The growth of the media may be one of the factors due to the completion of Pakistan’s first phase of industrialization. Till 1957, in terms of circulation per thousand persons, the rise was from 9.5 copies to 13.5 copies (Ibid).

Moreover the weekly and periodical press also progressed considerably from 1947 to 1958. The number of weeklies in 1954 was 310, increased to 396 in 1958. While, other periodic publications increased from 411 to 608 till 1958 (Ibid).

Prof. Shariful Mujahid writes about development of Pakistan press in these words “the somewhat nebulous state of the Pakistan press in 1947-48, as well it’s slow but steady growth throughout the 1950s”. In his article he has focused the development of media in terms of leaner five step model of modernization; these steps are as under (Mujahid Al, 1991).

- Urbanization
- Literacy
- Media exposure
- Economic participation
- Political participation

Pakistan crossed the lower ceiling of the critical minimum (i.e. 7%) of urbanization in late 50s. The increase of over 1.94 million in the non agricultural labour force during 1951-61 highlighted tendency towards industrialization moreover, literacy rate rise to 15.9% in 1961. There was also corresponding rise in the per capita income (Ibid).

All these factors significantly contributed for the growth of press. The growth of media conveniently may be explained in term of increase of new publications. The number of dailies rose from 55 in 1953 to 103 in 1958. The slump during the next four years may be decreased in terms of press constraint during Martial Law of Ayub Khan (1958-62). After termination of Martial Law, the number of dailies rose from 75 in 1962 to 117 in 1970 (Ibid).

During General Yahya Khan’s Regime the press of Pakistan enjoyed unfettered press freedom. Short span of Yahya’s rule also witnessed the spectacular rise of weeklies, fortnightlies and monthlies. Their number rose to 1145 in 1970 (Ibid).

In 1970, the total circulation of dailies was approximately one million this works out to only 8.3 copies for every one thousand person. This circulation in terms of per thousands was relatively low in light of standard set by UNESCO for third world countries (Ibid).

In 1987, total number of dailies newspaper in Pakistan was 121. Similarly, the total daily circulation stood at 13, 21,331 in 1987, which works out to only 12.9 copies for per thousand person. In 1987, there were 316 weeklies, 124 fortnightlies, 499 monthlies and 107 quarterlies (Ibid). The following table would help us to understand the growth of press in the province of Punjab till 2002 (DGPR report 2003 Lahore, Government of Punjab).
LIST OF AUTHENTICATED PUBLICATION IN THE PUNJAB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bahawalpur</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. G. Khan</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faisalabad</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujranwala</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>1886</td>
<td>2881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multan</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawalpindi</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sargodha</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>1088</td>
<td>2571</td>
<td>4813</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the official facts and figures, total number of newspapers and periodicals was 1106 in 1958, while total number of dailies was 103. On the other hand, till 2003, total number of newspapers and periodicals has exceeded to 2204, while total number of dailies are 273 (www.pid.org). According to Audit Bureau of circulation Report, total circulation of newspapers is 1.5 million which was as earlier mentioned, 1.4 million in 1980s, while in 2003, 14 copies for 1000 person is available (Ibid). This ratio of copies for per thousand people is very dismal and low, as standard set by the UNESCO. Language diversity is important to Pakistan’s press. Urdu Newspapers have a vast accessibility than English newspapers. According to London’s financial Times, the entire circulation of Pakistan English language press is about 150,000 in a population that is one hundred times greater to it (Blood, 1995).

DEVELOPMENT OF PAKISTANI MEDIA / PRINT MEDIA

According to Shariful Mujahid, Pakistan’s press has attained progress and prosperity and has been making technological advancement during the last two decades, all the major Urdu and English dailies, weeklies and monthlies are using computers at all stages. It has triggered a new era of better presentation. Pakistani newspapers today, are profusely colored, publish several supplements every week for women, children, sports, politics, showbiz and religion. So multi diverse reading content is being published (e.g. investigation report about honor Killing case to corruptions reports of generals, politicians and bureaucrats) that no
reader can possibly read everything. Even some regional smaller newspapers are equipped with fax facilities and pictures are being transmitted by this facility (Mujahid Al, 1991).

THE PRESS AND SOCIETY

Apart from the Government and its machinery pressures to control the print media in Pakistan, political groups, religious organizations and others pressures groups like students, labours, lawyers and others organization have been intimidating, harassing, ransacking the press and journalist during the last fifty years.

Several dozen incidents of attacks on offices have been reported. Daily Jang (Lahore and Karachi), daily Jasarat Karachi, daily Frontier Post (Peshawar); and weekly Takbeer (Karachi) are, to name only a few; publications which suffered heavily and terribly. During this hooliganism, several dozen journalists have been abused and beaten, even four journalists were killed by political activists during 1990 (Ibid).

According to the point of view of Nisar A Zuberi “right from 1947, the Pakistani press has been putting up a sustained struggle for the uplift of a society on democratic lines. It has always prescribed tolerance, equal rights and justice to all sections of society. But society is proving itself even more coercive than the governments of various dictators. In short, the press has to suffer due to undemocratic, intolerance, and narrow minded attitude of ultra religious and politicized groups (Ibid).

Physical Characteristics of Newspapers
The ordinary Pakistani newspaper is of regular size instead of tabloid size. Most newspapers comprised of weekend, mid week and magazine section. The top newspapers of Pakistan have online editions. APNS scrutinized that the total circulation of daily newspapers and other periodicals was about 3.5 million in 1947. The numbers of dailies, weeklies, fort highlights and monthlies was 924, 718, 107 and 553 respectively. The elements of low literary rate and high prices of newspapers contributed to low circulation rate of press. Dawn in English, Jang in Urdu and the daily Business Recorder in the field of business and finance are the most significant and effecting newspaper of Pakistan.

Circulation Information
The All-Pakistan Newspaper Society (APNS) estimated that the total combined circulation figure for daily newspapers and other periodicals was 3.5 million in 1997. Print media included 424 dailies, 718 weeklies, 107 fortnightlies, and 553 monthlies. Deficient literacy rates, urban orientation of the press, and the high price of newspapers are considered primary factors contributing to low circulation rates.

Jang is the top daily newspaper with a circulation of 850,000. Nawa-e-Waqt holds second place with 500,000, followed by Pakistan (279,000), Khabrain (232,000), The News (120,000), Dawn (109,000), and Business Recorder (22,000).

The three most influential newspapers in Pakistan are the daily Dawn in English, the daily Jang in Urdu, and the daily Business Recorder in the area of business and finance. The average price of a newspaper varies from Rs 5 to Rs 15. For example, Business Recorder costs Rs 7 per issue (All Pakistan Newspaper Society Report).

OWNERSHIP
Since independence of the country and even before partition of the subcontinent, in the area now part of Pakistan, the Pakistani press has been privately owned. Although there were and are some newspapers, acknowledged as semi official or unofficial mouth organ of ruling party/Government. The first attempt at purely party control came in 1954. The Pakistan Standard (Karachi) was launched under aegis of PML. The paper could not survive because of factional infighting for its control. The political history of last fifty years witnessed that several party newspapers have risen flourished for limited time and then usually declined. Yet Musawat (mouth piece of PPP) and Jasarat representing Jamaiat Islami though banned or were forced to suspend publications during various regimes, have survived (Ibid).

NPT (NATIONAL PRESS TRUST):

MOUTH PIECE OF THE GOVERNMENT

According to Shariaful Mujahid, Ayub regime thought of launching, or converting existing papers into dependable organs; they were, in the Pakistani context, meant to be a replica of official journals established in the most western countries in the 17th and 18th centuries. Thus the Government inspired NPT came to be floated in early 1964 with an initial capital of about US $5.25 million and was financed by 24 prominent industrialists. The trust acquired within six months 10 dailies and one weekly including the Morning News, Karachi and Dacca, The Pakistan Times and its sister publications (Yadava, 1991).

The venture of NPT proved a burden on public exchequer without earning any political dividends for the regime in power. In 1990, NPT was dissolved and eventually it was the end of era of official press. Now days there are five major newspapers conglomerates Jang, Herald, Nawa-i-waqt, Khabrain and Express groups publish all major dailies, weeklies and monthlies.

Most of the newspapers are owned by the individual, some of them are operated by the groups and firms (e.g. Daily Express by Lakson Tobacco Company and Daily Jinnah by the Bahria town construction company). As ill luck would have it, exact data is not available about the nature of ownership and circulation of newspapers in Pakistan.

But on the other hand, in our neighboring country, India, the data is available about form of ownership, number of newspaper and percentage share in total circulation. The following table would help us to understand the ownership pattern in the India (Economic Survey of Pakistan, 2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of ownership</th>
<th>Number of newspapers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percentage share in total circulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Firm /partnership</td>
<td>1180</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government central state</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuals</td>
<td>17587</td>
<td>68.9%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint stock companies</td>
<td>1152</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### LITERACY RATE AND GROWTH OF THE PRESS

The low and mean literacy rate generated many problems for the media in Pakistan. It not only decreased the chances of media growth but also minimized the role of media as agent of social, political and economic change.

According to the facts and figures, the readership due to extremely low literacy rate was only 10% in 1971, which could hardly to 15% in 1980. While more than half population of the country was illiterate till 2003. As mentioned earlier, that total circulation of newspaper is 1.5 million (Pakistan Press Directory, 1991).

Due to low literacy, low level of awareness and tolerance, religious fanaticism, newspaper offices were ransacked by the pressure groups, students, labours, religious wings of political parties. Other hindrances like language (Urdu, sindhi and other languages) as well as irresponsible behavior of journalist, have put detrimental and poisonous impact on the growth of media in Pakistan during several decades.

### IMPACT OF ECONOMY ON FUNCTIONING OF THE PRESS

It is believed that media is very important for the uplift of any social system. The development of media is dependent on the overall economic growth of country. It is acknowledge all over the world that increased economic development is a strong predictor of increased media development which results in less stress and less state control of the media (Weaver, 1985).

Media can earn revenue through advertisements of private sector. Consequently, reliance of press on official advertisement becomes reduced. Secondly, the press can generate revenue by increasing circulation of the newspaper. It is said that better and prospers economic condition make common man to purchase newspaper of their choice.

So, the relationship of economy and literacy is directly proportional to the media development. Better economy, good literacy rate leads to media development. But in developing countries, it has been observed that the press tends to be used to facilitate the functioning of the economy and to perpetuate the power of the rulers (Ibid).

Thus, reason is vivid that every regime would like to control the press but would not like to have poor economy as the survival of the Government is also related with the viable economy.

The economy of Pakistan has been deteriorating with each passing day since early 70s. According to the Federal Bureau of Statistic Report 1985-86, more than 60% of the people were living below the poverty line. The per capita income in 1982- 83 was only 4531 Rs. which was quite pathetic and dismal as compared to other developing nations (Ahmad, 1993). In 80s, poor economy of the country could afford and sustain total newspaper circulation of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Societies / association</th>
<th>3769</th>
<th>14.8%</th>
<th>3.7%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1193</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25536</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.4 million in 1980 (Nawaz, 1988). The universal standard set by UNESCO is 10 copies for every 100 persons while it was only 1.8 copies in Pakistan (Government of Pakistan, Annual development plan 1979 – 1980).

Economic Framework
Overview of the Economic Climate & Its Influence on Media

Newspapers are heavily dependent on advertising revenue as income. In 1998, revenues amounted to US$120 million for all media. Television, newspaper, magazines and radio have media advertising revenues of 40%, 32%, 16% and 3% respectively. The govt. has a great impact over the newspapers in form of advertising and implementation of regulations. For instance, the several regimes used ever tested obnoxious tool of stick and carrot against Jang and other groups in shape of banning or reducing govt. advertisements. At times, the democratic govt. of Pakistan Muslim League also served to Jang group tax notices of 13 million US dollars. Moreover, the newsprint quota of Jang group was slash down and supply was hampered by the govt. agencies. The officials of several govt. agencies persistently harassed and intimidate the owners and staff of the group. The reason behind there nasty measures; because the govt. of Nawaz Sharif was not pleased with the critical policy of the group. (Bonk 2001).

DEBT SERVING AS % OF REVENUE

The economic conditions of country, during the last two decades can easily be scrutinized from the following graph (Daily Nawa-e-waqt, Multan, and October 12, 2004) which indicates debt servicing as % of revenue in Pakistan.
The bars of this graph indicate that ratio of debt servicing as % of revenue was greater in 1999 when Nawaz Sharif PML (N) was ruling the country. In 1990 when Benazir Bhutto was in power it was 40% of the revenue. This graph clearly divulges that during last five years rule of General Pervaiz Musharraf, the economy is on the way of improvement.

The overall situation of economy of Pakistan during Benazir Bhutto, Nawaz Sharif and General Pervaiz Musharraf rule can be assessed with the help of table related to foreign exchange reserved. The data of earlier mentioned table clearly pointed out the ratio of foreign exchange reserves in General Pervaiz Musharraf era is far greater as compared to Benazir Bhutto and Nawaz Sharif era:

**TEX COLLECTION AND % OF INCREASE DURING VARIOUS REGIMES** (The Nation, Lahore, Oct 12, 2004)

The data signifies that ratio of tax collection during General Pervaiz Musharraf is distinctly greater (13.5%) as compared to Benazir Bhutto (5.3%) and Nawaz Sharif era (4.1%). Without any obscurity or ambiguity, it is like a plain sailing to conclude that situation of economy during PPP and PML (N) rule was not up to the mark and was moving towards deterioration and fragmentation.

While on the other hand, the overall situation of economy during military rule, it seems apparently it is on the way of improvement.

According to the point of view of weaver that the term mass media development is defined as, “the level of availability of mass communication product per person in any given country” (Weaver, 1985). This definition doesn’t include consideration of the type or quality of information disseminated by the print or electronic media but just focuses the general availability of such information.

There are several hindrances in the way of media development in any society. These obstacles are as under: (Bord, 1985):

- Market conditions
• Political insecurity
• Economic backwardness
• Linguistic diversity
• Illiteracy
• Technology
• Irresponsible behavior of journalists etc.

As far as the phenomena of growth and Government of media in Pakistan is concerned, poor economy, political instability changing of regimes within couple of years, political anarchy, intervention of military, feudal system, lack of democratic culture and above all low literacy rate have been the hallmark of Pakistan during the last decade.

Apart from economy (per capita income), the low literacy rate is another important factor for the poor circulation of newspapers in Pakistan. It is believed that education plays a major role in the utilization of Mass Media. The literacy rate of the country rate was just 26.2% in 1981, which was 52% in 2001% (Malik, Aftab, and Sultana, 1994).

ECONOMY OF THE COUNTRY IN 80S

The era of 1980s was a period of changes and development in economy of the country. The trend of free economy was significant hallmark of that era. Two commercial banks and several other industries were privatized under denationalized strategy during the late 80s (Pakistan Economic Survey 1992 – 1993).

GNP in 1989-90 reached to 820,791 million and per capita income raised to Rs. 7438 as compared to GNP of 1980 which was 26972/million and per capita income as Rs. 3217 (Ibid).

In spite of positive sign and relatively improvement in economy of the country, however ratio of investment in some of the significant sector was extremely low, which retarded the process of growth. Moreover, high birth rate (5.8% 1990) was another indicator for slow growth process in the country (World Development Report, 1993).

For instance, investment in education (2.10%, of GDP) and health sector (10% of GDP) the basic parameters of socio economic development, was extremely low (Pakistan Economic Survey 1992 – 1993).

According to facts and figures of Federal Bureau of statistics, total population was 112 millions in 1990 with hardly 34% literacy rate (World Development Report, 1993).

Low literacy rate and poor economy was another element, responsible for poor circulation of newspapers in Pakistan. It had also a negative impact on the functioning as well as on economy of the press in the country. It means that there was very small segment of the society that was literate and with urban back grounds. This could make media and journalists accountable for its deeds or misdeeds.

ECONOMY UNDER THE BURDEN OF EXTERNAL DEBT
The overall performance of Pakistan economy in the decade of 90’s, the decade of Benazir Bhutto and Nawaz Sharif’s rule in the country, and has been worst in its history. It is a sardonic reality that dependency on external debt to finance mega projects and persistent current account deficit in last ten years has brought about increase in the quantum of Pakistan’s external debt. The external debt of the country, which aggregated to $17.295 million in June, 30 1991 rose to $ 30.328 million in June, 30 1999. (Siddique, 2002)

The total external debt of Pakistan including Government liabilities payable in foreign currency now stands (2002) at about 42 billion dollars (Economic survey of Pakistan report 2002).

Pakistan now falls in the category of highly indebted developing countries. The economy of the country has been remaining in state of fragile and shabby position during the last ten years (last decade of 20th century). It is a matter of record that the ratio of Pakistan’s external debt to exports of goods services at 302 percent during 1998-99 was not more than double the corresponding ratio of 146.2 percent of developing countries but also exceeded the prescribed debt sustainability level of 20% (Siddique, 2002).

The gravity and magnitude of the problem on the external front can be scrutinized from this matter of fact that the total current account deficit in just five years between 1994-95 and 1999-00 was over $16000 million (Ibid).

Economy of Pakistan is heavily depended on agriculture sector. This sector directly contribute to gross domestic product, employed sector and earning of foreign exchange due to export. The bread and butter of two third of the population of the country depend on agriculture sector. During the decade of 80s the shore of agriculture sector in the total GDP of Pakistan economy was 31% but it was reduced to 26% in the decade of 90%. More than half (53%) of the labor force was employed by the agriculture sector in the early of 80s. similarly reduction in the export of agricultural products 30 to 18% was witnessed in the decade of 90s as compared to 1980s.

The above mentioned facts and figures highlight the sorry state of affairs of agriculture output and contribution in economy of the country during the last ten years (Ibid, P. 535).

ECONOMIC CONDITION DURING NAWAZ SHARIF, BENAZIR BHUTTO AND PERVAIZ MUSHARAFF ERA

Following facts and figures would provide basic information regarding economic indicator and would enable the readers to comprehend the economic situation of the country during 1990-2002.

1. Total exports earnings during 1980-99 was 3.5 billion US$. This was quite dismal situation regarding export fields. Yet during last five years 1999-04 export earnings, has been enhanced, for instance it took only five years, to add US 4.9 billion $. It is quite tremendous boost to economy of the country. It seems almost one billion US dollar every year for the past five years. (Daily Nawa-Waqt, Multan, Oct. 12, 2004).

   It took 9 years (1990-99) to collect additional tax revenue of Rs. 197.5 billion. But it took only five years 1999-04 to collect Rs. 211 billion.
2. Similarly real GDP growth rate during General Pervaiz Musharraf era has accelerated to 6.4% (2003-04.) it was 4.2% during Nawaz Sharif rule (in 1999) (Daily Nation, Lahore, Oct. 12, 2004).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>93-94</th>
<th>94-95</th>
<th>95-96</th>
<th>96-97</th>
<th>97-98</th>
<th>98-99</th>
<th>99-00</th>
<th>00-01</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>119.39</td>
<td>122.36</td>
<td>125.38</td>
<td>128.42</td>
<td>131.51</td>
<td>134.51</td>
<td>137.51</td>
<td>140.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude birth rate per 1000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>35.10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>37.70</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>32.70</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-employment ratio</td>
<td>4.84m</td>
<td>5.41m</td>
<td>5.41m</td>
<td>6.12m</td>
<td>6.12m</td>
<td>6.12m</td>
<td>6m</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditure as % of GNP</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity producing sector</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services sector</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer price</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall deficit</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other details related to social and economic indicators GNP, sectarian shares in GDP (Real), GDP/GNP real growth rates, debt service payments on foreign loans, commitments and disbursements of loans and grants have been attached / mentioned in the annexure.

Professor Roach writes about the impact of economy on the freedom of the press. He says that the true censorship laying in the fact that the newspaper had not yet reached financial independence and consequently depended on the administration or the parties. The growth the newspapers profits, largely from advertising, supposedly rescued the press from economic dependence on the state (Curran James, 1999).

Pakistan press reflects the same scenario, print media in Pakistan, has to depend heavily for their survival on Government advertisement otherwise, it would not be viable for the owner, to run a newspaper on successful line. This dependency on the state, has curtailed the freedom of press in Pakistan, every successive Government has blackmailed, exploited and pressurized the newspapers for their vested interest, used advertisement as tool of reward and punishment. While on the other hand, newspaper has no option, except to surrender before the vicious designs of Government. Other reason of press economic dependence on the state is that newspapers are not getting sufficient and substantive assistance in shape of advertisement from the private sector in Pakistan. Reason is obvious, private sector is not flourishing as it should be, apart from the major newspapers, rest of smaller newspapers are
not financially viable reason is, ratio of advertisement from private sector is comparatively low; due to low literacy rate, low per capita income and lack of socialization, the circulation of newspaper is nominal. Thus, from where these newspapers can meet their expenditure, so Government advertisement at the cost of their freedom is the last resort and shelter for their survival. Under these uncongenial circumstances based on fragile economy burdened by external debt, sick industries and poor performance of private sector, the press cannot survive without financial assistance, in shape of advertisement or other form.

Ivon Asquith has also explained his point of view in this pretext of his study of the early nineteenth century press that Since sales of newspapers were insufficient to bear expenditure cost of publishing a paper. As it was explored that revenues was generated from the advertisement which provided the solid platform for change of attitude from sub service to freedom of press. Continuous growth of advertising income was the pivotal factor due to which print media emerged in this world as fourth pillar of the state (Ibid, P.8).

SIGNIFICANCE OF ADVERTISING IN FINANCIAL FREEDOM

According to the orthodox histories of the press, with emphasize on the free market and legal emancipation as the foundation of press freedom, provide a powerful, mythological account with contemporary moral. Thus, the legend of the advertiser as the midwife of press freedom is invoked by journalists on the left as well as on the right to justify the role of advertising in the press (Ibid).

It was rightly commented about significant of advertisement by Frances William, a former editor of the labor daily Herald that print media would never have become a powerful tool or force in public and social sphere if has not been for requirement of men of industry and commerce to advertise via media. Eventually the press achieved freedom through phenomenal growth of advertising revenue (Williams, 1978).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this article, in-depth analysis of economy of the country with developments of social indicators and its impact on the growth of press during last past decades have been explained. Similarly, the significance of advertising in financial freedom of the press along with various other factors like press and society, nature of ownership, and situation and problems faced by regional press have been slightly focused and analyzed in this part of research.

It may be elaborated and infer that growth of the media is directly proportional with economic condition of the country. It has been proved that economic development makes the press strong and independent. For example, better economic condition in Turkey resulted in denial of giving space to the Government advertisement due to low payment. Advertising and circulation constitute the main source of revenue (Akhtar, 2000). More than, 60% population of the country is illiterate and majority of population is living hand to mouth and below the poverty line.

So, without educating masses and increasing the per capita income, it would be an uphill task for the newspapers to enhance their circulation and generate revenue in order to make the institution of press financially viable. It is a reality that circulation of newspapers is comparatively low to other SAARC countries as Prof. Shariful Mujahid has rightly remarked.
that “compared to the practice in western countries or even in India, circulation figures in Pakistan are, for the most part, considered somewhat confidential, although an Audit Bureau of circulation has been in existence since 1956”. (Mujahid-Al, 1991)

In short, circulation of the newspaper has been increasing at snail pace for the last few years. Reason is obvious because newspapers are catering to the cognitive needs of new or semi literate.

India, our neighboring country, is also facing same economic and social conditions. But information about circulation is not concealed or classified. For example, the total number of newspapers and journals at the end of 1988 were 25536 published in 92 languages of these 2281 were dailies (Yadava, 1999).

The combined circulation was 64.1 million newspapers published in Hindi had the highest circulation of 15.8 millions followed by the English at 9.9 millions. Statistically speaking, nearly two third of these newspapers are owned by the individuals. 17587 newspapers in India are owned by the individuals and 655 are being owned and operated by the Government (Ibid).

On the other hand, in a country like Pakistan we are not facing great dilemma and pathetic situation, ABC nor are owners of the newspapers ready to disclose the total circulation of their newspapers.

Succinctly, it may be concluded conveniently that without economic development, rapid industrialization, strong private sector, and without social development, it would be impossible, for the press in Pakistan to become stronger, developed and independent. The growth of mass media may play an important role in the reduced government control of the press. Without this context, it is indispensible to eliminate or minimize the obstacles in the way of media development. Thus, in the country like Pakistan, by developing these factors and indicators market conditions, political insecurity, economic backwardness, linguistic diversity, illiteracy, technology and irresponsible behavior of the journalist, the dream of the media development would be possible.

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Topic: Media Education Research

Title: Thai Film in the 21st Century: The Road from Censorship to Film Literacy

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Thai Film in the 21st Century: The Road from Censorship to Film Literacy

Abstract

The 21st Century is a time when “the convergence of media and technology in a global culture is changing the way we learn about the world” (Thoman, E. and Jolls, T., 2003).

This article proposes a new pathway for Thailand’s film industry and for the Government agencies that are regulating film in Thailand. They should enhance film literacy for moviegoers, particularly for young people instead of using censorship and the Thai Motion Picture Rating system to restrict movie audiences.

Film is the most powerful popular medium in culture industries. They provide children and young people with opportunities to explore the world around them with new technologies and platforms. It is an age of convergence where people can access media content anytime and anywhere. Thus, it is frivolous to continue restricting or censoring the film medium; instead new ways ought to be considered to enhance the potential lifelong learning opportunities available to audiences.

The film literacy initiative for Thai society employs the practices from UNESCO and the UK Film Council into a framework under the topic of Media Literacy for the 21th Century. This article introduces a fundamental step for ASEAN countries, in particular those that continue to enforce government censorship and limit viewers’ freedoms, to instead enhance their enjoyment of film and appreciation for its’ creativity.
From Censorship to Rating system in Thailand.

The entertainment industry continues to grow here Thailand and notably the Thai film industry is enjoying new international recognition. Most recently, Apichat Weerasethakul, a famous Thai director, won the 2010 Cannes Film Festival’s top award for his film, “Uncle Boonmee Who Can Recall His Past lives.” In his acceptance speech, Weerasethakul dedicated the award to Thailand, but also used the occasion to criticize the censorship laws in Thailand as a severe restriction for filmmakers.

Censorship of Thai films by authorities has been regularly applied since the implementation of the 1930 Film Act. The mechanism for applying censorship have included strict control of the law, direct government intervention, military or police force control over the broadcast media including films, and also economic and political pressure. The censorship board at present continues to operate according to that Act. Theatre owners must submit films to the Film Censorship Board for review before they plan to show them. The board is assigned to examine films for harmful content before mass screening, and the board may ban a film entirely if censorship requirements are not met. Reasons for censoring films include violating moral and cultural norms and disturbing the public order and security (John, F. and Jonathan, E., 2010).

Since 1930, the police department has regulated the film industry through censorship, which was required by the Film Act of 1930. In 1987, the police department expanded its censorship jurisdiction to television under the orders of the Control of Business Relating to Tape Cassette and Television Material Act. The film industry lobbied the Government Cabinet to issue a resolution that the censorship board be moved from the police department to the Ministry of Culture. New government agencies were also established in each province to take over this duty from the local police force. The new censorship board employed about 200 personnel, of which 30 would be police officers from the old censorship board. However, since the film industry remained under the restrictions of the Film Act of 1930, the censorship rules continued to be enforced even though the ruling board had been reformed.

After a long wait of 75 years, the Royal Thai Government met to approve the Bill of Ministerial Regulations for Classifying Categories of Films and the Bill of Film and DVD Censorship Act in 2008. The Meeting reached a consensus on all of the rules and regulations and put them into effect as the 28th of July, 2009. This was in effect the termination of the rules and regulations of the previous Film Act of 1930. The new principal concern of the Film and DVD Censorship Act 2008 is the method of ‘rating’ or categorising types of films according to the audience’s age, which is a relatively new practice in Thai society.

According to the Film Bill 2009, the Thai rating system is divided into seven categories:
1). General Audiences: No sex, abusive language or violence.
2). Promotion: films should be promoted on the basis of cultural or artistic merit.
3). 13: No violence, brutality, inhumanity, bad language, or indecent gestures.
4). 15: Some violence, brutality, inhumanity, bad language, or indecent gestures is allowed.
5). 18: No exposed genitalia, crime, or drugs.
6). 20: Sex scenes are allowed but no exposed genitalia.
7). Ban: films that offend the monarchy, threaten national security, hamper national unity, insult faiths, disrespect honorable figures, challenge morals, or contain explicit sex scenes (Department of Cultural Promotion, 2009).

The Thai government’s new film classifications reflect the growing trend of unbridled censorship throughout Thai society. The Government seems intent on creating a new generation of Thais unable to critically think or to form their own opinions.

The “banned” classification, in particular, is open to bureaucratic abuse. This classification is highly subject to individual interpretation and can easily be used to punish free thinkers, as is the case with the current book and Internet censorship and lese majeste prosecutions.

Since the rating system is employed for all movies showing in Thailand, there are many concerns from the film industry and the public regarding the “Banned” classification; that is, about whether or not it should be included in the rating system at all.

In the movie drama, Insect in the Backyard by the Thai director, Tanwarin Sukkhapisit, a transvestite father (played by Tanwarin), has a teenage daughter and son, and they both have a confused sense of their own sexuality, and they subsequently enter the sex trade. The movie shows vivid depictions of sexual acts, and there is a dream sequence of the son killing his father. The Culture Ministry's National Film Board banned the controversial gay-themed film in November, 2010.

According to many accounts about the banning of Insect in the Backyard, 13 board members from 21 voted against the movie because they felt it was immoral, particularly regarding content characterised as pornographic about a cross-dressing father and his two children drifting into prostitution (cited in http://www.nationmultimedia.com/2010/12/23/national/Film-board-bans-Insects-in-the-Backyard-30145028.html. 12 August, 2011).

Last year, the Indonesian censorship board banned the screening of Balibo, an Australian film about the killing of foreign journalists in East Timor. The censors also disapproved a plan by a producer to bring Japanese porn star, Miyabi, to star in an Indonesian film suggestively entitled Kidnapping Miyabi. (Meanwhile this svelte, hard-working performer recently starred in a Thai music video fully-clothed.) Besides the spirit with a period, Indonesia also has The Slutty Semanggi Bridge Ghost and the mysterious The Hair-Washing Nurse. These Ban movies were released, presumably after heavy cutting at the command of the governing body.

Just before the election in the Philippines this year, an award-winning filmmaker was asked to make a short film to encourage Filipinos to vote. Brillante Mendoza proceeded to shoot a music video with ironic lyrics about corrupt politicians featuring the slum kids of Manila. Unfortunately, it was also banned (cited in http://www.bangkokpost.com/opinion/opinion/208351/constraints-of-creative-thailand. 20 July, 2011).

In the imperfect world of movie ratings, the forces that breathe down filmmakers’ necks are not so hard to discern. The taboos in Southeast Asian nations vary in detail, yet
they tend to all hold up to the same categories: religious conservatism, political paranoia, and hypocritical interpretation of the arts. The historical belief that movies are nothing but entertainment and not social commentary, historical evaluation, or political communication defines the uneasy relationship between state-sanctioned gatekeepers, and artists who believe otherwise. This is frustrated even further by the kind of democracy that does not believe in freedom of expression nor in the good judgment of people (Kong Rithdee, cited in http://www.bangkokpost.com/opinion/opinion/208351/constraints-of-creative-thailand, 20 July 2011).

One little thing that makes Thailand different from Indonesia, Malaysia or the Philippines, is the fact that the current Thai government is proudly touting the Creative Economy. The culture industry, particularly the film industry, is one of the key factors to boost the creative economy in Thailand.

However, Thai government is taking a big misstep without realising it, because it is freezing the society’s ability to think in a fossilised bubble when it keeps showing the same content and preventing new, difficult, and unfamiliar ideas. The new… the difficult... the unfamiliar... are these not the seeds of creativity that they insist on censoring in film?

Film is one of the creative avenues for social change, and they deserve government support and not censorship.

Why we should move from Censorship to Film Literacy

There are many reasons why censorship is an unsatisfactory response to concerns about the mass media and its effects on society. Foremost is the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR), which the UN General Assembly adopted in 1948, which defines the right to freedom of expression in Article 19:

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes the right to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

(UN General Assembly Resolution 217A(III), adopted on 10 December 1948.)

Furthermore, Thailand ratified the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) on January 28, 1997. This is a legally binding treaty under Article 19 that guarantees the right to freedom of opinion and expression in very similar terms to the UDHR:

1. Everyone shall have the right to hold opinions without interference.
2. Everyone shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of his choice.

(UN General Assembly Resolution, 217A(III), adopted on 10 December 1948.)

Freedom of speech in Thailand is also guaranteed under Article 39 by the 2007 Constitution:
“A person shall have freedom of opinion, speech, writing, and print advertising. And to convey by other means. The restriction of liberty under paragraph one shall not be made. Except by dint of specifically authorised by law to maintain the security of the state to protect human rights reputation, honor, family, or his privacy rights of others. In order to maintain peace and order. Or good morals of the people. Or to prevent or suppress. Depravity of mind or health of the people.” (The Constitution of Thailand 2007).

The right to explore art and ideas is basic to a free society. Without it, children and adolescents cannot grow into thoughtful and educated citizens who are essential to a functioning democracy.

There are also practical reasons for why censorship to "protect" people, in particular the youth, is a bad idea. Firstly, it is difficult for people to agree on what should be censored and to define it in terms that are clear enough to put publishers and distributors on notice of what is banned. Many people point to "violence in the media," "extreme violence," or "gratuitous violence" as inappropriate and harmful to children. However, these are elastic and subjective concepts. Most of those who think that "media violence" is bad for kids acknowledge that they do not mean to include televised versions of Shakespeare, Sophocles, or Saving Private Ryan.

Context counts for everything in art and entertainment. How is the violence presented? What are the consequences? What are the ambiguities in the story? There is no way that a censorship law or a simplistic letter-or-number rating system can make these judgments. As media scholar, Henry Jenkins, has observed, different youngsters react very differently to the mythology, symbols, and stories in popular entertainment, so "universalising claims are fundamentally inadequate in accounting for media’s social and cultural impact."

According to Heinz and Cho (2003), “censorship also creates taboos that make the forbidden material more attractive. Curious youngsters will defy the bans — making their way into R-rated movies, de-programming v-chips and Internet filters, sneaking looks at dad’s Hustler or mom’s Playgirl” (p. 2) They say that it is more about sending them a message of social disapproval than about actually preventing them from consuming what might be considered age-inappropriate or psychologically disturbing. If the intent of censorship is to dissuade bad values and foster good ones; that is, to teach youngsters about how to be good personal decisions, “then there are more effective ways than censorship to go about it” (ibid, p.3).

The new pathway that would enhance critical thinking, creativity, and empower citizens in a democracy, is by accessing and not preventing media content. That is, empower people with media literacy by making film available without censorship.

From Media Literacy to Film Literacy for the 21st century
Brown (1998) defines “media literacy” in this way:

The term media literacy means many things to many people. Traditionally, it has involved the ability to analyse and appreciate respected works of literature and, by extension, to communicate effectively by writing well. In the past half-century it has come to include the ability to analyse competently and to utilise skillfully print journalism, cinematic productions, radio and television programming, and even computer-mediated information and exchange (including real-time interactive exploration through the global internet) (p.41).

In this article, I use the term “media literacy” as it is defined by international organizations such as UNESCO and the EU. Emphasis is placed on the themes that emerge from the latest Communications and Recommendations of the European Commission (Communication on Media Literacy, Report on Media Literacy in a Digital World, etc.). Thus, the definition of media literacy used here is in accordance with the one formulated by the European Commission: “Media literacy is the ability to access the media, to understand and critically evaluate different aspects of the media and media contents and to create communications in a variety of contexts. Media literacy relates to all media, including television and film, radio and recorded music, print media, the Internet and other new digital communication technologies” (Tornero and Pi, 2011: p.69).

The article also focuses, in particular, on “film literacy” as a new pathway for Thailand in order to move forward from censorship to film literacy. “Today, information about the world around us comes to us not only by words on a piece of paper but more and more through the powerful images and sounds of multimedia culture” (UK film council, 2011). Thus, to be a confident in the use and understanding of all form of media, in particular moving images, is an essential aspect of literacy in the twenty-first century.

Film is one of the most popular medium in cultural industries. It can contribute to the economy of the country (like Hollywood in the USA). Thus, we should understand meanings of film, to enjoy the creativity of artistic expression and to create economics value, rather than banning the its aesthetic.

To understand a film is to be literate in the moving image. This has become an integral part of a wider literacy for the twenty-first century. However, film literacy is still on the margins of countries policy agendas worldwide.

Film literacy was first introduced in the UK by several organisations (the BFI, Film club, Film education, First Light Movies, and UK film council and skill set) The main aim was to contribute a film literacy program for children and young people in the UK.

The meaning of film literacy by the UK film council is: “Providing children and young people with a structured, systematic opportunity to watch films, to understand films and even to make films as part of their overall preparation for adult life” (UK film council, 2011).

Thus, the strategy of film literacy in this essay employs both media literacy adapted from the EU commission and the film literacy model from the UK, in order to bring freedom of expression to people in Thai society.
Firstly, I use a conceptual map of media literacy from the EU commission to structure media literacy skills, which should be acquired and measured in two fundamental dimensions; individual competences and environmental factors.

1. Individual competences

Tornero and Pi (2011) state that “Individual competences refer to the personal and individual ability to exercise certain skills (access, use, analysis, understanding, and creation in relation to media). These skills are found within a broader set of abilities that allow for increasing levels of awareness, the capacity for critical analysis, a creative problem-solving capacity and the ability to create and communicate content like when participating in public life (p.73).

Among the individual skills relating to media literacy, we can identify the following components:

a). Use skills: a component centered on the relationship between the individual and the media as a platform; it refers to the technical dimension (instrumental and operative abilities required to access and effectively use media communication tools).

b). Critical Understanding competences: a component centered on the relationship between the individual and the content (information – attribute of the message; or comprehension – attribute of the individual), that is, a cognitive dimension.

c). Communicative and participatory abilities: a component related to the technical and cognitive abilities in different fields – social relations, creation and production of content, and civic and social participation that involve personal responsibility.

These abilities allow for processes that range from a simple contact to the creation of complex cooperation and collaboration strategies that use media tools as their base (ibid, p. 74).

2. Environmental factors

Environmental factors are a set of contextual factors that affect individuals and are related to: media education, media policy, cultural environment, citizens' rights, the roles that the media industry and civil society play, etc. It is important to highlight that media literacy is the result of media education and an environment that stimulates creative participation in and through the media. However, how can we secure this enabling environment? In the study of Current Trends and Approaches to Media Literacy in Europe developed by Tornero and Pi (2011) is focusing on the following aspects:

1. Educational activity for school systems and families
2. The active role of laws and regulatory authorities
3. The role of media industry
4. The tasks of civil society

All of the above mention aspects that influence media literacy levels; therefore all of them must be taken into account when thinking about promoting media literacy.

The other frame of reference about film literacy is from the UK film council, which consolidates existing media literacy into a coherent and unified approach. There are the ‘three Cs’;
1. **Cultural Access** is the opportunity to choose from a broad range of films and so get a better understanding of our and other people’s culture, way of life and history.

2. **Critical Understanding** is the confidence to look behind the surface of the screen, to understand a film’s intentions, techniques and qualities.

3. **Creative Activity** is the opportunity to make film and moving image, to have some understanding of the technical and creative process that allows the effective expression of a story, a mood or an idea (UK Film Council, 2011: p. 7).

   UK Film Council (2011) mention about The ‘three Cs’ do not belong in isolation from each other but need to be brought together in an integrated approach to film education.

   The UK film Council also recommends four essential principles for film literacy: Participation, Progression, Evaluation, and Professional development. The following picture illustrates the themes of both the ‘three Cs’ and four principles strategy.

   **Figure 1.** Elements of film Literacy

   ![Elements of film Literacy](source)

   Source: UK Film Council, 2011, p. 21.

   From both the EU commission’s structure of media literacy and the UK Film Council model, we can consolidate existing film literacies for Thailand and Asian nations into a coherent and unified approach that is accessed, communicated, and participated.

   In the first stage of the strategy, we should focus on access, which is to develop an infrastructure that enables audiences both young and old to access a wider range of film content in school, in cinemas, and via other platforms. The ‘ban’ rate or ‘cutting the film’ should be abandoned in the rating system for enhancing this step.

   Meanwhile, we should establish a coherent and comprehensive programme for training young people and their parents, to introduce to them the film conventions and how
the film’s content communicates with their audience. This is called ‘communicating’ with the film, and that will bring with it critical understanding of the audience. Once they know what the film wants to communicate, they will understand the reasons behind the moving images. This step would also help the rating system function splendidly; when the parents understand the content, they can recommend what rating is suitable for their children when watching movies.

However, access and communicating programmes will not be successful if the strategy lacks participation from both public and private sectors. To achieve this, a new kind of partnership between the film industry and national education providers are of key importance. The people in the film industry (directors and exhibitors) should participate in programme training for young people and their parents both in school and in cinemas. The programme should enhance media literacy by opening a discussion about the content or techniques of the movie that they could not understand. Participation from the film industry will impact the creativity of the film content and will respect film maker and audience voices without censorship.

The national education providers should work to develop media literacy courses in the classroom by using film as a case study. As in the Asia region, media literacy is much less important to the national education level, so the best way to start is from the bottom, which is from the school itself. For participation, there needs to be a campaign from the film industry and government agencies.

In summary, film literacy in the 21st century for Thailand and ASEAN countries where censorship is still routinely applied involves both individual levels (access, communication, and environment) and participation from public and private sectors. However, this strategy does not guarantee the same result as this cannot encompass all the variables that may potentially affect the overall process.

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Topic of Submission:

The Practices of Media Regulation in the Private Domain: Muslim families mediating children’s television and internet use in Indonesia
Abstract

Since Indonesia’s political transformation in 1998, its media landscape has dramatically changed. The print media and television industries have been flourishing. In addition, Internet adoption has increased and broadened, as indicated by the growing number of Internet users, service providers, cafes, blogs, Facebook and Twitter accounts. Different sectors of the Indonesian population have responded differently to this maturation of the media landscape. As a religious community, the Muslims are the most active and outspoken in criticizing the Indonesian media. Even though the Indonesian Muslims believe that heavy media bombardment has affected degradation in moral and religious commitment, their response to the media has been far from homogenous. Some Muslims groups, especially those from radical Islam, are very critical of the growth in pornographic content in mainstream media outlets. These radical groups tend to use force to show their disapproval, such as by intimidating members of the media. In contrast, moderate groups prefer to campaign for media literacy education. Some members divert their attention to their home domain, in an attempt to control media usage within their homes. In this domain, parents set regulations to control their children's media use. The parents use the Qur’an, the Hadith, and the Figh as a basis of reference to judge the media. Parents also recommend media to their children that are congruent with their religious belief and identity as Muslims. This article attempts to show how Muslims in Indonesia regulate the media within their home, and how their religious beliefs serve as the foundation to set regulations on their children's media use.

Keywords: Muslim families, media regulation, parental mediation, television and internet
The Practices of Media Regulation in the Private Domain:
Muslim Families Mediating Children’s Television and Internet Use in Indonesia

by

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1. Indonesia’s Changing Media Landscape and Public Response

Political transformation in 1998 marked the beginning of a new era in Indonesia. In this new era, the Indonesian media landscape has dramatically changed as a consequence of democratization and liberalization of the media system (Kitley, 2000; Hill & Sen, 2007; Hidayat, 2003). The number of print media (newspaper, magazine, tabloid, and bulletin) increased fivefold, from around 200 in 1998, to 1008 in 2008 (Media Directory, 2008). The number of television broadcast companies also saw an enormous increase, from 28 in 1998, to 228 in 2008 (Minister of Communications and Informatics of the Republic of Indonesia, 2008). In 1997, there were 201.4 million television viewers, of whom 65 million were children (Gazali, 2004). The number of Internet service providers increased from 139 in 2000, to 298 in 2007. The number of users rose from an estimated 900,000 in 1999, to 4 million in 2001 (ITU, 2001), and 25 million in 2007 (APJII, 2007).

This accelerated growth has led to concerns among Indonesian media activists, religious leaders and parents about media’s negative impact on children. Indonesian Broadcasting Commission (KPI) stated in 2007 it had received 1,300 complaints; in 2008, this increased to 3,500; in 2009, it became 7,500, and in 2010, it had shot to 20,000. Local Indonesian Broadcasting Commission (KPID) in D.I. Yogyakarta received 264 complaints in 2009, and 478 complaints in 2010 (Arifin, 2010). The complaints were mostly about overexposure to violence, adult content, mysticism, and hedonism, especially on television. On the Internet, complaints of pornography were rife, attracting public protest (Lindsay, 2011).
In Indonesia, the public responds to media in various ways, and with varying intensities. Firstly, the public called on the government to be more proactive in controlling the media, noting that it was the government’s responsibility to protect its citizens (Dewan Pers, 2008). Civic organizations from radical and extremist Islamic groups such as Laskar Jihad (Jihad Brigade) and Front Pembela Islam (FPI, Islamic Defense Front) launched an intensive campaign asking the Indonesian government to ban porn images in media (Lindsay, 2011). Secondly, the public focused on media literacy campaigns to empower and provide citizens with the knowledge and skill to criticize media. Participating organizations included non-government organizations, universities, student groups, and government agencies such as KPI, KPID and Press Council. Thirdly, the public tends to vacillate between pushing the state to control the media, and conducting media literacy campaigns, such those by Aisyiyah (women’s wing of the second largest Muslim organization in Indonesia, Muhammadiyah).

Within the private domain, increased domestication of multimedia has resulted in more families, especially mothers, having to be more vigilant in protecting their children from the harmful effects of the media (Lim, 2008). Recent studies show that most Indonesian children watch television five to six hours a day, and access the Internet from home for about two hours a day (Nur, 2011; Sarwono et al., 2011). Not only did they watch programs targeted for children, but also adult content such as Sinetron (a serial drama) where the stories were mostly about romance, love affairs, and family conflict. They use the Internet mostly for online gaming, school research, chatting, email and downloading of media content. A number of children confessed to having viewed pornographic content; many also revealed that they have a Facebook account, despite their youthful age (e.g., Nur, 2011; Sarwono et al., 2011). Notably, these studies also suggest that many children watched television and accessed the Internet without parental supervision, rules or limitations. Some parents who were concerned about parental mediation tended to apply a restrictive style of mediation, such as limiting the duration of exposure, and also selecting appropriate TV programs and websites for their children. Other parents apply a co-viewing style, such as accessing media together, especially on content of common interest. However, some parents viewed the media as a way to keep their children at home, safe from risks of kidnapping or child-trafficking (Muttaqin, 2010). A systematic study focusing on parental mediation of children’s media use in the Indonesia context is still limited.

2. Muslim’s perception of media and parental mediation of children’s media use

In Indonesia, the Muslims are the religious group most critical of the media (Fealy & White, 2008). This is not surprising, because Muslims form a dominant population, accounting for 216 million (88.22%) of Indonesia’s total 245 million (Board of Statistic, 2005). They also claimed that they suffer from being negatively portrayed by the Western media (e.g., Mir-Hosseini, 1988). Most of their concerns are that pornography and other harmful effects could taint its believers’ moral and religious commitment (Lindsay, 2011). Indonesian scholars suggest that some Muslims tend to resist mainstream media because it blames and discriminates Islam (e.g., Agung, 2010). Muslims’ perception towards media tends to be influenced by their religious beliefs with reference to Qur’an, Hadith (a report of the words and deeds of the Prophet Muhammad transmitted through a chain of narrators), and Figh (Islamic...
Muslims are strongly concerned about protecting their children from media effects (Nur, 2011). For them, parental mediation is an obligation, and the Qur’an is used as their primary reference. For example, they believe that surah At Tahrim verse 9 clearly states that they should protect their children from negative effects of the media; surah An Nisa verse 9 asks that they empower their children in media use, and surah Ali Imran verse 110 warns parents and children to avoid inappropriate behaviors that could be categorized as sin (disobedient or against Allah’s command) (Nur, 2011). Muslim families hold to their religious beliefs that children are gifts from Allah (God) and children are to continue their parents’ struggles to enforce the word of God. That is why in Muslim families, the process of learning and cadre formation needs to be prepared from young. They foster Islamic doctrine intensively through family value or send them to Islamic boarding school.

In Muslim families, both men and women have the same responsibility to care for their children. However, in Islam, men are placed in the same position as imam (leader) for their family, bearing the responsibility of protecting their families, including providing for the daily necessities; whereas the women are assigned the maternal duty of managing the home (Ida, 2009). Most Muslims tend to accept this image construction and implement it in their daily life. Although the number of educated women and women in the workforce have increased, it does not have a significant impact on women’s roles; as Muslims, they are expected to continue with their responsibilities in the domestic arena. However, how Muslim families, especially mothers, supervise their children in media use has not been explored.

3. Overview of literature - Media regulation in the private domain and the influence of religious beliefs

Studies about parental mediation on their children’s media use have come about because of increasing public attention on the need for media regulation and protection (Bybee, et al., 1982). Studies tend to be on either side of the media regulation debate: whether media regulation is necessary to protect children through public policy, or whether parental regulation and mediation through the private domain is sufficient (e.g., Anderson & Gentile, 2008; Buckingham & Willet, 2006). A number of scholars who are more intent on studying parental mediation have mostly highlighted the idea that parents are responsible and have an important role in controlling their children’s media use (Armstrong & Bruck, 1988; Buckingham & Willet, 2006).

Parental mediation of children’s media use is far from homogeneous, and several studies have attempted to identify various mediation styles. Extant research seems to center around the identification of three styles: (1) restrictive mediation (Bybee, et al., 1982; Weaver &
Barbour, 1992; Valkenburg, et al., 1999); (2) active mediation (Austin, 1993; Austin, et al., 1990), also referred to as instructive mediation and evaluative mediation (Bybee, et al., 1982; Messaris, 1982; Valkenburg, et al., 1999); and (3) social co-viewing or co-viewing (Dorr, Kovaric, and Doubleday, 1989; Valkenburg, et al., 1999). With specific regard to the Indonesian context, scholars have observed that parental mediation practices have been conducted in several ways included a restrictive, co-viewing, and active mediation style (e.g., Sarwono et al, 2011). However, the systematic study focusing on parental mediation of children’s media use in Indonesia context is still limited (Nur, 2011; Sarwono et al., 2011, and Mutaqqin, 2010).

Scholars showed that religious belief is one of the most influential factors determining parental mediation practices. For example, Layton and Hansen’s study (2004) exposed how people with religious affiliations tend to employ different styles of parental mediation. Clark’s study (2004) also showed how a Muslim family in North America applied very restrictive rules about media use on their children, seeking to instil and maintain perceptible distance between their religious and cultural background, and that of the U.S culture. However, these studies did not intend to explore how, and to what extent, religious beliefs actually influence parental mediation practices. Meanwhile, many prior studies about religion and the media have examined the influence of religion on media usage (e.g., Hamilton & Rubin, 1992; Armfield & Holbert, 2003; Alters, 2004; Croucher et al., 2010; Golan & Day, 2010). Scholars have shown that religious beliefs form a basis of reference for people’s perception towards the media (Stout & Buddenbaum, 1996). In addition, Al-Oofy and McDaniel’s study (1992) found that Muslims parents tended to recommend their children to use a medium which presents a culture congruent with their beliefs. Moreover, studies on religion and media have mainly investigated various forms of Christianity and religions other than Islam (see Stout & Buddenbaum, 1996). The few studies which have focused on Muslims’ media use were mostly undertaken in developed Western countries such as America (e.g., Clark, 2004), Britain ( Croucher et al., 2010), and France (e.g., Croucher et al., 2009) instead of in developing Asian countries such as Indonesia.

Based on the discussion highlighting the issues and gap in the studies, the research questions to be explored in this paper are: (1) how do Indonesian Muslim families apply parental mediation to control their children’s television and internet use; (2) how do Muslim mothers take part in parental mediation practices; and (3) how do their religious beliefs serve as the foundation on parental mediation practices?

4. Research procedure

Ethnographic interview was applied in this study to get people to talk about their experiences of parental mediation (Spradley, 1979). Seventy informants participated in this study. The relatively large number of informants provides a pattern of meaning that represents informants’ experiences. This study was held over three months, from April to June 2011. The primary criteria of informants in this study included: firstly, Muslim mothers with
Yogyakarta residents’ identity card, which establishes that they are residents and not migrants or temporary residents. Secondly, these mothers have at least one child aged between eight and 10 years old. This age category was chosen because it is considered an important stage of childhood development in which they are in a period of learning and negotiation (Suess, et al. 1998). Moreover, most Indonesian children start using the Internet from around this age, when they are introduced to it in school as a part of educational programs. Thirdly, the mothers have both television and Internet access at their home. Access to TV can be by subscription or non-subscription, while the Internet in the home can be accessed by dial up method, broadband, Wi-Fi, satellite, or cell phones. Fourthly, the mothers allow their children to watch television and use the Internet. Informants were recruited through personal contacts and then by way of snowballing techniques. Ten research assistants were hired to facilitate the recruitment process and to conduct the interviews. All of the research assistants were hired on the basis of their prior experience in conducting interviews, and were also asked to undergo training to apprise them of the study’s research goals and processes. Each interview was conducted in the native Indonesian language (Bahasa Indonesia), lasted from 60 to 120 minutes, and was audio-recorded. The research procedure included two activities: Firstly, a semi-structured interview where informants were asked questions about their values, beliefs and perceptions of media. They were also asked to share their experiences of their media use and their parental mediation practices. Secondly, photographs were taken of the computer-Internet space in the informants’ homes to get a sense of where the family places different media devices. A sketch of the house was also made to describe the location and function of different rooms. The location of interview was home basis considering this place was the central sites of daily life of family (Bakardjieva & Smith, 2001).

The city of Yogyakarta in the Province of D.I. Yogyakarta-Indonesia was selected as the research site for several reasons. In this city, Muslims are dominant, constituting 90.31% of the total population 951,611 (BPS-Statistic of D.I. Yogyakarta Province, 2010). Moreover, in this city, the percentage of household that accessed the Internet both inside the house and outside the house is the second highest in Indonesia after DKI Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia (Indonesian Statistic Bureau, 2007). In 2006, more than 3% of households had Internet access through their computer at home. Another 15% of households accessed the Internet at Internet cafes, 7% at the office or school, and less than 1% at other places, such as Internet center. In this province, Internet cafes also have been mushrooming. Moreover, almost every school in this province has Internet facility and uses this medium to support educational programs.

All the interviews were transcribed into Bahasa Indonesia, with selected quotes being translated into English. Data analysis was conducted using “meaning condensation” approach (Kvale, 1996). In this analysis, transcripts and field notes were coded and categorized by attaching one/more keywords representing the various themes (Spardley, 1979), i.e., parents’ habit of television and internet use, parents’ perception of television and the Internet, parents’ perception of children’s television and Internet use, parents’ religious beliefs, parental mediation styles, and parental regulation. The long statements were condensed into a few words which covers a sense of interviewees’ statement. Interpreting the data include “a critical thinking” beyond a structuring of the manifest meanings and connecting the meaning to cultural context and theoretical frameworks (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).
5. Media use in the Muslim family and media regulation in the private domain

The media development in Indonesia pampers Muslim family in consuming multimedia. Among others media, television is a dominant entertainment medium, not only for parents, but also children. The family mostly watch TV for more than four hours a day, with the children watching more TV than their parents. Internet is a main medium for getting information and to maintaining communication with friends and relatives. Children access the Internet around two hours a day. Reasons given for home Internet use included research for children’s schoolwork. Home Internet use is a new phenomenon in the Muslim families in Indonesia. This research indicates that most families started accessing in the last one to three years, with some families having started only a few months prior to the study. As a new media, in some families, the existence of the Internet has replaced print media, especially newspapers, because they are now able to access information through their mobile phone or other platforms. However, some families have remained buying newspaper in a particular day because it exposes more religious information.

The increase of media use in domestic space seemingly raises parents’ concern with regard to supervising their children’s media use. As mentioned above, they strongly hold onto their religious beliefs: that protecting their children and empowering them in consuming technology, is an obligation in Islam. Although most did not deny the importance of the Indonesian government’s role in controlling the media, they argued that regulating the media from home is more important. They stated that media consumption is a personal matter depending on individual needs and the impact of media depends on individual attitudes and how individuals critically interpret and accept media content. Muslim families generally apply a regulation to control the media, although they differ in the intensity of its application.

As for me, I consider that any media is important to seek for information and enhance our insight. We need to be smart in filtering and choosing what media that can bring benefits and give us accurate information that is appropriate and decent to be consumed by the children and by ourselves. In the family, I think that there should be a regulation about the use of media. Especially such media as the internet and television because it is clear that they have both good and bad effects. That regulation is important to lead our family, our children, in choosing the most suitable and beneficiary media. (Respondent 70, 37, junior college, housewife, 2 children, member of Aisyiah)

As mentioned by previous scholars, some Muslim parents applied restrictive mediation such as setting the time and the duration of media access, prohibiting access to particular content genres, and restricting the location of media use (Bybee, et al., 1982; Weaver & Barbour, 1992, Valkenburg, et al., 1999). Some parents used active mediation, in which parents discussed media content with their children (Austin, 1993). In addition, some parents applied
social co-viewing in which parents and children access media together and share the viewing experience but did not intentionally focus on discussing a particular program or content type (Dorr, Kovaric, and Doubleday, 1989; Valkenburg, et al., 1999). However, this study found that most parents did not exclusively apply a single style but they tended to combine some styles.

This study identified that a minority of informants were fairly relaxed about their children’s television and Internet usage, vesting in their children autonomy and personal responsibility. These mothers argued that they did not need to impose strict rules because their children were cognizant of online content which they should refrain from accessing. They also felt that strict rules would in fact be counterproductive and alienating, adversely affecting their relationships with their children.

Moreover, even though most parents stated that parental mediation is important, nevertheless they recognized that it was even more important to instil Islamic values in their children from young. They said that they are not able to always be present with their children and as such, their hope was that their children would be able to make wise decisions in choosing programs or websites. To achieve this, parents believed that strengthening their children’s faith was more important role to help them choose the media and content. Some mothers even argued that parental mediation will not create independency of children in media consumption. In order to strengthen their children’s religious beliefs, they asked them to study Qur’an frequently, sent them to Islamic board schools, such as Muhammadiyah’s schools, and recommended that they consume Islamic media presenting a relevant content to Islamic values.

6. Role of Muslim mothers in parental mediation of children’ television and internet use

This research found that mothers in Muslim families remain expected to play a domestic role, are responsible for household matters and family nurturing (Ida, 2009), paying more attention than fathers in mediating their children television use. They spend much time and are more involved in controlling their children in consuming the medium, compared with the father. They also initiate a regulation of media use, especially television, for all family members.

I spend more times at home so I’m the one who supervise the children more frequently. Honestly speaking, the father does not have much time at home, so I spend more times to accompany the children. The father still has to teach for private courses outside, he rarely has time to spend at home.” (Respondent 7, 47, undergraduate, teacher, 2 children, member of Aisyiah)
Muslim mothers’ responsibility to manage the domestic affairs enables them to develop more authority in where to place television and Internet in their home. This study showed that by considering the importance of parental mediation, they prefer to place the media in the living room. Some mothers argued that this location makes it more accessible and easy for them to check on and control their children. For Muslim families, the living room is not only a place where family members do activities and spend time together, but also where parents, especially fathers, advise and instil religious beliefs in their children. In this location, television not only functions as a medium to get entertainment and information, but also as an instrument which helps parents present a picture about social life and demonstrate to their children which media aspects are appropriate or inappropriate to Islamic values. Some mothers said that they used many issues from television as a topic for family discussion.

This study found that mothers watch television more than access the Internet. Their connection and familiarity with TV shapes their common sense to be more intensive in mediating their children’s usage in this medium. Different from television, some mothers stated that their children and husband dominated Internet access at home. They admitted that their husband and children were better informed than they on how to use this technology. Fathers were more dominant in mediating their children’s Internet use than mothers.

However, this study found that both fathers and mothers were committed to supervise their children, but they have slightly different roles in parental mediation. Mothers were more focused on controlling and monitoring their children’s use of technology in their daily life. For example, the mothers limited their children’s use of the media, recommended specific programs, kept an eye on what their children were consuming on TV or the Internet, and frequently asked questions and checked on what they were watching or accessing. Meanwhile, the fathers were more concerned on the technical aspects of media access, such as introducing their children to the Internet, showing them how to master the technology (such as how to turn on, select websites, or download information), and explaining, as well as criticising, its content. Fathers were also mostly likely to create email accounts for their children. Fathers also warned about the risks of Internet access, such as the risk of sexually and violently images, the risk of become a victim of cyber bullying, and the dangers of being addicted to the Internet.

7. The influence of religious beliefs on parental mediation in the Muslim families

This study shows that religious beliefs influence parental mediation practices of television use in three ways: setting time limits for media access, selecting media and media content, and providing points on which to critique and criticize media. Most informants turned off the TV during Magrib prayers from 6.00 pm to 7.00 pm (West Indonesian Time). In selecting media and its content, most informants preferred to choose content that was congruent with
their beliefs. Some informants said they used verses from the Qur’an and Hadith as their guide and basis by which to critique or judge media or media content.

Most Muslim parents frequently used the term *haram* (forbidden) and *dosa* (sin) to express their opinion about inappropriate content presenting on television and the Internet. For example, they showed their distaste to *sinetron* and other television programs which overly focused on love stories, by stating that courtships and intimacy of unmarried couple appearing on the programs are synonymous with adultery. Thus, they constantly reminded their children that these actions are *haram* (forbidden) in Islam and categorized as *perbuatan dosa* (an action that is against Islamic belief). The domination of these programs on television worries them that their children will accept it as an acceptable lifestyle. In addition, they were critical of TV programs and Internet content, such as fashion, which expose sensuality and *aurat* (parts of the body which should be covered based on Islamic laws), news of celebrity which presents gossip, and cartoons and games which contain too much violence and disrespectful behavior, and reality shows such as *Idol*, which are against the Islamic belief that Prophet of Muhammad is the only idol.

Muslim mothers who identify with religious institutions, doctrinal authority, and understanding of religious beliefs, in this study, were more intent on considering religious beliefs in their parental mediation practices. Moreover, connectivity of the Muslim community, a need to protect their family and identity, and the motivation to strengthen their faith were some factors in which religious beliefs influenced mediation strategies.

However, this study also found that some informants who were not actively involved with religious institutions, doctrinal authority, or had low understanding of religious beliefs, or did not self-consciously refer to religious beliefs in applying parental mediation, tended to follow their parental instinct based on their sense of appropriateness. They also preferred to use a general social norm rather than religious authority in reminding their children of the Islamic value system when their children surfed the Internet. Here, they used terminology such as *tidak pantas* (inappropriate) and *tidak mendidik* (not educated) to criticize the medium. For example, with regard to serial drama programs dominated by love and romance themes, some of the mothers told their children that the programs were sinful, inappropriate, and were a bad influence, *i.e.*, would cause the children to become mature before their time. They also viewed fashion programs as consumer-driven, stimulating youths to become more focused on physical appearances and materialism, rather than personality and spiritualism. Moreover, cartoons with violence and disrespectful behavior were contrary to *budaya ketimuran* (Eastern Culture), which is focused on politeness and respecting one’s elders.

8. Conclusion

The dramatic changing media landscape in Indonesia attracts various responses from the public, notably those calling for media regulation, resulting in the empowerment of citizen
media use. However, Muslim families prefer to control the media in the private domestic domain through parental mediation. This study found that even though many Muslims would prefer that the Indonesian government impose regulations on media, they realized that parental regulation of media consumption at home was more important and effective, because media consumption is based on individual needs and beliefs.

This study found that parental mediation of children’s television and Internet use was far from consistent, with different levels of intensity, and even contradictions, among Muslim families. As discussed by Alters and Clark (2004), the contradictory practices indicate various framework concerns and domestic conditions among Muslim families. This study partially confirms that religious beliefs “accounted” to some extent in Muslim parents’ mediation practices, countering previous studies, which suggest that religion no longer holds sway in media use and mediation (e.g., Hoover, 2006).

There were several limitations in this study which I will seek to improve on in future research: (1) The findings cannot be generalized across the entire Indonesia population, because the majority of informants in this study are followers of Muhammadiyah, and there are numerous other Muslims organizations in Indonesia. (2) It is necessary to include fathers as informant in a study such as this, especially because fathers play an important role in Muslim families in mediating their children’s media use, especially the Internet.

This study contributes to a limited study of parental mediation, with religious beliefs as an influential factor in determining parental mediation practices in a religious community. This study provided explanation on a relatively understudied topic, illuminating the reality of parental mediation practices in Muslim-dominated Indonesia.

References:


WHERE ARE THE WOMEN WHO BROKE THE GLASS CEILING?
MEDIA BIAS AGAINST FEMALE CEOS IN U.S. NEWSPAPERS

By
Youjin Kelly Hur

A thesis submitted to The Johns Hopkins University
in conformity with the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts

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Abstract

Despite a significant improvement in the quantity and quality of women in the U.S. workforce, female CEOs seem nearly invisible in the news media. This content analysis of 316 articles from the top three most circulated U.S. newspapers between 2008 and 2010 revealed that media bias against female CEOs persists in newspapers. The content analysis identified five prominent patterns of media bias against female CEOs in newspapers: (a) underrepresenting female CEOs; (b) highlighting stakeholders’ ambivalent attitude toward female CEOs; (c) emphasizing the gender and age of female CEOs; (d) characterizing female CEOs’ leadership style as soft; and (e) describing female CEOs’ paths to success as accidental. While media bias against female CEOs may not be the only element that hinders women from pursuing executive positions, this study suggests that media bias against female CEOs in newspapers may have contributed to the reinforcement and solidification of gender stereotypes and gender roles in the workplace.

Thesis readers:

Dr. Memi Miscally
Dr. Susan Morris
Preface

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WHERE ARE THE WOMEN WHO BROKE THE GLASS CEILING?
MEDIA BIAS AGAINST FEMALE CEOS IN U.S. NEWSPAPERS

In February 2010, for the first time in history, women outnumbered men on U.S. payrolls (Rampell, 2010). With women now comprising 51% of all managers and 29% of business owners, women are increasingly taking on managerial and ownership roles (The National Economic Council, 2010). These figures reflect a significant improvement in the quantity and quality of the female workforce; however, women in business still struggle to obtain executive positions. According to recent statistics released by Catalyst (2011), only 2.2% of CEOs and 15.7% of board members of Fortune 500 companies are women. Moreover, the 2.2% of the female CEOs of Fortune 500 companies seem nearly invisible in the news media, whereas male CEOs appear in the news more frequently than their representation would suggest (Sisco, Zoch, & Collins, 2010).

Gender-based stereotypes in business offer one explanation for the lack of women in executive positions, deterring women from advancing and achieving their potential (Catalyst, 2005). Catalyst (2005) surveyed 296 corporate leaders in 2005 and found that managers perceived women as caretakers and poor problem solvers, while they considered men good decision makers and leaders. The report noted that both men and women in business applied these stereotypes when evaluating managers and deciding whether to promote them to executive positions in the company. If this is the case, where do these stereotypes of gender roles come from?
Media may not be entirely responsible for creating the stereotypes, but scholars have argued that they are one of the key contributors (Bandura, 2002; Desmond & Danilewicz, 2010).

Media and Gender Roles

Today, women are fighting on the front lines in Afghanistan, running for the White House, and receiving the Nobel Prize in medicine; however, Orenstein (2011), the author of *Cinderella Ate My Daughter*, noticed that her four-year old daughter and her friends wanted to wear sparkling clothes, put on lip-gloss, and be princesses. During her research on why young girls of her daughter’s age were obsessed with princesses, she found that Disney princess movies and Hana Montana, a popular television show on the Disney Channel, were teaching her four-year old daughter how to be a stereotypical woman. This is no surprise to the social cognitive theorists who have argued that individuals, especially children, adopt gender roles and behaviors by observing others in the context of social interactions and media influences (Bandura, 2002; Slater & Rouner, 2002).

As social cognitive theorists have suggested, if media fail to portray female executives, political leaders, or scientists in the news or in television shows, young women cannot relate to those roles (Byerly & Ross, 2006). Instead, young women are more likely to relate to the traditional roles of homemakers, teachers, and secretaries. In addition, the underrepresentation and misrepresentation of women in media also instills into men and women the inaccurate images of women and their roles in a society. Unlike forms of media that serve an entertainment purpose, news media in particular bear the responsibility to portray accurately members of society because news viewers and readers often perceive the content of the news as a reflection of the real world (Byerly & Ross, 2006; Desmond & Danilewicz, 2010).

News Media and Media Bias

The Pew Research Center for the People and the Press (2010) reported that the vast majority of Americans (83%) get news in one form or another as part of their daily life. The same report also noted that Americans are spending a substantial amount of time (70 minutes each day) watching, listening, or reading news on television, over the radio, in newspapers, and online. Not only do news media distribute information to a vast audience, they also cause people to think about certain issues, influence people’s opinions, and build consensus among people in society (Iyengar, 1991; Iyengar & Kinder, 1987; McCombs, 1997). When journalists and news agency editors select which topics to cover and how to cover them, they are inherently biased by their perceptions of which issues and people are important (Baron, 2006). Therefore, scholars have long blamed this media bias for creating and distributing stereotypes of gender, race, and age (Kahn, 1994; Scheufele, 2000). Although media bias exists towards various groups, this study focused on media bias against female CEOs.

Despite the ongoing discussions about unequal representation of women and men in media, most media agencies have neglected establishing guidelines on the equal portrayal of women and men. Breaking this tradition, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) (2010) has implemented guidelines to ensure programs and commercials equally represent and portray women and men. The guidelines recommend that all programs and advertisements (a) reflect accurately the roles women and men have in contemporary society; (b) portray women and men as persons who have professions,
expertise, authority, and skills in a range of settings; (c) seek women’s opinions, as well as men’s, on a full range of public issues in journalistic programs; and (d) use gender-inclusive language that respects the principle of equality between women and men.

As the guidelines suggest, if news media equally portray female CEOs and male CEOs, news media should (a) cover female CEOs as often as male CEOs; (b) seek female CEOs’ opinions, as well as male CEOs’ opinions, as expert opinions in various industries and in management and decision-making; (c) cover female CEOs as favorably or unfavorably as they do male CEOs; and (d) evaluate female CEOs based on their performance and leadership abilities rather than their personality and appearance.

To examine media bias against female CEOs in newspapers, I conducted a content analysis of articles from the three most circulated newspapers in the U.S. to examine whether they contained gender bias against female CEOs. The findings of this study will help journalists and news agency editors evaluate their objectivity in covering executives, and make conscious attempts to portray accurately the world of business and the participants in it. In addition, this study will provide insights to corporate communication officers when developing and managing media strategies to promote female executives and managers to the public and other stakeholders. This study also can raise awareness about persistent gender bias in the media among human resource specialists and board members and encourage them to think about ways to hire and promote executive officers more equitably.

Furthermore, with a better understanding of what might contribute to the scarcity of female CEOs, human resource specialists can create training programs and communication workshops to discover and motivate future female executives, maximizing human capital within a corporation and reducing gender inequality in the workplace, especially at the senior level. Lastly, this study intends to inspire women in the business community – from female students in business schools to those who are currently in senior positions – not to limit themselves based on gender roles and perceptions created by media and to continue working toward achieving their potential in the workplace.
Literature Review

A literature review reveals that news media underrepresent women and consider stories about women less important than stories about men. The review also unveils that female political figures receive less news coverage than male politicians do, and that women’s appearance and traditional feminine traits are likely to be highlighted in news articles. Similarly, a review of studies on the representation of female CEOs in news uncovers that news media unfairly portray female CEOs by highlighting their gender, raising doubts about their competency, and paying more attention to their personal matters than their professional activities. This biased media coverage can reinforce traditional occupational gender roles, inhibit women from achieving their potential, and fortify the gender inequality that currently exists within senior managements.

Media Bias against Women in News Media

Although women comprise more than 50% of the total population and 51% of the labor force in the U.S. (U.S. Department of Commerce, Executive Office of the President, 2011) finding stories about women in the news can be challenging. When the Project for Excellence in Journalism (2005) analyzed national and regional print, broadcast, and online news during 20 randomly selected days over nine months in 2004, the findings indicated that women were considerably underrepresented in news. Only 33% of 11,293 sample stories across all news media contained one or more female sources whereas 76% of stories contained a male source. The study also reported that newspapers were more likely to cite one or more female sources than other news media; nevertheless, newspapers still contained twice as many male sources than female sources. Additionally, for business-related topics, only 33% of the sample stories cited one or more female sources while 60% of the stories contained quotes from one or more male sources. The findings of this study reveal how disproportionately represented women are in the news and how inaccurately news reflects society. Furthermore, the study also raises a critical question about journalists’ perception of women as news sources.

Len-Ríos, Rodgers, Esther, and Yoon (2005) further explored the issue of the underrepresentation of women in news, comparing it to the perceptions of news staff and readers and whether male-dominant cultural norms existed or not. The authors content-analyzed all stories and photos in 21 issues of a Midwestern U.S. newspaper published during three consecutive weeks from February 1998 to March 1998. The content analysis revealed that almost 80% of 4,851 individuals who appeared in the news articles were males, whereas only 18% were females. When the authors examined the photos in the issues, they found that only 30% of the individuals who appeared in the photos were female. To assess the level of awareness of this matter among news staff and newsreaders, the authors telephone-surveyed a nonrandom sample of 374 newsroom staff at the same Midwestern newspaper company and a random selection of 657 newsreaders. The authors asked the participants if they thought the newspaper accurately reflected the roles of women in modern life and whether they thought that women received equal coverage as men did. The findings from the telephone surveys indicated a disparity between perceptions of readers and news staff: Newsreaders disagreed that there were as many photos of women as men in newspapers while news staff reported that the newspaper exhibited a good cross section of males and females. The news staff also indicated that they were accurately representing women in news photos, which newsreaders disagreed with. Not only does this study confirm the findings of the Project
for Excellence in Journalism (2005) study, but it also illustrates that news staff are unaware of the issue of underrepresentation of women in news.

While the studies mentioned above focused on how often women appeared in the news, Poindexter, Meraz, and Weiss (2008) looked at where and which kind of newspaper stories women appeared in. The authors conducted a rhetorical analysis of 13 stories from The New York Times in 2006 and found that news staff treated stories about women less importantly than stories about men. First, the authors noted that topics of news stories that may directly affect women, such as women’s health issues, sexual discrimination cases, and even Supreme Court rulings for women, were second-tier stories. For example, the coverage of a Supreme Court decision supporting a woman’s ability to file a complaint of sexual harassment did not qualify as front-page news in The New York Times. On the other hand, stories about women succeeding in areas or roles dominated by men were first-tier stories and often granted a spot on the front page. For example, Katie Couric made headlines when she became the first solo female anchor of a weekday evening network news program, and even the story of Kelly Kulick, the first woman to win the Professional Bowlers Association Tour in 2010, was placed on the front page of The New York Times. The authors argued that by prioritizing first women stories over more important stories that have a greater impact on women, news media may send a message that women who join traditionally male dominated fields are abnormal. These themes identified by the authors echo the findings of previous research and clearly show how news media prioritize topics related to men over topics related to women. Overall, the findings of studies suggest that news media neglect women’s stories, images, opinions, and expertise.

**Media Bias against Female Political Figures**

Several studies have assessed how female political figures are portrayed in news media, and scholars who have studied the subject have found that media bias against female political figures exists in news media. For example, Falk (2010) assessed how the press covered female presidential candidates by reviewing nine presidential elections in the U.S. from 1872 to 2008. Falk found, on average, that male candidates received twice as many articles about them as did the female candidates. While male candidates were more likely to receive coverage regarding their positions on issues, female candidates were more likely to have their physical appearance mentioned. In addition, Falk found that female candidates were often addressed as Ms. or Mrs. instead of Senator and Representative. Nevertheless, the author found one advantage that female candidates had: They were quoted more than male candidates were. Falk’s research reveals that a gender bias against female candidates has long been embedded in the coverage of the female candidates.

Expanding Falk’s study to a cross-national level, Kittilson and Fridkin (2008) compared newspaper coverage of men and women candidates running for house or senate in the 2004 Austrian, 2006 Canadian, and 2006 U.S. elections. By conducting a content analysis of articles from each country’s major newspapers in election years, the authors found that, across all countries consistently, articles on male candidates were likely to address stereotypically male issues such as the economy and arms control, whereas articles on female candidates were likely to address stereotypically female issues such as education and health. When the authors looked at how candidates’ personality traits were covered, they found that stereotypical male traits such as strong leadership,
competitiveness, and aggression dominated the coverage of male candidates in all three countries. Conversely, stereotypical female traits such as compassion, kindness, and attractiveness were mentioned when discussing female candidates. Kittilson and Fridkin noted that the coverage of candidates with gendered personality traits appeared most prominently in the U.S. news media as opposed to the other countries’ media. The findings of the study suggest that a gender bias against female candidates may be an issue that is prominent across the world rather than in any specific country.

Adding a counter perspective, Lee (2004) demonstrated how the press in Hong Kong positively portrayed female political figures. Through a textual analysis of articles that featured high-level female officials in Hong Kong government agencies, the author discovered that news articles portrayed female officials as perfect women who excelled at both work and home. Unlike the news articles on female political figures in Western countries, the articles highlighted both male and female traits. The sample articles emphasized male traits when describing them in a professional setting and female traits when describing them in a personal setting. The officials’ roles as good traditional mothers, daughters, and wives were also highlighted in the discourse, but the articles neglected to mention the difficulties in handling different roles. Interestingly, the author argued that positive coverage of female political figures could also yield negative effects because members of society might fail to notice the difficulties working women face and not make necessary changes in the system. Lee’s study provides valuable insight in that more elements such as culture, media environment, and social perceptions may contribute to the image of female politicians. Overall, the body of literature on the portrayal of female politicians in news media shows that female politicians receive less and biased news media coverage especially on their views on public issues.

**Media Bias against Female CEOs**

While many scholars have paid considerable attention to the negative portrayal of female political figures in news media, very few scholars have studied the portrayal of female executives in news media. Furthermore, the majority of scholars on the latter subject have employed the rhetorical analysis method and examined how news discourse has framed female CEOs in newspapers and potentially solidified gender stereotypes in business. Krefting (2002), for example, retrieved and analyzed 27 articles that were published on the front page of *The Wall Street Journal* between July 1999 to July 2000, the year following the appointment of Carly Fiorina as CEO to Hewlett-Packard Company. By examining the articles that mentioned both male and female CEOs, the author found that the majority of sample articles that mentioned female CEOs focused on business related topics instead of covering the gender of the CEOs as a major topic. Moreover, the author found that most articles about women as executives de-valORIZED them by raising doubts about their background and performance. For example, the author argued that the articles described Carly Fiorina as someone who accidently became CEO and was uncertain about her business strategies. On the other hand, more articles that mentioned male executives contained a positive tone toward the executives than the articles that mentioned female executives. Krefting noted that problematizing women’s roles as executives in news discourse reinforced gender stereotypes that existed in the business environment and inhibited female employees from pursuing senior positions.

While Krefting (2002) examined news discourse about women executives in general, Norander (2008) focused on one female executive, Carly Fiorina, and how one
particular news source, *The Wall Street Journal*, shaped her public identity. Norander found that news media focused too much attention on Carly Fiorina for deviating from the stereotypical image of CEOs who are often male and possess masculine management styles, labeling her as an empty-headed cheerleader and new-age inspirational speaker. The author also found that the majority of news articles framed her career path as an accidental success by describing Fiorina as someone who did not intend to achieve the CEO position. In addition to discussing the power of news discourse and its effect on female CEOs, the author noted that female CEOs can be active participants in engaging in the discourse and managing their public identities.

Unlike the two previously mentioned studies that employed the rhetorical analysis method, McGregor (2000) conducted a content analysis of a small sample of 25 news articles that covered the appointment of Theresa Gattung, the first woman to become the CEO of a publicly traded company in New Zealand. The author found that Gattung’s appointment as a CEO to Telecom Group was framed by emphasizing her gender, age, nationality, relationship with her predecessor, and management style. McGregor identified the major theme of the articles as highlighting Gattung’s personal details such as her marital status. McGregor (2000) also noted that several articles described her relationship with her predecessor as a “father-daughter” relationship (p. 4). In addition to these findings, McGregor discussed how news stories written by male journalists showed that age and gender were regarded as the most salient elements in the article, while female journalists focused on Gattung’s involvement in the company’s strategic movement and the future of the telecommunications industry.

Providing a comparative perspective, Pini, Mayes, and McDonald (2010) analyzed news discourse on male CEOs to examine how business journalism shaped the nature of transnational business masculinities. The authors conducted a discourse analysis of six articles that featured the CEOs of two large transnational mining corporations, Rio Tinto and BHP Billiton, from major daily Australian newspapers published in 2008. The discourse analysis showed that the articles contained wild animal, sports, and military metaphors, and that the articles described the two CEOs, Klopper and Albanese, as hunters, boxers, captains, and sergeants. In addition, the authors found that the articles highlighted the masculinity of these CEOs by emphasizing their engineering background, intellectualism, and ability to work anywhere in the world. Despite the small number of articles, the authors succeeded in detecting and presenting the gendered discourse in news articles about CEOs. This study offers a meaningful insight because very few scholars have explored how gendered discourse is embedded in business journalism, whereas numerous scholars have paid considerable attention to the existence of gendered discourse in political journalism. As the findings of the studies suggest, news media tend to raise doubts about female CEOs’ performance and leadership, highlight the gender and feminine traits of female CEOs, and inculcate masculinity in business culture.

The body of literature illustrates that women, especially in politics and business, have faced gender bias in news media. The studies on the portrayal of women in news media show that women are underrepresented and their stories are treated as second-tier stories in news media. Scholars who examine how female political figures are portrayed in news media find that female political figures receive less news coverage, especially regarding their views on issues, and that the gendered personality traits appear most
prominently in the U.S. media when compared to other countries’ media. Similar to the studies on the representation of female political figures in news media, studies on the representation of female CEOs suggest that news media highlight the gender of female CEOs, raise doubts about their competency, and pay more attention to their personal matters than their professional activities.

Although several authors have succeeded in identifying frames used to portray the female CEOs, the generalizability of these studies is limited due to the small sample size. Additionally, the news media environment is constantly changing and evolving, creating the need to reexamine articles over time. The review of studies on the representation of female CEOs in news media indicates that some news media might contain gender biases against female CEOs, revealing the need to further examine the extent to which this bias exists.

Therefore, this content analysis attempts to provide thorough and systematic answers to the following questions.

RQ1 (Visibility): How does the amount of news coverage about female CEOs compare to that of news coverage of male CEOs?
RQ2 (Tone): How do news articles portray female CEOs compared to male CEOs?
RQ3 (Physical Description): How are the physical attributes of female CEOs described in the news media and how does this compare to male CEOs?
RQ4 (Leadership Description): How are the performance and leadership of female CEOs described in newspapers compared to male CEOs?
Method

Researchers have employed the rhetorical analysis method in most of the previous studies on the portrayal of female CEOs in news media. However, rhetorical analysis alone cannot sufficiently quantify and make inferences because it is highly vulnerable to researcher bias and lacks objectivity (Given, 2008).

In contrast to rhetorical analysis, the content analysis method allows a researcher to analyze texts systematically and objectively (Berelson, 1971). Moreover, the statistical findings of content analysis allow a researcher to quantify and make inferences about overall content (Poindexter & McCombs, 2000). Content analysis can also provide insights on the use of language and culture in a society (Berelson, 1971).

Therefore, the quantitative data and statistical findings of this study strengthen the field of research on the representation of female CEOs in the news media. Because the main objective of the study is to examine how female CEOs are portrayed in newspaper articles compared to male CEOs, I conducted a content analysis of 316 articles that featured the top female male CEOs. The articles were from the three most circulated newspapers in the U.S.

Sample Selection

Using the online Factiva database system, I retrieved articles that featured the top CEOs that appeared from January 1, 2008 to December 31, 2010 in the three most circulated newspapers in the U.S.: The Wall Street Journal, USA Today, and The New York Times (Audit Bureau of Circulations, 2011). These three newspapers had daily circulations of 2.1 million, 1.8 million, and 0.9 million readers respectively, as ranked by the Audit Bureau of Circulation (2010). This is in contrast to smaller newspapers, which reach fewer than 500,000 readers daily. Accordingly, the most circulated news publications were selected because they tend to have a greater degree of influence on the public than smaller newspapers do (Klaidman, 1990; Park & Berger, 2004). In an attempt to increase the size of the sample used compared to previous studies on the portrayal of female CEOs in news media, I chose a three-year time frame. Articles in the sample contained the names of CEOs from Tables 1 and 2 and mentioned the names of the CEOs at least twice. Selecting articles that mentioned the names of the CEOs at least twice ensured retrieving articles that featured CEOs instead of articles that only mentioned the CEOs’ names. I selected articles that provided more information about the CEOs’ than just their names to examine how news articles presented the information about female and male CEOs in their company settings.

I chose the top 10 CEOs of American companies within each gender category who held their executive position during at least one of the years in the study period. Because no single list contains 10 female CEOs and 10 male CEOs who meet these criteria, I used two different lists, “25 Most Powerful People in Business” (for men) and “50 Most Powerful Women in Business” (for women), from the same magazine, Fortune (Fortune, 2007; Fortune, 2010). The top 10 female CEOs from the “50 Most powerful Women in Business” changed each year; therefore, to reflect these changes, three additional female CEOs’ names were searched when retrieving articles from the database. All of the male CEOs, however, remained in their executive positions throughout the study period.

Table 1.

List of Female CEOs Who Were Searched in the Database
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Ranked Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patricia Woertz</td>
<td>Archer Daniel Midland</td>
<td>2008, 2009, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anne Mulcahy</td>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angela Braly</td>
<td>WellPoint</td>
<td>2008, 2009, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susan Arnold</td>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td>2008, 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opera Winfrey</td>
<td>Harpo Productions</td>
<td>2008, 2009, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brenda Barnes</td>
<td>Sara Lee</td>
<td>2008, 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ursula Burns</td>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>2008, 2009, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carol Bartz</td>
<td>Yahoo!</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellen Kullman</td>
<td>DuPont</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ginni Rometty</td>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Three additional female CEOs’ names were searched to reflect the changes in Fortune 50 Most Powerful Women in Business in each year from 2008 to 2010.

Table 2.
List of Male CEOs Who Were Searched in the Database

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Ranked Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rex Tillerson</td>
<td>Exxon Mobil</td>
<td>2008, 2009, 2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All top 10 male CEOs from Fortune 25 Most Powerful People in Business remained on the list from 2008 to 2010.

The Factiva database yielded 805 articles on male CEOs and 233 articles on female CEOs. To narrow the dataset to a manageable size, I selected 20% (n = 161) of the articles on male CEOs to code and excluded two duplicate articles. Therefore, the sample included 159 articles on male CEOs. On the other hand, to acquire a sufficient number of articles on female CEOs to yield meaningful results, I coded all articles that fit the selection criteria. After excluding 12 duplicate articles and 66 articles that did not fit the selection criteria, the sample included 155 articles on female CEOs. In total, 314 articles were coded.
Duplicate articles appeared in the search results mainly due to articles that were published on both print copies and the websites of the newspapers. Furthermore, database search results of articles on female CEOs retrieved articles that did not fit the selection criteria mainly due to articles on Oprah Winfrey. The majority of articles on Oprah Winfrey mentioned her as a talk show host and did not discuss her role as a CEO of Harpo Productions. As mentioned above, to increase the quality of the data set, I excluded all duplicate articles and articles that did not discuss the CEOs’ activities, physical attributes, or leadership styles.

**Coding Variables**

The codebook (see Appendix A) consisted of four variables that explored (a) the visibility of female and male CEOs; (b) the general tone of the articles toward the CEOs; (c) the physical description of the CEOs; and (d) the performance description of the CEOs. After several editing processes, I uploaded the final codebook to SurveyMonkey.com, creating an electronic codebook to decrease the risk of human error in recording and to expedite the recording process.
**Inter-Coder Reliability**

A female coder, the author, and a second male coder conducted the coding to establish inter-coder reliability. The gender difference mitigated the risks of gender bias and researcher bias. Based on the recommended coding procedure by Pointdexter and McCombs (2000), the second coder did not participate in developing the codebook, but contributed to revising the codebook. The second coder received training on coding the articles and recording the results in the electronic codebook in SurveyMonkey.com. During the training process, the female and male coder coded the articles together. The articles for training were retrieved using the same search method, but from outside the study period. The training articles were excluded from the analysis.

Upon the completion of training, both coders independently coded 10% (n = 32) of randomly selected articles from the sample articles to evaluate the inter-coder reliability (Neuendorf, 2002). The analysis included these articles. To measure the inter-coder reliability, I computed percent agreement. After the first measurement of inter-coder reliability, any variable that had a percent agreement value less than 80% was revised, and the coders coded another set of articles to measure inter-coder reliability. Upon the completion of coding on the second set of articles, the coders achieved percent agreements that ranged from 81.25% to 100% for each variable with an average of 93.06%. A percent agreement value higher than 80% is considered indication of high reliability in social science.
Data Analysis

I generated frequencies and percentages and performed the chi-square ($\chi^2$) test of independence to examine whether differences according to the gender of the CEOs in the sample articles were statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. I used the Excel CHITEST program and the online software from http://quantpsy.org to compute the chi-square values.

Visibility. To answer RQ1, which asked about the visibility of female CEOs in newspapers, I calculated the frequency and percentage of articles that featured female and male CEOs. In addition, I computed the frequencies and percentages of articles on each CEO. The frequency of articles on female CEOs written by female writers was compared to the frequency of articles on male CEOs written by male writers to examine the disparity between female and male writers who wrote about the CEOs. I also compared the frequencies and percentages of different types of articles in which female and male CEOs appeared. Lastly, I computed the frequencies and percentages of articles that included quotes from the CEOs to examine the difference between articles on female CEOs and articles on male CEOs.

Tone. RQ2 asked about the tone of the articles on female CEOs. I computed the frequency and percentage of positive and negative coverage of female CEOs and compared them with the frequency and percentage of positive and negative coverage of male CEOs. To examine whether the news articles expressed confidence or doubt about female CEOs, I computed the frequency and percentage of the articles that expressed doubt about female CEOs and compared it to the frequency and percentage of articles that express doubt about male CEOs.

Physical description. To answer RQ3, which asked about the physical descriptions of female and male CEOs, I computed the frequency and percentage of articles that mentioned female CEOs’ physical attributes and compared them to the articles that mentioned male CEOs’ physical attributes. Furthermore, I examined which physical attributes were predominantly mentioned in articles on female and male CEOs. In addition, I calculated the frequencies and percentages of articles that addressed the female CEOs’ personal matters, such as personality and family, and compared them to the articles on male CEOs. Most importantly, I computed the frequency and percentage of articles that address the gender of the CEOs to assess whether the gender of the female CEOs was highlighted in the news articles compared to the gender of the male CEOs. Lastly, I compared the frequency and percentage of articles in which female CEOs addressed gender inequality issues in workplace to the frequency and percentage of articles in which male CEOs did.

Performance description. RQ4 asked about performance and leadership descriptions of female and male CEOs. I computed the frequencies and percentages of articles that mentioned male CEOs’ educational background and compared them to the articles on female CEOs. Additionally, I calculated the frequencies and percentages of articles that noted female CEOs’ histories with their companies and compared them to the articles on male CEOs’ histories with their companies. Furthermore, I computed the frequency and percentage of articles that described female CEOs’ leadership as soft and the frequency and percentage of the articles that described male CEOs’ leadership as hard. I calculated the frequency and percentage of articles that described the female
CEO’s success as *accidental* and the frequency and percentage of articles that described the male CEO’s success as *deliberate*. 
Results

Visibility

The first research question asked about the visibility of female CEOs in newspapers. The search results in the Factiva database clearly showed that male CEOs had greater visibility in newspapers than female CEOs. Out of 1,038 articles retrieved, only 22.4% (n = 233) included the female CEOs’ names, while 77.5% (n = 805) included the male CEOs’ names.

Among the 13 female CEOs who appeared in 155 sample articles, Carol Bartz of Yahoo!, received the most articles, recording 29% of the articles on female CEOs (see Table 3). Steve Jobs of Apple Inc. received the most articles, recording 20.8% of the articles on male CEOs (See Table 4).

Table 3.
Article Distribution Based on Female CEOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Percent (n = 155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carol Bartz</td>
<td>Yahoo!</td>
<td>29.0% (n = 45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irene Rosenfeld</td>
<td>Kraft Foods</td>
<td>15.5% (n = 24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indra Nooyi</td>
<td>PepsiCo</td>
<td>12.3% (n = 19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oprah Winfrey</td>
<td>Harpo Productions</td>
<td>9.7% (n = 15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angela Braly</td>
<td>WellPoint</td>
<td>7.7% (n = 12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ursula Burns</td>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>7.1% (n = 11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrea Jung</td>
<td>Avon Products</td>
<td>5.2% (n = 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brenda Barnes</td>
<td>Sara Lee</td>
<td>5.2% (n = 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anne Mulcahy</td>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>4.5% (n = 7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susan Arnold</td>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td>1.9% (n = 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellen Kullman</td>
<td>DuPONT</td>
<td>1.3% (n = 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ginni Rometty</td>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>0.7% (n = 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patricia Woertz</td>
<td>Archer Daniel Midland</td>
<td>0% (n = 0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.
Article Distribution Based on Male CEOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Percent (n = 159)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steve Jobs</td>
<td>Apple</td>
<td>20.8% (n = 33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lloyd Blankfein</td>
<td>Goldman Sachs</td>
<td>16.4% (n = 26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eric Schmidt</td>
<td>Google</td>
<td>13.8% (n = 22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rupert Murdoch</td>
<td>News Corporation</td>
<td>12.6% (n = 20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeff Immelt</td>
<td>General Electric</td>
<td>9.4% (n = 15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.G. Lafley</td>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td>8.8% (n = 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Chambers</td>
<td>Cisco Systems</td>
<td>8.8% (n = 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamie Dimon</td>
<td>JP Morgan Chase &amp; Co</td>
<td>6.3% (n = 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rex Tillerson</td>
<td>Exxon Mobil</td>
<td>3.1% (n = 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warren Buffett</td>
<td>Berkshire Hathaway</td>
<td>0% (n = 0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results showed a disparity between female and male writers who wrote about the CEOs. In general, articles on CEOs were more often written by male writers (43.6%) than female writers (37.6%). The remaining articles (17.6%) were co-authored by both male and female writers. The rest of the articles (1.6%) either did not specify the authors’ names, or were written by authors with unisex names.

Interestingly, the results showed that writers tended to write about the CEOs of the same gender as themselves. The data revealed that 50.0% of the articles that mentioned female CEOs were written by female writers whereas only 32.3% were written by male writers. Similarly, 54.7% of the articles on male CEOs were written by male writers whereas 26.4% were written by female writers. The difference based on the gender of the CEOs was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 20.6, p < 0.001$).

The results also showed a disparity among the types of articles in which the CEOs appeared. As shown in Table 5, both female and male CEOs appeared the most in the articles that mainly discussed company activities such as new product launches, expansions, and mergers and acquisitions. However, male CEOs appeared more often (15.1%) in the articles that discussed companies’ financial activities than female CEOs (9.0%). In addition, articles that mainly discussed industry trends included more male CEOs (12.6%) than female CEOs (5.2%). On the other hand, articles that discussed appointments and resignations included more female CEOs (13.6%) than male CEOs (4.4%). The gender disparity among types of articles in which the CEOs appeared was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 31.25, p < 0.001$).

Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Articles in Which Female and Male CEOs Appeared</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Activities</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Performance</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appointment/Resignation</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Trends</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO’s Strategic Decision</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Affairs</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO’s Profile</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Issues</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO’s Health</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO’s Compensation</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two-thirds of the articles included quotes from the CEOs; however, no statistically significant difference according to gender of CEO was found ($\chi^2 = 0.58, p = 0.448$). About one-third (33.4%; $n = 105$) of the articles on female and male CEOs did not include any quotes from the CEOs.

Among the articles that did not include quotes from CEOs, articles on female CEOs were more than three times as likely (40.0%) to note that the CEOs rejected to comment than the articles on male CEOs (12.0%). The difference was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 10.49, p = 0.001$).
Tone

The second research question asked about the tone of the articles on female CEOs. Contrary to the findings of the literature reviews, the results showed that female CEOs were more likely to be positively portrayed (52.9%) than male CEOs were (47.2%). Consequently, more articles on male CEOs (30.8%) negatively portrayed the CEOs than female CEOs (23.2%). Additionally, more articles (15.7%) on male CEOs carried a neutral tone toward the CEOs than articles on female CEOs (10.3%). However, more articles (13.6%) on female CEOs carried both positive and negative tones toward the CEOs, whereas only 6.3% of articles on male CEOs carried mixed tones. The difference in the overall tone toward female and male CEOs was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 8.13, p = 0.043$).

To examine whether the news articles raised questions or concerns about female CEOs, I examined whether the articles expressed confidence or doubt about the CEOs. Although slightly more articles on female CEOs (74.2%; $n = 115$) noted confidence or doubt about the CEOs than the articles on male CEOs (68.5%; $n = 109$), the difference was statistically insignificant ($\chi^2 = 1.22, p = 0.269$).

However, gender differences were found among the articles that included confidence or doubt about the CEOs ($\chi^2 = 10.6, p < 0.01$). Similar to the overall tone of the articles toward the CEOs, more articles on male CEOs (52.3%) expressed doubts about the CEOs than articles on female CEOs (43.5%). Moreover, only one article on male CEOs expressed both confidence and doubt about a CEO, whereas 11.3% of the articles on female CEOs expressed both confidence and doubt about the female CEOs (see Table 6).

Table 6.
Confidence or Doubt Expressed about the CEOs in the Articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confidence or Doubt</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female ($n = 115$)</td>
<td>Male ($n = 109$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>45.2% ($n = 52$)</td>
<td>46.7% ($n = 51$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doubt</td>
<td>43.4% ($n = 50$)</td>
<td>52.2% ($n = 57$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Confidence and Doubt</td>
<td>11.3% ($n = 13$)</td>
<td>0.9% ($n = 1$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Physical Description

The third research question asked about the physical descriptions of female and male CEOs. The results showed that the majority of articles (76.8%; $n = 241$) did not mention any physical attributes of the CEOs. However, of the articles ($n = 73$) that mentioned physical attributes of the CEOs, articles on female CEOs were more likely (60.3%; $n = 44$) to note their physical attributes than articles on male CEOs (39.7%; $n = 29$). The results showed a statistically significant difference between articles on female CEOs and the articles on male CEOs ($\chi^2 = 4.53, p = 0.033$).

As shown in Table 7, among the articles that mentioned physical attributes, the articles on female CEOs most frequently (81.8%) noted the CEOs’ ages, whereas the articles on male CEOs most frequently (62.1%) noted the CEOs’ health. Correspondingly, articles less frequently mentioned female CEOs’ health (20.7%) and male CEOs’ age (22.7%). Because some articles noted more than one physical attribute of the CEOs, the percentages do not add up to 100%. The differences among the types of
attributes mentioned in female and male CEOs were statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 24.33$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 7. 
Attributes Used for Physical Descriptions of the CEOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female (n = 44)</td>
<td>Male (n = 29)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>81.8% (n = 36)</td>
<td>20.7% (n = 6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>22.7% (n = 10)</td>
<td>62.1% (n = 18)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>11.4% (n = 5)</td>
<td>17.2% (n = 5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height/Weight</td>
<td>0% (n = 0)</td>
<td>10.3% (n = 3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style</td>
<td>2.3% (n = 1)</td>
<td>0% (n = 0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The percentages do not add up to 100% because some articles mentioned more than one physical attribute.

In terms of how often the CEOs’ family members were mentioned in the news articles, the results showed that only 5.4% (n = 17) of the articles mentioned the CEOs’ family members. Among the articles that mentioned the CEOs’ family members, the CEOs’ children appeared the most often (45.0%) in the articles and their spouses appeared the second most (35.0%). No statistically significant differences were found between female and male CEOs.

To examine whether news articles highlighted the gender of the female CEOs, I counted the articles that used gender indicative words such as female, male, woman, and man in describing the CEOs. The results showed that 12.9% (n = 20) of articles on female CEOs noted the gender of the CEOs when describing them. In contrast, no articles on male CEOs used gender indicative words in describing the CEOs. This gender disparity was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 21.91$, $p < 0.001$).

Similarly, among the articles that mentioned the gender of the CEO, no articles on male CEOs addressed gender inequality issues in the workplace, whereas 7.1% of the articles on female CEOs addressed the issue. The difference between articles on female CEOs and male CEOs was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 11.69$, $p < 0.001$). The results clearly showed that news articles highlighted the gender of the female CEOs and linked them with gender disparity issues in the workplace.

Performance Description

The last research question asked about performance and leadership descriptions of female and male CEOs. Despite the findings from the literature reviews, the results showed no statistical difference between articles on female CEOs (3.9%) and articles on male CEOs (5.0%) when emphasizing the CEOs’ educational background ($\chi^2 = 0.25$, $p = 0.618$).

However, as it pertains to addressing the CEOs’ experiences, almost 50.0% of the articles on female CEOs mentioned the CEOs’ history with the company, compared to only 13.2% for male CEOs. This difference was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 47.18$, $p < 0.001$).

When describing the CEOs’ leadership styles, articles were almost equally distributed among male and female CEOs. Out of 97 articles that noted the CEOs’ leadership styles, 55.7% (n = 54) of the articles noted the female CEOs’ leadership styles,
while 44.3% (n = 43) of the articles noted male CEOs’ leadership styles ($\chi^2 = 2.23$, $p = 0.135$).

Nevertheless, how articles described the CEOs’ leadership style differed based on the gender of the CEOs. As shown in Table 8, although more than half (63.0%) of articles on female CEOs described the CEOs’ leadership style as hard leadership that valued results and competition, more articles on male CEOs (86.1%) described the CEOs’ leadership style as hard. Additionally, more articles on female CEOs (31.5%) described the CEOs’ leadership style as soft than the articles on male CEOs (9.3%). The difference based on the gender of the CEOs was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 7.22$, $p = 0.027$).

Table 8. Leadership Description Based on the Gender of the CEOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Leadership Type</th>
<th>Female (n = 54)</th>
<th>Male (n = 43)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hard</td>
<td></td>
<td>62.9% (n = 34)</td>
<td>86.0% (n = 37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soft</td>
<td></td>
<td>31.4% (n = 17)</td>
<td>9.3% (n = 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Hard and Soft</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.5% (n = 3)</td>
<td>4.6% (n = 2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding how news articles portrayed female CEOs’ success compared to male CEOs’ success, the results showed that female CEOs’ success was more often (30.3%; n = 44) mentioned in the articles than male CEOs’ success (17.0%; n = 27). The difference according to the gender of the CEOs was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 7.56$, $p = 0.006$).

Although female CEOs’ success was more often noted in the articles, 13.6% (n = 6) of the articles that mentioned female CEOs’ success described their paths to success as accidental (see Table 9). In comparison, no articles described male CEOs’ success as accidental. The results showed statistically significant difference based on gender of the CEOs ($\chi^2 = 6.02$, $p = 0.049$).

Table 9. Gender Disparity in the CEOs’ Paths to Success Described in the Articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Described Path to Success</th>
<th>Female (n = 44)</th>
<th>Male (n = 27)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deliberate</td>
<td>56.8% (n = 25)</td>
<td>81.5% (n = 22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accidental</td>
<td>13.6% (n = 6)</td>
<td>0% (n = 0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Path Mentioned</td>
<td>29.5% (n = 13)</td>
<td>18.5% (n = 5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

The results showed that media bias against female CEOs exists in U.S. newspapers and the content analysis revealed five major patterns of media bias against female CEOs. First, female CEOs receive much less news coverage than male CEOs. Second, there were more articles about female CEOs in which stakeholders expressed ambivalence toward the CEOs than male CEOs despite the fact that female CEOs received more positive coverage than male CEOs. Third, the gender and age of female CEOs were highlighted in the articles more than that of male CEOs. Fourth, female CEOs’ leadership styles were more often described as soft in the news articles than male CEOs’ leadership styles. Lastly, news articles often described female CEOs’ paths to success as accidental, whereas news articles described male CEOs’ paths to success as deliberate.

Considering the large number of previous studies that have exposed the underrepresentation of women in media, the low visibility of female CEOs in news media may not be a new finding for the current study. Nevertheless, the importance of this finding lies in the persistency of the unequal portrayal of women, particularly female CEOs, in U.S. newspapers.

Unlike previous studies, the current research indicates that the scarcity of female journalists who cover business might contribute to unequal portrayal of female CEOs in newspapers. The data showed that more articles on the CEOs were written by male writers than female writers and that writers tended to write about CEOs of their own gender. Therefore, fewer female writers wrote about female CEOs than male CEOs who wrote about male CEOs, possibly contributing to the underrepresentation of female CEOs in newspapers.

In addition, the data showed that female and male CEOs appeared in different types of articles. As articles on male politicians tended to address stereotypically male issues such as the economy and arms control (Kittilson & Fridkin, 2008), articles on male CEOs more often covered stereotypical male issues such as financial performance and industry trends.

Moreover, the high turnover rate of female CEOs may have been reflected in the types of articles in which female CEOs appeared. The data showed that less than 5% of articles on male CEOs discussed the resignation or appointment of the CEOs, compared to 13.6% of the articles on female CEOs. News coverage may have merely been reflecting reality. While the top 10 Most Powerful People (male CEOs) in business remained the same from 2008 to 2010, the Top 10 Most Powerful Women in Business changed each year during the study period. Yet news media may have ultimately emphasized the abnormality of female CEOs in the male dominated business world, a potential consequence of gender bias identified by Poindexter et al. (2008).

In contrast to the findings of the study by the Project for Excellent Journalism (2005), articles examined in the current study quoted female CEOs as often as male CEOs. Nevertheless, in the articles that did not include quotes from the CEOs, writers were more likely to note female CEOs’ unwillingness to comment on the stories than male CEOs’ unwillingness to comment. This pattern of media bias could be a result of female CEOs’ tendency to decline to comment more, or a result of writers’ tendency to note female CEOs’ rejections while omitting male CEOs’ rejections to comment. Regardless of who and what might have contributed to this phenomenon, female CEOs’
credibility as experts and leaders can be questioned when they appear to avoid addressing an issue.

Although female CEOs received less news coverage than male CEOs, female CEOs received more positive coverage than male CEOs. Contrary to the findings of studies mentioned in the literature review (Krefting, 2002; Norander, 2008) the results showed that more articles on female CEOs (52.9%) positively portrayed the CEOs than the articles on male CEOs did (47.2%). However, this finding may not directly indicate the improvement of female CEOs’ images in news articles. Instead, it could indicate the deterioration of male CEOs’ images in news articles during the study period. From December 2007 to June 2009, the U.S. economy was in a recession (National Bureau of Economic Research, 2010), mainly due to the subprime mortgage crisis and global financial crisis, the aftermath of which continued into 2009 and 2010. This abnormal economic environment may have affected the overall tone of the articles toward male CEOs of financial corporations, and these CEOs may have attracted more negative news coverage than they have in the past.

The findings of the studies mentioned in the literature review suggested that news media tend to raise doubts about female CEOs (McGregor, 2000; Norander, 2008). The results of the content analysis both support and refute the findings of the previous studies. In support of the findings of previous studies, the current study found that female CEOs were mentioned in more articles that contained stakeholders’ ambivalent attitudes toward the CEOs than male CEOs. However, in contrast to the findings of previous studies, the current study found that female CEOs were discussed in more articles that contained stakeholders’ confidence than male CEOs. While only one article on male CEOs (0.9%) contained stakeholders’ both confidence and doubt about the CEO, 13 articles (11.3%) on female CEOs did. This finding may suggest that news writers tend to note stakeholders’ uncertainty or ambivalence toward female CEOs, raising questions about their ability to lead despite their qualifications and career path.

Supporting the body of literature on the portrayal of female CEOs in news media, the results revealed that articles about female CEOs were much more likely (60.3%) to mention physical attributes than articles on male CEOs were (39.7%). Confirming the findings of McGregor’s study (2000), the gender and ages of female CEOs remained the most salient elements in the articles that included physical descriptions of the CEOs. While no article addressed the gender of male CEOs, more than 10% of the articles on female CEOs highlighted the gender of the CEOs by using gender indicative words. In contrast, articles on male CEOs predominantly discussed the health of the CEOs, a phenomenon that appears to be a result of the announcement made by Apple, Inc. on Steve Jobs’s leave of absence due to pancreatic cancer in 2008. All articles (n = 18) that noted male CEOs’ health featured Steve Jobs.

Unlike previous research, the current study found that no male CEOs addressed gender disparity in the workplace in the articles, whereas female CEOs occasionally did. This finding indicates that gender inequality in the workplace, especially at the senior level, is not often addressed in news articles by CEOs. Additionally, the finding could mean that male CEOs are either unaware of gender inequality in the workplace or have not attempted to address the issue.

Regarding the leadership descriptions used in news articles, the data showed that news articles described the CEOs’ leadership styles differently based on the CEOs’
gender. Regardless of whether female CEOs and male CEOs actually differ in their leadership styles, the news articles clearly associated female CEOs with soft leadership and male CEOs with hard leadership. This kind of stereotyping of leadership styles based on the gender of CEOs can draw inaccurate images of male and female CEOs in minds of the public. Because the current business environment values hard leadership more favorably than soft leadership (Catalyst, 2005), the stereotyping of female executives with soft leadership may hinder female CEO candidates from pursuing executive positions.

Confirming the findings of studies conducted by Krefting (2002) and Norander (2008), female CEOs’ successes were often described as accidental in news articles. Although news articles more often highlighted female CEOs’ successes than male CEOs’ successes, 13.6% of the articles that noted female CEOs’ success described their paths as accidental. This was done by mentioning the female CEOs’ personal relationships to their predecessors and emphasizing their unusual career paths. On the other hand, no articles on male CEOs described their paths as accidental. This kind of media bias in news articles could seriously jeopardize the credibility of female CEOs and prompt stakeholders to question female CEOs’ qualifications and abilities. Moreover, describing female CEOs’ paths to success as accidental while describing male CEOs’ paths to success as deliberate could send an inaccurate message to the public and reinforce gender stereotypes in the business environment.

Although the findings of this content analysis showed that female CEOs received more positive news coverage and articles that expressed stakeholders’ confidence toward female CEOs, these findings should not be interpreted as the demise of media bias against female CEOs in newspapers. The abnormal economic environment may have affected the news coverage on male CEOs. Furthermore, the content analysis revealed that news media continue to employ media bias against female CEOs by (a) underrepresenting female CEOs; (b) highlighting stakeholders’ ambivalent attitudes toward female CEOs; (c) emphasizing the gender and age of female CEOs; (d) characterizing female CEOs’ leadership styles as soft; and (e) describing female CEOs’ paths to success as accidental. As mentioned in the introduction, media bias against female CEOs is not the only factor that has prohibited women from pursuing executive positions. Nevertheless, as the quality and quantity of the female workforce improves, news media must recognize this and reflect it in their work. This will help create a gender-bias free media environment.

**Implications for Practitioners**

The findings of the content analysis revealed that female CEOs continue to suffer from low visibility in the news media. These findings should alert journalists and editors of newspaper companies that they have not succeeded in objectively covering executives and accurately portraying the world of business. Considering the persistent nature of the gender bias issue, the news media industry as a whole should consider establishing a set of guidelines similar to the CBC’s Guidelines on Sex-Role Portrayal Program Policy and create the norm of promoting equal portrayal of women and men in news media. To encourage journalists and news companies to follow the guidelines, organizations like Scripps Howard Foundation, a non-profit organization that grants annual National Journalism Awards, could create an award category to acknowledge writers and honor news companies for excellence in the equal presentation of women and men.
Additionally, the findings of this study suggest a potential correlation between the lack of female writers and the low visibility of female CEOs due to writers’ tendencies to cover CEOs of their own genders. News companies could offer workshops targeting news company executives that are focused on raising the awareness and diminishing the existence of media bias against women. More fundamentally, news company executives could increase the number of female writers and increase the coverage of women in business. Because news viewers and readers perceive the content of the news as a reflection of the real world (Byerly & Ross, 2006; Desmond & Danilewicz, 2010), newspapers must take all measures to equally present women and men in business and to accurately portray the current business environment.

Given the lack of articles on female CEOs that discuss stereotypically male issues such as financial performances and industry trends, female CEOs should seek or create opportunities to address these topics. Moreover, instead of declining to comment on a news story, female CEOs should proactively engage the news media.

In addition, the findings of this study encourage female CEOs and corporate communication officers to address the ambivalent attitudes expressed by stakeholders toward female CEOs. To improve female CEOs’ images, corporate communication officers and publicists of female CEOs should conduct media audits on the CEOs to identify which stakeholders have raised doubts and why, enabling the creation of a targeted strategic communication plan for addressing gender bias in the media and alleviating stakeholder concerns.

Regardless of journalists’ intentions when describing female CEOs’ paths to success as accidental and the potential effects of it, corporate communication officers and publicists of female CEOs must be aware of news writers’ tendency to de-value female CEOs’ qualifications. Corporate communication officers and publicists should inform C-level executives, particularly female executives, about this and train them to highlight their paths to successes by emphasizing their performance and leadership experience rather than acknowledging others, especially when interacting with media.

Finally, the findings of the study revealed that media bias against female CEOs might have contributed to the underrepresentation of female CEOs. For human resources specialists and board members, these findings provide an opportunity to examine whether their decisions in selecting executives have been influenced by media bias. To construct a gender-blind executive selection process, human resource specialists should educate board members about the existing media bias against female CEOs in newspapers and adjust their employment and promotion process accordingly. Concurrently, human resources specialists could offer training programs that encourage female employees in mid- and senior-level positions to actively seek executive positions within the company. Companies should adopt these measures and create a gender-blind business environment to stay competitive in an economy where women’s economic power continues to increase (Dychtwald, 2010).

**Study Limitations**

The most notable weakness of this content analysis is the study period. Although this content analysis employed a longer study period than previous studies, generalizability of the findings remains questionable due to the abnormal economic environment from 2008 to 2010. According to the National Bureau of Economic Research (2010), the average duration of the U.S. economic cycle is approximately five
years; thus, three years of articles may not have been sufficient to yield generalizable results.

Another weakness of the study includes the narrow scope of the study. This study focused solely on text of the articles in three major newspapers in the U.S. More than 1,400 daily newspapers exist in the U.S. (Neuharth, 2008), and more than 25 newspapers have circulation numbers higher than 300,000 (Audit Bureau of Circulations, 2010). Therefore, an analysis of 318 articles from the three most circulated papers may not have been sufficient to accurately identify patterns of media bias against female CEOs in newspapers.

Moreover, the study solely focused on text analysis and neglected images and photos of the CEOs in newspapers. To produce a more comprehensive content analysis of news articles on female and male CEOs in the future, researchers could incorporate photos and images in content analysis studies.

Additionally, this content analysis focused on 10 male CEOs and 13 female CEOs of large corporations. Although this study included articles on more CEOs than previous studies did, articles on 23 CEOs may not accurately represent articles on all CEOs. Furthermore, the study selected the CEOs from two different lists from Fortune, which also could have biased the results.

Unlike previous qualitative studies, this study focused on the contents that are explicit in the texts and did not attempt to interpret context. As a result, coders coded the overall tones of the articles toward the CEOs; however, subtle meanings and connotations of the context in the articles have been disregarded in the analysis.

Moreover, the nature of the sample of the content analysis method limits researchers from learning about writers’ intentions (Weber, 1990). Therefore, this content analysis successfully revealed the patterns of media in portrayal of female CEOs in news media compared to the portrayal of male CEOs, but failed to uncover how and why writers use gender biased language in covering female and male CEOs.

Lastly, this content analysis displayed the phenomenon of news media bias against female CEOs; however, the effects of the phenomenon on the readers and female CEOs remain uncertain. For example, the results showed that the gender and age of the female CEOs are highlighted in news articles; however, the findings of this study do not answer whether the readers receive the information positively or negatively. The study also does not provide explanations on the potential effects of media bias against female CEOs on women who seek executive positions, selection committees, or the public.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

As the limitations of the current study suggested, researchers conducting future studies should extend the length of study period to improve the generalizability of the results. Considering the average duration of the U.S. economic cycle, researchers may extend the study period to five or more years. Examining how news media portray CEOs in other points of the economic cycle, such as depression and growth, might yield meaningful findings for practitioners.

The study suggested that the female CEOs may have received more positive news coverage during a recession. A textual analysis of how news media portrayed CEOs during the same period could provide insights on the language and the frames that writers used to portray female CEOs compared to male CEOs.
Researchers could gain insights on journalists’ perceptions and attitudes toward women in business by conducting focus groups, in-depth interviews, or surveys with journalists. Additionally, researchers could compare journalists’ perceptions toward female CEOs with the patterns of media bias found in this study. Furthermore, conducting research with editors to gain information about the article selection and prioritization process may provide additional explanations on the underrepresentation of women in news media.

In addition, researchers could conduct in-depth interviews with CEOs to gather information on how male and female CEOs differ in interacting with news media. The in-depth interviews may reveal behavioral and attitudinal differences between female and male CEOs when dealing with news media and may produce meaningful results for practitioners.

Further research on how newsreaders and executive selection committee members consume biased information and react to that information may enhance the field of study. Conducting an experiment and comparing the readers’ reactions toward biased and unbiased articles on female and male CEOs could produce more information about the effects of media bias.

Appendix A

Codebook for Newspaper Articles on Female and Male CEOs

A. Article Number
B. Publications
   1= Wall Street Journal
   2= USA Today
   3= New York Times
C. Year
   1=2008
   2=2009
Gender of the CEO mentioned in this article is
1= Female
2= Male
3= Both female and male

1= Indra Nooyi (PepsiCo)
2= Anne Mulcahy (Xerox)
3= Angela Braly (Wellpoint)
4= Irene Rosenfeld (Kraft Foods)
5= Patricia Woertz (Archer Daniels Midland)
6= Susan Arnold (Procter & Gamble)
7= Oprah Winfrey (Harpo Productions)
8= Andrea Jung (Avon Products)
9= Brenda Barnes (Sarah Lee)
10= Ursula Burns (Xerox)
11= Ellen Kullman (DuPont)
12= Carol Bartz (Yahoo)
13= Ginni Rometty (IBM)
14= Steve Jobs (Apple, Inc.)
15= Rupert Murdoch (News Corp.)
16= Lloyd Blankfein (Goldman Sachs)
17= Eric Schmidt (Google)
18= Warren Buffett (Berkshire Hathaway)
19= Rex Tillerson (Exxon Mobil)
20= Jeff Immelt (General Electronics)
21= A.G. Lafley (Procter & Gamble)
22= John Chambers (Cisco Systems)
23= Jamie Dimon (JP Morgan Chase)
E. Writer’s Gender
What is the gender of the writer?
1 = Female
2 = Male
3 = Both female and male
4 = Cannot be determined
5 = No author

F. Main Topic of the Article
This article mainly discusses
1 = CEO’s compensation: CEO’s pay, bonus, perks, etc.
2 = Company activities: merger, new product launch, strategic change, expansion, downsizing, and bankruptcy
3 = CEO profile: CEO’s background and experience
4 = Appointment/Resignation of the CEO
5 = CEO’s health
6 = Financial performance of the company: increase and decrease in stock price, profits, losses, financial analysis, company’s investment
7 = Industry trends: overall industry trends instead of a particular company
8 = Management in general: traits of executives, trends in management and leadership
9 = Legal Issues: Law suits, legal disputes, patent infringement
10 = Government affairs: hearings, campaign sponsorship, and other activities related to government and politics
11 = CEO’s strategic decisions: CEO’s strategic plans and decisions.

G. Quotes from the CEO
Is the CEO quoted (directly or indirectly) in the article?
1 = Yes
2 = No

g1. The quote is regarding
1 = Company activities
2 = CEO’s personal matters
3 = CEO’s health
4 = Financial performance of the company
5 = Industry trends
6 = Management
7 = Legal issues
8 = CEO’s strategic decisions

g2. Does the article note that the CEO rejected to comment?
1 = Yes
2 = No

H. Use of Prefix
Does the articles use a prefix before the name of the CEO?
1 = Yes (the author used Mr. or Ms./Mrs./Miss before the name of the CEO)
2 = No
I. Confidence and Doubt in the CEO
Does the article express stakeholders’ confidence or doubt in the CEO? (Stakeholders include shareholders, stockholders, senior management, employees, customers, government, media, and special interest groups)
1= Yes
2= No
   i1. If yes, the article expresses
      1= Confidence in the CEO
      2= Doubt in the CEO
      3= Both confidence and doubt

J. Overall Tone
What is the tone of the article toward the CEO?
1= Positive
2= Negative
3= Mixed
4= Neutral
5= Cannot be determined

Physical and Personality Description

K. Physical Attribution
Does this article mention the physical attributes of the CEO?
1= Yes
2= No
   k1. If yes, the article mentions
      1= Age
      2= Height/Weight
      3= Health
      4= Presence
      5= Style (Fashion)
      6= Other

L. Educational Background
Does this article mention the CEO’s educational background?
1= Yes
2= No

M. Family
Does this article mention the CEO’s family?
1= Yes
2= No
   m1. If yes, please check all the family members mentioned in the articles
      1= Spouse
      2= Parents
      3= Siblings
      4= Children
      5= Other relatives
N. Gender
Does this article explicitly mention the gender of the CEO?
1= Yes
2= No

n1. Is the CEO quoted addressing gender issues?
In the article, does the CEO address gender issues at workplace or society?
1= Yes
2= No

Performance and Leadership Description

O. CEO’s History with the Company
Does the article mention the CEO’s history with the company? (e.g. Bill Gates has served as CEO since 19XX)
1= Yes
2= No

P. Leadership Style
Does the article mention the CEO’s leadership style?
1= Yes
2= No

p1. If yes, how does the article portray the CEO’s leadership style?
1= Soft leadership
(inspiring, motivating, communicating, understanding, and empowering)
2= Hard leadership
(tough, decisive, clear, focused, competitive, and delivering results)
3= Both

Q. CEO’s Path to Success
Does this article mention the CEO’s success?
1= Yes
2= No

q1. How is the CEO’s path to success described?
1= The CEO became successful deliberately (The article notes the CEO’s typical career track records, strong intention in pursuing senior positions, and persistency in building expertise)
2= The CEO became successful accidentally (The article mentions the CEO’s personal relationship with predecessor or other key decision makers in executive selection process, or the article notes the CEOs’ unusual career track records)
3= No path is described
## Inter-Coder Reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coding Items</th>
<th>Percent Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Article Number</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Publications</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Year</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Gender of CEO</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d1. Name of the Female CEO</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d2. Name of the Male CEO</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Writer's Gender</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Main Topic of the Article</td>
<td>84.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Quotes from the CEO</td>
<td>90.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g1. Subject of the Quote</td>
<td>93.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g2. CEO's Rejection to Comment</td>
<td>96.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Use of Prefix</td>
<td>81.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Confidence and Doubt in the CEO</td>
<td>81.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i1. Confidence or Doubt</td>
<td>81.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Overall Tone</td>
<td>84.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. Physical Attribution</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k1. Types of Attribution</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. Educational Background</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Family</td>
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<tr>
<td>m1. Family Members</td>
<td>100%</td>
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<tr>
<td>N. Gender</td>
<td>90.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n1. CEO Addressed Gender Disparity Issues</td>
<td>87.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. CEO's History with the Company</td>
<td>90.63%</td>
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<tr>
<td>P. Leadership Style</td>
<td>93.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p1. Type of Leadership Style</td>
<td>81.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q. CEO's Path to Success</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q1. Description of the CEO's Path to Success</td>
<td>87.50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: One female and a second male coder coded 32 articles independently to measure the inter-coder reliability.

### References


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Vita

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Variation of internet public opinion during State Visit: take Obama's visit to China as an example

Abstract: The research on variation of internet public opinion during state’s visit is rare. Through manual analysis and subsidiary analysis made by ROST CM software on 8388 news follow-up comment based on events of Obama’s visit to China, this paper finds out the Chinese netizen ‘s variation characteristics of topics, word frequency and emotion as well as American netizen’s topics, word frequency during the time before, in and after the state visit. Then we conclude that, Obama’s visit not only doesn’t improve Chinese internet public opinion successfully, but also results in negative emotions rebound. While Obama establishes a good image in China, his popularity hemorrhages in US. State visit not surely improves public opinion; People’s positive emotion is easy to lost so controlling the time spot accurately during the public opinion guidance is of great importance; Political issues related to fundamental interests is persistent while the economic issues shows strong time-bound.

Key word: State visit, variation of public opinion, Obama, Obama’s visit to China, comment

The state visit always serves for the purpose to improve bilateral relationship. Furthermore, the tendency of public opinion is the very indication to prove whether the aim has been achieved, and enhancement in public commentary is the grand fruition of visit. Analysis on law of variation of public opinion will aid us in having a clear picture of the state visit’ influence on public sentiment, and the command of the term of variation in public sentiment will aid us in having a clear picture of how state visit influences the mass sentiment, in order to notice its achievement and shortcoming, thus gaining advise to instruct diplomatic affairs in the future. Online media is characterized by rapidity and interactivity, and researching on the Internet public opinion should be the most direct and effective way. Nowadays, number of Chinese netizens has reached over 420 million, and in US, the number has exceeded 307 million (approximately accounts for 71.1% of the population), covering all types of people, in all areas. Therefore, studying Internet public opinion is quite significant in knowing the mass sentiment. Moreover, in view of news comments usually demonstrate the first feeling of people after reading news, we assess Internet opinion change through manual analysis and ROST CM software, to discover the hidden conclusions and terms.

I. BACKGROUND

Multi-perspective researches on state visit have been operated both domestically and abroad. Goldstein,Erik has investigated the mechanism of state visit, its aim and astonishing fruition. He believed that purposes of those political figures are mostly focused on a call for tightening their bilateral economic relationship[1]. Volker Nitse studied the influence of visit on international commerce. Through analyzing the data of state visits among French, German and American presidents during 1948 to 2003, he found out that state visit is positively interrelated with exportation. In detail, he concludes that state visit does, and sensitively, relates to increase in commercial trade from 8% to 10% with his application of gravitational model and bridling other elements which might affect commerce. Meanwhile, both state visit and re-visit leave a powerful impact on bilateral commercial growth.[2] Xia Jianjun made a retrospect of the British newspaper report on Chinese human rights issue during President Hu Jingtao’s visit in 3 European countries, 2005. Unfortunately, he noticed that most of the articles just impaired the image of China. He also compared the position changes taken place in British media along with the development of international communication of China, in order to devote constructive suggestions to Chinese press. Besides, there are many other studies on the relationship between public opinion and politics[3]. For instance, Benjamin I. Page, Robert Y. Shapiro, and Glenn R. Dempsey have attempted to find out certain factors that contribute to the variation in whose proportion American citizens in favor of public policy. They believed that different news resources, commentators, authorities and popular leaders bring about positive influence. While unwelcome headmen and special groups of interest, result in negative outcome[4].

Some researchers have also studied the variation of public opinion. William M. Evan holds his stance that the variation might result from substantial change of people’s thoughts, or moreover, from the demographical transformation
itself, as he tried to distinct two reasons that effect public opinion[5]. Abeda Hannan, Runowei Li researched on discrepancy on awareness of breastfeeding in different areas, namely, they analyzed the mass opinion the geographical angle[6].

However, little studies on state visit have been conducted regarding to the mass opinion change. In fact, the variation of public opinion could tell effect of former the most, while such analyze will assist us in getting to know the influence of certain state visit, and if the government has achieved its goal of visit, thus guiding diplomatic affairs henceforth.

II. OBAMA’S VISIT TO CHINA

i. We divide the whole process of Obama’s visit into 3 phases --- the Pre-visit period (from July 29th to Nov 15th, 2009), the In-visit period (form Nov 15th to 18th, 2009), and the After-visit period (from Nov 18th to declination of related news). And we have collected 8,388 news comments from SINA (China) and Yahoo (US). With intellectual analyze and ROST CM software, we will discuss the variation of public opinion in China upon Obama’s state visit in view of topic, word frequency plus emotional alternation, and the American public attitude based on themes and word frequency.

2.1 Variation of Chinese public opinion
2.1.1 Variation of Chinese public topics

Through selecting and analyzing related top 150 news comments at SINA.com, we could draw such conclusions as follow:

Before Obama’s visit, the major topics among Chinese netizens included: Firstly, the prediction towards Obama’s purpose of visit from aspect of politics, economy and military affairs. Netizens believed that the advent of US president was just for their own economic interest, and US would certainly not give up their containment strategy against China. Secondly, the discussion about how would the Chinese government and people react to his visit and to find the appropriate position of the country. It was almost consensus that China should stay highly calm and sensible, and continue to, according to a Chinese saying that, “conceal one's abilities and bide one's time”. Thirdly, the high respect to Taiwan, Tibet and Xinjiang problems. People asserted that the unity of a country is their most substantial benefit. Fourthly, the focus on China’s economy. In reference to economic, social and some other field, netizens pointed out the cursoriness in Renminbi’s appreciation, expressing their discontent toward the demand that urging exchange rate to raise the US government had imposed on China. People also replied intensely to the China and the US Safeguard Action. Some held opinions that a reprisal is just worthwhile, but others suggested we should turn to WTO for arbitration. Finally, the sincere wish for a harmonious sino-US relationship.

During the visit, the Taiwan, Tibet, Xinjiang problems and the issue of China’s economy were set aside. The topics have been extended. In the first place, netizens began to compliment on Obama’s political artistry in answering. What’s more, people were quite interested in his clothing, behavior, even his cars plus agents, and they made humorous comments on those aspects, which all indicate that Chinese netizens tend to demonstrate jocular attitude towards international issues. With the deepening of Obama’s visit, his modest words and deeds, and his personal experience in Indonesia with overseas Chinese, have been gradually leaving good impression on people, that he is prized of “the Most Glamorous US President” and “the Most Popular US President”. However, Obama’s attraction alone just brought about limited amelioration in the US national image. Though Chinese people showed their high respect to the President, they kept sober about issues relating their nation’s own interest. In the second place, that Obama’s younger brother, Mark, who has made his own living in China, has gained respect from Chinese people. In the third place, that Obama’s bow to Mikado has stirred up heated discussion that if such act is suitable and reasonable. In the fourth place, the Chinese netizens paid attention on the expenditure of Chinese officials, for fear that they would spend too much on state banquet. They insisted that Hu Jingtao ’simple dinner with Obama exemplified the positive effect of role model, and related news has harvested 489 comments.
After the visit, netizens set inception about reviewing the following two topics: the Taiwan issue and the aim of Obama’s visit. Aside from continuous focus on Obama himself, his itinerary, retinues’ equipment has greatly aroused public interest. Besides, people concentrated on the mighty status of US and its “hegemonism”. Labeled as the unique superpower in the world, which opinions upon was influenced by such tag to some extent. Finally, there was discourse about the rising of China and the way to place it in a right position. Netizens called for a more unyielding policy when facing US government.

According to the variation in netizens’ topic, we may get those findings:
1. The aim of Obama’s visit and how China locates itself on global stage are closely followed unceasingly by Chinese netizens.
2. Chinese people are both sensitive and excited about the global status of their country during its booming.
3. Issues involved in Taiwan, Xinjiang and Tibet were gained unceasing attention during the whole visit. While economic topics about safeguard act, exchange rate and so on would be faded away with the themes change.
4. Nice personal experience of political character or his relatives in China would help to leave good impression among public. And his own figure contributes to the country’s image a lot. However, the personal image only could just bring limited improvement to his country.
5. Chinese netizens always keep in mind the history of their country being intruded. If a country has invaded China becomes the very factor deciding people’s impression on that country.
6. Chinese netizens are mostly in favor of the view that China should be more resolute when facing America.

2.1.2 Variation of word frequency among Chinese people
In order to substantiate the variation of the topics change, we took advantage of ROST CM software, collected related 4,378 comments, excerpted invalid words, and figured out word frequency of the 3 stages. Part of the frequency is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-visit</th>
<th>In-visit</th>
<th>After-visit</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ranking</td>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Ranking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Old tactics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>economy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>US dollar</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Obama</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>export</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>benefit</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>appreciation</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Remminbi</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>trade</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>cheat</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>tricks</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>National debt</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>tariff</td>
<td>24</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>peace</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>undersell</td>
<td>27</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
In line with Table 1, we noticed that before the visit, Chinese netizens tended to be pessimistic about Obama’s visit (i.e. “old tactics”, “cheat”, “tricks”). Issues about exchange rate (“US dollar”, “appreciation”, “Renminbi”), the US and China Safeguard Action (“export”, “trade”), and the “national debt” and other economic problems are considerably concerned. On the one hand, Chinese people expressed their earnest anticipation toward harmonious Sino-US relationship. On the other hand, they conjectured that “to bridle China” is still the policy that US government insisted. Moreover, they even suggested to “undersell” US dollar to “punish” them, while such proposal just made further proof that the public commonly has a strong will to encourage their government to bear a more resolute attitude when confronting US.

During the in-visit period, people began to discuss fiercely more about their own “Prime Minister” and “Obama”, and they are well impressed by Obama (“taste” and “confidence”). Also, his brother, Mark, was fervently followed by netizens. Exchange rate and other economic issues are cared less (“Renminbi”, “US dollar”), but the detailed itinerary of Obama’s visit became top of the list (“banquet”), and its high frequency indicated that the public were more interested in entertaining issues. Chinese netizens made a retrospect of modern history when concerning about the “Bow to Japanese Mikado Case”. Meanwhile, people tried to investigate if the US had ever invaded China (“only”, “harm”, “history”, “the Eight Power Allied Force”), in order to make it clear that the country is worthy of being getting close to. Thoughts on Sino-US relationship, have been wildly increased compared with those during pre-visit stage (“benefit”, “Sino-US”).

After the visit, the western media and the world position of China received much concern. People are annoyed at extravagant propaganda released by foreign press of the Rising China, since they regarded those news were unfaithful. Netizens believed that “rising” and “developing country” could well define the right status of China on global stage. In addition, Chinese people demonstrated more interest in President Obama, which has been extended to his visits to other countries (“South Korea”, “taekwondo”). Problems as exchange rate, Obama’s family, modern history of Sino-US relationship and so forth started to fade.

Comparing the word frequency with those in 3 stages, we may find out that the frequency has supported the three conclusions we saw earlier in this paper:
1. The performance of US in modern history is an important basis for Chinese people to evaluate Sino-US relationship.
2. Chinese people are quite sensitive to world position of their country, while overplacement would brew their negative emotion.
3. Economic topics have their timeliness. The declination of the word, “Renminbi”, “economic”, in ranking indicates that heated issues like exchange rate and safeguard action were rapidly displaced by others. What’s more, we are also informed of the following: news about leaders’ daily life during state visit often gains more attention among public.

2.1.3 Variation in emotion of Chinese people

From topics and word frequency variation as noted, we may find the alternation of hotspots during Obama’s visit. But it is also significant that grasp of public emotion changes help to understand the effect of state visit and tendency of public opinions. In order to research on the emotion changes of Chinese netizens before and after Obama’s visit to China, we detected 4,378 collected comments with aid of ROST CM software, and figured out following chart:

Chart 1 Emotion changes before and after the visit
According to Chart 1, the proportion of positive emotion among Chinese netizens has been increased from 52.57% to 74.82%; after the visit, it dropped back to 53.01%. While negative emotion is used to account for 24.19%, and during the visit, it decreased to 10.85%, punching back to 27.71% after the visit. Neutral emotion descended to 14.32% from 23.24%, but ascended to 19.28% when the visit is finished. Overall, though positive emotion occupied a leading position throughout all stages, but Obama’s visit brought about unexpected rebound of people’s negative sentiment.

In light of the variation of topics and word frequency, negative emotion during pre-visit period mainly comes from pessimistic prediction to Obama’s visit together with special protectionist tariffs on tire imports from China, exchange rate and discussion about Taiwan, Xinjiang, Tibet Issues. The inclination of positive emotion is directly thanks to nice personal image of President Obama and his courtesy. At the same time, intercommunication between the two countries might enhance fruition of positive emotion; but the declination in it resulted from the return of inertia emotion tendency after certain upsurge, and on the other hand, it should be traced back to reiteration of Taiwan Issue and discontent about the foreign media’s overplacement for China. Those all show that: First, state visit itself will positively alter people’s emotion, but if there happens to be disputes upon substantial benefits regarding to both sides, such upbeat change is going to be reversed. Second, the positive emotion of public is fragile. Even if people can stay optimistic before and after state visit, any tiny conflicts around the end of visit may lead to huge emotional rebound, and the positive things before will be soon abandoned.

2.2 Variation of Internet public opinion
2.2.1 Variation of American public topics

We selected top 150 comments on related news from Yahoo.com, and draw following conclusions:

Before the state visit, the major topics of American netizens are: First of all, the Sino-US relationship. They regarded such relationship as hostile, and expressed their resentfulness towards the change taken place in world status and power between the two countries. Next, is the Dalai Lama Issue. American netizens surmised why Obama refused to meet Dalai Lama. Besides, they generally talked about special protectionist tariffs on tire imports from China and the latter’s appealing to WTO. In addition, they put forward the economic problems and poor quality of Chinese product. On the one hand, Americans said they were quite annoyed at China’s exchange rate policy; on the other hand, they made remonstrance against the business fraud, quality of products, piracy, trade barrier and some other problems of China. Also, people focused on economic issues of United States. They tried to plan and contrive to the recovery of their economy, even boycotting those made in China, and meanwhile, they analyzed why America owes China. Moreover, people showed their interest in the aim of Obama’s visit and his family members including his divorced parents, his father with capacity of violence, and his younger brother sojourning in China. Last but not the least, American netizens thought the media just aggrandized Obama.

During the visit, their topics were added: First, the reason of Obama’s attitude change towards China. Second, Obama’s diplomacy and politics. There was an undercurrent of resentment in their acceptance of his policy of medical
insurance, taxation and religion. Among all comment, people mostly dissatisfied with the current situation about their freedom of speech, and comments concerned has accumulated at least 20. They also pointed out Obama’s visit did little help to achieve his goal, and its effect wasn’t so fine. Thirdly, they expressed their regret that Obama’s speech in China hadn’t been broadcasted. Finally, American netizens talked over Chines ethnicity.

After the visit, the topics were chiefly based on Obama’s own statement. There were also discussion about his age, marriage, family members and so forth.

From the variation of topics before and after the visit, we can grasp that: In the first place, Obama’s visit to China has little influence on the topic change among American netizens, since they have formed a thinking mode that to understand China in a negative way: topics are mainly about Dalai Lama, quality of Chinese goods, ethnic problems, etc. And those remained the same throughout the whole process of visit. At the same time, such topics are negative hotspots about China. Except from Obama Girls, a relatively relaxing and interesting theme about female, no topics raised by American netizens could be labeled as “positive”. In the second place, American netizens began to focus on Obama’s speech in China and Obama’s Girls with the deepening of the visit.

2.2.2 Variation in word frequency of American people

In order to substantiate the variation of the topics change, with the help of ROST CM software, we selected related 4,010 comments, excerpted invalid words, and figured out word frequency of the 3 stages. Part of the frequency is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-visit</th>
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<th>After-visit</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ranking</strong></td>
<td><strong>Word</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ranking</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lama</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tire</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Crap</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Tibet</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Communist</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Tariffs</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Quality</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Debt</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>27</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>Power</td>
<td>30</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

From Chart 2, we can speculate that with the development of Obama’s visit, American people’s attention on China has been decreasing (with the lower ranking of the word “China”), while they kept an close eye on Obama continuously. Before the visit, Tibet is the most popular topic among Americans (“Lama”, “Tibet”), and the dispute between two countries ---- special protectionist tariffs on tire imports from China has aroused intense contention (“tire”, “Tariffs”). And quality of Chinese product was largely castigated (“quality”, “crap”). On the other side, the US people zealously advised on economic problems and national debt of their country (“economy”, “debt”). Among all troubles, the manufacturing is mostly worried by people. In addition, the slight change in China’ global status caused their anxiety (“power”). Communism is the very label that American people tag on China.
During Obama’s visit, the US media reported more of citizens’ right, Obama’s speech, Chinese censorship and some other issues about human rights, together with question of race. Topics like economy, global positions of both two countries and American manufacturing were lasting but started to diminish. That Obama bow to the Japanese Mikado was not less focused compared with those traditional problems. But after all, people strongly complained Obama’s deed (“Impeach”, “Clown”).

After the visit, Obama’s family has risen to the primary topic. Meanwhile, people paid more attention to domestic problems other than China’s. Question of race and the unemployment were the most troubling issues (“black”, “white”, “job”, “economy”), which intensified people’s antipathy over their president.

Examining word frequency change of American netizens in pre-visit, in-visit, and after-visit stage, the following can be concluded:

1. Ideology is the primary factor that Americans consider when treating China. Americans have prejudices towards China, and such bias exactly comes from the lack of identification with Chinese social system since “communism” continuously appeared over and over.
2. Americans showed more interest in home position than others, and they are less influenced by Obama’s visit to China.
3. People are quite sensitive to the fact that the variation in global status occurred between China and the US.
4. American people got more discontented with Obama with the development of the visit.
5. Intrinsic negative topics about China seemed to be more significant than details of Obama’s visit to them.
6. Americans are commonly worried and sensitive status change. They even expressed rudely when commenting this point since words as “crap” and “trash” appeared frequently.

### III. CONCLUSION

Through intellectual analysis and the aid of software, and respectively from topic, word frequency and emotion variation according to Obama’s visit, we can find that Obama’s visit this time not only achieved little breakthrough in ameliorating public sentiment, but also brought huge rebound of negative emotion among his people. Via his visit, though Obama left a nice impression to Chinese, his image in Americans gets worse. When it comes to the policy on China, the gap between his courtesy in state visit and fierce negative attitude of the US public does demonstrate that there exist a large disparity in their official and Internet public opinions. In sum, the Obama’s visit to China has less impact on Americans since they mainly focus on domestic crisis, while Chinese people participate actively in all related discussion: they pay closer attention than people in US.

Besides, we refined following conclusions with discipline:

1. Disputes involving substantial benefits such as Taiwan, Xinjiang and Tibet Issues often last for a long time. While economic topics have timeliness. Chinese people are still impressed by their modern history, which is the most crucial factor deciding the image, even the diplomacy policy of one country.
2. Topics related to their daily life of political figure in state visit just fascinate more people.
3. State visits do not always improve public sentiment, since positive emotion of people is usually changeable. See to it that time and period are well-controlled when guiding the public opinion. Any little conflicts happened approaching the termination of visit will bring about large rebound of people’s emotion, no matter how peacefully and smoothly it goes before.
4. Both the two countries are considerably sensitive to their global status. China hates to be overplaced, while the US disliked their No.1 be challenged.
5. The fine initial impression of political character partly comes from his or his close relative’s personal experience in China. And the elegant image of political figure or his relatives will help to leave a good impression of their country on Chinese people. However, those possibly result in limited amelioration.
6. Chinese netizens insist on face the US in a more resolute way.
7. Americans are still commonly hostile to China. They believe the two countries are in competition, and their enmity is due to their disagreement upon Chinese social system. Intrinsic topics about Chinese negative problems gained more attention than details about Obama’s visit. While the president’s courtesy and modesty together with China’s hard line towards exchange rate has intensify American’s hostility.

Henceforth, we will work on and establish bilingual system of analyzing variation in public opinion, and further our research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
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Reference
Media as a Network of Globalization

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Mass Communication, Society and Globalization
Media as a Network of Globalization

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In my presentation I will examine the application and combination of two theories of natural science in media research. In his book, The Global Imperative. An Interpretive History of the Spread of Humankind, published in 1997, political researcher Robert C. Clark interprets the history of mankind as the history of globalization. His starting point is mankind’s necessity to spread everywhere in the world. This again has resulted from the perpetual struggle to satisfy the needs of a society that is continuously expanding and becoming more complex.¹

When Clark’s model is examined from the perspective of the new theory of networks, it opens possibilities to analyze and explain media phenomena better than earlier as a part of globalization. In his book, LINKED. The New Science of Networks, published in 2002, Albert-Lászlo Barabási means by his network theory that, in principle, we are all interconnected. This interconnection actually includes everything – our biological existence, our social world, our economy, and our religious traditions.² Thus, communication maps on the Internet, maps of companies linked by trade and ownership, maps of interaction between species in ecosystems, and maps of genes functioning together within cells all have the same basic structure in the same way as different people’s skeletons have. According to Barabási, it appears to be a question of the structure and evolution of the complex networks around us being controlled by simple laws of nature.³

Next I will examine more closely the model presented by Clark and how it is used to explain globalization, which I understand to be continuously increasing interdependence⁴.

The basis for the model presented by Clark is the second law of thermodynamics, according to which entropy constantly increases in every closed system. Although the law was formulated to explain the behavior of material and energy, it also more broadly concerns the processes of production and consumption. When man consumes energy, it does not disappear as such, but in practice it can no longer be reused for man’s future needs. Thus, the tendency in all human systems is toward energy loss and entropy.⁵ This concept has also been applied in economic theories, where the model based on this concept is called the thermodynamic economic theory.⁶

Regardless of the law of thermodynamics referring to decay and disintegration, cultures have nevertheless thrived and flourished. According to Clark, this is explained by the ability that complex, developed systems have to transfer their thermodynamic tendency toward disorder and energy loss to neighboring systems. Some of these systems may be nearby, some may be on the other side of the country, and some may even be on the other side of the globe. According to Clark, without this ability to transfer the costs of complexity and growth to other populations, primitive human societies would never have been able to develop agriculture, build cities, or maintain social classes that take no part in the production of food.⁷

The more complicated a system is in question, the more it needs resources like energy and material to grow or even to maintain order, while at the same time it produces an increasing amount of disorder, such as waste. To survive, a complex system needs a

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⁵ Clark 1997, 4–5.
⁷ Clark 1997, 5.
constantly expanding network through which it can transfer lurking disorder elsewhere.\textsuperscript{8}

According to Clark, man has worked a million years to free himself from the shackles of entropy and the second law of thermodynamics. First man moved to new, fertile areas. When that no longer worked, man began to more efficiently utilize local resources with the help of agriculture. When even that no longer worked, trade routes were created to satisfy growing needs. Along with the industrial revolution, man learned to efficiently utilize sources of energy - coal and oil - and learned to transport material and energy from faraway areas relatively quickly. Today the same principles are used to transfer information, media as a part of it. At the same time, however, the population has rapidly grown and systems have become more complicated, for which reason Clark says mankind has not yet been able to shake off the shackles of entropy and the second law of thermodynamics.\textsuperscript{9}

As Clark states in the foregoing, in order to survive, then, a complex system needs a continuously expanding network through which it can transfer lurking disorder elsewhere. In other words, ever since the early stages of mankind’s development, networks have been the starting point for all development.

Hence, also the networks, which Clark says have been essential for the development and increase in complexity of societies, must have the same basic structure as other networks. Accordingly, it is possible to examine any macro- or micro-level media phenomenon from the perspective of networks and network theories. Connectedness is, as stated, a natural characteristic of all phenomena.

A network or graph is an entity formed from nodes and links that interconnect them.\textsuperscript{10} Nodes or connectors with many links exist in complex systems extending from economics to cells. The existence of such nodes is a fundamental characteristic of most

\textsuperscript{8} Clark 1997, 8.
\textsuperscript{9} Clark 1997, 164–165.
\textsuperscript{10} Barábasi 2002, 35.
networks. Highly connected nodes are called hubs. For example, the network architecture of the world wide web is dominated by a few highly connected hubs.\textsuperscript{11}

According to Barábsi, hubs dominate the structure of all networks in which they exist. Thanks to hubs, networks resemble small worlds. In fact, when hubs have links to exceptionally many hubs, they create short paths between all the node pairs in the system. From the perspective of hubs, the world is small.\textsuperscript{12} Thus, according to network theory, we live in a small world, for society is a very dense network. Every person on this earth is only six links away from any other person.\textsuperscript{13}

According to the network theory presented by Barábas, hubs follow strict mathematical laws\textsuperscript{14}, and among them specifically the power law. A histogram that follows the power law is a continuously falling curve, which indicates that alongside many small events there are a few large events. The same pattern has been found in all large networks: the number of nodes with exactly k links to other nodes follows the power law, i.e. decreases according to the power law. A network with power-law distribution has a continuous hierarchy of nodes, which extends from a few hubs to numerous small nodes. This type of network is called a scale-free network. These power laws initially observed on the World Wide Web indicated mathematically precisely for the first time that actual networks are far from random. By studying other networks the conclusion has been drawn that the networks behind complex systems follow the power law in their entirety,\textsuperscript{15} so also media networks

The emergence of power laws in nature is a sign of a shift from disorder to order. Power laws are clear signs of self-organization of complex systems, and hubs are a consequence of power laws.\textsuperscript{16} Therefore, according to Clark, when mankind has sought to create order

\textsuperscript{11} Barábsi 2002, 61–62.
\textsuperscript{12} Barábsi 2002, 68.
\textsuperscript{13} Barábsi 2002, 35.
\textsuperscript{14} Barábsi 2002, 68.
\textsuperscript{15} Barábsi 2002, 72–77.
\textsuperscript{16} Barábsi 2002, 81–82.
under the pressure of the second law of thermodynamics, it has explicitly used networks to do so, just as nature does when shifting from disorder to order. Accordingly, hubs are also “automatically” created in a network and dominate it.

Thus, when we examine Clark’s model of globalization, i.e. continuously expanding networking, media as an example, there too, hubs can be found which in their own time will dominate the whole process. Therefore, most important from the perspective of media and globalization is to concentrate on searching for the hubs of the network in question and analyze cause-and-effect relationships through them.

From the standpoint of media research it is interesting to concentrate especially on the hubs that form the peak of the hierarchy of nodes that is in accordance with the power law. Through them a seemingly large entity shrinks into a “small world” dominated by the hubs at the peak of the hierarchy. Indeed, in the social world hubs are often called opinion leaders, wielders of power, and influencers.17

The development of networks is governed by laws of growth and preferential connection. Firstly, networks have a tendency to grow, which fits in well with the idea of growth caused by necessity brought about by the second law of thermodynamics. When new nodes, for their part, decide to connect, they prefer nodes with the most links.18 What’s more, they prefer nodes that are the fittest. When two nodes have the same number of links, the fittest node attracts new links more quickly. If two nodes are equally fit, the older one has the advantage.19 In addition, there is the phenomenon observed in Bose-Einstein condensation, i.e. the fittest node may take all the links, leaving nothing for other nodes. The winner takes all.20

On the basis of the foregoing, all networks like media networks can be placed into two possible classes in terms of topology. The first class includes networks in which a scale-

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17 Barabasi 2002, 130.
18 Barabasi 2002, 90.
19 Barabasi 2002, 100.
free topology survives regardless of competition, i.e. there is a hierarchy of hubs: on the heels of the largest hub is a smaller hub that attracts almost as many links as the fittest hub. In such a case the hierarchy of nodes follows the power law. In the second class of networks the winner takes all, i.e. the fittest node takes nearly all the links and leaves only a few for others. Such networks develop a star topology in which all nodes are connected to a hub in the center.\textsuperscript{21}

This property, which is characteristic of networks, offers the possibility in media research to explain why, for example, some media have prospered or why an individual media has achieved absolute regional supremacy. Or, one may ask if it is possible, say, in today’s world situation that in the future a certain media, such as the world wide web would eventually take everything.

Also characteristic of networks is that nodes compete for connections because links mean survival in an interconnected world. So media networks around us carry signs of competition in their links and nodes. Thanks to the fitness model, we can describe media networks as competitive systems in which individual media fight for links.\textsuperscript{22} This model also fits in well with globalization, where there has been continuous competition for additional resources. The resources have been used to attempt to create order and more prosperity in societies in order to ward off disorder. Those media, which have not won out in this competition have ended up as victims of disorder in accordance with the second law of thermodynamics.

It appears that combining the model presented by Clark with network theory is well suited for perceiving and explaining media phenomena. By combining these two theories it can be stated that information for its part provides the additional resources with which today we seek to resist the impact of entropy. At the same time information also promotes globalization, the increase of interdependence. Information forms a global network in

\textsuperscript{21} Barábasi 2002, 106.
\textsuperscript{22} Barábasi 2002, 109.
which the media network is a central component. For its part it, like the entire information network, is similar in form and function to other complex networks.

As a short example I take my studies on the western media in Japan in the 1860’s and 1870’s: “The Clash of Interests. The transformation of Japan in 1861–1881 in the eyes of the local Anglo-Saxon press”.23

The emergence in Asia of a western press, and above all an English-language press, may be seen as one aspect of the construction of the British Empire and the performing of Christian missionary work.24 It was nevertheless the opinion of Harry Wildes that the early foreign press in Japan set out above all to satisfy the tremendous thirst for information on this exotic country and its fascinating people.25

The second western newspaper in Japan, The Japan Herald published in Yokohama by Albert W. Hansard26 defined its aims in its first issue on 23rd November 1861 as being to meet the rapidly increasing demand for knowledge about Japan in England and other parts of the world. And this was not restricted to the commercial sphere and questions of social progress but was also concerned with basic facts about this beautiful country and its people.27

By combining above-mentioned theories we can conclude that by those aims defined by The Japan Herald new information provided additional resources for western countries with which to resist the impact of entropy. Information also promoted globalization, the increase of interdependence, as Japan became a part of the global media network.

26 The first newspaper was The Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser published also by Albert W. Hansard (22 June–1 October 1861). Fält 1990, 14.
27 The Japan Herald 23.11.1861.
The most profound significance of combining Clark’s model and Barabasi’s new network theory is probably that it brings to the media research conformity to laws that is characteristic of empirical sciences. Man’s social activity is not an enclave isolated from the surrounding world, so there is reason to be more open to the fact that also media research needs ever more theories from other sciences that explain the activity of people and nature. Since globalization means more mutual dependence, then utilizing Clark’s global imperative and the new network theory means further globalization of the media research, i.e. its increasing dependence on other sciences.
“Where the Growth of Creativity Brings the Rise of Creative Economy,” Message Creation to Enhance Creative Economy in Thailand; the study of TCDC : Thailand Creative and Design Center

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Topic of the submission : Communication Management
Abstract

This research work is carried out with the objective to learn about the message creation practiced by Thailand Creative and Design Center (TCDC) which is a governmental body that has the role to promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach which is a major theme for any public communication activity under the economic policy of the country.

The sources of data studied in this project are the messages created by TCDC, the documents and published media that are related to the topic, and the in-depth interviews with authoritative sources, namely, the Director of TCDC and the Head of Knowledge Division of TCDC.

The tools used for gleaning and analysis the data and information to are the interview template, the template for the analysis on mass media (magazines and websites) and the template for the participatory observation on specific media (exhibitions, learning activities and places).

The results from the study and analyses of the obtained data and information can be divided into two types:

The first type is the data and information from the in-depth interviews with the authoritative sources, to which the Narrative technique is applied in order to analyze the authoritative sources’ experiences of the creation of messages concerning the ‘Creative Economy’ approach, which consist of three main components, namely, content analysis, style analysis and story evaluation. The results from the study reveal that the contents of the stories concerning the ‘Creative Economy’ approach told by TCDC can be categorized into two scales: Global scale and Local scale. The contents are comprised of three major dimensions, which are (1) Importance of the ‘Creative Economy’ approach, (2) Cases of the Successful Operation under the Creative Economy Policy and (3) Movements Concerning the ‘Creative Economy’ Approach.

As for the style of the story telling, TCDC acts like the narrator who looks at itself as a mechanism to generate the collaboration and to promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach by relying on its expertise in creating messages to be communicated to 3 major target audience groups which are the Business Sector (entrepreneurs), Social and Cultural Sector (artists, designers and craftsmen) and Educational Sector (professors, lecturers, and students of all levels). The theme used in the story telling is “Designing is the Major Concept of the Operation under the Creative Economy Policy Which Will Bring to Thailand Economic Prosperity and Stability”. The core of the ‘Value Adding’ to ‘All Products and Services’ is the integration between ‘Cultural Capital’ and ‘Creativity’. To disseminate the ‘Creative Economy’ approach, TCDC uses the ‘Designing’ as the main character of the story in the setting and situation that concern the economic instability in the Old Economy system which has influenced many countries, as well as Thailand, and becomes the major reason why the
‘Creative Economy’ approach is regarded as the main circumstances for the operation under the economic policy. In addition, the main setting is determined with the proposal of the ‘Creative Economy’ approach proposed by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD).

The temporal relations of the transmission from the Old Economy era to the creative economy era, i.e., the western world in 19th century and the Thailand in B.E. 2540 (1997), is used. In addition, causal relations which emphasize on statistical figures, opportunities and advantages caused from the diversified Thai culture. The contents of the messages reflect that this ‘Creative Economy’ approach is a policy that can handle the existing economic crisis by dint of the aforementioned reasons.

The second type is the information resulted from the content analysis which indicates that the content can be divided into four main issues, namely, (1) the design, (2) opportunities or business values from the design, (3) creativity and (4) creation of cultural identity.

For integrating the tool of marketing communications via mass media such as magazines and websites, the analysis of the integrated message is practiced by including the analysis on the objectives of the magazine and internet media. The results from the analysis reveal that most of the studied messages have the contents that are informative, the amount of which comes in the first place, followed by the amounts of contents that are educating and entertaining, respectively. The type that comes in the last place is the persuasive content.

The analysis on message in specific media such as exhibitions, learning activities and places relies on the analysis on the objectives of the exhibitions, learning activities and places media. The results from the analysis reveal that that most of the studied messages have the contents that are educating, the amount of which comes in the first place, followed by the amounts of contents that are entertaining and informative, respectively. The type that comes in the last place is the persuasive content.

Introduction

Since 2003, Thailand Creative and Design Center or TCDC has been operating under the supervision of the Office of Knowledge Management and Development or OKMD, with the main mission to create the collaboration among the business sector, entrepreneurs and craftsmen. TCDC has the role to create the awareness and utilization of the ‘design’ as an important tool to create and add values to products and services. In addition, TCDC also promotes and presents the works of Thai designers in both local and global scales, and serves as the hub for knowledge sharing and exchange, meeting and operating any business activity that is based on the concepts of designs that are complete, continuous and systematic.

It can be said that the mission that Thailand Creative and Design Center (or hereinafter will be called ‘TCDC’) is responsible for has been set under the policy made by governmental organizations. During that period, there were local and global economic crises caused from the economic instability. For Thailand, the Creative Economy’ approach is being focused because it is believed to be an important tool that Thailand can use in order to survive the economic downturns that have been caused from the global economic crises.

John Howkins, an expert in the global economic analysis stated in his book- ‘THE CREATIVE ECONOMY: How people make money from ideas’, which TCDC has published
in Thai language, that the reason why the world needs to adopt the ‘Creative Economy’ approach as the new economy system is that there have been many changes in the old economy system, which is the system that relies on productions, exchanges and consumptions of products and services in accordance to people or consumers’ needs and wants, by using the limited resources available for the production (John Howkins, 2001, translated into Thai by Kunakorn Weenichwiroon, 2009).

Dr. Suphawuth Saichuer gave his opinions on the economic crisis by stating that the latest economic crisis during 2008-2009 will be the cause and the motive that increase the roles of the ‘Creative Economy’ approach because this economic crisis took place on many financial institutes in many developed countries, especially the U.S. which is one of the greatest market for Thai exported products. When consumers in the U.S. decrease their consumptions and increase their savings, Thailand has to adjust itself by changing its production routine from quantitative manufacturing to qualitative production, which is based on the ‘Creative Economy’ approach (Suphawudh Saichua, 2009: 10).

In addition, there is a comparison between the consumption in the old economic system or the consumption market and that in the new economic system (the creative economy) that emphasizes on values and emotions. The results from this comparative study reveal that marketers or communicators should be idea-centric in producing and communicating because in the new economic system, the main product is the idea. Thus, the communication scheme will change from the one that concentrating on utilizations and functions of products will be replaced with the scheme that concentrates on emotional and feeling dimension. Consequently, the marketing technique should aim to influencing consumers’ perceptions and attitudes by creating the Experience-Attitude. This will create the new marketing dimension that fills the market space of the emotional products instead of depriving the market shares from the existing products. Hence, the messages conveyed to consumers will not emphasize on sales; rather, they must aims to creating perception of the emotional values of the products (Chaipranin Wisudhipol, 2009: 82).

The characteristic of the creative economic system is different from that of the old economic system because in old economic system, only marketing research might enable a manufacturer to manufacture a product that serves customers’ needs. On the contrary, the creative products are more intangible than the conventional products; thus, the communication always needs to create the emotional meanings and symbols to the consumers and the public. Thailand needs to adjust itself to become a country that uses the ‘Creative Economy’ approach. Therefore, the pursuance for new ways or opportunities that make the application of this approach succeed and lead to the aforementioned advantages is a challenge to the creativity and capabilities of all the agents related to policy making, especially governmental ones.

From 2003 to present time, even though TCDC has not had the role to directly support the creative economy policy by the government, TCDC has reflected its emphasis on continuously disseminating the ‘Creative Economy’ approach to the public via its arrangement of the Creativities Unfold, the first of which was held in 2006, which has been being held for five consecutive years, and its arrangement of the Creative Thailand in 2007 which was a great event, together with its production of books and monthly magazines, its exhibitions and its being a library for the design and materials of Thailand that gleans and disseminates the knowledge on designing and trains the entrepreneurs and those interested in designing by using the learning activities related to designing creative economy and business.
management. Therefore, it is interesting to learn about the contents of the messages that TCDC communicates through public media to see how the contents are, what channels the messages have been sent through and what contributions to the dissemination of the ‘Creative Economy’ approach the messages have made.

**Research Objectives**

To learn about the message creation practiced by Thailand Creative and Design Center (TCDC) which is a governmental body that has the role to promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach.

**Research Methodology**

This research work uses the Qualitative Method, the details of which are stated below. In-depth Interviews with the Director of TCDC, the Head of the Content and Knowledge Division and the Head of the Exhibition Division are carried out in order to learn about the types of the contents in the messages that have been created through the message creation process of TCDC, which support or promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach in Thailand. The information from the interviews will be analyzed with the Narrative principle.

2. The analysis on the message contents in the media relies on the analysis on the contents concerning the major issues.

3. The Participatory Observation is also carried out in order to learn about the specific media such as exhibitions, learning activities and places. This method relies on the analysis on the natures and objectives of the message in each medium.

**Research Tool**

1. The template for the in-depth interviews emphasizes on the ideas, schemes and policies for creating or producing the messages to promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach. The template consists of two sessions. The first session is related to fundamental information on the authoritative sources, their past experiences, responsibilities, routine tasks and relations between experiences and current statuses or roles. The second session concerns the message creation to promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach by TCDC, the definitions of the term ‘creative economy’ by TCDC, the creations of contents and messages, the communicative channels or tools used, the way to narrate or create the stories concerning the creative economy, the consequences from the actions, and the expectation and communication techniques in the future.

2. The analysis template is used for the analysis on the contents of the messages in the integrated media that TCDC uses, namely, mass media: websites and magazines, and specific media: exhibitions, learning activities and places.

3. The participatory observation template is used for the analysis on the specific media that TCDC uses. The observed issue is the objective of the message in each medium such as to inform, to educate, to persuade and to entertain. Furthermore,
the contents of the messages will be analyzed in order to find out whether they promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach by using facts, opinions or persuasions.

Results from Data Analysis

Session 1: In-Depth Interview Using Narrative Technique

The first type is the data and information from the in-depth interviews with the authoritative sources, to which the Narrative technique is applied in order to analyze the authoritative sources’ experiences of the creation of messages concerning the ‘Creative Economy’ approach. The results from the study reveal that the contents of the stories concerning the ‘Creative Economy’ approach told by TCDC can be categorized into two scales: Global scale and Local scale. The contents are comprised of three major dimensions, which are (1) Importance of the ‘Creative Economy’ approach, (2) Cases of the Successful Operation under the Creative Economy Policy and (3) Movements Concerning the ‘Creative Economy’ Approach.

The type of the story is analyzed in the 7 elements as shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Results from Analysis</th>
<th>Interview Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Narrator</td>
<td>Supervisor (Supportive Expert)</td>
<td>“We see it as a home of designers. Everybody is welcome to live happily together. This organization might not big and its influences are limited to certain fields and certain numbers of people. But I believe that it will be consistently growing because it is a governmental body that is a part of the economic system, and uses designing as the medium to develop people’s life quality in all respects, not only in term of finance.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience</td>
<td>Business Sector Social and Cultural Sector Educational Sector</td>
<td>“As for the audience, we should mainly focus on the graduates that have jobs because we believe that the students should be supervised by their universities or academic institutes. For the graduates, we are their helper that encourages them to learn new things all the time.” “Students of all levels are greatly interested in getting knowledge from us and joining our activities.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Think, Do and Earn “Designing is the main concept of the operation under the creative economy policy and will bring economic prosperity and stability to Thailand.”</td>
<td>“Designing concerns the development of the way of thinking which everybody can apply, and in any condition. The key point is to link this designing to economy because when we discuss the designing without including the economic dimension, people will not realize its importance, but if we can explain its importance in term of economy, people will comprehend and accept it.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character</td>
<td>Designing</td>
<td>“TCDC is not exactly a design center. Rather,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
it is an economic organization that uses designing as a medium to create values or to extend businesses.”
“Generally, the organization takes parts in urging people to be aware of the designing and to apply the designing to the development of their life quality and economy.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>UNCTAD, Old Economy VS Creative Economy, Global Flow to the Region and to Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|        | “Many countries have begun their movements because they are aware of the effects the problems. A precise example is America, which has extended the way of thinking and is now exporting it. Many countries in Asia also start doing so. South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong are working on it because they realize that designing is a tool to develop business and economy.”
|        | “One thing that we have started doing is to promote and to add the term ‘Creativity’ in the governmental context. Whether this term is used meaningfully or not does not matter. As long as it is included in the 11th national development plan, it shows that TCDC has made some contributions. First, we discussed the value creation; and then, we realized that the world is focusing on cultural industries, so we shifted again until now, when we are discussing the creative economy. This makes me understand that the things we are discussing are universal.” |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temporal Relations</th>
<th>Late 19th Century and the Period of Economic Crisis in Thailand in 1997</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“It was the period of Mr. Taksin’s government or around 2004 when there were discussions on the decline of the capacity of the country. It was also the time when all industrial countries such as China and South Africa adjusted themselves in order to conquer the basic product markets. Thus, the market of products that had labours as a capital declined. I believe that the government at that period realized that we could not fight in the same way. We needed new tools and equipments.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal Relations</th>
<th>Statistical figures, Opportunities, Advantages from the diversified Thai culture, and Global changes that include Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|                   | “The advantages in terms of history, customs, culture and service idea should be applied to the development of products and services in order to generate more advantages. They can be economic tools that enable us to shift from the value adding idea to value creation for our way of thinking by using our creativity. This action may generate more benefits and advantages because it enables us to emphasize on our unique identities. Thus, we have
Session 2: Data on Message and Integrated Marketing Communication Tool Using the Analysis on Message Content and Objective and the Participatory Observation

The content can be divided into four main issues, namely, (1) the design, (2) opportunities or business values from the design, (3) creativity and (4) creation of cultural identity. Furthermore, the communication has four objectives, namely, (1) to inform, (2) to educate, (3) to persuade and (4) to entertain. The √ marks in the following table show the existences of each matter and the figures 1-4 show the order of the most found matter (1 representing the most found matter whilst 4 representing the least found one).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analyzed Matter</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Magazine</th>
<th>Website</th>
<th>Exhibition</th>
<th>Learning Activity</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Design</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Opportunity/ Value</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Creativity</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Identity</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Message Objective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- To inform</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- To educate</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- To persuade</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- To entertain</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the participatory observation leads to the realization that most of the contents of the messages that TCDC presents through its different media are informative. At the same time, the amount of the educating contents comes in the second place, followed by the amount of entertaining contents. The least found content type is the persuasive one.
As for the learning activity medium, the most precise objective is to educate whilst the exhibition medium will entertain the audiences before informing and educating them, respectively, and the persuasion comes in the last place.

**Conclusion and Discussion**

From all the information and data presented above, it can be concluded that the message creation to promote the ‘Creative Economy’ approach by TCDC can be explained with the Narrative technique that the contents of the messages link the global issues with the local ones. In addition, ‘designing’ is the main character that depicts the role of the supervisor who turns the designing into the way of thinking in operating under the creative economy policy. The setting is the instability of the world economy and the ‘Creative Economy’ approach proposed by UNCTAD. Statistics and all supportive data create the causal relation that points out the importance of the creative economy in the temporal relations that rely on the linkage between the period in which the world faced economic crises and the period when Thailand faced great economic crises. The main target audiences are entrepreneurs, students, and craftsmen or designers.

Furthermore, TCDC also uses the integrated communication tool that consists of mass media such as magazines and websites, and specific media such as exhibitions, learning activities and places in order to present the messages concerning the design, value creation or addition via the design, creativity and creation of cultural identities, with the major goal to inform the audiences. In addition, the minor goals of the communication are to educate, to entertain and to persuade the audiences, respectively.

TCDC uses each of the communication tools in accordance to the style of contents and communication objectives. For instances, TCDC uses magazines to inform the audiences, uses exhibitions to attract people’s attentions and to entertain the audiences, uses websites to facilitate the information provision and to allow the audiences to record the data and information, and uses learning activities to educate the participants.

**Reference**


**Interview**

Abhisit Laisattruklai. *Director of TCDC*. TCDC, 6 May 2011
ISLAM, IDENTITY AND NEGOTIATION VIA SOCIAL CONNECTEDNESS

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Topic: the use of social networking for community work by members of Muslim minorities in Australia and the United States
ISLAM, IDENTITY AND NEGOTIATION VIA SOCIAL CONNECTEDNESS

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RMIT

The author acknowledges the assistance of the Center for Religion and Media at NYU

Introduction

The key topic proposed for this paper is how members of Muslim minority populations in Australia and the United States use social networking as part of their work with their own communities. The media is a primary source of awareness about public issues and concerns (Pan & Kosicki, 2001; McQuail, 1999; Chadwick, 1998), shaping social discussion through framing – providing a structure for which events and issues are interpreted by readers or listeners (De Vreese & Boomgaarden, 2003). As a socially created product (Gan, Teo & Detenber, 2005) news provides a link between audiences and the institutions of society affecting their lives.

The use of online media has made possible for religious communities an active e-public sphere of discussion about issues of faith, practice, and interfaith relationships. This discourse and the people who engage in it extend beyond more conservative or traditional approaches and interpretations of religion, based on electronic communication instead of face-to-face communication and so overcoming theological objections to participation in public life because of gender or cultural/political considerations. For example, Jewish communities have found that the internet has provided an opportunity to address the middle east conflict with Arab youth (Yablon, 2007). Lerner (2008) found communities of Orthodox and Haredi Jews use of the internet spanned religious, communal, personal, and educational purposes including the maintaining of web sites for theological and social information, and that the online presence of these communities reflected the breadth of Jewish religious diversity. The negotiated use of the internet has also been observed among female members of ultra-Orthodox Jews for whom the medium is officially frowned upon as a carrier of secular values (Livio & Weinblatt, 2007). The intersection of Islam and the internet has given rise to a global e-ummah – a phrase referencing the “global village” (McLuhan & Fiore, 1967) used (not exclusively) by McLuhan to describe a future where the main barriers to human communication - the severities of time and distance - could be altered, and the word “ummah” referring to followers of the Prophet Muhammad. For British Muslims, the internet quickly became an important communication tool for the expression of Islamic identity (Bunt 1999). Members of young Muslim minorities in Western, non-Muslim countries such as the United States use the internet to engage in the formation of Islamic community and identity on the basis of visibility, individual choice, transnationalism and social ethics (Schmidt 2004). Young people in both Muslim majority countries and members of Muslim diasporas are adept at internet communication and use, and mediate their religion online in the process of obtaining both spiritual and material aims (Echchaibi 2009).
Existing research

It has often been suggested that communication online is a manifestation of McLuhan's predictions (Van der Laan, 2009; Hodge, 2003) in that it enables people to talk within international arenas, businesses to reach markets across geographical boundaries, and movements to expand above national or local frameworks. Perhaps most importantly, it allows entire societies to begin a process of redefinition and engagement, through new modes of communication – thus fulfilling McLuhan's assertion that society was evolving from the timely and methodical linear projection of culture by books and newspapers of the print media era, to a world where the impact of fragmented and instantaneous output of electronic media could be received, literally, at the click of a button; and consolidating Anderson’s concept of imagined communities (Anderson, 1991) where a “nation” is imagined by the users of media because of the impossibility of experiencing it in real time and space.

Studies on societal perceptions of religious minorities and the media have focused on newspapers (for example, Ahmad, 2006) or television (for example, Cañas, 2008; Miladi, 2008; Banaji & Al-Ghabban, 2006; Buhle, 2006; Stratton, 2005), or comparative content and textual analyses of media coverage of Islam or Muslims – for example, Martin and Phelan (2002)’s research on the coverage of Islam by five US based TV networks (CNN, ABC, CBS, NBC and FOX). The research that has looked at the portrayal and self-representation of Muslims online has focused on Islamic communities in Europe and the United States. This paper looks at the use of social networking media by members of Muslim minority communities in the US and Australia. It is hoped that this paper provides insights into the use of social media by Muslim community members for whom the internet has become normative in daily life. Its significance is demonstrated by the fact that recent ethno-cultural studies of the media have focused on representations of Muslim minorities in the Western media and the practices or perspectives of Muslims set against a post-September 11 milieu. However these studies do not take into account the growth in the use of non-traditional media such as Twitter and Facebook. The new insights gleaned from the representation of two examples of Muslim minority communities in the content of their respective Facebook, Twitter or Youtube presences, and the use of social networking by Muslims in their work with their communities, constitutes a new contribution to the socio-cultural media knowledge base.

Research questions

The aims of the research described in this paper are:

- To analyse how members of Muslim minority community groups in Australia and the US use social networking sites (such as Facebook and Twitter)

- To compare the similarities and differences between the use of these sites by members of Muslim minority communities in the two countries studied

Methodology

The approach taken to the proposed research project is an inductive approach, using a socio-culturalist perspective. In this approach, the functions of the media in social life
are emphasized, and social factors are acknowledged as an influence on media production and reception (McQuail, 2000). It therefore is suited to the nature of the research, which looks at the use of social networking sites as media forms that are highly interactive and which reflect the role of media in social life.

The two qualitative methodologies that will be used for the proposed research project are textual analysis and online interviews. The textual analysis will be used to fulfil the objective of analysing how Muslim community groups in Australia use social networking sites. Specifically, the proposed research focuses on the RMIT University Islamic Society or RMITIS (a Muslim student group based in Melbourne who organise events and facilitate awareness of their activities using Facebook), and the Islamic Center at NYU (a New York-based group that organises meetings and events, and records its activities, among its members and alumni using Youtube, Twitter and Facebook). There are various similarities between the two universities including their locations in the heart of metropolitan cities (with both being non-traditional campuses in that office blocks, public streets and retail outlets are scattered in between their buildings), and their active Muslim student bodies. Textual analysis is used to interpret media texts and is chosen because of its potential to explore the ways in which the selected sites construct and represent their communities. It is a methodology that provides depth of analysis crucial for inductive qualitative research (Lindlof, 1995) and allows for an understanding of the media’s role in cultural construction (Fürsich, 2009; Wolf, 1988). Online interviews in a semi structured, open-ended style will be used to fulfil the objective of comparing the similarities and differences between the use of these sites by the two Muslim minority communities.

Findings

The respondents consisted of 36 Muslims in Australia and the United States who were between the ages of 18 and 49, except for one respondent who was over 65 years of age. Twenty one respondents said they were male, thirteen said they were female and two did not want to reveal their gender.

• Social media is very much a part of the communal lives of the members of Muslim minorities in the US and Australia, who responded to the online survey. The overwhelming majority of these Muslims (35 out of the 36 respondents) said that they used Facebook in the course of their work with Muslim communities, and half (18 out of 36 respondents) across both minority populations said they used Youtube in their community-related work or interaction. Of the “big three” social networking sites Twitter was the least used with only 8 of the 36 American and Australian Muslim minority members who responded to the survey saying they used Twitter as part of their community work.

• The use of Facebook, Youtube and Twitter as highly interactive communication reflecting the social role of media was reflected in the benefits that respondents said they believed in, as one of the reasons for using social media in community work. Of the 36 respondents, 31 (or 86%) believed that social media gave Muslims a voice. Twenty (more than half) of a
predominantly male group of respondents saw social media as a means to get female community members more involved in community work.

- The four most popular reasons for using social networking sites in Muslim community work among survey respondents are the flexibility of these sites (being able to reach both a specific, targeted audience and a wide audience), convenience, and interactivity. Fourteen of the respondents said an additional reason they chose social networking sites for Muslim community work was because it offered the chance to interact with non-Muslims.

- Misgivings were expressed by the respondents over the use of social media in community work. One Muslim said “fringe arguments or approaches to life have a greater chance of exposing themselves to younger community workers and volunteers or younger muslims in general” – a view echoed by another respondent who said on social media, Muslims were still “bound by traditional groupings and focus on stopping misinformation. Instead of generating information”

**Conclusion**

Members of Muslim minority groups in Australia and the US who responded to an online survey about their use of social media for community work are active members of Facebook, with a smaller proportion of respondents saying that they use Twitter and Youtube in the course of their work with Muslim communities. More than half of the Muslim Australians or Muslim Americans who responded to the survey believed that social media gave Muslims a voice. The respondents were predominantly male. More than half of the group believed that social media was an effective means of getting more female members of Muslim minority groups to be involved in community work. Among different reasons cited for the use of social media in community work are convenience because of the wide usage of sites like Facebook, interactivity, the ability to connect with a wider audience of people including interaction with non-Muslims, and the ability to target a specific audience (eg members of a particular campus Islamic society). However some respondents were concerned over what they saw as the dangers of social media including the spreading of non-orthodox or non-mainstream Islamic views to young Muslims, and the potential of social media to inflame rivalry or conflict between different groups of Muslims.

**References**


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CONTESTED MEANING OF ETHNIC ADVERTISING IN MALAYSIA

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CONTESTED MEANING OF ETHNIC ADVERTISING IN MALAYSIA

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Abstract

Research on ethnic advertising has been accounted for the past decades. Yet, for most of time they were conducted from business perspective using product-based advertising. Focusing on different genre known as festival advertisements, this article examines the cultural signifiers embedded within the ads and how it used to aim its target (ethnic) audience. This study particularly looks into Petronas’ festival advertisements, shown between 1996 and 2000, that have been significant and influential for Malaysians for its portrayal of cultural signifiers in conjunction with a series of religious/cultural period observed by Malaysians. To do this, I used interpretive content analysis to explore, expose and explain the construction of cultural signifiers in the advertisements by cross examining between the religious/cultural period and the targeted ethnic group. In doing so, the similarities and differences of the cultural signifiers among the diverse ethnic group are discussed against the context of socio-politc of Malaysia. Additionally, the result of this study is attempted to reveal the implications of the festival advertisements on its sponsor.

Keywords: festival advertisements, ethnic advertising, Petronas, Malaysia

Background and Significant of Study

Festival Advertisements
Petronas, a national oil and gas company, first initiated the trend of festival advertisements in 1996 in a bid to foster racial harmony among the diverse ethnic groups in Malaysia. This is attempted by incorporating the diverse cultural and religious values in advertisements that coincides with the major festival celebration in Malaysia, namely Chinese New Year, Hari Raya Aidilfitri, Deepavali and Independence Day. Chinese New Year in Malaysia is celebrated by the Chinese to mark the new moon (year) according to the Chinese lunar calendar while Hari Raya Aidilfitri is observed by Muslims to culminate the end of the month of Ramadan (fasing month) (Festival & Celebration, 2010a, 2010c). Deepavali is mainly celebrated by Indian Hindus where this celebration originates in Hindu religious scriptures (Festival & Celebration, 2010b) and Independence Day is celebrated to mark the anniversary of the nation’s independence from the British colonization. All the four festivals are gazetted public holidays in Malaysia.
The festival advertisements campaign was sponsored by Petronas, short for Petroliam Nasional Berhad, which is a state-owned oil and gas company in Malaysia. The company’s main business operation can be categorized into three activities: upstream activities, downstream activities and international operations. Upstream oil activities involve oil exploration, development and production of crude oil and natural gas while downstream operation involves oil refinery activities, gas business, petrochemical business, logistics and maritime business and marketing of petroleum refined products such as diesel, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), kerosene, motor gasoline, lubricants and bunker fuels and international operations involve both upstream and downstream activities abroad (Petronas, 2005a). It also has ultimate rights on oil exploration and control of petroleum resources throughout Malaysia following the legislation of *Petroleum Development Act* in 1974 (Petronas, 2005a).

Today, Petronas is a successful organization in Malaysia, particularly for its investments and businesses in the international arena. The company is now known as one of the new seven sisters (a group of influential oil and gas companies around the world) (Hoyos, 2007), was ranked at number 13 among the most profitable top companies around the world and positioned at 80 in the ‘Fortune Global 500’s largest corporations’ in the same year (Fortune, 2009a; 2009b). It also has four subsidiaries listed on the Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange (KLSE) and investments in more than 32 countries around the world (Petronas, 2005a).

I intent to research this campaign because, although the festival advertisements can be categorized as a good will messages during festive season, the fact that the campaign promote racial harmony and unity among Malaysians with extensive using of cultural signifiers raises interesting questions and is worthy of exploration. In addition, each advertisement runs between 60 and 180 minutes in the form of a mini soap drama. Despite most empirical research indicating mixed reactions towards ethnic advertising, with little confusion as to their intended message, I contend to offer the Petronas campaign from a new breadth of perspective. To do this, I have further elaborated the technique used to interpret the festival advertisements in the following sections.

**Data collection**

**Compilation of festival advertisement**

Twenty-two of Petronas’ festival advertisements were finalized for the purpose of this study. The sampling was based on a five-year period, i.e. festival ads that were shown between 1996 and 2000.

The festival advertisements were accessed through multiple sources such as online sites, i.e. Petronas’ previous and current corporate websites, YouTube and physical
sources where DVDs containing a compilation of the late Yasmin Ahmad’s written and/or directed commercials were obtained. During the compilation period, some of the festival advertisements also appeared in online news portal, political and individual blogs, which help in confirming the intended time and festival. Through the multiple online sites, the samples were cross-checked and matched systematically between the festival and the year it was broadcasted via TV channels.

**Method**

I have consciously placed this research within an interpretive framework with the intention to explore and address the texts, i.e. Petronas festival advertisements within the Malaysian context and society. This setup allows for understanding of meanings that autonomously constructed according to context (Wodak et al, 2009, p. 4) rather than on a set of protocols.

For this reason, interpretive content analysis as the aim is to analyse the texts in a more holistic approach (i.e. taking into account of the overall contexts of the text or words presented) (Ahuvia, 2001) rather than exclusively selecting and analysing repeating words. I contend to use this method because it is an appropriate research method, particularly when dealing with large amount of unstructured data that has multiple meanings and the context of data influences the interpretation of meaning (Krippendorff, 2004). In doing so, the data for this study are analysed and generated inductively, whereby cultural nuances and practices are taken into consideration during coding and analysis. This particular technique, as opposed to statistical analysis, orients the researcher to intently interpret issues that are contained in the advertisements and subsequently facilitates in generating and understanding how the advertisements are constructed and presented.

**Data Analysis**

This interpretive research begins with extensive exploration the Petronas festival advertisements, whereby I closely read the signs and symbols used in the advertisements. These signs are read together with the narrative and messages intended in the advertisements. Other strategies such as the arrangements, executions, presentation and the order of the signs and symbols are also taken into consideration. In doing so, the festival advertisements are inductively interpreted. The analysis presents the empirical material, which identified over twenty-two festival advertisements (see Table 1: Petronas Festival Advertisements by the Year).

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1 Yasmin Ahmad is the pioneer and creative director who initiated the Petronas festival advertisements through Leo Burnett (Malaysia).
The table below indicates the festival advertisements presented by Petronas between 1996 and 2000. Each advertisement is indicated with the original names given by Leo Burnett (Malaysia), the ad agency that produced most of Petronas festival advertisements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Petronas Festival Advertisements by the Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Festival Advertisements</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this research

**Findings**

This research finds that both similarity and differences between the twenty-two festival advertisements. They are described as follows:

**Similarities**

The similarity of the festival advertisement can be seen in the form of narratives and messages portrayed in the ad. These narratives and messages conveyed in a story telling style to the audience suggesting a form of nation building strategy. For example: “This year two worlds come together. But for some, the two world were never apart” (Friends again, 1996), “It doesn’t take festive season to bring different worlds together” (Different Worlds, 1997; 1998), “Forty years of Independence. It is time to believe in ourselves” (Shoes from Gombak, 1998) and “This story is not about winning or losing, it’s about the importance of staying united” (Boat race, 1999), are some examples used in the festival advertisement indicating nation building.

One of the important nation building strategies in Malaysia is ethnic relations among the diverse ethnic groups. Following a bloody ethnic riot in 1969\(^2\), the Malaysian

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\(^2\) The ethnic riot was, although due to several contributing factors, primarily noted as a result of tensions between two rallying political supporters that eventually witnessed more than 190 deaths, 409 injured and thousands of homes destroyed (McGregor, 2008).
Government has initiated various policies to prevent further clashes in the country. One of them is the National Cultural Policy (1971) whereby this policy aims to formulate a uniform Malaysian identity. This policy sees mass media, among other medium as an important tool that can foster national identity among the ethnic groups in Malaysia. Hence TV programs, including advertising, are subjected to portray Malaysian identity. Thus, the narratives and messages indicated in the festival advertisements do portray a unifying Malaysian identity through the use of narratives and messages.

Other similarities between the festival advertisements is that the emphasis on family values. Almost all the festival advertisements analysed for this research does portray elements of family values. This is portrayed in the form of relationships between family members or upholding traditional values and heritage that has been passed on from one generation to another (e.g. Duelling Masseurs, 1996; 1997; Forgiving, 1998; You are my universe, 1998; No charge, 1999; Reunion, 1999 and Reunion, 2000). Often, family values in the festival advertisements are portrayed with strategic use of emotional appeals (both happy and sad) to a certain degree.

The combination use of family values and emotional appeal appears to evoke nostalgia among the viewers of these festival advertisements. Nostalgia, a feeling for longing of the past, is particular has two inflections on the viewers of Petronas festival advertisement: (1) refers to childhood period and the surrounding context and (2) which evokes notion of bittersweet feelings on past relationships with close individuals (often-close family members). Such feeling, suffice to say, are rather potentially high among viewers due to the timing of the advertisements, i.e. festive season. Hence, the strategic family values and strong emotional appeal to some extend validates the authenticity of narratives and messages presented in the festival advertisements.

**Differences**

The differences in the Petronas festival advertisements are through the extensive use of cultural rhetoric and representations. This is significant particularly when the festival advertisements making reference to specific ethnic group. For instance, the use of a specific image: traditional house, decorative/ornaments: bamboo oil torch (Friends again, 1996; Forgiving, 1998; No charge, 1999; Umbrella, 2000), oil lamp, rangoli (colourful floor-art) (Duelling Masseurs, 1996; 1997; 1999; You are my universe, 1998, I see, 2000), red banners/couplets (Friends again, 1996) are rhetoric strategy that is intensely featured in the festival advertisements.

The use of extensive cultural rhetoric and representations in this case are considered as cultural cues for the intended audiences. The fact that the messages of the advertisements are of nation building strategy (which means the majority of diverse
ethnic groups are able to grasp the message), the use of particular cultural cues signify that the advertisements is making a reference to particular ethnic group, and that means, enhancing the image presented in the campaign. Although to some extent, the portrayal of cultural cues does imply the notion of stereotyping, yet in this study, such attempt can be considered as positive stereotyping. The positive stereotyping in this instance means as a form to educate viewers some cultural representations that are important to the specific ethnic groups.

Other symbolic strategies that belongs to a particular groups are: rituals such as angpaw-gift giving, oil baths, fasting during Ramadan or music or jingles like Indian (classical) carnatic music, Chinese Opera, traditional Malay poetry such as: puisi, sajak (Different Worlds, 1996; 1997; Duelling Masseurs, 1996; 1997; 1999; No charge, 1999, Reunion, 1999 and Reunion, 2000) or vernacular or dialect phrases are also prevalent in the ads (You’re My universe, 1998; No charge, 1999; Bush, 2000; Gossips, 2000; Jokes, 2000).

Often these rituals are strategically used to complement the narratives and messages intended in the festival advertisements. The combination use of narratives and messages and rituals presents an authentic representation of the ethnic groups. This attempt appears to be effective as the intended message in the advertisements often hit the nail in the head for the viewers. Due to this, it can be said the campaign has been successful in attracting viewers and is currently running for the 15th year continuously (as of year 2011).

**Discussion**

The analysis reveals that festival advertisements are produced with the extensive use of cultural rhetoric belonging to the diverse ethnic groups in Malaysia. On one hand, Petronas celebrates diversity by featuring delicate elements belonging to certain ethnic group yet at the same time emphasis on the racial unification through narratives and messages suggesting that: *We are different but we are same*. In this way, the company appears to communicate issues (such as ethnic relations, diversity and family values) which are important in the Malaysian context such as the nation building strategy.

The interpretive aspect of festival advertisements also offers interesting findings particularly in understanding Petronas’ position as a national oil and gas company establishes its effort in promoting such campaign to Malaysians. Petronas’ attempt in promoting rich and diverse cultural rhetoric facilitated the company to increase its capital accumulation over the past years. The impact of the festival advertisements has led the company to continue advertising on every festive occasion. In recent years, Petronas has successfully made name and became one of the Top 30 Most
Valuable Brands in Malaysia, which I believe partially due to its success on its festival advertisements.

Despite that this study investigates twenty-two of Petronas festival advertisements the data does not permit for a detailed construction and consumption of the advertisements. Future research may investigate the (historical) context of each Petronas festival advertisements in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the campaign in the Malaysian context. In terms of consumption, future research may investigate on the audience or viewers of these advertisements. Study on how Petronas engage with the diverse ethnic groups would offer an extensive cultural discourse that will lead to understanding the impact of Petronas’ effort comprehensively and holistically.

REFERENCE


New program projects selection for TV companies applying ANP approach

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New program projects selection for TV companies applying ANP approach

Abstract
Selecting new program projects plays an important role for TV companies. Balanced scorecard (BSC), combination of both financial and non-financial perspectives and criteria, creates a more accurate new program projects selecting system because it offers a more complete view of a business and can lead to better business decisions. Due to the interdependent perspectives and criteria of BSC, we apply analytic network process (ANP) that captures the outcome of dependency between the perspectives and criteria to handle such problems. This study combines BSC with ANP to help Taiwanese TV company managers make better decisions in new program projects selection. Moreover, the practical application of the proposed approach is generic and also suitable to be exploited for Taiwanese TV companies.

Keywords: Analytic network process; Balanced scorecard; TV industry

Introduction
In order to survive in today’s extremely competitive environment, enterprises need to create and maintain competitive advantages. Chang and Cho (2008) point out that new product development (NPD) is one of the key to get competitive advantage and maintain growth of the firm. Liao et al. (2008) also state that NPD is vital for long-term performance and competitive advantages. However, NPD is a risky process (Ozer, 2005). The vital issue in NPD is how to evaluate the future success of new products (Balachandra, 1984; Benson et al., 1993).

In Taiwanese TV industry, the product is its program. The rating would be influenced by programs. The amount and fees of advertising obtained by TV companies would be affected by the rating. The TV companies depend largely on advertising to maintain their operation. In other words, evaluating and selecting new program projects plays an important role for TV companies.

Nevertheless, most of the evaluation approaches for NPD merely focus on the effect of financial benefit, quality, possible amount of potential customers and so on (Oh et al., 2009). The decision makers need a comprehensive evaluation model for the future success of new program projects. Eilat et al. (2008) use BSC for research and development (R&D) projects evaluating. Oh et al. (2009) utilize the concept of BSC to estimate the feasibility of a new telecom service. BSC links financial and non-financial, tangible and intangible, inward and outward factors can provide an integrated viewpoint for decision makers to evaluate the new program projects. The BSC acknowledges the presence of dynamic relationships among the perspectives, which means that the importance of one perspective cannot be determined without knowing the effects of the relationships between the perspectives (Leung et al., 2006). In other words, perspectives and criteria of BSC are interrelated. Due to the interdependent perspectives and criteria, ANP which captures the outcome of dependency between the factors appears to be one of the more feasible and accurate solutions for us to select new program projects.

In this paper, we firstly present BSC. Next, ANP as selection tools is described. The proposed approach within the context of selecting the optimal new program projects is shown in Section 4. The conclusion is given in Section 5.
Balanced scorecard (BSC)

Of the BSC 4 perspectives, one is financial and the other 3 involve non-financial performance measurement indexes: customer, internal business process and learning and growth. The financial perspective is about how the strategic action contributes to the improvement of revenue. In customer perspective, customers are the source of business profits. Hence, satisfying customer needs is the objective pursued by companies. The objective of internal business process perspective is to satisfy shareholders and customers by excelling at business processes. The goal of the last perspective, learning and growth, is to provide the infrastructure for achieving the objectives of the other 3 perspectives and for creating long-term growth and improvement through systems, employees and organizational procedures (Kaplan and Norton, 1996).

Method: Analytic network process (ANP)

ANP comprises five major steps (Saaty, 1996):

**Step 1.** Construct hierarchy and structure problem

The problem should be clearly stated and construct the hierarchy structure. The hierarchy can be determined by decision makers’ opinion via brainstorming or other appropriate methods such as literatures reviewing.

**Step 2.** Determine the perspectives weights

According to the interrelationship among the perspectives, a series of pairwise comparisons made by a committee of decision makers are made to establish the relative importance of perspectives.

**Step 3.** Determine the pairwise comparisons for the criteria

The criteria weights within each perspective are derived using the standard application of AHP (Saaty, 1980). We apply pairwise comparisons again to establish the criteria relationships within each perspective.

**Step 4.** Construct and solve the supermatrix

The priority weights of criteria are enter in the appropriate columns of a matrix, known as an unweighted supermatrix. After multiplying unweighted supermatrix and priority weights from the perspectives, we obtain the weighted supermatrix. Finally, the supermatrix will be steady by multiplying the supermatrix by itself until the supermatrix’s row values converge to the same value for each column of the matrix. We call that limiting matrix.

**Step 5.** Select the best alternative

According to the weights from the limiting matrix and weights of alternatives with respect to criteria, we can aggregate the total weight of each alternative. We rank the alternative according to their priority weights.

Table 1. Definitions and literatures of selecting criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Literatures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$C_1$: Capability</td>
<td>The capability of employee.</td>
<td>McPhail et al. (2008); Tseng (2010); Yüksel and Dağdeviren (2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_2$: Training</td>
<td>Employee training.</td>
<td>Lee et al. (2008); Cebeci (2009); Chen et al. (2009); Hubbard (2009); Liao and Chang (2009a); Wu et al. (2009); Yüksel and Dağdeviren (2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_3$: Satisfaction</td>
<td>The satisfaction index of employee.</td>
<td>Cebeci (2009); Chen et al. (2009); Liao and Chang (2009a); Liao and Chang (2009b); Wu et al. (2009); Liao and Chang (2010); Tseng (2010); Yüksel and Dağdeviren (2010); Wu et al. (2011).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are 4 new program projects in the case study. The decision committee includes 2 managers. We depict ANP selecting process as follow.

**Step 1.** Construct hierarchy and structure problem

On the basis of Liao et al. (2010) and interviewing with the senior executives, we structure the hierarchy for new program projects selecting, as shown in Figure 1.

**Step 2.** Determine the perspectives weights

A series of pairwise comparisons made by a decision committee are applied to establish the relative importance of perspectives. In these comparisons, a 1-9 scale is applied to compare 2 perspectives. The pairwise comparison matrix and the development of each perspective priority weight are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2. The pairwise comparisons and priority weights of perspectives.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Learning and growth</th>
<th>Internal business process</th>
<th>Customer</th>
<th>Financial</th>
<th>Priority weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning and growth</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.5774</td>
<td>2.8284</td>
<td>2.6458</td>
<td>0.3201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal business process</td>
<td>1.7321</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>2.4495</td>
<td>2.6458</td>
<td>0.4065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer</td>
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<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1369</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.3780</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1365</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Learning and growth</th>
<th>Internal business process</th>
<th>Customer</th>
<th>Financial</th>
<th>Priority weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning and growth</td>
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<td>1.2247</td>
<td>2.4495</td>
<td>0.3902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal business process</td>
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<td>1.4142</td>
<td>0.2253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer</td>
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<td>1.0000</td>
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<td>0.7071</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect to Customer</td>
<td>Learning and growth</td>
<td>Internal business process</td>
<td>Customer</td>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>Priority weights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 4.0660 )</td>
<td>C.R. = 0.0222</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and growth</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>2.4495</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>2.6458</td>
<td>0.4294</td>
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<tr>
<td>Internal business process</td>
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<tr>
<td>Customer</td>
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<td>0.7071</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
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<td>0.1236</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respect to Financial</th>
<th>Learning and growth</th>
<th>Internal business process</th>
<th>Customer</th>
<th>Financial</th>
<th>Priority weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 4.0703 )</td>
<td>C.R. = 0.0237</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.7071</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3.4641</td>
<td>0.7071</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.3455</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 3. The pairwise comparison within Financial perspective with respect to Capability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profit</th>
<th>Cost</th>
<th>New market</th>
<th>Priority weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 3.0000 )</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
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<td>1.4142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New market</td>
<td>0.2236</td>
<td>0.7071</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
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</table>

Table 4. The unweighted supermatrix.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C_1</th>
<th>C_2</th>
<th>C_3</th>
<th>C_4</th>
<th>C_5</th>
<th>C_6</th>
<th>C_7</th>
<th>C_8</th>
<th>C_9</th>
<th>C_10</th>
<th>C_11</th>
<th>C_12</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>0.2054</td>
<td>0.2679</td>
<td>0.3764</td>
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<td>0.2811</td>
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<tr>
<td>C_3</td>
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<td>0.1067</td>
<td>0.1452</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_4</td>
<td>0.4630</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
<td>0.4226</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.7101</td>
<td>0.7597</td>
<td>0.3494</td>
<td>0.2128</td>
<td>0.2997</td>
<td>0.2254</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_5</td>
<td>0.2435</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.2113</td>
<td>0.7597</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.2403</td>
<td>0.3331</td>
<td>0.2556</td>
<td>0.2379</td>
<td>0.5680</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_6</td>
<td>0.2935</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
<td>0.3660</td>
<td>0.2403</td>
<td>0.2899</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.3175</td>
<td>0.5316</td>
<td>0.4624</td>
<td>0.2066</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_7</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
<td>0.3989</td>
<td>0.2128</td>
<td>0.4839</td>
<td>0.3608</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
<td>0.5858</td>
<td>0.5031</td>
<td>0.6494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_8</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.3179</td>
<td>0.2556</td>
<td>0.1387</td>
<td>0.2481</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.4142</td>
<td>0.3488</td>
<td>0.2054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_9</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
<td>0.2832</td>
<td>0.5316</td>
<td>0.3774</td>
<td>0.3910</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.3412</td>
<td>0.1481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_10</td>
<td>0.6494</td>
<td>0.1996</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
<td>0.2414</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
<td>0.3971</td>
<td>0.4967</td>
<td>0.2128</td>
<td>0.2128</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.7597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_11</td>
<td>0.2054</td>
<td>0.2515</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.6154</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.1640</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.2556</td>
<td>0.2556</td>
<td>0.6340</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_12</td>
<td>0.1452</td>
<td>0.5489</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
<td>0.1432</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
<td>0.4389</td>
<td>0.3054</td>
<td>0.5316</td>
<td>0.5316</td>
<td>0.3660</td>
<td>0.2403</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Step 3.** Determine the pairwise comparisons for the criteria

We apply pairwise comparisons again to establish the criteria relationships within each perspective. The eigenvector of observable pairwise comparison matrix provide the criteria weights at this level, which will be used in the unweighted supermatrix. With respect to Capability, for example, a pairwise comparison within the Financial perspective can be shown in Table 3. According to this way, we can
derive every criterion weight to obtain the unweighted supermatrix.

Figure 1. Hierarchy for new program projects selecting.

**Learning and growth**

- $C_1$: Capability
- $C_2$: Training
- $C_3$: Satisfaction

**Internal business process**

- $C_4$: Lead time
- $C_5$: New technology
- $C_6$: Facility

**Financial**

- $C_{10}$: Profit
- $C_{11}$: Cost
- $C_{12}$: New market

**Customer**

- $C_7$: Audience
- $C_8$: Brand
- $C_9$: New audience

**Step 4.** Construct and solve the supermatrix

The unweighted supermatrix which derived from step 3 is shown in Table 4 is then multiplied by the priority weights from the perspectives which illustrated in Table 2. After multiplying unweighted supermatrix and priority weights from the perspectives, we obtain the weighted supermatrix as shown in Table 5. For example, $(0.6494, 0.2054, 0.1452) \times 0.1365 = (0.0887, 0.0280, 0.0198)$. In other words, the weights of the criteria multiply the weight of its own perspective to obtain the weighted supermatrix.

Finally, the system solution is derived by multiplying the weighted supermatrix of model variables by itself, which accounts for variable interaction, until the system’s row values converge to the same value for each column of the matrix. We apply this
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process to yield the limiting matrix as sown in Table 6.

C1
C2
C3
C4
C5
C6
C7
C8
C9
C10
C11
C12

Table 5. The weighted supermatrix.
C1
C2
C3
C4
C5
0.0000 0.2432 0.1601 0.1938 0.2409
0.2030 0.0000 0.1601 0.0772 0.1076
0.1172 0.0769 0.0000 0.1192 0.0416
0.1882 0.2019 0.1718 0.0000 0.1600
0.0990 0.0804 0.0859 0.1711 0.0000
0.1193 0.1241 0.1488 0.0541 0.0653
0.0680 0.0546 0.0291 0.1090 0.0813
0.0271 0.0435 0.0350 0.0313 0.0559
0.0418 0.0388 0.0728 0.0850 0.0881
0.0887 0.0273 0.0678 0.0385 0.0791
0.0280 0.0343 0.0270 0.0980 0.0315
0.0198 0.0749 0.0417 0.0228 0.0486

C6
0.2534
0.0801
0.0567
0.1711
0.0541
0.0000
0.1119
0.0446
0.0688
0.0633
0.0261
0.0699

C7
0.1151
0.1151
0.1993
0.0862
0.0822
0.0784
0.0000
0.1001
0.1001
0.0614
0.0245
0.0378

C8
0.0641
0.1616
0.2036
0.0525
0.0631
0.1312
0.1001
0.0000
0.1001
0.0263
0.0316
0.0657

C9
0.0914
0.1097
0.2283
0.0740
0.0587
0.1141
0.1173
0.0829
0.0000
0.0263
0.0316
0.0657

C10
0.0800
0.0191
0.0865
0.0227
0.0571
0.0208
0.1853
0.1285
0.0545
0.0000
0.2190
0.1265

C11
0.0602
0.0522
0.0732
0.0499
0.0199
0.0307
0.2392
0.0756
0.0535
0.2625
0.0000
0.0830

C12
0.0463
0.0292
0.1102
0.0401
0.0320
0.0285
0.0735
0.0926
0.2021
0.1728
0.1728
0.0000

C1
C2
C3
C4
C5
C6
C7
C8
C9
C10
C11
C12

C1
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

Table 6. The limiting matrix.
C2
C3
C4
C5
0.1334 0.1334 0.1334 0.1334
0.1000 0.1000 0.1000 0.1000
0.1054 0.1054 0.1054 0.1054
0.1117 0.1117 0.1117 0.1117
0.0755 0.0755 0.0755 0.0755
0.0819 0.0819 0.0819 0.0819
0.0889 0.0889 0.0889 0.0889
0.0557 0.0557 0.0557 0.0557
0.0706 0.0706 0.0706 0.0706
0.0695 0.0695 0.0695 0.0695
0.0558 0.0558 0.0558 0.0558
0.0516 0.0516 0.0516 0.0516

C6
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

C7
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

C8
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

C9
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

C10
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

C11
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

C12
0.1334
0.1000
0.1054
0.1117
0.0755
0.0819
0.0889
0.0557
0.0706
0.0695
0.0558
0.0516

Table 7. The weight of each alternative with respect to criteria.
Project 1
Project 2
Project 3
C1
0.3360
0.5415
0.0614
C2
0.3902
0.2253
0.2253
C3
0.6175
0.1941
0.1294
C4
0.1856
0.1005
0.3683
C5
0.3475
0.2110
0.2640
C6
0.3340
0.1656
0.2869
C7
0.1719
0.1106
0.3058
C8
0.1719
0.1106
0.3058
C9
0.5040
0.1160
0.2263
C10
0.3204
0.2265
0.2265
C11
0.3504
0.3741
0.1498
C12
0.4901
0.2310
0.1634

Project 4
0.0614
0.1593
0.0591
0.3455
0.1775
0.2134
0.4117
0.4117
0.1536
0.2265
0.1257
0.1155

Step 5. Select the best alternative
We can obtain the aggregated weight of each alternative as shown in Table 8,

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according to the weight of each alternative with respect to the criteria and the weights from limiting matrix. According to Table 8, the ranking is Project 1, Project 2, Project 3 and Project 4. We provide the result to the case company for consultation. The case company executes Project 1, according to our conclusion.

Table 8. The aggregated weights of alternatives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Project 1</th>
<th>Project 2</th>
<th>Project 3</th>
<th>Project 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$C_1$</td>
<td>0.0448</td>
<td>0.0722</td>
<td>0.0082</td>
<td>0.0082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_2$</td>
<td>0.0390</td>
<td>0.0225</td>
<td>0.0225</td>
<td>0.1559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_3$</td>
<td>0.0651</td>
<td>0.0205</td>
<td>0.0136</td>
<td>0.0062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_4$</td>
<td>0.0207</td>
<td>0.0112</td>
<td>0.0412</td>
<td>0.0386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_5$</td>
<td>0.0263</td>
<td>0.0159</td>
<td>0.0199</td>
<td>0.0134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_6$</td>
<td>0.0274</td>
<td>0.0136</td>
<td>0.0235</td>
<td>0.0175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_7$</td>
<td>0.0153</td>
<td>0.0098</td>
<td>0.0272</td>
<td>0.0366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_8$</td>
<td>0.0096</td>
<td>0.0062</td>
<td>0.0170</td>
<td>0.0229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_9$</td>
<td>0.0356</td>
<td>0.0082</td>
<td>0.0160</td>
<td>0.0108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{10}$</td>
<td>0.0223</td>
<td>0.0157</td>
<td>0.0157</td>
<td>0.0157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{11}$</td>
<td>0.0196</td>
<td>0.0209</td>
<td>0.0084</td>
<td>0.0070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{12}$</td>
<td>0.0253</td>
<td>0.0119</td>
<td>0.0084</td>
<td>0.0060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregated weights</td>
<td>0.3508</td>
<td>0.2286</td>
<td>0.2217</td>
<td>0.1989</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

In Taiwanese TV industry, evaluating and selecting new program projects plays an important role. The decision makers need a comprehensive evaluation model for the future success of new program projects. BSC links financial and non-financial, tangible and intangible, inward and outward factors can provide an integrated viewpoint for decision makers to evaluate the new program projects. Considering the interrelated perspectives and criteria of BSC, ANP which captures the outcome of dependency between the factors appears to be one of the more feasible and accurate solutions for us to select new program projects. According to past researches and interviewing with the senior executives, we structure the hierarchy including 12 critical criteria for new program projects selecting. According to 12 important criteria, managers of Taiwan TV companies could select new program projects more effectively.

In this paper, we find that the C.R. of each pairwise comparison is less than 0.1, which means that the reliability of data is accepted. Moreover, a practical application to select new program projects presented in Section 4 is generic and also suitable to be exploited for Taiwanese TV companies.

ANP ignores the fuzziness of executives’ judgment during the decision-making process. We suggest that follow-up researchers could analyze this topic with the concept of fuzzy sets.

**References**


Cebeci, U. (2009). Fuzzy AHP-based decision support system for selecting ERP


Visual Signification and Postmodernity in Thai Print Advertising

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Abstract
This study “Visual Signification and Postmodernity in Thai Print Advertising” is aimed to investigate the use of images to convey meaning in Thai print advertisement. This research examined the used of visual syntax in Thai print advertisement and postmodern condition reflected on the advertising text, analyzed from the Thai advertising contest that was awarded the prize of “Adman award from the Year 2004-2009. Parts of finding are as the follows.

Thai print advertisement used images as the main strategy to communicate meaning mainly to 90% from the entire image in competition. Most of images usages in the properties of the index to refer to other meanings aside from represented people or stories and also use as a symbolic for some cultural meaning which the image reader can link their own experiences to interpreting. Meaning intended was created through the mechanism of organized pictures (Visual Syntax) to convey different meanings. Mainly of advertisements use the technique of analogy so that images can be matched to various abstract meanings freely. The postmodern condition was examined from the fluidity of meaning and transfer of meaning from other texts. (Intertextuality) However, logic of consumption were found that both the logic of sign value to enhance the product for signs of cultural meaning and logic of used value to communicated product benefits but the logic of used value will be communicate inflated like a satirical parody of the usefulness of these requirements. This is a phenomenon of the postmodern condition acts in the Thai print advertising in this study.

An introduction

Human communication is a wonderful talent of human in an attempt to exchange information to another. This ability shows that humans are superior to any other living thing on earth to communicate in what is beyond the instinct of survival mechanisms like other animals. From the past, the evolution of human communication both spoken and written language is an attempt to create something as a medium to convey what is inside the mind.

Visual communication is the another form of communication that’s long before modern era in human history. Message we have got from the image come from our perception which any components place together in order to convey some of the intent of the message sender. The spread of the use of image in different ways as a symbolic, an iconicity or indexical picture was produced and distributed through communications technology. The mass communication and digital multimedia network makes viewing these images and reading its definition becomes another channel of awareness to the "substance of the picture" (Visual Message) that is full of convincing the feeling, but flexible and open-to-read definitions.

This communication mode reflects that we are in the era of visual culture which the culture of spectator began to play a greater role than letters culture. The thrust of the change in industrial production and the way of the people consumption and the thrust of the cultural dimension in cultural diversity are motivating the way of presenting a visual representation
through use of technology and media. Furthermore the globalization of the economy and spread of the current flow of capital and consumption patterns of people make the media especially advertising industry creating enormous visual representation of consumers and send it through any ads image to motivate people with emotional message. Therefore people can consume all those value without having to rely on written language and cultural barriers like the past.

**The evolution of the use of images in advertising**

Advertising is a form of social communication and also the key mechanical to move social economic forward. An important role of advertising is to provide information about products or services and also stimulate people consumption. However this consumption doesn’t mean just consume to sustain life but has expanded to the meaning of cultural consumption. Nowadays, people consumption is to establish the identity of the people in the society and classified them according to their way of consumption.

Images in the advertising in the present not only serve to convey the ad’s message but also an evidence of the era reflected the desired image and the ideals of the people during that time. Audience of advertising from past to present have been familiarly to read meaning of the ads image along with written words. Moreover, they learned to read denotative meaning from ad content and also understand connotative meaning contained in ads illustration.

Nowadays, image plays a vital role in advertising. It can be said that image is not only illustrator but it play as a major communication roles as well as words are. In the era of materialism society where people pay attention in symbolic value of products rather than the authentic utilities. The impact of the symbolic value object complexion is one of the factors to imply that by using only words cannot explains the meaning of those feeling affects to how people makes sense was not reached or explains the meaning of those feeling. Then ads image is the opening way for individuals to use their subjectivity and experience to read the image meaning.

**Images and meaning.**

Most of visual communication theorist are agreeing in the advantages of using the "image" that is flexible to allow the reader to interpret a variety of message. In addition, lifestyle of the people in the city and rushing life makes a broad meaning of images for fast gaining popularity. The survey of the advertising awards in print media or even outdoor media both locally and globally in nearly a decade ago found that most advertisers are focused on the use of

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1 Adman Awards 2004-2009 and Cannes Lions 2000-2010
images as an important component of communication. This could be an aesthetic ability of the image and also another way of calling attention to advertisement.

The use of image is going to be the powerful way in creating awareness and guiding people's thoughts. In the past, "image" is believed to be a true reflection of the eye but today it turns out that what the eye sees is actually being built meticulously through the various techniques of visualization. Most global brands selected creative design and décor every element in the ad to guide audience recognition. Because ads images communicate its intended meaning through the various components of selected objects then people character in ads image become a symbol that conveys a complicate emotional meaning rather than only its physical meaning.

The semiotic concepts of visual communication.

The concept of semiotic can be divided into two groups according to the guidelines of the theorist. The first group is called the science of studying the process of signification that the “Semiology” by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) Swiss linguist. This science is described as a mix between sound or image, which is called the “signifier”, and the concept or meaning that it wants to convey which is called the “signified”, the meaning or definition displayed.

Period similar to that Saussure had proposed the idea of his semiology, Charles S. Peirce (1839-1914) American social philosopher formulated his model of the sign of ‘semiotic’ by studying the relationship between the sign with the idea that sign is referred to (Chandler, 2002:32). It is evident that the meaning of it can be explained by three factors: 1) the representamen or the form of “sign” whether the image sound or text 2) An object or the mean that it represents, and 3) Interpretant or interpretation. From Peirce’s model, thinking of the signs and the object is similar to Saussure's concept of the Signifier and Signified interpretation and Interpretant is the idea in the minds of people (Mental idea) that arise from the stimulation of sign. This may be the only person with the experience of individuals (Moriarty, 2000: p.229).

Study semiotics by way of Peirce will analyze the signification of meaning by looking at the relationship of sign and its relationship between physical appearances (signifier) with the idea that associated mental concept (signified) but he has a little bit difference focusing. Firstly, Peircie’s sign consider the relationship between the sign with an object that exists as close / distant in the meaning then the first level of signification is an “icon” that mean it’s looks similar or identical objects exist at most, such as photographs, paintings. Secondly, an “index” as an indicator that relationship associated with an actual example such as smoke as a cause of the fire. And the last, “symbol” is the sign that is not related to any naturally between the physical object as a sign and its meaning but concerns arise from a common agreement in the meaning of symbols such as traffic signs, etc. However, all these signs are not separated from each other in practice because sign may make many types at the same time.
For the study of visual communication, the views of the semiotics of Peirce and Saussure have a common point and the difference in some respects views of scholars in this field. Moriarty (2005: P. 229) has opinion that the concept based on Saussure's linguistic approach so semiology in his analysis is how meaning is being created arise from the structural relations within the text itself without reference to external reality.

**Visual signification: code and combination**

In analyzing the code of sign in semiotic approach have a system of code to create a meaningful in two modes. The first code is the syntax or grammar (Syntagmatic Code), which are the rules of order and integration to create meaning from their arrangement. The second code is the paradigm. (Paradigmatic Code) which is the rule of interchangeably of sign while the original meaning still remains (Kawthep, 2550: P. 41-45).

In the work of the ad as a set of sign, we found that both visual and written in the ad signified meaning with the work of these two codes. The meaning of a product was picking up from some sort of sign which seem appropriate. The actor, scene and color scheme of ad are meant to take the product according to the rules of the paradigm (Paradigmatic) and the placement of various elements of advertising be arranged and combined according to rules of grammar (Syntagmatic). Whether the rules of syntax or paradigm, sign to be used in advertising is the signifier, leading to meaning of their products to achieve the desired direction of communication.

Semiotic analysis of ad image is consistent with the view of visual communication in advertising by Messaris (1997: P. viii) which describe methods of communication that may look like the process of creating meaning in terms of levels of meaning (Semantic) or in terms of syntax (Syntactic). Since semantic will focus on described in the ad elements (images, words, music, etc.) that are associated with the meaning. And for the grammar (Syntactic) will focusing on the relationships between elements within the ad as it blends together into a higher level from the original meaning of each element.

This is why it can be said that, the world of advertising is a world of sign. All visual sign in advertisement come together to create meaning while have their old meaning attached inevitably. These signs can be integrated or organized in new ways to create a new set of meaning based on the original meaning of them. In the study of Leiss, et al. (1990, cited in Heiligmann and Shields, 2009 paragraph 11) shows the outline of the three vital qualifiers to the process of creating meaning of the advertising texts. First, the meaning of one sign must be transferred to another (Example: from picked up sign to commodity). The second, the connection made by the viewer between the product and the charged sign by the meaning of sign was transferred to the product (up to the connection of the viewer between the sign and commodity). The third, the charged sign must be meaningful to the viewer.
Roland Barthes (1915-1980: Cited in Suweranon, 2547), described the working of signification in the "myths" or meaning that is beyond the physical meaning of the sign in the picture, but those meaning are realistically like a natural sense of things. The work of the ad as well, the meaning of advertising is the value of symbolic and cultural values to capture the meaning of the object before the true meaning of the object to be read. From the concept of Barthes, when we see the image especially in advertising, readers are often unaware that they was not looking to see what they are straightforward. Because of the symbol in the image press over something that does not want to see and direct perceived to realistically till the reader understand that cultural meaning of material appearing in the picture is the meaning of the perceived nature of matter.

Advertising signification and postmodern condition.

In an age we’re named that the postmodern era. The total value of the tangible value of the goods is not to be the truth anymore. The needs of consumers may not be tangible reality, the mood and the look is more important than the reason and reality. This era, consumption is a sign consume that the goal is to create an identity so, if you mention what is the measure of the postmodern condition it’s changing the paradigm of advertising. Postmodern advertising will focus on manipulate the sign of contemporary culture. These sign have hyperreality character which is expanding and increasing the intensity of the use of visual sign to simulate the virtual reality world (Simulacra) (Baudrillard, 1994 cited in Morris, 2005). So the advertising industry is producing enormous amounts sign in a society that Baudrillard called "consumer society". So the spread of products is helping to spread the sign in society too, for this reason the exchange value of the traditional economics view may not be comparable to the sign value that will help identify social status, identity, lifestyle, prestige, or power of a person.

Moreover, it can be said that the global brand advertising campaigns use the same advertising plan for many countries by focusing on the use of images and symbols to convey meaning than words. They tend to focus on the aesthetic and visual entertainment provides greater freedom for consumers to read the meaning in flexibility. The level of creating meaning in the ad is divided into several classes from the surface layer which is a denotation to the next layer of connotation that requires a social experience such as cultural traditions, beliefs and ideals of society to decode the meaning until it became a cultural meaning. This phenomenon may reflect that the message sender who sold “sign commodity” believed that their target can be read cultural message in the image caused by the influence of "globalization" that these powers were sent out to spread the culture throughout the world for a long period.

The visual signification and postmodernity in Thai print advertising: the research methodology and finding
This study need to analyze how image in Thai print advertising convey its meaning from the aspects of signification such as the analysis of each pair of the signifier and the signified and the visual syntax by means of the elements in visual juxtaposition to be meaningful. This research also wants to analyze post-modern condition in aspect of text allusion. (intertextuality) which sign was paired with new contexts to achieve a new meaning is endless. The logic of consumption is another aspect of postmodernity in this study that reflects how the consumption of people in modern times. The values are the condition of the consumer consumption as an object or thinking of it as a symbol.

Population in this research are Thai print ad media selected by purposive sampling from Adman Awards print advertisement competition during the year 2547-2552 which awarded gold silver and bronze. The study is divided into two parts; the first was analyzed the content of the advertising that has won all 228 pieces by quantitative method for an overview of the structure of meaning in the following issues 1) The sign relationship of meaning in the picture 2) The mechanic device of the picture to signify meaning and 3) the type of meaning that was signified.

The second part was selected of 30 pieces with random to study in more detail in the meaning structure both content and visual design analyzed in qualitative method. Textual analysis technique was used in aspects of the process of interpretation. Ad text was read in the following point 1) the sign in relation of its (sign relationship) 2) visual syntax and code of production in the picture (visual syntax) 3) type of meaning from visual message and 4) the postmodern condition in the use of text allusion (intertextuality) and the logic of consumption type which reflected in the text. The results of study both parts are summarized below.

1. Image and meaning are often associated in relation as an index sign, which show that the visual language as a signifier also correlated with physical appearance or are related to the inherent meaning of it (motivated), but the reader cultural background and their own experience also the factor to the depth of meaning to it. The index features of the image also a great help in implies the meaning of certain words to avoid sensitive issue both sense and law.

2) Visual analogy is the most common mechanisms of visual proposition in Thai print advertisement to create meaning as needed. Because it focuses on the meaning which is implied to communicate without the need for rational or factual support but use the rhetorical of images for spectacular and elicit emotion. Meaning structure from metaphor help reduce negative feelings from over claiming of the ad into the art of visual entertainment of the audience.

3) The meaning of the advertising is often the implications (connotative meaning) of the social and cultural learning experience. However connotation is often linked to the natural features of certain products or topics mentioned in the ad include product appearance, product description, product usage or results from the user. Anyway of these ads will not far away from the actual physical properties of the products offered but stress and highlight usefulness of product exceed to be true like a satire.
4) The definition of advertising structure from the use of images in advertising in the way of intextuality is “old sign in new relation”. The analyzing found a characteristic of intextuality which a symbol was borrowed from the former text whether in terms of meaning or form to be used in a new ad text. Print advertisement in the study focus on meaningful impact of using inter-text which based on similar experience from the old text such as set of original meaning of other advertisement or brand by selected advertising format and sign with new way of its arrangement in the image to convey meaning. The ads like to use sign (signifier) and meaning (signified) which never been match together before but use the mechanism of visual syntax as a condition for the possibility of matching that meaning.

5) The logic of consumption in Thai print advertisement was mostly found is a “logical function” (Logic of uses value). This logic came from the communication oriented to the features of usefulness of physical goods. The usefulness of these communications is often a focus on product attributes such an over claim like a satirical parody. Then, perceiving of those value are feelings about the product not product information or facts. So the logic of consumption in Thai print ads from the study is “logic of emotional use value” from presentation "the value of the products that not true”. Then, it may be concluded that the meaning of these ads are postmodern signification that does not reflect any reality except to communicating with the reader's sense of the image itself. The image meaning may not refer to any external world of reality but the reality of the vision and sense only.

Conclusions

When the world comes into an age that communication becomes more complex and subtle than the old paradigm of using language to reflect and explain the meaning. The use of images has become another channel of communication which increasing an important role in society. The process of image signification is up to the rules of code both semantic and syntax rules. We can get these communication codes from both social learning and our experience with these texts from the past. When the audience read the meaning of image, they’re often unaware that all meaning generated from the use of different types of cultures code. The results of this study will help us understand the complex mechanisms of images signification in the ad that it be valuable in the field of media literacy which increasingly more important in today's society.

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Abstract

Advertising and the portrayal of gender roles has long been the subject of much debate among researchers of communications. This study seeks to determine the extent that gender representation exists in Thai television advertising by using content analysis, the method commonly used in previous studies conducted on gender and advertising. A longitudinal content analysis was performed (2005 and 2010) in an attempt to establish continuity in gendered representations in Thai television advertising.

Key Words:
Gender
Representation
Television Advertising
Thailand
Content Analysis

Introduction:
We arrive in this world unequipped for survival without the help of others; specifically, our parents. Our mothers and fathers have learned what is necessary to survive in society and they impart that knowledge on to us. Our education, habits, morals, and understanding of the world come from our parents, our interaction with our peers and from our interaction with media. The stories we listen to, the music we learn, the language we speak, the movies we watch and the advertisements we are exposed to, all of these form who we are. This is culture. Each culture is an amalgamation of beliefs and values which have accumulated over many generations. As our world changes our culture changes and we must learn to adapt to new circumstances.

Thai culture has been going through some dramatic changes in the past 100 years. From the end of absolute monarchy to numerous shifts in power, mostly due to military dictatorships or coup d’état, to the outlawing of polygamy, the criminalizing of prostitution, the implementation of various women’s suffrage laws and access to education. Thailand has had tremendous cultural changes forced upon its’ people in the past century. Yet Thailand is still a traditional patriarchal nation which holds King, family and religion in high regard. Thailand has been deeply impacted by Confucianism. Traditionally, women were regarded as the inferior sex and often excluded from political, religious and educational opportunities. It is the female members of Thai society that is the focus of this study; specifically, the representation of women in Thai television advertising. Advertising has both an economic and social function in society. As such it
is important to understand how gender roles are portrayed. This study will begin with a brief discussion on advertising and will then present previous research done in the field of content analysis and advertising.

TELEVISION ADVERTISING IN THAILAND: RELEVANCE OF ADVERTISING AND GENDER ROLES

The study of television advertising messages in Thailand in particular is crucial due to the amount of time Thais spend watching television and thus television advertisements, not to mention the lack of research previously done on Thai television. There are various estimates given regarding the amount of time Thais spend watching television. Vitartas and Sangkamanee (2003) surveyed university students in Bangkok and found that 71% of the respondents watched 1-4 hours per day while 40% reported watching 3-4 hours of television per day. Other sources, such as Pangaea.net, estimated that Thais watch on average 2 hours of television per day. A more recent credible source of Thai viewing habits is not available; however, this researcher believes it is safe to assume that television viewing averages about 2 hours per day. This amount of television viewing is important to advertisers and advertising spending in Thailand has increased dramatically. Merrill Lynch Phatra Securities analysts state that television advertising in Thailand rose 14.3 percent in the first half of 2003 to Baht 20.5 billion/US$500 million (Television Asia, 2003). “TV continues to grab the lion's share--61 percent--of ad spend” and Merrill Lynch recognized the increase to higher purchasing power which is the result of “low interest rates, steady economic recovery and fierce competition among consumer products” (Ibid). This competition for consumers is largely fought in the advertising ring.

Advertisements should be relevant to the consumer’s lifestyle and should accurately reflect characters based on the current target market and demographics. This is in the best interests of society as well as the producers of the advertisements. As advertisements are intended to persuade the audience to purchase a product, it therefore seems reasonable to assume that advertising agencies do not intentionally create inaccurate characterizations of girls and women which contribute to unhealthy or sexist gender identity learning and socialization. Whether inaccurate characterizations of gender exist in Thai television advertising should be of importance to both media professionals and to advertising agencies. These gender stereotypes are the psychological and behavioral characteristics usually associated with men and women. As no one comes into this world with gender, the study of how gender is acquired has been of interest to many in the social sciences. All cultures encourage some gender differences (Price & Crapo, 2002). As cultures promote gender differences these differences become embedded in the social norms and are eventually portrayed in media. Therefore, the roles and responsibilities of the sexes are shown to us from a multitude of media based sources, such as on television programs and in advertising. These roles and responsibilities often reflect the values of the dominant ideology within the culture; in this case, the traditional cultural view that there are gender roles in Thai society. Unfortunately, the role of women is often subordinate to that of men.

Socialization
The primary purpose of advertisements is to sell products through the use of the media and to inform potential and existing customers of new products and product improvement. As such, commercials are designed for persuasive impact and, according to Pollay, they contribute greatly to cultural norms (1986). The behavior or language we perceive as normal is shown to us from an early age through television. This process of cultural norming is generally achieved by repetition of images and cultural messages that are considered and or accepted as mainstream thought (Gerbner, 1999; Gerbner and Gross, 1976). Because advertisements are nearly everywhere we go, from the moment we wake in the morning we are surrounded by these persuasive messages and are, sometimes unwittingly, taught about what is acceptable and or normal in our environment. We are also taught to expect certain gender related behaviors. This process of socialization is crucial to our development. As one might expect, due to the amount of time spent with the media, the media themselves have become a major agent of socialization. Barner (1999) argued that television is a powerful socializing agent and is especially influential in the process of gender identity formation.

“One of the most obvious and important characteristics of television actors is their gender, and one of the most important lessons that children learn form TV actors is how gender fits into society” (Barner, 1999, p. 551).

The way we dress, our mannerisms, the toys our children play with, appropriate social etiquette, mating rituals and much more are communicated through viewing gender portrayals in the media. Often stereotypes are reinforced, some positive and some negative. It is the negative stereotypes that I wish to discuss in the next chapter of this paper because there is sufficient evidence to put forth the proposition that exposure to gender stereotyping, which is common in advertising, is directly linked to more gender-typed views of the world (Signorielli, 1989). As these gender-typed views are often negative, they have broader implications on society.

Content Analysis: A Discussion of Theory
As previously stated, advertising is seen as a powerful socializing agent and thus there has been a plethora of research done on advertising. Many focused, as I do in this paper, on content analysis. Jackson (1995) states that content analyses is particularly effective at evaluating the content of the message that a particular medium, in this case television, is communicating. Bernard Berelson defined content analysis as “a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication” (Hansen et al. 1998 p. 94); although it is worthy to note that later definitions did not include the word ‘objective’ as there was criticism that no research method could be absolutely objective because even the selection of an area of text to be analyzed is not objective and thus the criticism of positivist objectivity criteria is generally accepted (Ibid). Content analysis began as a quantitatively-oriented text analysis method (Martens, n.d.). It is considered a systematic method and is often “less prone to subjective selectiveness and idiosyncrasies” (Hansen, et al. 1998 p. 91). Content analysis has long been used as a method of analysis. For example, content analysis was being used as early as 1910 by sociologist Max Weber to examine press coverage of political issues in Germany (Martens, n.d.). Harold Lasswell used a similar approach
during the 1930s and 1940s to study the message content of wartime propaganda (Hansen, 1996). Lasswell also wanted to use content analysis for a “continuing survey of the ‘world attention’ – as reflected in trends in media coverage of various social issues – to show the elements involved in the formation of public opinion” (Beniger, 1978, p. 438). One of the most famous examples of content analysis in the mid-twentieth century “integrated into a larger framework of analysis articulating media roles in the cultivation of public consciousness is George Gerbner’s cultural indicators programme” (Hansen, 1996, p.6).

Some proponents of content analysis have used it to monitor and sometimes explain political and cultural changes within the media and the relationship between such trends and changes in public opinion and beliefs (Janowitz, 1976; Neuman, 1989). Gerbner used this method in 1969 for the “systematic monitoring of trends and developments in the symbolic environment of American television” (Gerbner, 1995).

Nonetheless, there are critics of content analysis who have said that “it is not the significance of repetition that is important but rather the repetition of significance” (Sumner, 1979, p. 69), meaning that it is not enough to simply count the occurrences of any said act or representation with a text, the significance of the act must be analyzed. A second line of criticism is based on the premise that “content analysis fails to capture the way in which meaning arises from complex interaction of symbols and texts” (Hansen et al.1998 p. 97). By comparing gender representation on television advertisements with current data on age, gender, employment and education one should be able to determine if the current representation of characters on television advertising is an accurate portrayal of Thai society.

There has also been criticism of the use of content analysis because interpretation of results is often controversial. The fundamental problem with using content analysis “hinges on the fundamental question of ‘meaning’ and ‘significance’” (Hansen, 1996 p. 7). Other criticisms of content analysis, as stated above focus on the objectivity of its use.

The purpose of this study is to examine the representation of gender in Thai advertising in order to determine if it is presenting images that are at odds with current social demographics as provided in the appendixes. Representation refers to the construction, in any medium, of aspects of ‘reality’ such as people, places, objects, events, identities and other abstract concepts (Chandler, n.d.).

**Literature Review**

The first study of gender roles on television advertisements was carried out by Dominick and Rauch in 1972 (Uray and Nimez, 2003). These findings as well as many others were a result of similar tests which concluded that “women characters were depicted as younger than men, more likely to be married than men and employed in traditional female-dominated occupations” (Ibid). Trowler did a study of women in advertisements, and found that 56% of women in adverts were portrayed as housewives (Trowler, 1988). Whether the women in the commercial are portrayed as housewives, secondary caregivers or as working mothers is a difficult distinction to make when viewing an advertisement. However, because I expect to reach similar findings, I have chosen to code the location of the advertisement and the gender in hopes of learning whether women are seen more in the home or in other settings. Bretl and Cantor (1985) focused their study on adult characters in American commercials. They concluded that despite
improvements since the 1970s in the status/role of female characters, the advertisements in the early eighties still showed stereotypical gender roles. For example, male characters were still more likely to be portrayed as employed outside the home while women were typically found working in the home as caregivers. They also discovered that 90% of the commercials studied had male narrators, and that this was true even in the case of commercials for stereotypically female products (Schwindt, 1996). Because findings such as these were repeatedly seen in studies throughout the world, I chose this type of analysis in order to determine if the Thai advertising industry had similar tendencies.

Many other studies focused on the representation of main characters (Allan and Coltrane, 1996; Brentl and Cantor, 1988; Craig, 1992; Furnham and Mak, 1999; Signorelli, McLeod and Healy, 1994). Earlier studies found more male than female main characters. However, more recent studies have shown that while men still dominate as the main characters, women are receiving a larger proportion than they had in the middle of the twentieth century. As previously stated, a previous content analysis on Thai advertising has not been performed. Therefore it is important to include this aspect of analysis in my study as well. In past research it was also fairly uncommon to include an analysis of secondary characters which are thought to “establish the power, attraction, and credibility of the main characters (Belch and Belch, 2001). However, as many advertisements have multiple characters and secondary characters are often placed in the role of providing a use or reward for the consumption of that product, the study of these characters, their gender and their age is important. The creators of advertisements appeal to consumers through characters; who they are, how old they are, their status or beauty, are all important aspects of both primary and secondary characters. Gender and age become important aspects of products and can reinforce unwanted stereotypes such as those mentioned earlier.

There are other negative stereotypes that exist in advertising. The casting of female characters, or lack thereof, can and does create or reinforce negative stereotypes. Young women have been depicted as rewards for men’s use of certain products (Courtney and Whipple, 1983). In Thailand there are advertisements, toothpaste and mints in particular, where men are shown to enter a café and all of the women simultaneously turn to him as his breath is so fresh the women cannot help but to be attracted to him. The main character, a man, walks out of the café with a young women under each arm. The idea being if another man were to use this product then he would also be sought after by the opposite sex. Courtney and Whipple also found that this unwanted stereotyping was in advertisements for products that are primarily used by women, which implied the “ultimate benefit of product usage was to give men pleasure” (p. 104). Numerous studies have concluded that advertisements and gender stereotyping have negatively affected women. For example, the studies by Sullivan, O’Connor, 1988 and Timson, 1995, concluded that women in the advertisements studied had no substantial connection to the product advertised. Both studies also concluded that the role of women was to be sexy and alluring. This was of particular concern to me as Thailand is a male dominated society which tends to hold onto traditional beliefs regarding the roles of men and women. This may prove to produce dire consequences as research by Lanis and Covell (1995) found that men who were shown magazine advertisements with women
portrayed as sex objects, compared to men shown ads with progressive images of women, were significantly more accepting of rape myths, gender stereotyping and interpersonal violence (especially towards women). The results of this study are similar to the results of earlier research on the impact of media portrayals of women as sex objects on gender role attitudes (Malmuth and Briere, 1986). The portrayal of the male as the dominant species is likely to increase violence against women (Mosher and Anderson, 1986; Walker et al., 1993). In the same study by Walker et al. (1993) it was concluded that there is sufficient evidence that authoritarian attitudes and highly traditional gender role views are connected to patterns of marital violence both sexual and non-sexual, as well as to sexual aggression outside of marriage. These findings have been supported in other studies as well (Finn, 1986; Malamuth, 1986; Malamuth, 1983; Mosher & Anderson, 1986; Szymanski et al., 1993). Therefore, the inaccurate portrayal of women can have serious consequences for both sexes.

Another study using content analysis was conducted by the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission, between 1984 and 1988 (CRTC, 1990a). They studied the portrayal of gender in Canadian broadcasting, and included a section exploring gender in television advertising. Some of their major findings, which agreed with the study done by Bretl and Cantor, included the fact that narrators were overwhelmingly male, and that male characters portrayed in the commercials were twice as likely to be employed outside the home as female characters. Female characters were also more likely to be involved in family situations, especially in child-care (CRTC, 1990). Studies of television commercials aimed at children, have determined that commercials aimed at children are sexist in their depiction of female characters (Signorielli, 1993). Gilly (1988) stated that advertisers may not know of the gender role stereotypes they are enforcing. However this position cannot be cast off due to simple naiveté as these stereotypes can have dire consequences. It is important to note that this is a global trend and while the representation of women as primary characters and as narrators has generally improved, there are still inaccurate portrayals which are being studied on a continual basis.

**Hypothesis 1:** Female characters are portrayed at home, in secretary or serving roles more than men.

**Hypothesis 2:** Female characters are younger than men

**Hypothesis 3:** Male characters are more likely to be the narrators or spokesmen

**Methodology:**
Content analysis aims to examine how news, drama, advertising, and entertainment output reflect social and cultural issues, values, and phenomena (Hansen et al. 1998 p. 92) and as such it is the method chosen for this study.

**Sample-**
A census sample of three television channels in 2005 (namely Channel 3, Channel 5, Channel 7) and 4 channels in 2010 (namely Channel 3, Channel 5, Channel 7 and Channel 9) were selected as the samples for this study. This selection was based on consumer viewing habits as detailed below.
By recording the tendencies of advertisers on these networks this study covers 86% of prime time viewing and 77% of advertisement spending. All of these channels are based in Bangkok. The first sampling procedure began on Sunday September 11th and was scheduled to finish on Saturday the 17th of September; however, due to mechanical failure and power outages, the advertisements could not be coded on two days of this week. Therefore, I decided to code these days missed on the following week which meant that the sampling procedure finished on the 21st of September, 2005. The second sampling procedure began on Sunday August 1st 2010 and the final day of coding was Saturday August the 7th.

These above dates were chosen as to avoid any seasonal advertising trends in the Thai market and national holidays. If an advertisement aired more than once, each showing was coded as this process correctly exemplifies cultural cultivation and norming through repetitive images as previously described by Gerbner and Gross. All of the advertisements were recorded on separate data collection sheets (except for network or network affiliated promotional advertisements, advertisements for films/videos to be released, various public service announcements and announcements that focused on the Thai monarchy) on the stations detailed above between 8 PM and 10:00 PM. Based on a preliminary sample done by the author, the average hour contains about 15 minutes of advertising. As advertisements in Thailand vary in length, some as short as 15 seconds and others as long as 2 minutes, it was difficult to determine an approximate number of advertisements shown per hour prior to the data collection.

**Coders-**
A description of the study’s objectives, coding instructions, training and examples were provided to two undergraduate students at Mahidol University, with which the researcher has an affiliation, who served as data recorders. The coders involved had extensive support available from the researcher and were subject to occasional observations rendered as unobtrusively as possible. Coder reliability was checked using a random sample of 10% of the commercials.

**Coding-**
The coding scheme selected for this research has been adapted from the 1990 CRTC study on portrayals of gender in television. The full coding scheme is attached as Appendix A. The structure of the coding scheme was designed to allow ease of use and simplicity in coding. Coding includes the research assistant’s name in order to check reliability and to ensure an equal distribution of labor. The product and the company are also included in the scheme to test individual product tendencies regarding gender representation and to assist further in finding advertisements on videotape to check for coder reliability. The recording of the television station and the day of the week the commercial aired are also included. The fundamental purpose of this research was to learn how men and women were presented on Thai television advertising. I suspected that many products, such as health and beauty oriented items, were gender specific; therefore it was important to note the type of product being advertised. I also wanted to know whether, as with previous research mentioned, the narrators and main characters were predominantly male.

**Products-**
Through researcher observation a list of nine possible genre specific codes were provided for each commercial. This proved to be unproblematic as the categories were easily distinguishable and overlap was thus avoided.

**Setting**
The dominant setting was also included. This is essential in determining whether the advertisements are contributing to the portrayal of male and female roles in regard to place. This researcher suspected that dominant male characters will be depicted either outdoors or in the workplace; whereas, dominant female roles will be depicted either in the home or in some other indoor setting as was the case in previous studies. A list of ten possibly settings was sufficient to include all of the advertisements coded.

**Narrator**
The coding of the narrator was also included. Some content analysis studies have separated narrator and final comments as two separate codes. However, in order to avoid any confusion which may have affected coder reliability, these two categories were combined. A preliminary viewing led me to believe that this is a male dominant area of advertising and because the narrator generally has authoritative input regarding the product, he/she may be perceived as an expert. A narrator was coded as an expert if scientific or statistical information on the products efficacy was provided. The narrator was not considered a character unless visual representation was provided. This is also an area of interest to the researcher as previous studies have concluded that even in regard to products that were designed for female consumption male narrators were typically dominant in the advertisements. The population of Thailand is roughly 60 million with approximately 97 men for 100 women (NSO, 2000). However, I expect to find significantly more male characters and male narrators in my analysis.

**Characters**
Another vital area of this study is the coding of the main characters. The main character is determined by ‘face time’ that is the amount of time given to the character during the advertisement. In advertisements that have many characters, such as those for restaurants, the main character will be recorded as he/she who has the most face time. If the coder felt that two or more characters received equal face time and both contributed verbally to the advertisement then the option of more than one main character was provided. The maximum number of main characters was set at three and there were advertisements without a main character. There are three subcategories for both the main character and the secondary character: gender, age and role. The gender of the main character in advertisements was also recorded. It was my assumption that male characters would dominate this area categorically.

**Age**
The age of the characters was also recorded. In previous content analysis male characters were generally older than female characters. It was my hope that upon analysis of the data a pattern would emerge regarding the use of age and gender in various genre’s of advertising. This researcher tested this coding scheme during prime time viewing hours over the period of three broadcast days prior to the implementation of this scheme to ensure ease of coding and comprehensiveness.

**Content Analysis Results & Key themes**
Does the gender makeup in advertising, either as narrator or main characters, equate to population demographics?
Do the findings of this research compare to those done in other countries?
Are women more likely to be the narrators and main characters in health and beauty products?
Do female characters appear more in home or other environments?

Narrators:
The portrayal of women in Thai advertising was encouraging especially when compared to gender studies which used content analysis in other developed nations. 65.5% of the narrators were male while 25.5% were female. Thus there is a preference among advertisers to use men as product spokespersons. This is consistent with other studies in this area. However, as shown earlier in this paper, Thai women outnumber Thai men in society; but the percentage of narrators is much more progressive than in other studies. Many previous studies (Allan and Coltrane, 1996; Bretl and Cantor, 1988; McArthur and Resko, 1975; Signorelli, McLeod and Healy, 1994) found that male narrators amounted to approximately 90% of the advertisements. While I had expected this study to find similar data, I am also pleased to know that this is not so in Thailand. As expected though, male narrators were more commonly included in advertisements for food and drink while female narrators were most commonly used in commercials for health and beauty products. However, 91.2% of the male narrators were portrayed as salespersons of a product while only 83.7% of the women were portrayed in this role. As expected, women were more likely to be portrayed as celebrities or high profile narrators than men, especially for health and beauty products. This information can be seen on Appendix B, pages 1-6.

Main characters:
Surprisingly, women were more commonly portrayed as main characters. 38.5% of the ads coded counted women as the main character; compared to 24.8% male. The differences in the portrayal of men and women were not surprising. Women who were cast as main characters were more likely to be celebrities while men who were cast as main characters were more likely to be portrayed as experts. While the study by Mazzella et al., (1992) concluded that men were more likely to be main characters, other studies (Mwangi, 1996) found that there were no significant differences in the number of men and women depicted as main characters. The average age of both male and female main characters was 20-35 years old. In previous content analysis (Dominick and Rauch, 1972; Furnham, Abramsky and Gunter; 1997), the age of male characters was generally older than females; this is not the case in Thailand. 67.5% of the characters were between 20-35; 16.5% were coded as adolescents or teens. There were more young boys 17.2% than young girls 9.9. As suspected, when main characters were over 35 years of age, men were more often represented than women (Appendix B, p. 12). Some areas of this study conformed to previous studies such as the role of female characters and their likelihood to be portrayed in the home or in other domestic environments. This study found that women were twice as likely to appear in a home or domestic setting and twice as likely to be indoors. These statistics and other can be found in Appendix B pages 7-14.
**Secondary Characters and Setting:**
This is another area of interest as women were also overrepresented in this area of advertising. Again, women were almost twice as likely to be cast as secondary characters. Women portrayed as secondary characters were also more likely to appear in a work setting which does not conform to previous studies (Appendix B, pages 10-11).

**Concluding Remarks**
As advertising is an important aspect of society much needs to be learnt about the effects of commercials on viewers and the portrayal of men and women. This research has focused on the role men and women play in Thai television advertising and negative gender stereotypes that still pervade the Thai advertising industry. This study only included prime time advertising and the researcher suspects that day time television advertising has similar gender portrayals; as such, further research in this field should continue in Thailand as so little is known today. The portrayal of women’s roles in advertising is improving; yet it is still inaccurate and these inaccuracies and discriminating characterizations of women are pervasive during prime time Thai television advertising.

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Taken from the World Wide Web on Wednesday August 15th, 2004


Television Asia, Oct 2003 p12(1)  
Asia's television industry is talking about ... strong Thai TV adspend forecasts. (in the news)(Brief Article)


Abstract. Teenager or adolescence was the transitional stage of development between childhood and full adulthood. Nowadays adolescence confronted various media including, television, magazines, and Internet, teens became met the dangerous situations. Since, lifestyle in university community may be quite different from the teaching and learning that teens have experienced before. Teens were given a lot of autonomy, and had exciting opportunities to pursue their own lines of enquiry, especially at the advanced levels of their degree study. So, the objectives of this research were examined the effects of five media included Music, Film, Magazines, Internet and Television on adolescent behaviors who study in university. The methodology was focus at five kinds of media: TV, movies, magazines, music, internet. The completed questionnaires \( n=100 \), interview \( n=20 \), and document analysis approach \( n=36 \) were used. Then, the outstanding 156 cases of media influence for male and female in university, Thailand were discussion. The finding showed that media usage between males and females were quite similar in order of Internet, Music, All teens agreed that media was positive (100 %) in tasks of studying, relaxing, solving for loneliness, decreasing broken heart emotion, and receiving or sending e-mail. However, teens suggested that the negative sides of media were pornographic films, waste of time, fact of data. Finally, institutes, parents, lecturers, and country could be confident that media influences on safe environment for university teens.

Keywords: media influences, teen media, adolescent behavior

1 Introduction

Thailand, the only Southeast Asian nation never to have been colonized by European powers, is a constitutional monarchy whose current head of state is HM Bhumibol Adulyadej. Thailand is the 50th largest country in the world; most nearly equal in size to Spain or roughly equivalent in size to France or Texas. The vast majority (roughly 80%) of Thailand’s nearly 65 million citizens are ethnically Thai. The remainder consists primarily of peoples of Chinese, Indian, Malay, Mon, Khmer, Burmese, and Lao decent. Of the 7 million citizens who live in the capital city, Bangkok. More than 92% of the population speaks Thai language, the official language. As a result of its cosmopolitan capital city and established tourism infrastructure, English is spoken and understood throughout much of Thailand. [27].

In year 2011, Miss Yingluck Shinawatra, a prime minister of Thailand presents the government policy There are three main goals of Thai government declaration 1) balance of economics structure 2) society of harmony and 3) direct to ASEAN 2015 [10]. The scope of balance of economic structure means to bring the country towards a balanced economic structure with the strength of the domestic economy. This will be the cornerstone of a quality and sustainable growth. Government will improve the quality of Thai people in all age and health. It is a decisive factor in the survival and competitiveness of the economy. Thai government begins the social policy and quality of life by expanding the role and network cooperation of cultural council in each province and all sectors as surveillance mechanism that covers the whole of cultural life and the media. All have an impact bending culture and behavior of children and youth. Especially, eliminate the media as a threat to society whenever the media will be problem with the quality of Thai youth. Media will extend the lead to social immunity [10].
Today, media was influenced on teen not only print media but also electronic formats. It also is understood that most media have commercial implications and the aggressive points. Cause of media; television, magazines, and the Internet, youth met the five dangerous situations, tobacco, alcohol, sexuality, violence, and body image. First, tobacco use is normalized and glamorized through sport sponsorship, popular entertainment; including, television, movies, and magazines. Second, alcohol and other drug, ads for alcohol, is run rampant during some of television’s most popular programming. Third, sexuality, many of the messages about teen sexuality come directly from the media. Primetime television, once considered “family hour,” is now a target for sex-toned themes in both action and innuendo. More than half of all television programs, excluding news, sporting events, and children’s programming, contained sexual content, incorporating an average of more than three scenes per hour. Forth, violence, before the average child reaches 18 years of age, he or she will have witnessed 200,000 acts of violence on television, including 40,000 murders. Media violence rarely shows the consequences of violence. Media violence is a contributing factor to an increase in anti-social and aggressive behavior. It also has other adverse effects on children as well as adults, including fear of becoming a victim and a decrease in sensitivity to violence and those who suffer from it. And last, body image and nutrition, the average child watches 10,000 food advertisements per year on television. Most are for junk food and fast food—only 2% are for fruits, vegetables, or beans. Advertisements for junk food and fast food can also be seen in magazines, movies (through product placement), stores, the Internet, and even schools. Recent statistics indicate that 14% of children are now seriously overweight. 60% of overweight children between the ages of 5-10 years of age already have at least one risk factor for heart disease, including elevated blood cholesterol, blood pressure or increased insulin, and type 2 diabetes. [26]

Since the dangerous situations of media spreads around the world, Thailand concentrates about media as focusing in government policy. The researcher focuses on university teenager. Teens in university are the main group to consideration mostly because life style in university community may be quite different from the teaching and learning that teens have experienced before, high schools. They are given a lot of autonomy and have exciting opportunities to pursue their own lines of enquiry to direct at advanced levels of their degree study. The life style is as freedom mostly of university students can be easily attack by media. [29]. So, researcher tries to find the negative or positive ways that media influenced male or female teens in Thailand. Finally the result will be benefit for university committee, lectures, parents, teens, and country to reduce the negative way from media and support positive media for supporting knowledge for teens and building the quality community of university.

2 Objective

Examined the effects of five media: Television, Film, Magazines, Music, Internet on diverse of university teens, male and female.

3 Related Theories Studied

3.1 Period of Adolescence  Human development occurs in the periods of childhood, adolescence and adulthood. Adolescence is part of the life course and as such is not an isolated period of development. Though it has some unique characteristics, what takes place during adolescence is connected with development and experiences in both childhood and adulthood. Period of human development based on categories as follows: [20],[21]
3.1.1 Childhood  This period is the time from conception to birth - approximately 9 months. Infancy is time that extends from birth to 18-24 months of age. Many psychological activities -language, symbolic thought, sensorimotor coordination, social learning, and parent-child relationship-begin in this period. Early childhood is the developmental period about 5-6 years of age. They develop school readiness and spend many hours in play and with peer. Middle and late childhood is period that extends from the age about 6-10 or 11 years of age. In this period, called elementary school years. Children master the fundamental skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Achievement becomes a central theme of the child's development and self control increase.

3.1.2 Adolescence  This period is the transition between childhood and adulthood that involves biological, cognitive, and socioemotional changes. A key task of adolescence is preparation for adulthood. Although the age range of adolescence can vary with cultural and historical circumstances, in the United States and most other cultures today, adolescence begins at approximately 10-13 years of age and ends between the ages of about 18-22. Increasingly, developmentalists describe adolescence in term of early and late periods. Early adolescence corresponds roughly to the middle school or junior high school years and includes most puberty change. Late adolescence refers approximately to the latter half of the second decade of life. Career interest, dating, and identity exploration are often more pronounced in late adolescence than in early adolescence.

3.1.3 Adulthood  Three periods of adult development are early adulthood, middle adulthood, and late adulthood. Early adulthood usually begins in the late teens or early twenties and lasts through the thirties. It is time of establishing personal and economic independence, and career development intensifies. Middle adulthood begins at approximately 35 to 45 years of age and end at some point between approximately 55 and 65 years of age.

3.2 Stereotype of Gender  Many psychologists prefer to use the term "gender" rather than "sex" because the former is a broader term. Sex is determined by chromosomes, hormones, and anatomy. It is a biological phenomenon. Gender is all this and more. It includes the cultural associations that go along with being male or female. It refers to feeling and abilities based on biology and environment. Gender divides as follow: [17]

3.2.1 Masculinity  Traditional, masculinity men were supposed to be aggressive, strong, forceful, self-confident, virile, courageous, logical, and unemotional. To be a man, a male must be a sturdy rock with an air of toughness, confidence, and self-reliance. He must never be emotional or reveal tenderness or weakness. Men are never to express affection toward other men so as to avoid all suspicion of homosexuality. These stereotypes of masculinity are considered socially desirable by some people today.

3.2.2 Femininity  The traditional concept of femininity female were supposed to be submissive, sensitive, tender, affectionate, sentimental, dependent, and emotional. A feminine female was never aggressive, loud, or vulgar in speech or behavior. She was expected to be soft-hearted, to cry easily, to get upset at time over small things. She was expected to be dependent and sub massive and to be interested primary in her home. Today, few social groups hold these stereotypes of femininity, indicating that significant changes have taken place in people's concept.
3.3 **Focus on Media** In the broadest sense of the word, a medium is a channel through which a message travels from the source to the receiver ("medium" is singular, "media" is plural). Media usually are thought of as sources of news and entertainment. They also carry messages for providing information, providing entertainment, helping to persuade, and contributing to social cohesion.[28] Media fall into three categories based on the technology by which they are produced: print, electronic, and photographic.[29],[7]

3.3.1. **Print Media** Book, magazine and newspaper, the primary print media, generally can be distinguished in the following four categories: binding, regularity, content, and timeliness. For example, Magazine - Binding with stapled, Regularity with At least quarterly, Content with Diverse topic, and Timeliness that Timeliness not an issue. The technological basis of book, magazines and newspapers, as well as that of lesser print media such as brochures, pamphlets, and billboards, is the printing press. Print media messages are in tangible form. They can be picked up physically and laid down, stacked and filed and stored for later reference. Even though newspapers may be use to wrap

3.3.2 **Electronic Media** Television, radio and sound recording flash their messages electronically. Unlike printed messages, television and radio messages disappears as soon as they transmitted. Although it is true that message can be stored on tape and by other means, they usually reach listeners and viewers in non concrete form. Television is especially distinguish because it engages several senses at once with sound, sight, and movement. The newest medium, the web, combines text, audio and visuals- both still and moving- in a global electronic network.

3.3.3 **Chemical Media** The technology of movie is based on photographic chemistry. Movie are a chemical medium. In some respects, chemical technology is not only archaic but also expensive. Studios make as many as 6,000 copies of major releases and ship them from movie house to movie house in cumbersome metal boxes. The freight bill alone is astronomical. How much easier-and cheaper-it would be to transmit movies via satellite to movie house. Eventually, as digital technology improves and cost come down, movies will shift from chemical to electronic technology. Hollywood has learned many lessons about digital technology from high-impact special effects and begun applying that experience on a broader scale.

3.4 **Power of Media** The power of media to change people's minds directly is very limited. People don't like to have their minds change. If influence were limited to changing people's minds directly, the media would not be particularly influential. The most obvious and prevalent example of mass media influence is advertising. Through careful intermixture with entertainment and informational content, ad gain a captive audience. Through bold colors and imaginative graphics to make people pay attention. Through catchy slogans and constant repetition, they make people remember. Through irrelevant appeals to sex, snobism and good life, ad make teen buy [19]. Not only the ad, but also the other media effect the youth behavior. For example Violence, most the movies on television turned to increasingly graphic violence, it can lead to aggressive behavior. Drugs and alcohol, ad can increase youth to drink and alcohol abuse. and issue of gender and reacial/ethnic stereotyping. Because media can not show all realities of all things, the choices media practitioners make when presenting specific people and groups may well facilitate or encourage stereotyping. [1]
4 Process and Results

There are three phases of research: (1) Survey of university teens with questionnaire by collected data at classroom, park, canteen, and library in university, Thailand and completed questionnaires [n=100]. (2) Interview with male and female teens in dormitory and classroom of public and private university [n=20]. (3) Content analysis approach for checking the situation of media influence for teens in Thailand [n=36]. The results of the study were as follow for 156 important cases:

4.1 Media influences between male and female in university community

4.1.1 Media Usage From five media as Film, Music, Magazine, Television, and Internet. The situation of media usage among male and female university teens was similar in 2011. Internet was the media no.1 for male (31.25%) and female (27.83%). Music was the no.2, Television was the no.3 for male. This view presented Internet was influenced media among university students because students feel that internet is easy to use and Internet was the mix media of music, film, television, and magazine together. They can follow the older program of Drama, Show from Internet. Besides, they could use internet everywhere; dormitories, canteen, classroom, and park.

4.1.2 Internet Usage In 2011, the activities of Internet among male and female university teens were different. Mostly males used internet for Chat (24.24%) but females used for Music (25.75%). Next, males used for Music but females used for Search. Most male liked to chat and music because they feel relax when using computer. Whereas females enjoyed listen to song because they feel loneliness, sadness, stress. However, female used internet in educational way as searching information for study purpose. Moreover, Thai teenagers were effected by top five website: Youtube, Google, Facebook, Hotmail, and 4shared. Wenit [23] Roongarun [11] and Sasakon [31] found that Thai university teens used internet in free time and from 8.00 p.m-12.00 p.m., like to use WWW service, most contents were physical science and technology, but the main problem of using was English language. Pootsadee [9] found that engineering teens liked to find images from internet. Prontip [13] found that male and female seek about sex information from internet differently –on WWW and chat room. Male liked to find sex image as art whereas females liked find sex text, and home is the place to search. Napin and others [2] found that university teens liked to buy Internet hour card at Internet café about 199 bath (60 USD) and can use 30 hours. Teens got the salary about 5,000 bath (165 USD) per month. Piyawadee [32] and Weerayoot [4] and found that most teens used internet as top media because it is free and cheap media. University teens used internet for 6 hours per day and used for education and entertainment ways.

4.1.3 Music Usage In 2011, most males (72.13%) and females (76.92%) university teens used music for relaxing and their music genre as pop (48.65%). However, for the other purposes were different because male used for part, funny emotion whereas females used for blue emotion of broken heart (12.31%). This situation showed that life styles of males were funny and did not be serious. However, female teens feel sadness with broken heart because of the sensitive life style that be strict in everything. Besides, teens were effect by music genre as by Thai Pop, Thai Country, Korean Pop and Western Pop. Euanjit [18] found that theme of song for teens is love mostly. Especially, disappointment from love, such as broken heart, three-cornered love affair, one-sided love affair, etc. The speech that found in teen music as —Yu are my breath,” —You are like a bouquet,” “Can you answer a bit?,”
4.1.4 **Television Usage**

In 2011, the television influenced among male and female university teens were different. Mostly males used television for News (27.84%) but females used for Drama (37.84%). Next, males used for Drama and Game show but females used for Game show. Most males used News for following the current situations and television was easy media for them to listen and watch the broadcasting for real situation. By the way, most females liked to watch Drama because they feel relaxing and enjoy looking at their favorite superstars. Time of watching News between 6.00-8.30 am. and 10.30 pm. Time of Drama at 8.30-10.00 pm. and Game show almost began in 10.00 pm. everyday in Thailand. Most teens known Asian Television Program as Sponge—scientific game show from South Korea, Dong Yi – Korean series drama, and Kasou Taisho—creative game show from Japan that attendances must create stories by using interesting stages and costume. Dusadee [14] found that advertisement on television was the influence to public – Korean series.” Thai teens liked to watch Korean series because they can apply the ideas to develop their lives, such as, love, life style in family, art and culture. Duangta and Wimonpan [12] found that sex image on television did not influence for university teens because teens used television for following knowledge, entertainment, science and technology, politic and economic, sport. Teens found that Thai society did not allow to present about sex idea, then teens can get the mistake or uncovering fact of sex. As this reasons, teens can misunderstand and had the bad attitude of taking about sex. Tantawee [22] and Jitragon [16] found that teens or generation M liked to watch free television broadcast, 3 channel 3, 5, 7 and 9, and they liked to watch television because news update, clarity, effect on their decision.

4.1.5 **Film Usage**

In 2011, the usage of Film among males and females university teens were different. Most favorite Film for males was Action (23.39 %) but females liked to watch Film as Romance (27.73%). Because of life style of gender behaviors that male should be strong and brave so they liked to watch Action Film. Whereas female looked soft, cute, and imaginative so they liked to watch Romance Film. In Thailand, most teens known the western movies and were crazy of Harry Potter, Avatar, Transformer, Terminator, Fast Furious 5. However, some teens felt that Film could be caused of their spending money. They were economical and did not go to the cinema. Intira [25] found that university teens came to cinema for 1 time per month. They liked to go with friend and ticket is 120 bath (4 USD). The cinema that they choose is near university, office, and their home. Most teens agreed that ad on film influence on their decision for buying product and service.

4.1.6 **Magazine Usage**

In 2011, most university teens used magazine as last choice for favorite media. Male and female looked different to use of magazine. Most male used magazine that had content about health (32.79%) but females liked content of celebrities (46.67%). The others content of magazine for male were sport, politic, business and travel. By the way, female liked to read horoscope. Nataliya [24] found that most females university liked to buy magazine two copies per month, price about 87.89 bath (3 USD) and they read for 30 minutes. Lertsakul and S. [8] found that teens liked to read magazine in _Cut_n‘ Mix styles. Most teens liked magazine that has styles as difference, update, fashion, active, mix of past present and future time.
Table 1  Top Five Media Influences on University Teens in Thailand (2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Activities Use</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>Youtube, Google, Facebook, Hotmail, 4Shared</td>
<td>Music, Search, Movie, E-mail, Game, Clip, Download, Edit ringtone, News</td>
<td>Search, Chat, Movie, E-mail, Game, News, Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Relax</td>
<td>Party</td>
<td>Broken Heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Broken Heart, Loneliness, Boring, Missed home</td>
<td>Party, Sadness, Stress, Boring, Loneliness, Missed home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Television</td>
<td>Sponge Dong Yi, Kasou Taisho</td>
<td>News</td>
<td>Drama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Drama, Game show, Documentary, Song, Movie, Sport, Cartoon, Science</td>
<td>Game show, News, Documentary, Song</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Film</td>
<td>Harry Potter, Avatar, Transformer, Terminator, Fast Furious 5</td>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Romance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Romance, Horror, Science Fiction, Drama, Animation, Comedy</td>
<td>Action, Drama, Animation, Science Fiction, Horror, Comedy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>Difference, Update, Fashion, Mix-part present, future</td>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Celebrities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Celebrities, Computer, Language, Car, Sport, Politics, Business, Travel</td>
<td>Health, Language, Computer, Horoscope</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. Using positive media to help education climate in University Community

From the interview approach in 2011, most university students could apply various media usefully, for studying, news awareness, technology creativity. Then, education climate will take the road map as building media literacy environment campaign in every university students activities. For example university can create formal education as media literacy curriculum to make student understand of media in four dimensional as cognitive domain, emotional domain, aesthetic domain, and moral domain, especially the process of media literacy as analysis, evaluation, grouping, induction, deduction, synthesis, and abstracting [15] Beside Informal education could begin with collaborative with webmasters to spread good news or positive view of media in every channels, library websites, university websites, chat websites, film website, television channel, cinema and musical websites.
4.3 Reduced the negative media that were attacked teens behaviors.

In 2011, most students spend a lot of time on the internet so they found that was a bad habit and they could not get a good health. However, they tried to use in suitable time and took a rest enough. However, most of them found negative media sides for example, pornographic film, scary image, gossip, incorrect information. Then, they known that the negative ways still be plate in media, they began to used and considered before consumed. Most of them could use aggressive or dangerous movie to teach themselves about how to stay in society. Sexual in media could be scoped or for university students just only for education. The research presented that negative media could be reduced by teaching. Most Information and technology class, lectured about how to get high benefits from media and assign homework that students can apply IT usefully to find the answer and e-mail to lecturer. So, the way to reduced negative media in Thailand could follow by university assignment. Whenever students got a time to do homework, report, or examination, they could concentrated more in educational climate and forgot to spend time, or have a little time to spend with negative media.

4.4 Developed to quality community

Quality community was the main goal of Thai society in 2011. It can develop by joining everybody - committee, lecturers, parents, and teens. This goal could be possible, whenever each regions; north, east, west, south, northeastern, still begin together. From this research, most university students came from northeastern part, a biggest region of Thailand, this region welcomed to developed regions and shared the positive media to each other. Beside, the most projects and institutes in Thailand researched about —child watch , to observe about child and youth behavior and impact of media among them. However, completed quality community must confront with main three factors in networking, adult, teen and parents. Adult should understand of technology and think in positive way of new transition of media society. Teens enjoyed to use technology or media for educational or benefit mostly. Parents should view and feel free about media impact because nowadays, teenagers could not escape from any negative media or use only positive media. Parents should be aware of media and take a time to observe the situation of media, internet, music, television, film, magazine. Moreover, parents should not be shy to spend and use of media as teens used, and took a role as friend of teenager. In this way, teenage will tell more interesting secrets of media—positive or negative.

"I used Google to search many education research materials, research, curriculum, exercises and CAI”. 

"I liked to read news, travel, and sports from the Internet.”

"Transformers made me know the creative robot”

"I used Facebook to post news, chat with friends, asking about homework, and sent files in our groups”

"I liked to spend more time with horror media, „Laddaland -Film”, „Person VS Ghost –reality show”, Reality Accident News – talk show” ”

Figure 1 Some messages from university teens
5 Conclusion

Although Thailand was spread with various media, internet, music, television, film, and magazine, university students still confront with positive ways. They could take the benefit of media to do assignment and concentrate to take a good side of media among the contents in media that adult found should be dangerous and aggressive. Thailand could build the positive way by collaborative climate between the administrator of media or media agency to promote news or information of a good view of media. Why teenage should know before consume. By the way, the negative media reduction should reduce by education climate. Lectured should assign more homework or took the educational activities related with media to make university student use media beneficially. The quality community of research was impact by three main factors:, lecturer, teenagers, and parents. Lecturers were the first factor that build education climate, teenagers were second factor who considered of media, and parents who is the last factors who will know and get secrets of media from teenager.—positive or negative

6 Acknowledgement
Assist.Prof. Sangkom Pumipantu, ph.D

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Corporate Social Responsibility Strategy Implementation of Listed Companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand

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Corporate Social Responsibility Strategy Implementation of Listed Companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand

Nowadays, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is currently popular and widespread all over the world, including Thailand. CSR’s principles and guidelines are also been adopted and implemented all over the world, although companies in Thailand have been adopted in last decade. It means the companies and nations have to pay the attention not only economy growth, but also environmental and other social dimensions.

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The incremental awareness in 21st century is the incremental demand in process and ethical action in doing business of modern world, including the pressure on industry demanding of ethical business improvement. Accordingly, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is emerged pursuant to the failure world economy. Its notion is enhanced the corporation responsibility to society beyond the profit maximization. The success of the corporation is not only profit maximization but also to pay the corporate responsibility towards society, including environmental, community, all stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere, to enable the efficiency and sustainable growth of company and society altogether, as well as to prevent the anti-action of consumers against companies’ products and activities. Accordingly, CSR thus is the important and necessary knowledge for all companies to make their focus with. The research thus was designed to study and investigate the dimension of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) strategies implementation of listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand, which includes process of CSR: CSR-after-process, CSR-in-process, and CSR-as-process; CSR’s strategy: outside-in or inside-out strategy; CSR’s activity resources; CSR’s activity types; CSR’s spirit: fundamental or advance; issue of problem; stakeholders’ participation; the benefits of CSR towards stakeholders; CSR’s message design; and marketing communications strategies. The researcher then analyzed further to conclude the CSR’s outlook and trend of Corporate Social Responsibility Strategy Implementation of Listed Companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand.

The research objectives were set as follows: (a) to study the dimensions (environmental, social, economy, community, and so on) and trend of CSR strategy implementation of listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand; (b) to study the CSR initiatives which is most implemented by listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand; and (c) to study the correlation between Corporate Social Responsibility’s Vision and CSR’s Strategy Implementation.
The expected contributions from the research are: (a) to expand and develop CSR knowledge for academic, executives and related person to have the correct foundation knowledge of CSR filed for their further development and research; (b) to provide the CSR guidance for organizations to manage efficiently their CSR activities upon on international CSR standard for sustainable growth; and (c) to understand the situation, direction, and trend of Corporate Social Responsibility strategy implementation of listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate Social Responsibility: CSR

The company has their important role towards social system in producing products and service, buying raw materials, hiring employees, paying the taxes to government. However, the population in community and in the country are expected the corporate to give the information, fact data to consumers, fair competition, and preserve environment. Therefore, most companies of all over the world, including listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand, are implemented Corporate Social Responsibility Strategy pursuant to the following factors:

1. Citizen’s demand from the notion “Every corporate should contribute for social support and development”. Since companies have enough resources and knowledge to contribute towards society;

2. In 1874, the emergence of investors pressure led to the new investment, called “Social Responsibility Investment (SRI)”. It was the investment fund which was chosen to invest exclusively in businesses which have clear policy and operation of CSR implementation for environmental and social development;

3. Academic development from continuous CSR researches, such as Professor Theodor Kreps (1940) with his notion: “Social Audit” – business corporate should make the report of their CSR. Later George Goyder (1960) published the book of "The Responsible Company" by claiming that corporation has responsibilities to society beyond the profit maximization;

4. Cooperation framework amongst international countries in UN Conference on the Human Environment, Sweden, 1974, which led to the establishment of United Nation Environment Program (UNEP) – which is responsible to Corporate Social Responsibility of business sector;

5. Globalization: Business Corporation expands their business throughout the world. If there is no equal standard or control system, those will lead to unfair or unethical treatment. Accordingly, international companies have branches and partners all over the world, they have to apply CSR approach with them as well; and
6. Free trade agreement and law renovation – since law and regulations could not cover all modern trade nowadays, leading companies thus has CSR to enhance CSR trend to cover unreachable gap of law.

While Porter, Michael E. & Kramer, Mark R. (2006) concluded that CSR strategy has stimulated CSR strategy implementation as follows:

1) Ethical regulation which is the core objective of CSR.

2) Sustainable Development – focusing on environment and community support which H.E. Gro Harlem Brundtland, Prime Minister of Norway in 1980’s identified “Meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.”, World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD).

3) The operation license from government.

4) The good corporate reputation from CSR strategy implementation to leverage corporate image, branding, ethical of corporation and value of listed company in stock exchange.

The above approach are similar to the notion of Polonsky (1994), which is identified that many corporations are recognized that Green Marketing is opportunity in achieving the missions of company.

HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis 1: There is the correlation between corporate vision/mission and the corporate social responsibility strategic implementation

Hypothesis 2: There is the correlation between CSR vision/mission and the corporate social responsibility strategic implementation

Hypothesis 3: There is the correlation between corporate vision/mission and the corporate social responsibility vision
Definitions

Vision means the definition of the way an organization or enterprise will look in the future. Vision is a long-term view, sometimes describing how the organization would like the world to be in which it operates.

Mission means the definition of the fundamental purpose of an organization or an enterprise, succinctly describing why it exists and what it does to achieve its Vision.

Strategy means a combination of the ends (goals) for which the firm is striving and the means (policies) by which it is seeking to get there. A strategy is sometimes called a roadmap which is the path chosen to plow towards the end vision. The most important part of implementing the strategy is ensuring the company is going in the right direction.

Social marketing means the systematic application of marketing, along with other concepts and techniques, to achieve specific behavioral goals for a social good. Social marketing can be applied to promote merit goods, or to make a society avoid demerit goods and thus to promote society's well being as a whole.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a form of corporate self-regulation integrated into a business model. CSR policy functions as a built-in, self-regulating mechanism whereby business monitors and ensures its active compliance with the spirit of the law, ethical standards, and international norms. The goal of CSR is to embrace responsibility for the company's actions and encourage a positive impact through its activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities, stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere.

Sustainable development (SD) is a pattern of resource use, which aims to meet human needs while preserving the environment so that these needs can be met not only in the present, but also for generations to come. The field of sustainable development can be conceptually broken into three constituent parts: environmental sustainability, economic sustainability and sociopolitical sustainability.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology was the quantitative method - content analysis (census), by collecting data throughout website of all listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET) during 2009-2010. There were 497 listed companies from 27 industries (Source: http://www.set.or.th/set/marketstatistics.do?language=th&country=TH, Stock Exchange of Thailand, August 6, 2009). The details are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2.
Figure 1  The quantitative method-content analysis (census), by collecting data throughout website of all listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET) during 2009-2010

Figure 2  The method and aspect of CSR from collecting data throughout website of all listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET) during 2009-2010
FINDINGS

The findings revealed that there were only 137 listed companies in SET (27.57 per cent) which have CSR report on their own website from all 497 listed companies from 27 industries (Source: http://www.set.or.th/set/marketstatistics.do?language=th&country=TH, Stock Exchange of Thailand, August 6, 2009). While there were 360 listed companies in SET (72.43 per cent) which had no CSR report on their own website from all 497 listed companies from 27 industries.

Industry group who the most reported their CSR on website was IT & Telecom Industry: 21 companies from 28 companies, calculated as 15.3 per cent, followed by Property Industry 14 companies or 10.2 per cent, and Food & Beverage 10 companies, or 7.30 per cent.

The research unveiled that most companies identified their visions and mission on consumers’ rights dimension 80 companies, calculated as 58.4 per cent, followed by economy dimension 42 companies, or 30.7 per cent, and environmental dimension 6 companies or 4.4 per cent, as shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and well-being</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers rights</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>137</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 CSR Vision and CSR Mission of Listed Companies in SET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and well-being</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers rights</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>137</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand identified their own CSR visions/missions in dimension of consumer right, total 38 companies, as the percentage of 27.7%, 30 listed companies in environmental dimension as the percentage of 21.9, and 19 listed companies in educational dimension as the percentage of 13.9% respectively, as shown in Table 2.

Table 3 CSR’s Strategic Implementation of Listed Companies in SET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>50.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and well-being</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers rights</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>137</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result from Table 3 found that most listed companies in SET implemented their on social dimension 69 companies, calculated as 50.4 per cent, followed by environmental dimension 29 companies, or 21.2 per cent, and educational dimension 25 companies or 18.2 per cent. It was concluded that over 90% of listed companies in SET implementing CSR in the aforementioned 3 dimensions.
Table 4 CSR’s Initiatives of Listed Companies in SET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CSR’s Initiatives</th>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cause Promotion</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause Related Marketing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Social Marketing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Philanthropy</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Volunteer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Responsibility Business Practices</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>137</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher found that CSR’s Initiatives of most companies were Corporate Philanthropy 90 companies, calculated as 65.7 per cent, followed by Social Responsibility Business Practices 29 companies, or 21.2 per cent, and Cause Promotion 9 companies or 6.6 per cent, as described in Table 4.

HYPOTHESIS TEST

**Hypothesis 1** - There is the correlation between corporate vision/mission and the corporate social responsibility strategic implementation

Table 5 Statistic of Chi-square and p-value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental Dimension</th>
<th>Social Dimension</th>
<th>Economic Dimension</th>
<th>Educational Dimension</th>
<th>Community Dimension</th>
<th>Heath Dimension</th>
<th>Consumer Rights Dimension</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmenta l Dimension</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Dimension</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy Dimension</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Dimension</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Dimension</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heath Dimension</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Rights Dimension</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson’s Chi-square = 44.352, d.f. = 35, p-value = 0.134

Statistical Hypothesis:
H0: Corporate Vision/Mission is not correlated with CSR Strategic Implementation

H1: Corporate Vision/Mission is correlated with CSR Strategic Implementation

The Result:

From Table 5 is shown the result of Pearson’s Chi-square = 44.352, d.f. = 35, p-value = 0.134. Thus, our test statistic is in the acceptance region. Accordingly, we accept that H0 is true: Corporate Vision/Mission is not correlated with CSR Strategic Implementation.

Hypothesis 2 - There is the correlation between CSR Vision and the Corporate Social Responsibility Strategic Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6 Statistic of Chi-square and p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmenatal Dimension</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social Dimension</td>
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<tr>
<td>Economy Dimension</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heath Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Rights Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson’s Chi-square = 261.152, d.f. = 49, p-value = 0.000

Statistical Hypothesis:

H0: CSR Vision is not correlated with CSR Strategic Implementation

H1: CSR Vision is correlated with CSR Strategic Implementation

The Result:
As shown in Table 6, there are Pearson’s Chi-square = 261.152, d.f. = 49, p-value = 0.000. Accordingly, our test statistic is in the rejection region, we thus reject H₀ and accept H₁ Hypothesis that CSR Vision is correlated with CSR Strategic Implementation.

**Hypothesis 3** - There is the correlation between Corporate Vision/Mission and the Corporate Social Responsibility Vision

**Table 7 Statistic of Chi-square and p-value**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental Dimension</th>
<th>Social Dimension</th>
<th>Economy Dimension</th>
<th>Educational Dimension</th>
<th>Community Dimension</th>
<th>Heath Dimension</th>
<th>Consumer Rights Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson’s Chi-square = 110.965, d.f. = 35, p-value = 0.000

**Statistical Hypothesis:**

H₀: Corporate Vision/Mission is not correlated with CSR Visions

H₁: Corporate Vision/Mission is correlated with CSR Visions

**The Result:**

From Table 7 is shown that there are Pearson’s Chi-square = 110.965, d.f. = 35, p-value = 0.000. Thus, our test statistic is in the rejection region. Accordingly, we reject H₀ and accept H₁ Hypothesis that Corporate Vision/Mission is correlated with CSR Visions.

**Conclusions:**
The results are shown that only 137 listed companies, from 497 listed companies in SET during 2009-2010, had CSR report on their own website. But there was the trend that many Thai listed companies will employ more CSR towards CSR popular and globalization. In addition, listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand identified their own CSR visions/missions in dimension of consumer right 27.7 per cent, followed by environmental dimension 21.9 per cent, and 19 listed companies in educational dimension as the percentage of 13.9% respectively.

The survey results unveils that 69 listed companies in Stock Exchange of Thailand have implemented CSR in social dimension as the percentage of 50.4, followed by 29 companies in environmental dimension or 21.2 percent and 25 companies in educational dimension as the percentage of 18.2. It was concluded that over 90% of listed companies in SET implemented CSR in these 3 dimensions. However, there were many more disasters happening, including the trend of climate change campaign throughout worldwide, so it was the trend for environmental dimension for Thai listed companies in SET as well.

Regarding CSR’s Initiatives, there were 90 listed companies in SET employed Corporate Philanthropy, 90 companies, or 65.7 per cent, followed by Social Responsibility Business Practices 29 companies, or 21.2 per cent, and Cause Promotion 9 companies or 6.6 per cent.

Finally, the corporate vision/mission is no correlated with their own CSR vision/mission. On the other hand, there were correlation between the corporate CSR visions/missions and their dimensions of CSR strategy implementation, including the correlation between Corporate Visions/Missions and CSR Visions.

References:


(Wilcox, Dennis L. Communications & Sustainability Development in the Next Decade, Keynote Speaker, 11 February 2009)

The Globalization of Beauty:
The Face of Indonesian Girls in Contemporary Indonesian Teen Magazines

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Email diaharimb@yahoo.com

Topic: Critical and Cultural Studies,
Gender and Communication
The Globalization of Beauty: 
The Face of Indonesian Girls in Contemporary Indonesian Teen Magazines

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Abstract
In contemporary Indonesia, globalization of media is inevitable. Ranging from advertisements to magazines, Indonesians can easily find both Indonesian editions of, for example, magazines and international editions. This especially works very well when talking about teen magazines. It is with respect to the world of female beauty that this paper will address the globalization and its effects to the representation of teen beauty in Indonesia. This paper examines the beauty industry in the media focusing on teen beauty in the teen magazines both in Indonesian editions and international editions circulated in Indonesia. By understanding how women, especially young women understand the concept of beauty and how the concept of beauty represented in the magazines, this paper also attempts to see whether there is a shift in the meaning of the concept or perception of beauty or it is merely formed by consumerism. The discussion in the paper will also comprise how the perception of beauty for teenagers is indeed a social and cultural construction within Indonesian environment in comparison to international setting. The paper is expected to provide a critical analysis of texts in popular culture that are often accepted by young people without realizing the impact of the on-going construction. As heavily mediated teen beauty ideals have put pressures on girls everywhere, we can infer that for teenagers beauty does matter. The hegemonic ideals of beauty situated within global modern beauty are not so immune for girls anywhere in particular girls in Indonesia.

Beauty, Media and Globalization
In a wide range of cultural texts in Indonesia especially in contemporary popular culture, women often become the main focus or even an object in those texts. Advertising, for example, where women become the main consumers, women frequently becomes an object or even a "victim" that by and large look very unreal compared to real women in real life (in their daily lives). These images offer distorted, negative, and unrealistic images of female (Gough-Yates, p. 1 - 5). They are utopian women as the ads or the commercials, women always look stunning, beautiful, happy, fantastic, and probably spoiled, often just an empty illusion (Fuery and Mansfield, 2000).

Representation of women through constructions are often not only utopian but also still trapped in the stereotypes that long have known: that women are obsessed with their body, gentle, stupid and that women are valued half of the men. Naomi Wolf in her book The Beauty Myth (1991) has
discussed this. In this book, the Wolf as well as other feminists view that the concept of female beauty is actually a social control that is very limiting as well as the concept of the wife and nanny. Wolf further says that the concept of female beauty has then obsessed on women and eventually entraps women in the grip of patriarchy (Wolf, p. 1-8).

Media indeed has given a powerful representation of women and girls. Through mass media, images of women and girls have bombarded us with more or less a culture that is heavily polished by pop culture. Representation of women in products of popular culture primarily intended for children and adolescents have risen significantly in the last years. Teen magazines for girls have given tremendous help in created girl culture, a culture that in the words of Susan Douglas Enlightened Sexism, wherein Douglas posits that in today’s culture, “We can excel in school, play sports, go to college, aspire to—and get jobs—previously reserved for men, be working mothers, and so forth. But in exchange we must obsess about our faces, weight, breast size, clothing brands, decorating, perfectly calibrated child-rearing, about pleasing men and being envied by other women (quoted in Peggy Orenstein, p. 18).

Indonesian girl culture is not much different than what Douglas says. Numerous teen magazines such as Gadis¹ (the oldest local teen magazines first appeared in 1973, gadis means girl), Kawanku (Indonesian, means my friend), Cita Cinta (Indonesian, means aspiration love), Kartika (a common name for a girl in Indonesia) or the franchised such as CosmoGirl! and Chic are laden with the concept of female beauty especially for the girls. This culture suits to what Orenstein defines as girly girl culture that “empha[sizes] on beauty and play-sexiness can increase girls’ vulnerability to the pitfalls that most concern parents: depression, eating disorders, distorted body image, risky sexual behavior” (p. 6).

At a glance, in any newsstand, we can say teen magazines in Indonesia targeting female readers especially girls outnumber magazines targeting male readers, especially teenage boys. Most magazines for teen boys, such as Hai (the most famous today) are rarely focusing on boy’s fashion, mostly these magazines for boys are associated with male hobbies such as Motor or Muscle. In comparison to teen girl magazines, beauty is still the it-object, the most sought after object sold to the female readers.

The above images show that in contemporary Indonesia, mass media plays the major role in constructing stereotypes, especially when talking about beauty. What is hip and trend, what is not, what girls should follow, what should not, the do and the don’t are stereotyped by the media. Kitch

¹ Gadis is the first teen magazine for girls of Indonesian origin. It first appeared in 1973, and up to day, is still highly sought by teen girls. For more information see http://www.gadis-online.com
(2001) and Bignell (1997, p.61) suggest that twentieth century magazines carry most of media stereotypes. Female magazines have significant roles in transmitting as well as constructing the beauty and feminine cultures towards their readers. These magazines heavily carry beauty constructions through the portrayals of beautiful females within them. Magazine industries especially those targeted to females have expanded the notion of what it is to be a “girl.” Storey argues that girl magazines continue to “operate as survival manuals, providing their readers with practical advice on how to survive in a patriarchal culture” (1996, pp. 83-85). These teen magazines work as "ideological forces" in the beauty construction as well as the culture of femininity in our society (McRobbie, 1995 and Curran et al, 1996, p.69).

Through magazines, readers can appropriate what is cool and what is not and the magazine front covers carry such stronger messages. Front cover is the spirit of a magazine since headlines in the front cover will decide whether readers are compelled to buy or not. Front cover could operate as a “taster” of what can be seen within the contents of the magazine, "serves to label its possessor," and is one of the marketing strategies (McLoughlin, p.5). To follow Bignell’s argument, magazine front cover consists of "iconic signs which represent the better self which every girl desires to become” (1997, p.69). In line to the aims of this paper that is to scrutiny the concept of beauty and the effect of globalization has upon such concept in teen magazines, front covers of teen magazines in Indonesia today will serve as the main data. As previously discussed, magazine front covers are rich sources to see how the beauty is constructed in Indonesian mass media; to see how the face of Indonesian girls is represented and how it is shifted in the wake of globalization. The face in the magazine front cover may serve for its young readers (the girls) as a role model. This face offers the girls glimpses and possibilities of what that new self will be (Wykes and Gunter, 2005).

Beauty is one of the important necessities both for girls and women at all time. Especially in Indonesia, physical beauty is often required in job application. Jobs in tourism industry, aviation, marketing, sales and public relation often require attractive physical appearance and the body tall. The face of Indonesian girls in magazines really gives strong endorsement to such notion. In the previous images, girls in the front covers of teen magazine always look happy (shown by their smile) and extremely fair. Fairness or whiteness (having whiter skin color for girls) has become a strong understanding to Indonesians as a major effect of globalized beauty. This was hardly seen in the past. In old Javanese ideal of beauty was never about having lighter skin color. One of the oldest ancient Javanese literatures produced before Western influence in terms of colonization is Kakawin literature. According to Helen Creese (In Yulianto, 2007) the representations of female beauty in Kakawin are always associated with the nature for instance, the descriptions of female beauty in Kitab Arjunawijaya:

Oh, the idol of my heart, Oh my goddess,
Tell me why you can be a goddess,
You're the unparalleled beauty
Everything you is similar to that
done by the goddesses
An Ashoka young leave is your waist
Your beautiful breasts are colored in the yellow of coconut
The wave of our hands are as beautiful as Gadung plants
Blue lotus is the beauty of your eyes
Lit during the month of such change
Because of your beauty, light loses its bright
No matter how many poems that exist on this earth,
Would never be enough to describe the charm of your beauty
Her hands are long like an arrow
Her hair is wavy and black,
She is slender yet strong,
The color of her skin is as yellow as saffron
Her eyes are frequently blinking as if blown by the wind, bushy hair
all those add to the charm of a beautiful face (in Yulianto 2007, translation mine)

The verses taken from that kitab (book) equalize female beauty with a goddess’ beauty. Nature becomes an important category comparative to female beauty. A beautiful woman or girl is someone whose hair is black, physically slim but strong yet, and most importantly having yellow skin color and not white skin color. Other categories cover the ways she walks and behaves and such are compared with the ways nature creates beauty. Ideal beauty in this Kakawin literature connects woman and nature and vice versa.

Beauty concept and its relation to white skin color, according to McClintock, have a long history. McClintock has analyzed the soap from the Victorian Age in England in the 19th century, and argued that the soap was to be agents of racism, colonialism, and imperialism. Soap ads depend on the imperial culture and the colonized nature as a dichotomy of black versus white. Blacks were marked as "natural", which in this context implies to someone who is not civilized, uncivilized, wild, and also people who were "dirty" and "tainted": those needed to be purified. In such dichotomy, imperial culture was white, cultured, clean, and pure (in Prabasmoro, 2003: 37 - 38). Although McClintock’s argument refers to the British colonization, the same argument is applicable to the Dutch colonization in the Indonesia (then was The Dutch East Indies). The policy of the Dutch colonial government echoed that of Victorian government. The colonial was white, clean, pure and civilized while the Native was dark and of lowest status. Dutch colonial law reinforced racial segregation separating the Dutch, foreign Orientals and indigenous Indonesians in terms of class and economic status where the first was the highest and the last was the lowest. Colonization has shifted the Indonesian concept of beauty from yellow to white, from darker skin color to fairer skin color, indicating that a girl is beautiful, clean and pure while having a higher social and economic status than the darker one. Contemporary face of Indonesian girls in the magazines is now fairer and whiter. This whiteness has become a universal standard applied most in every Indonesia. As globalization is defined as (Encyclopædia Britannica 2007 Ultimate Reference Suite, Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2011)

the process by which the experience of everyday life, marked by the diffusion of commodities and ideas, can foster a standardization of cultural expressions around the world. An extreme interpretation of this process, often referred to as globalism, sees advanced capitalism, boosted by wireless and Internet communications and electronic business transactions, destroying local traditions and regional distinctions, creating in their place a homogenized world culture. According to this view, human experience everywhere is in jeopardy of becoming essentially the same. This appears, however, to be an overstatement of the phenomenon. Though homogenizing influences do indeed exist, people are far from creating a single overarching world culture, it clearly shows that fair skin color or white skin color is universalized and globalized as a measurement of beauty. This strongly corresponds with numerous whitening creams that are now abundant in Indonesian market, ranging from whitening body lotions, facial creams, soaps and many
others. The following ads in teen magazines have persuaded and constructed girls to be whiter in order to feel good about themselves. This process seems to be a natural while indeed it is naturalization by the consumer culture and consumerism.

Both local and global products as advertised above send the same message to Indonesian girls: you must be white, slim and tender then you will be rewarded with happiness and a boyfriend. What Orenstein says in her *Cinderella Ate My Daughter: Dispatches From The Front Lines of the Girlie-Girl Culture* (2011) rings true. Girls are defined by their good look (i.e. white skin and slim) and boom, they can become Cinderella completed with her Cinderella Complex.

Yulianto names this phenomenon as *Pesona Barat* (the Western Charm, 2007). It is the desire for Indonesian women and girls to move their standard of beauty from local to more global. Pesona Barat indicates the ways Indonesians are charmed by Western influences in many forms of life: from language to lifestyle, from fashion to design, from beauty to values. There are various factors that contribute to this Western Charm phenomena. It is partly through the colonial occupation of the Dutch who insisted the superiority of the white race and dominated the Native, partly because the constructions of femininity and women roles under the Soeharto’s rezim that created *State Ibuism*. *State Ibuism* is a term first coined by Julia Suryakusuma in 1987.

*State Ibuism* defines women as appendages and companions to their husbands, as procreators of the nation, as mothers and educators of children, as housekeepers, and as members of Indonesian society - in that order. *Ibu* means *mother*, but the term has been stretched to cover a range of roles. Respected women with no children are addressed as “Ibu.” While a broad concept, the state uses *ibu* in its limited, biological meaning. . . . The State *Ibuism* concept encompasses economic, political and cultural elements. It derives from the most oppressive aspects of both bourgeois “housewifization” and *Priyayi* [white-collar Javanese] *Ibuism*. As in *Priyayi Ibuism*, it commands women to serve their men, children, family, community and state. As in “housewifization,” women are assumed to provide their labor freely, without exception of prestige or power. . . . Given the image of the state as family, one might call the predominant gender ideology *Bapak Ibuism* (father-motherism), with *bapak* [father/man] as the primary source of power and *ibu* [mother/woman] as one medium of that power. . . . State
Ibuism is part and parcel of bureaucratic state’s effort to exercise control over Indonesian society (Suryakusuma, p. 101 – 102).

State Ibuism fits both state paternalism and military ideology incorporating the state as “family” that necessitates sacrifice by its members for the sake of its welfare. Using this gender ideology where beauty ideal is a concept applied to the priyayi level, women who want to look beautiful must therefore follow such ideals. In the 1980s at the height of Soeharto’s New Order, there were two famous cosmetic manufacturers Sari Ayu (the essence of beauty) and Mustika Ratu (the jewel of queen) that said to create their beauty products from the secret recipes obtained from the Javanese priyayi and palaces. Woman’s beauty was under the control of men thus men had exclusive right to define beauty at their own will. Women’s beauty functioned to only serve men. It was men’s definition of beauty that controlled women. It was these two cosmetic companies that started the shift that a beautiful woman was one having white skin and not yellow skin colour as in traditional kakawin literature. The shift of meaning of ‘yellow’ to ‘white’ marks the changing of idealized skin color. In the past, the term signifying indigenous beauty such as 'black sweet' and 'dark brown' were common. However, priyayi ideal of beauty had shifted such term to fairer colour which was “yellow and fair.” When Sari Ayu and Mustika Ratu launched their first whitening product associated with aristocratic beauty, woman has been since imprisoned by the Western Charm. Beautiful was white, and this has been ideal beauty since then (Astuti in Yulianto, 2007: XII)

Other part contributes to the ideal white beauty for Indonesian females is the emergence of globalization via privatization of televisions under the Soeharto’s New Order and post 1998 reformation era where liberation and democracy have paved ways to stronger present of global media. Today, large influences lie in the Indonesian entertainment industry which is dominated by the presence of indo (biracial Indonesians, of mixed blood between native Indonesian and Caucasian) or white skinned celebrities of native origin, and mostly the never ending appearance of advertisements for skin whitening products in various media.

Talking about beauty for girls in Indonesia, it is wise to see the changing exemplified below. These are pictures of girls then and now:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Portrait of a Javanese girl from Banjarnegara, Central Java in 1880</th>
<th>Miss Indonesia 2005, Nadine Chandrawinata of Jakarta, 22 years old</th>
<th>Miss World Indonesia 2009, of Jakarta Karenina Sunny Halim, 23 years old</th>
<th>Miss Indonesia 2010 Nadine Alexandra Dewi Ames of Jakarta, 20 years old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.jpg" alt="A Portrait of a Javanese girl from Banjarnegara, Central Java in 1880" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.jpg" alt="Miss Indonesia 2005, Nadine Chandrawinata of Jakarta, 22 years old" /></td>
<td><img src="image3.jpg" alt="Miss World Indonesia 2009, of Jakarta Karenina Sunny Halim, 23 years old" /></td>
<td><img src="image4.jpg" alt="Miss Indonesia 2010 Nadine Alexandra Dewi Ames of Jakarta, 20 years old" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is not uncommon in Indonesian beauty pageants that the winner, be it Miss Indonesia or Miss World Indonesia is not from local origin. Some winners are indo (biracial Indonesian or mixed bloods). Three girls representing Indonesia in world beauty pageants like Miss Universe or Miss World are examples signifying beauty in Indonesian has been globalized and tends to shift toward
Western beauty standards. Surprisingly, Miss World Indonesia 2009, Karenina Sunny Halim whose mother is an American cannot speak Indonesia fluently. She blamed on her overseas upbringing that fails her to fluently speak Indonesian (Berita Indonesia, 16 June 2009). In the span of more than 100 years, Indonesian conception of beauty has evolved to near Western standard signified by the more presence of indo beauty closer to the West ideals.

The Face of Teen Girls in the Teen Magazines
Teen magazines are not at odd the beauty trend. The following images will show the shift of the front covers of Indonesian teen magazines from the past to present:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Front Cover of <em>Gadis</em> in 1970s</th>
<th>Front Cover of <em>Gadis</em> in 1980s</th>
<th>Front Cover of <em>Gadis</em> in 1990s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1" alt="1970s Cover" /></td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="1980s Cover" /></td>
<td><img src="image3" alt="1990s Cover" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Front Cover of <em>Gadis</em> in 2009</td>
<td>Front Cover of <em>Gadis</em> in 2010</td>
<td>Front Cover of <em>Gadis</em> in 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image4" alt="2009 Cover" /></td>
<td><img src="image5" alt="2010 Cover" /></td>
<td><img src="image6" alt="2011 Cover" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The series of *Gadis* magazines front covers show that the concept of beauty for girls in Indonesia has evolved from the colonial moment to now. Some notable changes from those pictures are these girls’ nose and skin color. If in the past, most girls in the teen magazines were shown to have darker color, contemporary girls are now having whiter skin colors and more pointed nose. 1980s as Yulianto discussed previously has started this shift by presenting more girls having white skin and pointed nose. More and more *indo* models filled the magazine front covers and became role models for beauty. This is completely different from the colonial era. Biracial girls of mixed blood of mostly
Dutch men and native mothers were abandoned and left in the orphanages (Taylor, p. 26). However, globalization brings altogether different effect. Nowadays, Indonesian entertainment industry is crammed with these indo. Being biracial is now taken as an advantage rather than a shame. Being biracial becomes an easy access to achieve a celebrity status in the entertainment industry. This indeed corresponds with the ideal beauty from the Western sphere that says “the iconic Western standard of beauty are those of extremely slim and tall body, the tanned skin, blue-eyed, large round luminous eyes, a petite and pointy nose, and blonde hair” (Lee, 2007).

In recent years, the influence of Western perceptions of beauty has appeared on various entertainment industries and spread across the glossy magazines, especially the franchise ones. Globalization may change public perspective of beauty (Onishi, http://query.nytimes.com/gst/fullpage.html?res=9505E0D81138F930A35753C1A9649C8B3). Through globalization, Eastern and Western standards of beauty look more and more alike and become what the so-called universal beauty (Lee, 2007). Unavoidably, Indonesia standard of beauty for girls and women has been judged based on the Western notion of beauty as Western society is the dominant power in the worldwide. The ideal Western beauty through beauty contests like Miss Universe, Miss World, beauty icons or celebrities like Katy Perry, Ximena Navarrete as well as girl magazines like Teen Vogue, Seventeen, CosmoGirl! set the beauty standards across the globe.

From the linguistic point of view, the significant chance in the Gadis magazine covers includes the use of more and more English phrases in the covers. In the 1970s to 1990s editions, the use of English words was very rare to almost nothing, but in recent years, English has turned to be a commonality, a trend. English has become a signal of globalization as well as sophistication for young Indonesians. The message these magazines send to their readers: being global means English. It is very common today that English phrases always appear on teen magazine front covers along with global celebrities.

Contemporary local teen magazines such as Gadis, Kawanku, Kartika, Cita Cinta or franchise magazines such as Indonesian edition of CosmoGirl! or Chic have shown similar concept of beauty. The following front covers from various contemporary magazines show this globalized beauty.
The most striking thing on the front cover of the magazines that are franchised from the Western world such as CosmoGirl! and Chic have never used indigenous models or celebrities in their font covers despite those magazines are circulated in Indonesia. The use of Vanessa Hudgens as the model in both Indonesian and international (United States) edition marks a strong globalization of beauty. As Hudgens believed to be a beauty in the US, she is taken for granted also believed to be a beauty in Indonesia. Hudgens’ popularity via High School Musical reaches international fame thus she is easily accepted as a role model for beauty everywhere. Hudgens has what so called as American beauty: a belief that the true beauty is those of typically American-look. The most obvious representation of American beauty is “Barbie Dolls” (Wright, http://www.sikhspectrum.com/042003/barbie.htm). Barbie is usually portrayed as a young American girl who possesses white skin, large eyes (i.e., usually blue), pointy nose, smooth hair (i.e., usually blonde), thin and tall body, etc. All this gorgeous and flawless portrayal of Barbie is believed as the true beauty of American female. Barbie’s beauty has been globalized into Indonesian beauty. All Indonesian teen girls can look at Hudgens for beauty model in spite of geophysical and cultural differences. This homogenization of beauty is strongly endorsed by the globalization of media.

Beautiful teen is synonymous with "cool look" meaning that girls should appear energetic, enjoying the joy of youth, fashionable, glamour, happy and of course never put an angry face in the magazine cover. Beauty here is defined as the ability of a girl in wearing make-up, choosing clothes that fit, fashion conscious and smiling at all time. Fun becomes a central factor in presenting a face in the magazine for girls. This utopian look and beauty neglects the fact that many challenges and problems girls need to handle in their daily life. The upcoming of National Examination for high school students has never been touched in these magazine covers. In these franchised magazines,
geopolitical differences are not a problem in the spread of globalization. Beauty tips are not

dissimilar with beauty tips in any other teen magazines, local or international edition. The beauty
tips are clearly visible because these tips functions as a guide to have a good looking as the
celebrities who are on the front covers of the magazines.

A simple survey to see the beauty conception for Indonesian teenagers was done by Charenina
shows some interesting findings. This three-month survey distributed questionnaires to 125 high
school students aged 12 to 18 year old in southern, northern, eastern, western and central Surabaya,
East Java. Surabaya is the second biggest city in Indonesia with the population around 2.8 millions. As
an urban and metropolitan city, this city is itself inescapable from the effects of globalization,
including the conception of beauty for teenagers. Like teens in any big city, female teens in Surabaya
also read one or more magazines discussed afore. 125 respondents obtained does not certainly reflect
the mainstream opinion for Indonesian teens yet the findings can show likely trends that students
elsewhere may follow. Of this survey, 55% respondents believed that beautiful teens mean that they
have white or fair skin color, while the rest chose yellow to darker skin color. Interestingly, 50.6%
respondents prefer Indonesian beauty compared to non-Indonesian beauty such as Caucasian or
African beauty. What type of Indonesian beauty chosen by these respondents, interestingly 35%
chose indo beauty. This is somewhat new finding and such corresponds strongly to the high presence
of indo celebrities in Indonesian entertainment industry. Historiographically, there is a significant
shift to beauty conception for Indonesian teens from the colonial period to present. During the
colonial time, as previously discussed, indo children were disposed and abandoned as they did not
racially belong to the Caucasian colonials, foreign Orientals or indigenous colonized. They did not
locate themselves in either-or racial belongings. However, more than 100 years later tremendous
shift has shown. Nowadays, indo beauty has occupied Indonesian public mind as shown by 35%
preference for Indonesian beauty. In relation to that, 48% respondents chose Caucasian beauty
compared to any racial beauty. This 48% indeed marks the globalization of beauty has actually
reached Indonesian teens. They are like any other teens in other parts of the world that are swept by
the globalized beauty that gives much preference to the white Western beauty.

The newest trend of beauty for Indonesian teenagers that just been a few last months is the
emergence of Asian beauty. The Korean wave (hallyu) that swept all over Asia has something to do
with this. New appearances of boy bands and girl bands ala Korea (read South Korea) is
continuously screen on television and presented on other medias such as magazines, news papers
and the internet. What is interesting in this booming is the emergence of Chinese Indonesian
celebrities. As Chinese Indonesians resemble Korean beauty, it is no wonder that they are now
enjoying new status. Before 1998 Reformation, Chinese Indonesians were heavily discriminated.
Soeharto’s rule policy endangered and marginalized Indonesians of Chinese descendants. After the
resignation of Soeharto in 1998, subsequent presidents (Habibie, Wahid and Megawati) introduced
new regulations allowing Chinese to practice their traditions: such as publishing books and
newspapers in Chinese, freely learning and speaking Chinese in public, and celebrating Chinese
holidays. Since then, Chinese culture has appeared more and more in Indonesian cultural life.
Nevertheless, the presence of Chinese Indonesian celebrities has not been so strong unlike today.
Members of girl bands such as Cheery Belle and 7icons whom most members are Chinese
descendants make their frequent appearance in the teen magazines.

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2 2010 population census according to Biro Pusat Statistik (BPS, Centre of Statistical Burea), http://www.bps.go.id.
Access date 10 October 2011.
As these girls carry new representation of beauty, though not Western but still closer to Western definition (white skin, slim and pointed nose, dyed hair) - only the shape of their eyes is different, they have created a new notion of global beauty. Imitating their Korean predecessors such as SNSD, Miss A, 2NE1 and the like, these girls have brought Korean beauty to Indonesian landscape. As their status rises to fame, these girls who are now celebrities (not only as singers but actors and commercial models) have become role models for their fans. This undeniably has created a new standard of global beauty that comes not far from home. The East Asian beauty has enriched the beauty concept in Indonesia. Whether or not, this girl band phenomena and their beauty will last, only time will tell. Whether there is a new concept of beauty: be it still let’s white and see like the ad shown earlier or simply let’s just wait and see, time will determine.

It can be concluded that globalization has plagued all aspects of human life even at the most private level, such as the concept of female beauty as a form of self-identity. Although there has been a local adaptation of the global level, the beauty of teenage girls in the magazines remain dictated by the Western (United States) standards. Beautiful means popular so these faces show. Through the globalization, the world without borders (borderless world) has occurred even in the concept of adolescent beauty. Unfortunately this concept, through magazines, intentionally eliminates the diversity of the concept of beauty. Through globalization, the concept of beauty for teenage girls becomes so uniform and universal, as if all the young women have a similar appearance. What happens is the homogenization of the beauty concept without any room to interpret the beauty in different manners.

Bibliography

Articles and Books


www.gadis-online.com


**Magazine Front Covers**

Majalah Chic

Majalah Cita Cinta

Majalah CosmoGirl!

Majalah Gadis

Majalah Hai

Majalah Kawanku

Majalah Kartika

Majalah Motor

Majalah Muscle
Social Construction of Humour in Thai Sitcom Television Programmes

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Topic of the Submission
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Background
Looking back to the emerging of sitcom, we may see that western countries have become its center, like US, has systematically recorded everything including its origin. In US, sitcom was a newly developed format to be different from other comedic genre such as Stand up Comedy, or Sketch Comedy (a short comedic performance which usually take 1-10 minutes, and divided into small sections. Its storyline usually involves people from different occupations, celebrities, or even US presidents). One of the most successful sketch comedy show is “Saturday Night Live”. Hartley (2001) considers sitcom as a combination of sketch comedy and situation drama. Sitcoms produced by US and UK are the most successful ones since they are imported overseas, especially countries with English as the first or second language. Sitcom’s format fit well with Anglo-American TV production, since it requires only a studio with one or two scenes and a few inserts of exterior scene. Fixed characters are presented with situations created by the writing team and production team.

The first sitcom programme was “Pinwright Progress”, which was aired during 1946-1947 in Britain. During almost the same period, from 1951-1957, in the United States, the sitcom “I Love Lucy” was also aired. According to Thai Magazine; A Day Magazine: Sitcom Issue, published on October 2007, the first Thai sitcom was called “Tukkata Sia Kaban”, directed by Patarawadee Sritrirat, which was aired on Thai Television Channel 3 in 1975. This information is corresponding to several public record relating to Thai sitcom, for example, dissertations and Wikipedia article. However, Sritrirat explans that, originally, Tukkata Sia Kaban was not meant to be created as a sitcom, but because of some interruptions during production, the format of the show which was aired to the public is thought to be a sitcom.

“‘It was meant to be a drama, but Acharapan (Paiboonsuwan, who took to role of the main character “Jiab” and also wrote the script) is a great storyteller. I was amused by Jiab’s naive personality but I did not think Jiab is funny. On the first day of shooting, I wanted to make it as a serious drama. I did the directing but also appearing in the last scene. I told everyone to rehearse while I went to change the costume. However the costume does not fit well, so I redo the makeup and tie my hair up to match the costume, then walk right into the queue. All the sudden, all actors burst out laughing. Back then, we taped the show but it also include commercials. If the taping fail, then we have to reshoot all over from the beginning. And this was the last scene, so all the actors try their best to improvise and it became a comedy. (Patarawadee Sritrirat, an interview with Voice TV, 11 January 2010)

However, in Kannika Wiengperm’s research An analysis of the situation comedy in television drama "Khoo Chuen Chulamun" (1996) presents a new information that “Nussara” (aired in 1960 on Thai Television Channel 4 Bangkhunprom) should be considered the fist sitcom of Thailand. This information was given during an interview that “Nussara” is replicated “I love Lucy”, an American sitcom starring Lucille Ball, so this is a new milestone of the development of Thai sitcom study. This shows that the Thai television industry did not fall behind the West that much. Unfortunately, there was no such record found in Thailand because at that time, the concept of situational comedy did not exist in the country. In Thailand, Communication Arts curricula in
tertiary education would emerge around five years after that. “Nussara” was therefore viewed as a love comedy.

**Thai Sitcom Phenomenon**

For the past few years, there are a few important events involving the development of Thai sitcom. These can be divided into two parts. The first one is the quantitative part, which explores the development of Thai sitcom, and the second one is the qualitative part.

**Figure 1.1** Display comparison of the number of sitcom between year 1960-2004 and year 2005-2009

As shown in Figure 1.1 *The first one is the quantitative part.* It is found that during the 44 years from 1960-2004, there were 26 sitcoms broadcasted on Thai televisions. However, if we look back until recently, just in 5 years from 2005-2009, there were up to 30 sitcoms broadcasted in the Thai society. This phenomenon shows how interesting it is to explore why sitcoms have gained more popularity in the Thai society over time.

*The second one is the qualitative part.* The research reveals a tremendous change in the content of Thai sitcoms. According to Mellencamp (1986) on the origin of sitcoms, this type of television programmes belonged to the middle-class in the West. During the early years of broadcasting in the US, American housewives watched these programmes to get themselves ready before going out to work. As a result, the traditional drama programmes involving stories in family can not respond to this group of women. Hence the birth of sitcom to meet their demand. With storyline involving life outside the house, these housewives would feel that these shows extend their imagination. Since then, sitcom has become increasingly popular. However, we can see different development in today Thai sitcoms, which presented various characters from different classes. There are also gender issues and more complicated roles and characters. It would be interesting to study the content shift that resulted in the popularity of Thai sitcoms.

Consequently, this article is part of the research entitled “Social Construction of Humour in Thai Sitcom Television Programmes”. The content of the article will present some part of the study and finding, with main research objectives as follow:
RA 1: Aim to find out the reasons behind great popularity of Thai sitcom television programmes broadcasted after 2005
RA 2: Aim to study the content adaptation of Thai sitcom programmes broadcasted after 2005 that has gained wide acceptance in the Thai society

Framework
For this study, there are several concepts and theories that are used as a framework. But this article will only focus on the ones that are related to the two objectives previously mentioned. These concepts are “The Media Organization in a Field of Social Force” by Denis McQuial, and “Sociological Media Analysis Concept” by Arthur A. Berger, respectively. This study also use the concept of “Narration Theory and Semiology” as a framework for understanding and interpreting the text in sitcom’s contents.

Communicator or Mass Media Organization Study

Tunstall (1970) make an observation about communicator study or mass media organization study that mass media scholars focus mainly on audience study and media effect study. When considered in term of functional process, these two focus seems to be at the end of the process rather than the beginning. Therefore, mass media organization study aims to find out why the product of mass media has become that way.

Tunstall’s observation is corresponding to political economists’ interest. Kaewthep (1998) points out that this group of scholar wish to study about a media controller. Consequently, they focus on how external factors in terms of different aspects (economic, social, political, cultural, media ownership, management, organizational policy, technology and finance) has affected mass media organizations’ function. How can mass media workers maintain their independence under different limitation, and how the product of mass media has reflect such image.

In this regard, McQuail (1994) collects factors affecting mass media organizations’ function and conceptualize a framework called “The Media Organization in a Field Of Social Force”. McQuail states that media operation is forced by two pressure factors: the external ones, and the internal ones. For the external factors, we have four forces that have pressure on the operation and creativity of media organization. Firstly, social and political pressure factor, which can be pressured by social institutions, like legal force or government policy. Secondly, economic pressure factor, which can be pressured by TV station’s policies, its competitors, and sponsor’s demands. The third one is audience factor, which can be pressured by demands, which relate to audience ratings, all of which have an impact on the economic pressure factor. The fourth one is events plus constant information and cultural supply factor, which can be in forms of attitudes, values, beliefs, and morals.

The internal factors, on the other hand, can be classified into two categories: The first one is management factor, in which media producers and media organizations can be pressured by the financial sources or human resource management. The second one is media professional factor, which is caused by differences in level of professionalism, which could vary in terms of difficulty, creativity, and standard of effectiveness. All these factors can put pressure on media organization, and can influence selection and adaptation of the media content.

Sociological Media Analysis
The term “sociology” was coined by French philosopher August Comte, to refer to an integration of theological and practical human knowledge. Berger (1998) defines sociology as a
study human’s social relation, and presents basic concepts or tools used by sociologists for social study. This concept allows us to see something researchers has never seen.

The second conceptualized framework of the second objective is by Arthur A. Berger. Berger conceptualizes a framework called “Sociological Media Analysis Concept”. His concept suggested sociological methods of media analysis by focusing on the study relationship of people presented in the media through several dimensions. This study applies a few basic concepts, such as follow:

- **Class** – sociological speaking, it refers to Socioeconomic Class, of which education, income and occupation, are considered.
- **Lifestyle** – includes individual’s personal taste, such fashion, car, entertainment, recreation, books. Lifestyle is related to socioeconomic class and reflect individual’s image.
- **Ethnicity** – is a group of people who share the same culture and tradition which differs from others. The shared characteristics may come from biological relation or shared community in the past.
- **Race** – is a group of people who shared genetic heritage, such color of hair, skin, or eye shape.
- **Role** – is an approach based on performance or behavior which has been assigned. Social role is created from behaviors that a human can learn and relate to other human’s expectation. Each role depends on our social standing, for example, a role of teacher, monk, soldier, or thief.
- **Status** – is a social prestige given to an individual who accomplishes his role, for example, two people taking a role of teacher, but may not receive the same status.
- **Gender** – In term of sociology, genders are not only biologically divided, but they also covers an individual’s sexual disposition, as well as its right and duty as defined by each society.
- **Stereotype** – Horton and Hunt (1972) define the term as “a group-shared image of another group or category of people”. Stereotypes can be positive or negative. Sociology believes that stereotypes are dangerous since they are formed by prejudice, so they can influence a hasty conclusion.

A sociological analyst’s goal is to examine the types of relationship that stem from social traits of people. In this research, Berger’s concept is used as a framework to examine how the social scenes presented through sitcoms show social traits of people differently from the past, in order to adapt the sitcoms so they can survive and gain more popularity in the Thai society.

Along with the two conceptualized frameworks mentioned earlier, add some attributes on time and media components will be added (Sender, Message, Channel & Receiver) to point out that the first objective of this research is geared towards the study of factors that influence the media as a communicator or sender, both before and after the year 2005. This is to see what factors have influenced the shifts in Thai sitcoms towards popularity. In like manner, the second objective of this research is to explore the sociological dimensions in sitcom’s content adaptation. Finally, all can be merged as one framework for the main research study approach in Figure 1.2

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**Figure 1.2 A Conceptualized Framework**
Methodology
The research methodology is divided into two parts, according to the research objectives.

Methodology of the First Research Objective
The first methodology focuses on the popularity of Thai sitcoms from two 2005 onwards. There are two types of data and two methods of data collection.

The first type of data is oral document, as a primary data. The researcher used in-depth interview as a data collection method. Sampling technique is purposive sampling. Samplers are divided into two groups. The first group consists of four people who are considered the “legend” of Thai sitcom’s pioneers, including an actor, a screenwriter, a top executive, and an owner of TV drama series production company who was once a director and producer of Thai sitcoms before 2005. Some of them currently are the sitcoms producers of their own company. The second group consists of five people who are key producers, directors, and screenwriters of Thai sitcoms, which have been continuously broadcasted from 2005 until present. In total there are 9 samplers.

The second type of data is written document, as a secondary data. Document analysis is employed to two types of document. The first type is magazines and books that contain interview report with “sitcom people” who talked about the process of sitcom production. The second type of document is undergrad theses of senior university students who had their internship in sitcom production companies.

Methodology of the Second Research Objective
The methodology that serves the second objective focuses on textual analysis. In understanding how the Thai society has been portrayed, both before and after 2005, through the social traits of sitcom characters, the researcher used three major selection criteria. They are the broadcast timing criteria, which must be before 2005 and 2005 onwards; the sitcom popularity criteria; and the broadcast criteria, in which the sitcoms must still be broadcasted during the time of this research (which is in 2009, when the researcher submitted his research proposal). Then purposive sampling technique was used in classifying the samples into 3 groups: First, sitcoms that have been broadcasted since before 2005 until present. The second one is sitcoms that have been...
broadcasted after 2005 until present. The third one is sitcoms that just started broadcasting in the year this research began.

The first group of sitcom samples those having been broadcasted since before 2005, consists of 4 sitcoms, studied all of them, but selected only those broadcasted during the years 2002-2006. The fact that the researcher selected the years earlier than 2005 more than the years after is because the research samples have the second and the third groups, which already focus on the later years anyway. Next, used the simple random sampling by randomly picking one episode in every two months. As a result, from the time frame that defined earlier, There are one 120 episodes to study, including sitcoms like “Raberd Tertterng”, “Heng Heng Heng”, “Pen Tor”, and “Bangrak Soi 9”

The second group of samples is the ones that have been broadcasted after 2005, consisting of 6 sitcoms. However, since half of them are from the same production companies as the first group, the researcher had to avoid the repetition by selecting the other half instead. Likewise, the simple random sampling technique was used by randomly picking one episode in every two months. As a result, for the first sitcom that was aired from 2006 to 2009 in 4 years, the researcher has picked 24 episodes of “Thevada Sathu”. And for the second and third sitcoms that were aired during 2008 and 2009 (in two years), the researcher has picked 24 episodes all together, which are “Mahachon Chao Flat” and “True Love Next Door”

The third group of sample consists of a sitcom that was aired in 2009. During this year, there were only 16 episodes being broadcasted, so the researcher selected half of “Factory Teerak”, which makes it 8 episodes.

In total, there are 176 episodes to conduct the textual analysis. The data in these episodes would also be used for other purposes besides this article, including humour construction method.

The Finding

The Finding of First Objective

The findings that correspond to the first objective that aims to find out the reasons behind great popularity of Thai sitcom television programmes broadcasted after 2005. The findings can be categorized into the external factors and the internal factors.

External Factor
Firstly, the social and political pressure factor. Results show that the factor that leads to sitcom popularity in 2005 is the political instability. During the past 10 years, Thailand has encountered the political crisis like it had never before. Although the Thai society had gone through several coup d’états, political conflicts that brought about the 2006’s coup d’état were the worst to lay its deep root into the Thai society. This also resulted in more conflicts and disharmony among the people, even those in the same family, in some of which we can see the family members couldn’t talk politics with one another. As a consequence, a majority of people got stressful or became tired of it.
This information corresponds to that of the National Statistics Organization, which revealed changes in television viewing behaviors of the Thai people during the past 10 years. People tended to view more of entertainment programmes and less of news report. Considering the nature of TV programmes that trigger laughter’s, all those factors are positively correlated with sitcom viewing behavior.
Secondly, the economic pressure factor. The study shows that 8 years before 2005, there was a huge economic crisis in Thailand. Year 2005 was the year that the country started to recover from the economic slump, but had to face another problem of political instability, with coup
d’état in 2006. Both situations reinforced each other and pulled the Thai people into more stressful state of mind as mentioned.

However, both factors led to the fact that TV programming producers started to consider producing the programmes with a not-so-high production cost. Hence, sitcoms became their first choice, as the shooting took place in an indoor studio, which enabled them to control the budget. Also, the structure of sitcoms enabled their sponsors to engage in the content. Sponsors were thus inclined to show their interest in this kind of programmes. They not only paid for the commercial time, but they also got their products exposed in the programme’s content. This is why we could see more scenes that featured a restaurant, a minimart, and internet shop, and an ice cream shop after the year 2005.

The third is the audience factor. The majority of producers believe that most Thai audiences do no expect sophisticated content in entertainment programmes. The nature of sitcoms, where each character has his or her certain personality, enables sitcoms to be easy to understand. Also, unlike the western sitcoms that are normally aired in season and audiences have to wait for another year to see the next season, Thai sitcoms are frequently broadcasted every week, like there’s never be an ending, at least until the TV station stops granting the airtime. Such continuous broadcasts lead to emotional bonds between characters and audience in a sitcom. The bonds can get even stronger especially if a sitcom has been aired for several years. For example, in one episode of the sitcom “Pen Tor”, a lovely character named “Phorjai”, who is the sister of the protagonist, was plotted to die from an accident. In less than half an hour, several posts continuously appeared on one of Thailand’s biggest and most popular webboards called “Panthip” stating their disagrees with such plot. This points out the strengths of sitcoms because it shows us that if we produce a sitcom that can gain popularity over time, the number of audience, or rating, of that sitcom will be even higher and well rooted. Producing this type of programmes therefore become quite a challenge for Thai producers.

The last one is the events plus constant information and cultural supply factor. One of the factors sitcom producers all agree to have had an impact on the success of Thai sitcoms since 2005 is that Thai people are good nature. The country has long been called “Thailand, the Land of Smile”. This implies that Thai people are more prone to smile and laugh easily than other natives. When they hear a funny story, they feel like it is a “play”, which means doing something fun and relaxing, not something too stressful. However, in the meantime, they can also use the word “play” in a context of being in earnest as well. All these lead to the fact that, in Thai society, the concepts of ‘being serious’ and ‘fun’ are so close to each other they are considered inseparable. That is, Thai people can express their humour even with a serious issue. Sitcoms are therefore the type of programme that is easily acceptable among the Thais.

In its early stage until the year 1995, sitcoms were only popular among educated urban people because producers of sitcoms at that time were university graduates who possessed humour. The process of humour creation or construction could therefore be considered a social niche, and sitcoms were not widely popular as a result. However, a little bit before 2005, a lot of producers attempted to continuously add comedians into the plot. And this has changed the sitcom phenomenon in the Thai society. Sitcoms has gained more popularity and called for laughter among the greater number of audience. This will be discussed in details in the internal factors topic.

**Internal Factor**

The first is management factor. Sitcoms that were broadcasted before 2005 mainly created humour from the screenplays and professional actors and actresses. Such creation was mostly
performed by the artists who were university graduates. However, the success of sitcoms after 2005 was a result of “casting” and hiring professional comedians (or what we call “lounge comedians”), a majority of whom came from the lower class, with lower education and usually performed with physical mishap and obscenity. These characters have brought about more laughter from more audiences, and led to such a big change in Thai sitcoms. There have been so many ‘lounge comedians’ turning to perform sitcoms on screens that people start to say that ‘lounge comedians’ do not perform in the lounge any more.

The other internal factor is media professional factor. This has a connection with the management factor. When sitcom producers want more lounge comedians on their screens, they have to change the way they direct the sitcoms in that producers usually give the opportunity to the comedians to improvise their jokes or gags in the scenes. This leads to a change in the way actors and actresses work, that is, they have to adapt themselves to be able to promptly respond to the jokes conveyed by the comedians. As a result, almost everyone involved in a sitcom production needs to be alert and trying to think of how they can create humour during the shooting all the time. This proves that humour creation in sitcoms does not need to come from the screenplay only.

The Finding of Second Objective
The findings that correspond to the second objective, which aims to study the content adaptation of Thai sitcom programmes broadcasted after 2005 that has gained wide acceptance in the Thai society. Also in answering to the second objective, I would like to point out some changes in social attributes represented through sitcoms.

The first social attribute is class. From this study, it is found that in one sitcom, they do not present social relations of people from just one social class any more. However, in one sitcom, there can be a scene of an upper-class lady getting married with a middle-class man whose son-in-law’s friend fell in love with his housemaid. So maybe we can call it “one sitcom fits for all”.

The second one is social role. In sitcoms, they usually create characters based on the real situations. But in sitcom’s ‘dummy situation’, the roles of some characters were made stronger or more intense to create humour. For example, employer-and-employee’s roles, where an employee can tease or argue with his or her employer like we should not do in real life. On the other hand, the employer can be very lighthearted and tease his or her employee. Or even the maid’s roles in sitcoms have been presented as having a closer relation with her employer than usual.

The third and forth attributes are gender and stereotype. The key female characters in sitcoms can still maintain the stereotypes of being lovely, nice, disciplined, and being conservative in relationships. However, the stereotypes of male characters are clearly different from what they used to be. A playboy character has been added, sometimes so much that the characters become sly and obscene, in order to create humour among the audience. The added characteristics usually lead to some kinds of mistakes that result in some razzle-dazzles that need to be solved. Moreover, in the present Thai sitcoms, we can see roles of homosexual male. In one sitcom, it is quite common to have a key character that is gay. This is unlike the western tradition, which clearly distinguishes gay sitcoms or queer sitcom from normal ones. However, whereas Thai sitcoms freely give the opportunities to gays, the stereotype of them appears of being infatuated with a guy rather than something else.

The last social attribute is lifestyle. Generally, characters in sitcoms spend their time mainly at home and at work, although sometimes we can find scenes outside of these two places. However,
in most sitcoms after 2005, a scene of recreational place is usually added. Such recreational scenes vary from one sitcom to another, depending on the plot. For instance, it can be a bar, a nearby restaurant, a minimart, or a cafeteria. Characters in recent sitcoms spend their time in such area more than at work or home. This is because in Thai sitcoms, there are up to 8 or 10 key characters. It is therefore necessary to create a space for them so that they can share some situations together. Moreover, recreational scenes are related to the programme’s sponsors.

The social attributes presented through the world of sitcoms have revealed to us that there are some shifts in the content of Thai sitcoms. Such shifts occurred in order to expose various attributes through more characters in just one sitcom story. This enables the story to capture the attention and increase popularity among today’s audiences, who differ in terms of age, gender, social status, and knowledge. This is different from the past, when sitcoms tried to reach only the middle class. It could be said that this content shift has played a vital role in making sitcoms become of greater popularity in the Thai society from 2005 onwards.

Discussion and Conclusion

In conclusion, Thai sitcoms’s adapting is caused by internal and external pressures from mass media organizations. Originally, sitcoms is a TV format for middle-class westerners, but in order to be successful and draw laughter from Thai people, it needs to adjust in many aspect, such as changing its format to fit in the current social situation, It also changing audience group, from middle-class to Thai lower-class majority, so its message must be accessible to wider audience.

Mills (2005) discussed the roles of sitcom in society, that sitcom production is based on social standard of each society. It is proved that sitcom humour is unique and limited to its own society. It is aware that comedy and sense of humour are localized. Consequently, local TV stations need to protect their national identity. They need to understand that, by airing sitcoms produced by a country with dominating cultural influence such as US, it can be regarded as “an invasion”. A sitcom does not just represent cultural identity and idealism, but it is one approach to define culture and fulfill its own understanding. Comedy is one of the ways which individual culture can present itself to outside world. As a result, several national TV stations demand that local comedy must be adequately presented, so it can become national awareness. Comedy becomes an important social tool, as well as a significant approach of human interactive. The success of comedy can create social connection and distinguish “an insider” from “an outsider”. Therefore, Thai sitcom’s current success may rely on its adaptability, and make both producers and audience “an insider”.
References

Communication for developing the innovation of Thailand's MICE Industry 
in the concept of creative economy

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Topic of the Submission  
Media Management
Abstract

How to use communication as the strategic tools for developing innovation of nation is the goal of this study. While the specific in “MICE” or Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition industry is one of Thailand’s service sector developing innovation through the concept of Creative Economy. Qualitative data was collected from in-depth interview of individuals working in 24 different Thai MICE organizations concerning their perceptions about general problems and communicative problems of developing MICE innovation in Thailand’s MICE industry. Furthermore, to discover communication policies and strategies enhances the innovation of Thailand’s MICE industry in the concept of creative economy. The results suggest Thailand’s MICE industry needs to solve critical innovation barriers issues: (government’s discontinued development policy, lack of participation between private and public sector), and to propose the Communication Model of Thailand’s MICE Innovation Development that explains the communication strategy through IDEA acronym; 

- Initiate innovation-oriented message into the MICE development policy and firm strategy,
- Develop factors condition (e.g., people, infrastructure, etc.) by participatory communication among MICE stakeholders,
- Encourage creative climate and culture of MICE organizations and
- Activate demand of buyers and visitors with innovative MICE products.

Introduction

During the past two decades, "Innovation" is the popular topic that is adverted by government leader, corporate executives, academics and journalists (e.g., Porter, 1985; Drucker, 1985, Pahalad, 1990; Hamel, 1990; Rogers, 1995) so it became the subject of extensive study and seminar (Tucker, 2002) with a focus on innovation as the most powerful engine of competitive organizations, industries and nations.

Widespread attention of innovative ideas has continued until beginning the new millennium that has caused the current ideas about a new economic to relationship with innovation by John Howkins (2001) believe that a new economic will replaced the traditional capitalist economy, it was called “Creative Economy”, the new dilemma of economic development, changes paradigm from factor driven growth (e.g., machine, low-cost labor, economics of scales, etc.) to creative driven growth (e.g., creative idea, intellectual property, unique cultural asset, etc.) as a fuel to drive competitive advantage of nations.

The concept of innovation development and creative economy influences the policy and economic development of Thailand. It began to focus on developing Thais to be creative and encouraging entrepreneurs especially in the Thai creative industries to focus on innovation for increasing Thai’s competitiveness under the creative economy. Thus, at present, most conceptualizations of innovation development are found on “western” view of the construct (e.g., Amabile, 1996; Tesluk, Farr and Klein, 1997; Sternberg, 1997; Paulus, Nakui and Putman,1998; Katz, 2003; etc.) Whether such conceptualizations are applicable to countries in non-western culture remains a question. The most innovative theories have been developed based on knowledge of organizational management. The scholars in this field take the priority of "communication" as the most important aspects of innovation (Bessant, 1991) because of the exchange of information between people with a direct impacting on the ability of creativity (Amabile, 1996), but knowledge is directly related to the communication for innovation is still very limited.
The research was formed to develop the specific knowledge about “communication for developing innovation” and to develop the communication knowledge based on East culture of Thailand. Specifically, studying the development of innovation of creative industry, which is vital to Thai’s economy, is *Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition or MICE industry*. Because of MICE industry, as a service industry, is growing along with the tourism industry in Thailand being famous worldwide. In addition, MICE industry is the one of key industries that Thai government is promoting the development of creative economy concept. The purpose of this study is to explore the problem issues of developing MICE innovation in Thailand’s MICE industry and to discover communication model that enhances the innovation of Thailand’s MICE industry.

This paper rationale is organized in the following sequence. First is to review background of Thailand’s MICE industry. Second is to review the literature on communication and innovation development to provide a theoretical and conceptual foundation for this particular study. And third to present research the findings and the study is discussed.

**Background of Thailand’s MICE industry**

Thailand is a MICE destination of Asia that has dramatic growth: represent from Thailand’s MICE bureau reports in 2009 show that seven hundred thousand business tourists from around the world visit MICE activities in Thailand and make the revenue to Thai more than fifty-two thousand million baht. There are the key success factors; such as, tourism destination image, a variety of venues and attractions for MICE activities, unique culture and service mind of Thais including having global industries-based in the country. Despite many strength points, Thailand's MICE industry has lost the competitive advantage to competitors; such as, Singapore and Hong Kong being smaller. They have the venue resources less than Thailand but they could attract the target groups from around the world to make the conference and exhibition more than Thailand in almost doubled: As shown in Figure 1.1.

**Figure 1.1** Display sizes of venue and number of conferences and exhibitions in Thailand, compared with Singapore and Hong Kong.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Potential</th>
<th>Total SQM. (main venue)</th>
<th>Total of meeting and convention events</th>
<th>Total of exhibition events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Thailand    | - tourism destination image  
              - a variety of venues & attractions  
              - unique culture / service-minded  
              - global industries-based         | 6 (205,025 SQM.)        | 95                                    | 63                        |
| Singapore   | - business destination image  
              - high quality and safety  
              - center of global business    | 3 (162,600 SQM.)        | 118                                   | 52                        |
| Hong Kong   | - hub of financial business  
              - regional-based of global business  
              - gateway to china               | 3 (132,520 SQM.)        | 66                                    | 84                        |

Data shows that Thailand is bigger than Singapore and Hong Kong. The total square-meters from Thailand’s main venues are larger than Singapore and Hong Kong, but contrast with total of
meeting, convention and exhibition events is less than 2 competitors. That is Singapore and Hong Kong focusing on innovation development strategy to enhance their competitive advantage. Singapore uses the strategy of development of innovative venue as corporate resort and entertainment center. The Marina Bay Sands and Resort is the convention center and exhibition space on one hundred thousand square meters, equipped with hotels, restaurants, swimming pool, spa, the full 360-degree view under one roof. The communication campaign is Unique Singapore to show the highlight point of sale publicity amazing experience unlike any to be found in Singapore. While Hong Kong focuses on communicating the strength of Asia's shopping center to enhance the capacity of the exhibitions and trade shows industries including investing in innovative infrastructure to support the MICE industry; such as, logistic engineering system project consisting of Hong Kong International Airport being the airport express, Tsing Ma Bridge, which can lead MICE visitors to convention center in Kowloon and the Central of Hong Kong Island in just 20 minutes, and the strength communication of “Joyful Island” likes creating a vibrant port area with the Harbor Lighting Show and the elevation of the city culture to set the West Kowloon Cultural District as a selling point being the cultural identity.

In case, the MICE industry innovation in Singapore and Hong Kong causes Thailand's MICE industry have to in terms of innovation development to compete but developing “innovation competence” of Thailand’s MICE industry might require “communication competence” from industrial communication level, organizational communication level, group communication level down to individual communication level in the concept of Ecological Model of Organizational Communication Competence (Jablin, 1994) that leads to two questions on the research question of this study as:

RQ 1: What are the communicative problems in Thailand’s MICE industry which is the obstacles to develop MICE innovation?
RQ 2: What is the communicative model which is appropriate and effective for developing innovation in Thailand's MICE industry?

Conceptualizing Communication for Developing Innovation
State of knowledge about communication for developing innovation that will be used in this study does not have any specific theories so it has to construct the basis concept of organizational communication theories, which the communication is “tools”; it is important to the management, evolved over centuries from the early period of organization theorists; such as, Taylor (1911), Fayol (1949) and Weber (1957), who are the founders of the classical structural approach to organizations, viewed organizations as authority structures in which span of control and work specialization were dominant features. The concept of organizational communication in this period focuses on the task-oriented more than human-oriented: the “top-down” or vertical communication with concentrated on communication channels and transmission processes. Communication control mechanism causes resentment and resistance problems as human are not machines. In addition to, the knowledge development of behavioral science makes us understand more that humans have the needs in social and mind: if they get the right response, they make the effectiveness to organization highly. All of these results the concept of new management communication, which is the concept of Human Relations Approaches, after that the Theorists, Lewin (1943), Mayo (1960) and McGregor (1960): Human relations approaches centered on the social and psychological features of the individual, the work groups and the importance of informal interaction in organization; such as, openness, trust, mutual respect through face-to-face communication for establishing supportive organizational climates, and for sharing power through participatory decision making.
However, the two concepts is the communication in “closed system” that the organization's external environment has changed quite a little. The relationship between the organization and other organizations is still minimal. On the other hand, the larger organization needs to communicate with the external environment more and more including communicating with the other organizations in industries. It needs to communication in “opened system” for linking the external environment and internal environment, which is not separated from each other. This is the origin of system approach. The concept suggested that each organization was the part of a larger system and composed of smaller subsystems. Changing in one part of the system and subsystem reverberated throughout the entire system; so that, each system influenced the actions of each subsystem influenced the action of each subsystem and of the larger super-system. Information functioned as an input from the environment and as a by-product of organizing. Information flowed in restricted communication networks that defined and integrated the subsystems of an organization.

The researches, for example is Amabile (1996); Kanter(1988); Van de Ven, Angle, and Poole, (1989), consistent that Innovative organizations were very open than closed ones restricted amounts of information flow crossing organizational boundary. This is the reason to study the innovation development from the organizational level to the industrial level and to use the communication concept in system approach. In this research used the Ecological Model of Organizational Communication Competence (Jablin, 1994). This model, which incorporates an ecological system perspective (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Johnson, Staton, & Jorgensen-Earp, 1995; Magnusson, 1995), proposes that human, group, organization development is best viewed as a product of the dynamic interaction around four systems in the Jablin’s ecological model of communication competence; microsystem (individual level, e.g.; supervisors, coworkers, and clients), mesosystem (group level, e.g.; MICE management project team), macrosystem (organizational level, e.g.; MICE organization as a whole), exosystem (industrial level, e.g., MICE industry, creative economy). If we look “innovation” as a product or output from individual, group teamwork, organization, and industry development process, we explain that developing innovation in industry in ones is made by the ability of communication from integrating all of parts together; example is that supervisors have the motivation skills (Amabile, 1996) and giving presentation skills to make coworker and supervisor understand and accept in their creativity, and group members can exchange ideas from different points of view for generating new and creative ideas (Angle, Van de Ven, and Poole, 1989; Kanter, 1988). Organization might have the open information flows (Angle, 1989) and information data storage, retrieval and processing systems. And then, Industry might have interorganization coordination through multiple communication network (Jablin, 1994).

The ecological model of organizational communication competence (Jablin, 1994) will enable us to see the structure of the communication system from the exosystem level (industrial or interorganizational level down to the microsystem (individual level), but this research is to find out how to the communication of the ecological system to be able to yield an "innovation". It needs to use the other organization-environment theories together; such as,Resource Dependency Theory, which describes that organizational coordination occurs when two or more organizations share power and develop social agreements that stabilize and coordinate mutual interdependence. (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978) with one theory is, Institutionalization Theory, a theory of information acquisition, manipulation and use, which explains the phenomenon that a successful organization will respond by developing a structure that is deemed appropriate, rationale by its environment and suggest that once an innovation is institutionalized by the environment. (Meyer and. Rowan, 1977).
The last is critical to initiating communication model for developing innovation of this research is the Diamond Model of Michael E. Porter, the system approach that explains the dynamic process by which “innovation” is created. The Porter thesis is that factors for competitive advantage interact with each other to create conditions where innovation and improved competitiveness occurs. These interlinked advanced factors are; factor conditions are human resources, physical resources, knowledge resources, capital resources and infrastructure, demand conditions can help companies create an innovation and competitive advantage, when sophisticated buyers pressure firms to innovate faster and to create more advanced products than those of competitors. Related and supporting industries can produce inputs which are important for innovation and firm strategy, structure and rivalry constitute determinant of competitiveness by the way in which companies are created, set goals and are managed is important for success. The conceptual framework from Porter’s Diamond Model can be extended and developed in communication model that explains the communication policy and strategy to create the innovation. It is the vital contribution of this study.

Methodology
In order to acquire information representative of Thailand’s MICE organizations, qualitative data were collected from 24 different organizations that are holding the associated members in the list of Thailand's MICE associations such as Profession Conference and Exhibition Organizers (PCO & PEO), Destination Management Companies (DMC), Venues (Convention and Exhibition Center, Hotel), Contractors, Suppliers and also Thai's MICE bureau and MICE associations. Usable data were collected from in-depth interviewing 120 members of the 24 organizations. Participants represented a wide range of positions including managing director, sales manager, project manager, meeting planner, creative, designer and production staff. Another part of data were collected from three sources of documents; MICE policy declaration paper from Thailand Convention and Exhibition Bureau (TCEB), “MICE magazine” quarterly magazine of Thailand’s MICE industry: all is published during 2003-2007 including 20 volumes, and The 11th National Economic and Social Development Plan from the Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board. In all the qualitative data collected from a content analysis presents research findings and discussion.

“Creative MICE”, The Incremental Innovation of Thailand’s MICE and the critical blocks
The results of the primary data and secondary data shows that the innovation development of Thailand's MICE industry is in the level of "incremental innovation" by the concept of Tushman& Anderson (1986), which is the level of innovation development from using technology or what was there to improve better; such as, Creating style and atmosphere of the meeting in place of the exotic: (stadium, historic, or museums, etc.), Using Thai wisdom and cultural identity to create a Thai theme to add value and experience for the attendees, and Using the latest audio-visual technology to create a new presentation in the exhibition. As a whole is the innovation development not to reach in the “breakthrough innovation” level that makes dramatic changes ahead; example is virtual exhibition or virtual conference that changes the pattern of our trade show or convention entirely. This finding is relevant to the MICE development plan of Thailand Convention and Exhibition Bureau that sets up the incremental innovation strategy for MICE industry with the basic concept of creative economy. The key concept focuses on making “value creation” from the former Thais wisdom, culture and technologies that exists so this study defined it in term of "Creative MICE”.

Although Thailand's MICE industry has developed the incremental innovation continuous, it is a result of pressure from intense industry competition. When the government has the policy of industrial development in the concept of creative economy, we need to increase ability of innovation development to be superior competitors in the region. About in-depth interview of
individuals, working in 24 different Thai MICE organizations, concerning their perceptions about the critical block of MICE innovation, results the solution of research question: (RQ 1: What are the communicative problems in Thailand’s MICE industry which is the obstacles to develop MICE innovation?). It could classify in 2 dimensions; general problems and communicative problems; such as,

1. General problem dimension
   1.1 Policy problem
   -The extreme political power of Thai government brings about the discontinuity in the development of industrial policy
   -The promotion policy for increasing business tourist in quantitative term is not consistent with the level of industry development in quality term.
   -The policy of government agencies lacks developing the implementation to facilitate in MICE business. For example is highly tax and inconvenience regulation about importing the products to show in exhibition

   1.2 Infrastructure problem
   -Infrastructure development is delayed. For example is the project of public transport system into the convention and exhibition center, the project of high speed rail and also the project of development of telecom 3G or 4G.
   -Information Infrastructure for supporting the creative thinking of MICE people is not complete; for instance, the information center of MICE industry has been developing and the lack of local data Center or information database in organization.

   1.3 Budget problem
   -The marketing budget is not balanced the budget for industrial development.
   -The budget is limited to create new forms because the organizers who work in the country, especially government agencies do not emphasize it.

   1.4 Management problem
   -The government's crisis management is so poor. Example is political gatherings and coping with natural disasters that make other country not sure to choose Thailand as a venue.
   -The management is not harmony between publish sector and private sector including local sector. It affects to MICE activities not smooth.
   -The management within organizations, both public and private sectors lacks the knowledge of management about creativity and innovation of people in organizations.

   1.5 Human resource problem
   -Lack of the expertise in the MICE business enough with the growth of MICE industry in Thailand.
   -MICE people have illiteracy about foreign languages so they could not work in the international level.
   -MICE People lack the knowledge of development of creative thinking for systematic management that makes them have no clear guidelines in terms of thinking and creating new forms.

The other problem is a critical block to develop the MICE innovation in Thailand: as

2. Communicative problem dimension
   -The vision for development of Thai’s MICE Industry lacks a clear and specific definition in achievement to be the MICE center of Asia for creating new things.
The strategy of MICE industry development has no plan about communication channels to reach audiences so the plan in communications policy level is not down to operational level. It’s delayed in practice.

The organization culture between publish sector and private sector are very different. The result is the conflict of communication to make collaboration from executive level down to operational level.

The difference of personality types; Salesman, Project Manager, Creative, Designer, Production and also Buyer, brings about the different understanding in the event concept.

Communication apprehension of Thais: example is the fear to offer the new idea that is different from Superior or different from group; Moreover, be afraid of lose face from other comments. All of these make people fear to communicate the new ideas.

Superior communicate with Subordinate in the “open-half closed” that is to be free for Subordinate offering the new idea but Superior expect to get the idea in the same way he or she think.

A lot of people in MICE business have no the presentation skills. They could not present their idea to Colleagues, boss or customers for understanding or accepting. This is obstruction to sale idea in team and also to sale idea for customers fled the new concept of MICE event.

In the Participants’ view saw that influence of the problems associated with general problems and communicative problems is the vital obstacle to make the innovation development of Thailand’s MICE industry delay. This, which might lose its competitive advantage in the long term to the neighboring countries in the Southeast Asia: (They have the high potential; such as, Malaysia and Vietnam), results the solution of research question: (RQ 2: What is the communicative model which is appropriate and effective for developing innovation in Thailand's MICE industry?). All of these are described in the following order.

Communication model of Thailand’s MICE Innovation Development

The qualitative data analysis from in-depth interview 120 members of the 24 organizations and MICE policy declaration paper from Thailand Convention and Exhibition Bureau (TCEB) found that Thailand’s MICE incremental innovation or “Creative MICE” needs to develop based on 2 communication policies; Participatory Communication Policy and Proactive Marketing Communication Policy. First, Thailand's MICE industry needs to use participatory communication policy through the inter-organizational communication among MICE bureau, private sector and public sector. Thai Convention and Exhibition Bureau (TCEB) might be the center of communication to collaborate with government, trade agency and MICE association through wide-range of inter-organizational communication channels. The communication strategy; such as,

- To sign Mutual Of Understanding (MOU) between the organizations to create the commitment to develop and to initiate the main direction of development policy in MICE industry together and use MICE industry to be the key message to drive the vision.
- To push acceleratory the government invests the infrastructure development to prepare organizing world-class events and to develop acceleratory Infrastructure to enhance the creative thinking of people in MICE industry as MICE Intelligent Center.
- To build the collaboration with the provincial administration developing MICE City to cover all regions of Thailand and communicate with local people to know and to understand the importance of the development in Creative MICE for making an attitude of participation in development.
- To communicate trade agency know and understand about conference and exhibition in the concept of Creative MICE for making the member of trade agency association could organize events in the way of Creative MICE.
To collaborate with Thailand Invention and Convention Association (TICA) and Thailand Exhibition Association (TEA) to do the plan and project of creative thinking development of people in the MICE business; for example, The communication competence development for creative thinking program, The project of knowledge database links of TCEB, TICA and TEA to develop creative thinking of MICE people; and the project of campaign to encourage creative culture widely in Thai’s MICE industry.

The initiation of Creative MICE national policy from the participation of MICE bureau, government, MICE entrepreneur association and trade agency association will be communicated to key stakeholders in MICE industry who are Organizer (PCO, PEO, DMC) and Supplier (Convention & Exhibition Center, Hotel, Equipment, Contractor) to receive policy setting to input innovation-oriented policy in term of Creative MICE into their firm strategy; such as,

- To set strategy and plan of creative thinking development in MICE organization focusing on building the open communication culture. That could motivate people to innovate the new things for the conference and exhibition.
- To set training programs to improve the knowledge and skills of innovation of people in organization including to develop communication competence to enhance creative capability in all levels such as creative group brainstorming, motivating skills, giving advice/feedback skills and presentation skills.

Other part is proactive marketing communication policy. Thailand's MICE industry needs to use this policy through wide-range media channels both domestic and world-wide. (e.g., TV and print advertising, public relations activities, bidding, road show, trade show, direct mail, social media, etc.) It is a part of communication for activate the Creative MICE demand from domestic and foreign buyers, including visitors who is marketing target audiences; such as,

- To set Thailand’s Creative MICE as an unique-selling-point for bidding and promote Thailand as the most value creation of MICE destination in Asia
- To recreate trustworthy image to foreign customers focusing on key message of full range potentials for MICE activities, Thais service-mind and outstanding Thai’s culture to show the highlight point of amazing experience unlike anyone to be found in Thailand.

Results from analysis of all data of this study was created the Communication Model of Thailand's MICE Innovation Development that explain the total communication strategy for developing incremental innovation or "Creative MICE" in Thailand's MICE industry: which could conclude the overview for easy understanding with IDEA acronym; Initiate innovation-oriented message into the MICE development policy and firm strategy, Develop factors condition (e.g., people, infrastructure, etc.) by participatory communication among MICE stakeholders, Encourage creative climate and culture of MICE organizations and Activate demand of buyers and visitors with innovative MICE products. The result was shown in the model at Figure 1.2.
Figure 1.2

The Communication Model of Thailand’s MICE Innovation Development (Tessiri Taka, 2010)

Discussion
The Communication Model of Thailand’s MICE Innovation Development is the contribution of this study focusing on describing the communication system of organizations in Thai’s MICE Management which will lead to achieve in the innovation development for making competitive advantage. It was concluded that MICE Bureau, Association and Government have to work together to clarify message that is vision, policy and strategy of MICE industry development in the concept of Creative MICE clearly.

Then, they will communicate the strategy to down level in organizations both organizer and supplier in industry because the organizations will set the message of organization strategy accordingly in the concept of Creative MICE of industry. This is the factors of firm strategy and supporting business in the model of Porter. Meanwhile, making communication to develop in three Factor Conditions of Creative MICE; such as, Infrastructure to support the MICE activities, MICE knowledge database and the potential and creativity of human resource. This is the stage of development compared to the preparation likes “engine performance” to be ready. Then, fill the fuel to accelerate driven by 3 approaches:

- First approach is to use the communication strategy to initiate national innovation-oriented message in the level of industrial policy and firm strategy, develop creative people and infrastructure as factor condition, and activates demand condition of buyers and visitors to increasing organize events in Thailand. This dynamic process will accelerate the competition of entrepreneurs to create Creative MICE innovation result by the Porter’s Diamond Model (1985).

- Second approach is the implementation of communication competence development for creative thinking program in all sectors of industry from exosystem level or industrial level down to microsystem or individual level, according to the description of the Ecological model of Jablin (2001). The sum of increasing communication knowledge and performance from integrating all of parts together will develop Creative MICE innovation in Thailand’s MICE industry efficiency.

- And third approach explained through Organization-Environment Theories; as, institutionalization theory. When the national communication campaign, Creative MICE, is settled to encourage creative culture in the Thailand’s MICE industry, it will accelerate the adaptation of MICE organizations to conform to the expectation of the new environment by adapting appropriate structure and behaviors by the concept of institutionalization theory (Meyer and Rowan, 1977).

Finally, this research study suggests that Thai Governments and MICE Bureau should consider the proportion of budget as well because the marketing promotion budget is Sixty-three point eight six percent, meanwhile, the development budget is only twelve point five percent under the management budget of MICE Bureau: (difference in twenty-three point six four percent), more than the double.

That showed they also focus on demand condition extremely. In the thesis of Porter believes that, if demand condition increases, the private sector will speed up to compete developing the innovation. The concept is not wrong but it works with a group of developed countries that focus on developing the intellectual property in basic. On the other hand, in Thailand, about firm strategy of MICE business do not focus on the innovation including missing both factor condition and supporting business, so we should increase the proportion of the development budget more than now.

References


Islamic Movies:

Propagating Islam to the Youth in Indonesia

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Introduction
This paper deals with Islamic movies in Indonesia. It is based on fieldwork that I did from December 2010 until March 2011. I interviewed some university students and an Islamic movie director. I also undertook narrative analysis of the movies. I start the paper with defining religious movie and framing the relationship between religion and movie. Then the paper captures a few highlights in the history of Indonesian cinema and seeks to put the genre of Islamic movies within that history as well as briefly discusses the genre of horror movies that had an association with the genre of religious movies. After that, I discuss the emergence of Islamic movies in Indonesian cinema after 2003, particularly the prominence of Ayat-Ayat Cinta and Ketika Cinta Bertasbih series. In the discussion of the movies, I analyse a few issues addressed by the movies, particularly polygamy. I also show various and sometimes contradicting responses directed by Indonesian Muslim young adults to the movies. My prime intention is to figure out how and in what ways Muslim youths interpret Islamic movies as a part of their identity construction processes.

In this paper, I argue that young adults are not passive recipients as proposed by some popular culture theorists, including Horkheimer and Adorno of Frankfurt School. They did not merely become object of ideologies injected by filmmakers, and their responses were not unquestioning acceptance. I suggest that Muslim youths were very involved in their reading of the movies, and did not passively accept whatever the movies put on screen. They were often critical and spent considerable time discussing the movies. Thus, it makes sense when Hall (1980) argues that audiences are the active producers of meaning, rather than mere consumers. Turner (2009:198) amplifies Hall’s notion by theorising that the film text has no unitary in its meaning, but rather it is a sort of a battlefield for competing and contradicting ideas. Even though it is possible for a certain idea to emerge as victor, since young adults are actively engaged in movie-viewing activities, there are always gaps, cracks, and division. A study conducted by Nilan (2008:53-55) found that the appearance of a popular Muslim historical figure in an animated film series instead of generated unity among Muslim societies triggered heated debates over which ethnic he represented. In my research, Muslim youths may agree that Islamic movies have potential to deliver religious advices to viewers. However, they divided over which movie they considered as more religious and which one they felt better. They also argued over whether the movies were really more than entertainment indicating that at least some of them did not entirely absorb the values that Islamic film producers wished to nurture through the movies.

Defining Religious Movie
Wright (2007:4) notes that at least in one point, there is a similarity between religion and film: both are able to produce narrative. Both religion and film seek to make manifest the unrepresentable in their own ways. Wright’s explanation borrowed an idea from Otto (1950:12) that there is a need for human to articulate thoughts and feelings in metaphorical and symbolic forms, and religion is the most appropriate sphere to cater the need that is usually located at within the depth of the soul. It seems that movie is also able to match this need since its basic features are metaphors and symbols.
Based on Clifford Geertz’s definition of religion, Lyden (2003:44-46) amplifies the reason for associating religion and movies: in a similar vein to religion, movies provide visual and narrative symbols mediating worldviews and systems of values. Movies consist of a set of stories that resemble two functions of religion pointed out by Geertz (1993): ‘models of’ (worldview) and ‘models for’ (systems of values) reality. Movies claim that the world is in a certain way and simultaneously claim that it should be that way. Lyden (2003:44) suggests other similarities between movies and religion. Equipped with their ability to persuade their respective audiences, both encourage certain moods and motivations to act. These moods and motivations are based in religion’s conceptions of a general order of existence that include the attempt of human to manage their experiences with chaos. Most viewers watch films to fulfil the need to experience the neater, better and more orderly world where there are punishment for vice and reward for virtue (Lyden, 2003:45). As with religion, movies provide a sense that justice and order exist, even though some events remain unexplained or appear to be unfair. Thus, both religion and movie involve in the complex relationship between ‘what is’ and ‘what ought to’. If Ida (2006:9-11) proposes that media consumption could be viewed as cultural experience, I share Lyden’s theory (2003:46) that film viewing could be taken into account as religious experience. In explaining this notion, Lyden borrowed Geertz’s term ‘aura of factuality’\textsuperscript{1} to describe that there is a sense of religious ritual involved in film viewing when they attend a darkened room with an enlarged screen that encompasses all attention. Similar to religious rituals, the experience of watching movie is often communal as well. Sometimes audiences attend it based on their friend’s invitation or recommendation and they discuss their experience in watching it.

The analysis of Islamic movies is impossible without a clear definition and understanding of the characteristics of Islamic movies in particular and of religious film in general. I agree with characteristics of religious movie proposed by Wright (2007): they have plots that draw upon religion; they are set in the context of religious communities; they use religion for character definition; deal directly or indirectly with religious characters, texts, or locations; use religious ideas to explore experiences, transformations, or conversions of characters; address religious themes and concerns. Some religious movies may rely on religious themes and teachings like forgiveness, redemption, sacrifice, and hospitality to develop narrative and characters. Others may deploy religious characters or communities to address universal themes, such as love and marriage, class conflicts, the struggle for freedom, and anti-colonialism.

**Indonesian Cinema and Earlier Islamic Films**
The post-Independence Indonesian movie themes ranged from revolutionary war, political satire, traditional cultures, social conflicts, to *Mahabharata*-based stories. This era also saw the involvement of many significant writers, directors, and producers in ideological-political struggles between right and left in Indonesia that only ceased after 1965. On 30 September 1965, allegedly Communist-supported-factions of the army kidnapped and murdered some top army generals. Major General Soeharto took over military command and seized the opportunity to decimate the Communist Party. After several months, Soeharto gained a full

\textsuperscript{1} This means that religion deals with the reality by asserting that its conceptions are not fictions but are descriptive of (or sometimes normative for) the actual nature of the world
authority, in the name of President Soekarno, to rule the state before he became the new
president. The sudden and dramatic political transformation, which signalled the emergence
of the New Order period, had taken casualties in the world of cinema: almost all directors,
technicians and artists associated with the Communist were arrested and jailed for many
years, sometimes without trial (Sen, 1994:49). The New Order government also ruled that all
aspects of cinema had to be overseen by the Department of Information; later on, this
department was placed under the aegis of the Coordinating Minister of Politics and Security
(Sen and Hill, 2000:139).

Indonesian Islamic movies in pre 2000s period had two sub-genres: supernatural and da’wah
dangdut musicals. The former is exemplified by 1983 Sunan Kalijaga (name of character),
the second most popular film at that time and 1985 Sembilan Wali (Nine Islamic Saints,
1985); both deal with Islamic saints who introduced Islam to the Java in the fifteenth century.
These movies took a great emphasis on supernatural powers possessed by them, and the
struggle between mainstream and peripheral Islamic schools. The other sub-genre, da’wah
dangdut was established by Rhoma Irama, a dangdut superstar turned-actor-and-preacher.
His movies combined the typical love stories with the conflict between the rich and the poor
(as a consequence of New Order development programmes), and the use of popular music to
preach about Islam. The dramas played out in these movies are often rudimentary, but the
power of dangdut made them extremely popular, particularly among the poor (Hanan, 2010).

The period of 2000s saw a different story when symbols of religion are no longer dominant in
the horror genre. The protagonists in current horror movie have to rely on advices from their
friend who happens to be student of anthropology or psychology, or from an old man -
stranger or acquaintance - who makes cryptic remarks related to the supernatural issues
(Kidds, 2008). Sometimes, ghosts only disappear when the protagonists fulfil their
requirements. Other noteworthy departures from earlier period horror movies was that from
2001 onwards horror films were screened at luxurious movie theatres, and the plot of good
versus bad was replaced by questions of the existence of supernatural powers (Amin,
2010:67). The style of some of them resembles that of Western musical videos, and uses
recently released popular music as their background. The disappearance of Islamic figures
and symbols from almost all current horror movies is compensated by the emergence of
Islamic movies.

Islamic Movies in the Post Reform Period
Islamic themed movies appeared prominently after 2003, when a film titled Kiamat Sudah
Dekat (The End of The World is Nigh) was released. The director plainly wished his movie
to alternate the prevalent stereotypes of Islamic movies as mostly merely depict Islam in
terms of magic, miracle, and supernatural (Amin, 2011). He wanted Islamic movies to

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2 **Dangdut** is a highly rhythmic Indonesian popular music, a mix of Indian, Arabian and Malayan musical
elements. It has also been subtly influenced by the British pop rock group Deep Purple. While the inclusion of
Islam in dangdut was not entirely new it was Rhoma Irama who consciously and boldly inserted Islamic
messages within his dangdut (Frederick, 1982).
portray Islam as a reality of everyday life, not contained to solely rural societies (as usually illustrated by older Islamic movies) but also urban societies. The story of *Kiamat Sudah Dekat* substantially revolves around the differences between religion and modern culture in the daily life with a plot of a Westernised rock musician falling in love with a pious girl, the daughter of a Muslim cleric. The film did not do well in the market, but it inspired other film-makers to resurrect Islamic movies which some of them based on commercially successful Islamic novels. I will focus on *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* (Verses of Love, 2008) and *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* 1 and 2 (When Love is Praised to God, 2009) since most of my research participants mention these movies as their favourites.

1. *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* (Verses of Love): A New Style of Indonesian Islamic Movie

The film *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* (Verses of Love) started the Islamic movie boom in 2008 with massive media coverage due to the spectacle it created and its association with the novel version that was the best-selling book in 2007. When it went to screen, the movie attracted a record-breaking of 3.6 million cinemagoers in Indonesia. It created a resounding buzz in the region’s Muslim communities for portrayal of moderate, compassionate Muslims and understanding of Islamic values.

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The movie is about a virtuous Muslim protagonist who tries to overcome all obstacles of life while maintaining the ideals of Islam. As the story unravels, the protagonist faces the daunting decisions he has to make while keeps his undying loyalty to the principles of Islamic teaching. Eventually, Fachri marries Aisha but then another woman, Noura accuses him of raping her, and causes him to be thrown in jail. While Maria, his former neighbour is the only one who can testify Fachri’s innocence, she is dying of a heart attack after knowing of Fachri’s marriage. To give her a hope of life, as well as to free Fachri from the accusation, Aisha begs Fachri to take Maria as his second wife. Fachri refuses at first, but since Maria's
condition is critical and he will not touch a woman unless she is his wife, he very reluctantly agrees to marry her. Then, in a scene Heryanto (2011) describes as the ‘Islamic kiss of sleeping beauty’, Maria regains consciousness after Fachri kisses her. Maria testifies at court and Fachri is freed from jail. However, Maria's condition gets better only for a while and she passes away not long after.

Ayat-Ayat Cinta stood out for its Islamic theme; it fits Wright’s model (2000) as to what constitutes a religious movie since the movie represents Islamic ideas, rituals, communities, iconography and music, and relies on Islam for the development of narrative, theme, and character. It is also the first movie in the history of Indonesian cinema to feature a fully veiled woman as a central character. Nevertheless, it is essentially a melodramatic love story. Hakim (2009) categorises it as belonging to an Islamic-romance sub-genre, a new sub-genre within the Islamic movie genre, particularly in Indonesia. Many pundits recognised that what made Ayat-Ayat Cinta wildly popular is its recipe of packaging a manual for living in an Islamic way in a melodramatic love story. Despite its richly and markedly Islamic elements, in many sections the film resembles features of Hollywood and Bollywood movies, as well as sinetron (Indonesian television dramas).

The movie addresses an issue that is talked about by filmgoers and scholars alike: polygamy. Taking multiple wives is often cited as being in accord with Islamic principles, and some Muslims do practice it. However, public figures faced much criticism when they took second wives. Ayat-Ayat Cinta portrays polygamy as a means to save Fachri from imprisonment since Maria - the only one who can prove Fachri’s innocence - is dying and only his physical touch can revive her. Islamic principles require a husband to be equal and fair to his wives, and as seen in the movie it is almost impossible. Other issue is tolerance. The movie presents the teaching of Islam in a positive and peaceful way, and shows Fachri and Aisha as true Muslims who practice tolerance, patience, honesty, and sincerity. During one memorable scene, passengers on a crowded Cairo train refuse to give up their seats on an ailing elderly American woman due to their anger toward the United States. When Aisha defends and gives the American her seat, a passenger accuses Aisha of taking side with the infidel, and attempts to attack her. However, Fachri saves the day, preaching that Islam is a religion of tolerance and one that extends welcome toward all foreigners. In a personal interview, Hanung Bramantyo said that he wanted to aim his message of tolerance in his films (not only Ayat-Ayat Cinta) to all Muslims, and non-Muslims as well partly due to his concern of the existence of a small-but vocal minority of hard-line, militant Muslims who want to see Islamic law implemented in the country.

From all research participants I met in the fieldwork, only two who have a doubt whether Ayat-Ayat Cinta is a religious movie by nature. Others mentioned that at least, the movie possesses some substantial Islamic elements. Rhino, a 22 years old student of Microbiology discipline explained that Ayat-Ayat Cinta is a very important film for the reason that it was the first ever-Indonesian movie to portray modern Muslims on screen. When he was asked of the meaning of ‘modern Muslims’, he quickly replied, “Just like us, young men, living in the modern world with contemporary problems”.

Ayat-Ayat Cinta
However, the choice of its actors was a discontent to my informants who happen to be the adherents of the novel. It is a bit ironic since the need to pull in the younger crowd was the reason to employ popular casts: a model and musician plays the pious Fachri; a popular MTV VJ and model as the burqa-clad Aisha; and a successful soap drama artist and model as the beautiful Maria Girgis. My informants questioned why the devout Fachri performed by an actor who in his previous movie did a kissing scene, something that does not adhere to Islamic principle; and why the fully veiled Aisha was played by an actor who - despite her Muslim background - has never worn the veil and recently married a Christian hip-hop singer. The displeasure to the movie was also a result of some scenes condemned as not fit into Islamic teaching. For instance, before Fachri met with Aisha, he had a close relation with Maria. They never touched each other, but they are portrayed as usually in close proximity.

Islamists applauded Ayat-Ayat Cinta for they believed the movie strongly glorifies polygamy, and since the movie tapped into other sections of Muslim society, it helped them out to justify their actions in committing polygamy that was sometimes attracting public criticism. The notion that it supported polygamy was also shared by the opponents of polygamy, and made them condemned it. Krishna (2008), a spiritual activist stated that in general Indonesians could not accept the polygamous marriage of Abdullah Gymnastiar – a popular preacher – and other public figures. Gymnastiar, better known as Aa Gym, is a Muslim televangelist whose popularity reaches beyond the boundaries of class, race, gender and religion (he was also well liked by non-Muslims). Nevertheless, after taking a second wife, his ‘brand image’ was severely damaged (Hoesterey, 2008). Thus, Krishna (2008) urged the viewing audience to be critical of the movie. Bev (2008) commented that the movie is a vehicle for marketing fundamentalism as it romanticises polygamy, and is far from being an innocent love story. Novelist Ayu Utami also said that the story was as bland as ‘a Hollywood tale of the 1950s’ and asked if its treatment of polygamy was anything other than the ideology of a happy-ending a la fundamentalist (Fitzpatrick, 2008).

In some ways, Ayat-Ayat Cinta is actually not very clear in addressing the issue of polygamy. The decision to take a second wife may make polygamy supporters happy. However, he is practically forced to commit polygamy since the situation is a life-or-death emergency. The movie explores in detail that it is extremely difficult to be in such a relationship with jealousy and rivalry always in play. If Bramantyo (and El Shirazy) wished to support polygamy, the story could have stopped when Aisha returns home from going away alone for a break and self-reflection. Instead, it extends to the death of Maria and clearly makes Fachri and Aisha lives a happily-ever-after marriage. That story makes one wonders how polygami could lead to happiness. I share Heryanto’s conclusion that Ayat-Ayat Cinta is actually more ambiguous in delivering the issue of polygamy than many people think. It does not oppose the concept of polygamy, but it suggests that a polygamous marriage would never be a happy relationship. The movie is located somewhere between fundamentalist and more liberal Islamic camp.

Notwithstanding director’s actual resistance to polygamy, his intention is somehow lost and the viewing audience, particularly my research participants, perceive that the movie either supports polygamy, or is merely entertainment that is not Islamic, so its treatment of the issue
of polygamy should not be taken seriously. Lee, a 20-years-old student of Management of Education said to me:

No, I do not think it is an Islamic movie. It is an entertainment, a love story between a man and a woman with all challenges they must face. But, hey, it is a very good one, much better than sinetron (TV drama). Their acting was more convincing than sinetron actors were.

This view echoes Heryanto’s (2011) argument that Ayat-Ayat Cinta is, essentially, a love story crafted with good film-making skills and that makes the movie appeals to most Indonesian Muslim young adult. Therefore, it is not surprising that another important message Bramantyo wanted to convey, the principle of tolerance within Islam failed to reach the general audience. The message that Islam allows inter-religious marriage in which El Shirazy wanted to deliver as well (Hermawan, 2008) did not reach moviegoers. The movie trapped in a soap opera archetype. Hakim (2009) also suggests that its da'wah (if any) becomes blurred due to the interaction between Islam and romance.

Many Muslims saw the movie as offering a real fresh entertainment, free from sex, violence and superstitious scenes that previously dominated Indonesian cinema. Informants regarded the character of Fachri and Aisha as ideal role model for youth whether the movie belongs to Islamic genre or not. For instance, Master (22 years old) of Biological Sciences discipline stated:

Fachri is a cool Muslim. He is really like us, from moderate background. He shows what a good Muslim youth should look like. He is young, pious and smart, neither radical nor liberal. My older sister also said to me that she wants to be like Aisha, smart, pious, and determined to live by principles of Islam.

His comment which represents other informants echoes Turner’s point (2009) that heroes and heroines on films offer a kind of wish fulfilment, and the adoration for them is basically the expression of a wish that may be unconsciously want to be fulfilled. Thus, I can conclude Fachri and Aisha offer an attractive blend of piety and modernity since within these on-screen characters, Muslim young adults found embodiment of their aspired identity for the first time.

2. Ketika Cinta Bertasbih (When Love is Praised to God): Propagating Islam to Young Adults

Ketika Cinta Bertasbih 1 and 2 are films directed by Chaerul Umam based on best-selling books in Indonesia from Habiburahman El Shirazy. The story of Ketika Cinta Bertasbih 1 revolves around the struggle of an Al-Azhar University student, Khairul Azzam to complete his study as well as about finding a wife. He can only finish his study after nine years, because after his father died, he took responsibility to support his family by producing and selling tempe (fermented soybean) and bakso (beef ball soup), and being a cook for special occasion for the Indonesian Ambassador for Egypt. He attempts to marry Anna Althafunissa, also a student of Al Azhar but she has already been proposed by his best friend, Furqon. Ketika Cinta Bertasbih 2 touches more on entrepreneurship, and shows on how fate plays a big part in Azzam's life. Albeit of his overseas degree, life does not become easy for Azzam when he returns to Indonesia after finally finishes his study from Al Azhar. He could not find a worthy job for an overseas graduate, then sets up his own business by selling bakso (beef ball soup) after temporarily works as courier. After many unsuccessful marriage proposals and a broken engagement, Azzam finally marries Anna, the girl who always bears in his heart.
Ketika Cinta Bertasbih movies were commercially not as success as Ayat-Ayat Cinta, but they remain popular among youth. Ketika Cinta Bertasbih 1 attracted around three millions audiences and although its sequel had only more or less a half of it, Ketika Cinta Bertasbih 2 gained considerable success at the Indonesian Movie Awards in May 2010, and received awards for the Best Male Performance and Best Movie. Ketika Cinta Bertasbih Cinta series have less melodramatic elements of love story than Ayat-Ayat Cinta does. Nevertheless, Ketika Cinta Bertasbih series explore marriage issues in more detail as well as offer explanations on why it should be pursued through Islamic principles, dating is not allowed, and touching the opposite sex is forbidden. The movie implies that even though Islamic style marriage may look like a match-made, it is not a forced one. Woman can reject a marriage proposal if she does not know her suitor beforehand or does not like him. This movie uncovers some principles that a woman may have for a best husband: being pious, possessing a good knowledge on religion, having equal status level (formal education and socio-economic background), and being lovable person who is highly depending on personal terms (physical feature, manner, body smell, etc.). Unlike Ayat-Ayat Cinta, Ketika Cinta Bertasbih movies are not merely occupied by the issue of love and marriage that are very dominant in the former. Ketika Cinta Bertasbih portrays a common problem faced by most young adult in Indonesia: difficulty to find a good career.

The issue of polygamous marriage in Ketika Cinta Bertasbih is a peripheral one compares to Ayat-Ayat Cinta. There is no character in Ketika Cinta Bertasbih commits polygamy, albeit of a statement that polygamy is allowed within Islam. When Anna is asked her opinion about polygamy, she compares it with jengkol (stinky bean); it is not forbidden to take it but many people simply do not like it. She says that it is all right if her husband marries four women.
but she will not be one of them. She wants to be like Aisha, the daughter of Prophet Muhammad, whose husband, Sayyidina Ali never took a second wife, and Siti Khadijah, the Prophet’s first wife who was the only Prophet’s spouse for twenty-eight years until she passed away.

Unlike *Ayat-Ayat Cinta*, *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* is identified as Islamic movies by all research participants. An informant of Mathematics discipline, Sweet described that the movie contains a plenty of Islamic symbols, rituals, and lessons. It is obvious for my friends and me that this is a real Islamic movie. You can see it in the piety of its characters. They pray, read Qur’an, and obey Islamic lessons. They maintain their sincerity and portray good behaviours, no matter hard the problem they must face. Almost all women there wear veil. They show to us on how to be a good Muslim. She explained that it did not mean that she never had the lessons of being a good Muslim before, but rather that the movie embodies Islamic teachings taught to her before she went to university. My research participants felt that watching *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* is a way for self-reflection and for perfecting their lessons on Islam, as movie could do better in delivering lessons than book and traditional face-to-face sermon.

When I asked their opinions of *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih*, they always compared it to *Ayat-Ayat Cinta*, and some of them considered the former as the better one. They regarded that Chaerul Umam’s movies are better and more ‘Islamic’ than Hanung Bramantyo’s film in many aspects. Kasturi (2010) said that every scenes in *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* were directed and crafted in accord to Islamic principles where the casts have to be Muslims and every scenes need to be remain with sharia. Meanwhile, *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* revealed a kissing scene and an implied sex scene that albeit of it was not really shown, some informants felt embarrassed that such scenes were unveiled in a supposedly Islamic movie. How Azzam and Anna behave is accounted as more adhere to Islamic values than Fachri and Aisha. More importantly, their assessment on those fictional characters was based on the factual everyday life of the actors. Compares to *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* actors, all leading actors in *Ketika Bercinta* were selected not solely based on acting performance, but also on their Islamic knowledge and associated skills such as their ability to recite Qur’an.

Some Islamic movies treat Islam as an exclusive religion with all sorts of formality emphasising on individual’s private matters and without any concern at all to social transformation. Narratives and scenes of *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* epitomises an outlook of Islam as a dogmatic, narrow-minded, totally institutionalised, and orthodox religion. Narratives in these movies were based on an assumption that being Islamic means strictly following sharia conventions. The plot that every marriage has to be pursued through Islamic laws and Muslims cannot put their own feeling before the law is an example of it. Scenes not comply with out-of-date sharia were prohibited. For instance, woman has to wear veil in every circumstances, even when shots taken in a bedroom, she must not take it off, something that is hard to justify. If Muzakki (2008) commented that contemporary Islamic movies offer something different to didactic messages widely available in the preaching market by presenting Islamic values in a more digestible way, it is not the case with *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* since the movies contain a lot of many ‘dos and don’ts’. The heavy line of Islamic teaching and didactic messages within the movies implies that the director’s vision resonates with a growing tendency of religious institutionalisation in Indonesia.
Conclusion
Although my research participants may agree that "Ketika Cinta Bertasbih" movies are 'more Islamic', not all of them like it more than "Ayat-Ayat Cinta". Some of them said that the latter touches their heart and attracts their emotion more than the former do. They felt that watching the story of Azzam was similar to their experience in attending the sermons, which was ‘not fun’ notwithstanding their acknowledgment that it was necessary for them. Others embrace the presence of "Ketika Cinta Bertasbih" as a well-timed and necessary medium to propagate Islam to the youth, but it has limited advantages. While movies can be used to introduce Islam to the ones with a very little knowledge of it, the movies cannot offer greater benefit to a person who is already relatively well versed with knowledge of Islam. The movies were clearly designated for young adults who are just about to move forward to be adults. Meanwhile the ones who need them much more are teenager, and currently there is no teenage Islamic movie. Therefore, the intention of Islamic film-makers to educate young Muslim to be good Muslim in accord with the waves of Islamisation is not as successful as they expected it.

Movie can no longer be perceived as merely a form of entertainment, it becomes such an important medium for channelling diverse and conflicting ideas and ideologies. Turner (2009:200) asserts that those ideological statements never take the form of direct statements, but rather they lie in what movie possess as its weapons: images, myths, conventions, and visual styles. Thus, a more detailed study on the relation between popular culture, religion, and politics is very much needed.

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Running School MEDIA CLUBS: Guidelines for Media Educators

Abstract

Media Studies as a subject has entered the boundaries of schools in India a little late but at last. One of the key point made by the National Curriculum Framework 2005 i.e. connecting knowledge to the life outside the school, has actually opened the door for media studies, a subject which has never in the past was given its due importance in school curriculum. It was realized that students’ media experiences are as important as their experience with their parents, peers and teachers and by allowing them to bring their media experiences in classroom, a creative environment can be created where they could get a chance to discuss issues which are very integral to their life. The way other subjects like history, geography, maths, languages etc are taught at school. Similarly, there is a need to teach media as a subject at school level. The idea behind teaching media is not to make them journalist or media person as it is not the case with other subjects as well. Students study history not to become a historian or math to become mathematician. May be in future they may take up these professions but not necessarily. They study all these subjects to understand their surroundings and to develop understanding of the concepts which may help them to deal with various situations in life. Likewise, media should also be taught along with other subjects as it is a very important part of students’ lives. Media is not only a source of entertainment but also a source of information. Students knowingly or unknowingly learn a lot from the continuous flow of media messages in their life. Sometimes the learning that take place is good whereas sometimes they also learn things which can affect their life adversely. Hence a media discourse is necessary at schools. For this, media can be introduced as a subject but it has its own challenges. First, most teachers are unfamiliar with the subject and are poorly equipped to teach this subject as the subject is not a part of Bachelor of Education or Master of education curriculum. Second, introduction of one more subject may increase curriculum load on students. Keeping in view the need for media discourse at school level and the challenges, a media club in school can provide a solution. This paper is written for media educators and teachers interested in education and public outreach and discusses elements involved in setting up and running of the Media Clubs. A community based learning (CBL) approach is proposed with the goal of engaging multiple elements involved in the of the community in learning process including local newspaper, channels, colleges, parents and teachers. Teaching methods are suggested and a checklist is provided for setting up of the club. Methods of integrating media with other elements of curriculum are discussed and a list of hand-on media activities is presented.
INTRODUCTION

A few years ago I attended a national symposium on challenges and opportunities of media education in India. Most of the attendees were media educators who wanted to make difference in media education. During the symposium many papers were presented on emerging trends in Media education, challenges faced by media educators and various strategies were discussed to improve the quality of media education in the country. Though the symposium was on media education ironically none of the presentation touched upon media education at school level. When various national organizations like National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), Central Board of Secondary Education, National Institute of Open Schooling and various state boards are working hard to make media as a subject at school level, Media educators somehow did not pay any attention to this new development which in fact can change the face of media education in India. Despite efforts of various organizations, little attention is paid to media studies at school level across the country. Both by the media educators at higher level and also by the schools. Since the subject is elective and is at a very nascent stage most schools avoided the subject. Some bury it with other subjects like social sciences and languages. Very few teach it as a standalone subject in schools. In addition the schools that offer this as subject and the teachers who are called upon to teach this subject often have no training whatsoever in the field of media.

As media educator with the experience of teaching this subject at post graduate and undergraduate level and handling projects at school level, I felt that the subject has to be taken to schools because like other subjects it is important for them to study media. Challenges and obstacles will definitely be there as its always there whenever we introduce anything new. Introduction of media at school level can be done in three ways. It can be integrated with other subjects like language or social science. Second, it can be offered as a standalone subject. But, in both the above mentioned ways the challenges are many which include trained teacher, structured curriculum, curriculum overload etc. Here enters the school media clubs, the third way by which media can be integrated in school curriculum.

Determined to do something about this, I took up a project of establishing Media clubs in schools. In fact the idea of Media club came while we at NCERT were organizing training programmes for teachers in media studies. In-depth discussions on this matter which included lack of time and resources for the introduction of new subject, non availability of structured curriculum, no experience and expertise of teachers in this field came the idea of establishing media clubs in schools. This is a very realistic and doable strategy for infusing media into the educational experience of school children, their families, and, to some extent, their teachers as well. As media educator in University department of
Journalism and mass Communication one can take a lead. Infact, media educators who really want the subject should be taken to schools and students must understand media messages can take this initiative of establishing media clubs in their respective regions.

These media clubs will help students to develop a conceptual understanding of the media that will involve both critical reception of and active production through media. It will also enable them to express their own voice through media, as well as the ability to see through what mass media offer. The basic idea is to provide students with an opportunity to develop life skills which will enable them to analyze these forms of modern communication and to help students to become wise consumers of media.

Objectives of Media Clubs

- To develop among students an understanding of the effects of mass media on themselves as individuals and also upon society and how the media influence our understanding of reality.
- To develop skills to deconstruct media messages by making them understand the constructed nature of media.
- To develop skills to encourage the production of creative media messages.
- To encourage students to express their feelings and thoughts through media messages they produce
- To introduce students to various career opportunities in mass media.

How to Begin; Links with schools

Once you’ve decided that you would like to establish media clubs in schools, you will need to establish contact with the school to make it happen. There are a number of steps in this process and it is important that they be done in a rough sequence. First contact schools, the school principal or vice principal is the primary contact person for these activities. Tell them what you want to do and work with them to schedule a room, time, and a registration process. Most schools have a monthly newsletter or their website. This can be a great place to advertise your club. Also, some schools have very well developed internet email list serves or short messaging services that you can use to communicate with parents. It is very important, at this time, to find out about school policies and procedures. Since a media educator will not be able to devote full time in school, it is necessary that responsibility should be shared with some school teacher. Ideally the teacher should have some experience in media or should be motivated enough to take up this new assignment. Here teachers handling subjects like social science, language or art education can prove to be a good resource. Select the teacher
judiciously and discuss the other guidelines regarding no of hours required for the same, fieldtrips, taking the students outside for shoots, making connections with parents, and inviting experts from the local media.

**Designing your Club**

Once you have the approval of the school and are aware of school regulations and procedures, you are ready to design your club and as discussed earlier, finding a teacher co-leader is a good first step. So your first step is to set up a preliminary meeting with your teacher co-leader to decide on club logistics.

First, you will need to pick a time. If the school already has such programmes in schedule, you may want to align with that. You will need to decide how large you want the club to be and which, if any, special populations of students (e.g. girls) you want to market the club to. Club sizes can vary, of course and the presence of a teacher co-leader will allow you to manage more club members. I suggest the maximum number should be 25 members, at least for the first few years. With 25, you can design some activities for three to four teams of students.

You should design the first few sessions ahead of time, or at least have a few sessions developed that you can pick from. Let your teacher co-leader help you design the activities. Contact a local media like newspaper or electronic media for some materials, ahead of time. Your school may also have materials you can use like various programmes, their own school magazines etc which can be uses for the analysis assignments.

**PREPARE FOR THE CLUB**

In preparing for your media club, there are a few things to keep in mind. Following the checklist below will help make it a more enjoyable and manageable experience for you and the club. Meet with your teacher co-lead before the first club session. Make sure you have each other’s work and home contact information. Go over expectations and outline/refine at least the first few club projects. Let the teacher help you with the process of teaching such as grade appropriate projects/videos and presentation styles. Check IT policies before trying to use school computer equipment.

**First Day** – On the first day, you will spend some time to know each other. Plan a shorter activity on this day that is long on engagement and perhaps shorter on processing and analysis. Introduce yourself to the class and tell them about your interest(s) in media, where you work, how you got started, etc. Introduce your teacher co-lead and have them introduce themselves to the class as well. Always refer to what
you and the teacher have planned or will be doing (not just what you have planned). Have your co-lead work with you to tell the club members what you expect they will be doing in the club. Then ask each student to give their name, grade, and tell something about their interest in media. Some will have past experience and interest in media. Some will not be even able to verbalize why they are there. Help each student to express an interest in something. Take notes on their interests and use the notes to help structure activities for the remainder of the semester. All this will take up a surprising amount of time. But make sure it doesn’t take up the entire class time. Prepare something fun for the last hour to ½ hour of the class that does not require much

**Teachers’ involvement** You need teachers’ immense help to conduct activities in schools. You might have experience handling students at graduate and undergraduate level, but handling school students is little difficult or little different I would say. Teachers understand their students better, hence their help will be required every time you visit school to conduct any activity. Teachers can help with discipline freeing you from having to juggle class content and student behavior. Teachers are trained in classroom management and are generally given a level of respect by the students that make them more effective in controlling or directing student behaviors. Teachers also have access to school resources that a visiting scientist will not have. This can include utilizing resources from schools like stationary, different school locales, school equipments etc. Teachers understand school guidelines. This can be very helpful for things like arranging field trips and many other club activities. Teachers understand grade level curriculum and learning goals. They can help you to integrate media activities with other subjects.

They can also rope in teachers of other subjects so that that media discourse is not happening in isolation but it encompasses all other subjects and activities which students and teachers are already involved in. They can help to turn a media project into an activity that enriches the student’s experience across many disciplines addressing specific school learning objectives. For example, there are lot of concept in the subjects like political science, environmental science which can be integrated with club activities. In fact a meeting with various teachers will help you to identify those concepts. A teacher co-lead can fill in when you are unable to attend club meetings. This can be especially helpful if you are busy with your own teaching assignment in your institute or cannot attend for other reasons. For this to work well, plan ahead. Discuss the entire calendar of event for the year with the club coordinator. Provide the club coordinator with enough notes and support material so that he/she is confident of what is going to happen in media club in one year.
With continous comprehensive evaluation (CCE) at place in most of the schools in India teachers now a days are very busy. So you have to keep in mind a teacher that agrees to help you with your club is probably highly motivated. This is a precious resource to develop and treat with great respect and appreciation. You should adopt a posture of both teacher and student, respecting and showing your gratitude for the unique contributions your club coordinator can bring to the club.

**Parents’ involvement**

Students not only learn in schools. They learn a lot at home too. As far as media experiences are concerned they are more less common with students and parents. Household with one television set watches the same programme at one point of time. Talking about media to students alone will not bring the desired results if we really want them to be media literate we have to rope in parents also. What parents watch has a great influence on children. The ideal situation is to talk about media to both students and parents. Since parents would not be having much free time, they can always be involved once in a while in club activities. Certain media activities should be a family activity like tracking their media habits etc. Parental involvement in your media club will also help to enrich and extend the learning experience of the club members. If parents are also engaged and included in club activities and communications, they will be more likely to view the club as a positive experience for their child and to reinforce student learning at home by asking questions and showing interest and enthusiasm.

A wonderful way to include parents in their children’s media learning is to track each other media habits and sharing the same with family and have discussion on the same. A get together can also be organized at school where all the families share their experience. Another way to include parents is to invite them to attend club meetings. Beyond this, we can have a facebook page for media club and invite parents to join the same. This way they will be informed what activities are happening in media club and they will also pitch in as and when their schedule allows.

**Local Media**

Beyond the boundaries of the school is a large resource reserve within the community that is often equally untapped. Opportunities for field trips to local newspapers, photography studios, cable channel are likely to be present somewhere in the city. Visits to such places can be an exciting addition to your media club agenda. Before you begin your club, you should make a list of these resources and have an idea of how you might use them during the year.
Journalists, reporters, advertisers and other people associate with this field even be willing to come speak with media club coordinators. Inviting a guest speaker to one of your sessions can be a nice change of pace and allow you to view the club in a different, role, as facilitator.

There are number of activities one can organize for the media. To begin with I would suggest you the following list. The list may appear little overambitious but you may revise it as per the resources available at your end. The idea behind setting up media clubs in schools is not to prepare media persons but to make students media literate. The activities mentioned below are indicative changes as per your requirement can be made.

**THE ACTIVITIES UNDER THE MEDIA CLUB:**

**Media Diary:** Each student of media club will have his/her own Media Diary to record consumption of media messages. The club coordinator (teacher) will analyze the diary to see the trend in the media habits of children. This will help the students to keep track of their media diet.

**School Newspaper:** A thought-provoking newspaper by the students of Media club. The newspaper could be an issue based newspaper which carries news, features, editorials, poem etc on one theme eg. Right to Education, Corporal Punishment, Environment etc. Themes could be selected by the editorial board/members of media club based on their experiences or the events taking place in the society around them.

**Expression through Pictures:** This includes capturing scenes and events through camera. Students will be given topics to click photographs on.

**Documentary:** A video / audio documentary can be scripted and produced by the students of media club. Club may screen the documentaries or programmes produced by their club and critiquing can be arranged by inviting experts from the field.

**Screening:** The club also can have screening of good films/video and listening to good audio programmes

**Media Advocacy:** Club coordinator along with other teachers and students will track the content of media both print and electronic and initiate debate and discussion on various issues highlighted in the media.
**Media Literacy Activities:** A manual containing around 50 activities related to media analysis will be provided to schools by the CIET. Club coordinators will conduct those activities with the club members to develop among students an understanding of media.

**Media Club News Bulletin:** Since lot of activities will be organized in schools, the media club members will record these activities and pass it on to CIET for Media Club News Bulletin which will be aired On DD1 and Gyan Darshan. This will be a news bulletin by the students for the students.

**Interface with Media:** This is the platform through which members of media club will get an opportunity to interact with the experts from media and media education. Schools may organize talk by various media personalities.

**Media Club on Facebook:** The coordinator of media club will be invited to join the media club on facebook where they can share their experiences with others. This will be platform wherein media club coordinators & members will exchange information and explore more possibilities and opportunities.

**Media Club Blog:** Each school will have their own media club blog.

**Its our voice:** Student will be encouraged to participate in mainstream media by writing letters or by joining some socially relevant campaigns initiated by the media.

**‘Media Club Experience’ Seminar:** This will be organized at CIET at the end of the year wherein club coordinators will share their experience of running media club in their school.

**STRUCTURE OF MEDIA CLUB**
The media club should essentially have a governing council which plans and executes the activities of media club. The members of the Governing Council should include:

- Media Club- Director (you/media educator)
- President- Principal
- Secretary-vice principal
- Media Club coordinator- Teacher
- Four members who will include teachers, experts from media and media education.

The governing council can meet four times in a year for proper planning and monitoring of the media club activities.
SUMMARY

Media has penetrated deep into the lives of students and hence has enormous power to reconstruct the way they look at the world, to shape their opinion, and redefine their values. Media messages if consumed wisely can broaden their horizon and help them to understand world in a better way but if these messages are not consumed wisely and judiciously it can create havoc. Hence, teaching media to school children is the need of hour. One way is to establish media clubs. Running Media Clubs can be an incredibly enriching and rewarding experience with just a little foresight and preparation. The media club provides the media educator with an opportunity to make a real and sustained impact on the media literacy of school age children, teachers, and, to the extent that school administrators are involved in the development of the program. But most of all, it’s just a lot of fun and your responsibility towards those children who are flooded with media messages and are totally confused to decide what is good and bad for them as far as media messages are concerned.
Abstract: The power of social media in modern society is prominent especially in the case of initiating political rallies. The political history in Malaysia has witnessed that political rallies have brought along with them tremendous damages on the image of individual, institutions and the country. Despite being taunted by the government and mainstream media, such a well-planned yet illegal rally called 'Bersih 2.0' had persistently held with an encouraging 'support' within and outside the country. Prior to and on the day itself (July 9th, 2011), Weblog, Facebook, Twitter and Youtube were responsible in generating 'supporters of Bersih 2.0' and had also attacked on the image of any affiliated party that opposed it. This paper intends to identify the key roles performed by the social media - prior to, during and after the rally. This study which embraces a library research method discovered that there are four parties who are seen as 'winner' - organizers of 'Bersih 2.0', Dato Ambiga Sreenevasan, Yang Di-Pertuan Agong (the King), as well as the supporting public. Whereas, the Prime Minister, Minister of Home Affairs, Royal Malaysian Police and the President of PERKASA as 'loser' with image ruined. A consistency in communication among the organizers and the supporters via the new media with private interaction among the organizing members has strengthened and increased the momentum towards actualizing the rally. Besides, the open and 'friendly' policy over the social media has created an uncontrollable situation - the government has no legitimacy to interfere into the communication among the organizers and the supporters. In fact, this is another challenge faced by the government as people and the country are experiencing changes and progress.

Keywords: Power Without Responsibility, Bersih 2.0 Rally

Introduction

Power is the ability or capacity to perform or act effectively. Power can also be defined as the ability or official capacity to exercise control (authority). It is about forcefulness and effectiveness. Responsibility is something for which one is responsible (a duty, obligation, or burden) - a form of trustworthiness; the trait of being answerable to someone for something or being responsible for one's conduct. Without is not accompanied by, in the absence of, not
having or lacking. The recent events in Tunisia, Egypt, and now Bahrain and Libya are evidence of how new media is powerful in giving rise to a new confidence in suppressed citizens. The ability to collaborate at will, and share messages among them has provided a strong outlet to an otherwise disenfranchised population. The world is watching and the power of new tools makes it increasingly difficult for governments to contain local events and sustain any kind of propaganda it has created.

In Malaysia, the launching of the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC) in 1996 by the then Prime Minister Dr Mahathir Mohamad has brought along tremendous changes to the society. It has created more opportunities with unlimited access to the Internet within the country as information began to circulate "freely" with less or almost without the government interference – the newly-adverted cyber laws is relatively ‘loose’ which has somehow perceived as more ‘democratic’ to the news coverage and its reporting. To many media experts, this is a media revolution to the so-called ‘democratization' of information in the country as the freedom to transmitting and receiving information is in the hands of everyone – it has also created uncontrollable situations.

Meanwhile, though the issue of transparent deficiency of the Election Commission of Malaysia has been a long-public-debate, yet there are still insufficient steps taken into account; a number of allegations such as malfunction are intentionally left for the political survival of governments. Ironically, the issue has been politicized to the public and had ultimately led to the movement called Bersih 2.0 Rally (the Coalition for Transparent and Fair Elections). This pressure group has definitely been taunted both by government and the mainstream media prior to, during and even after the rally itself. The use of new media channels is significant as to increasing the support, motivation and momentum of the supporters as well as the organizing parties. This paper intends to look at how the powerful and effective social media were used in Bersih 2.0 Rally, especially in organizing the ‘Walk for Democracy’ (which was accused as irresponsible act) on July 9, 2011 and its impact on the image of the country.

The Rally

The Bersih 2.0 Rally (also called the Walk for Democracy) was an illegal demonstration held on 9 July 2011 as continuity to the 2007 Bersih rally in Kuala Lumpur. The rally was organised by the Coalition for Transparent and Fair Elections (Bersih), fundamentally inspired by Pakatan Rakyat; coalition of the three largest opposition parties in Malaysia. The rally was chaired by the former President of the Bar Council, Ambiga Sreenevasan who had imposed pressure and demands onto the Election Commission of Malaysia (EC) as to ensure a free and fair election within the country. Despite the aggressive warnings from the Royal Malaysian Police Force to stop any attempt of getting people gathered for the rally (the assembly was illegal the fact there was no permit granted to the organizers), yet they had persistently proceeded with the planning upon consultation with Yang di-Pertuan Agong (the Malaysia’s Head of State).

The organizers and supporters of Bersih 2.0 Rally had justified their movement seeing there was no effective step taken by the government towards electoral reformation. As a counter-rally, The UMNO Youth and Perkasa were with a plan to dismiss the assembly, but Perkasa has called it off due to his incapacity to secure the venue and permit. Despite the estimated of participating supporters ranged between 10,000 to over 40,000, the supporters were unable to congregate at Merdeka Stadium as many were forced to disperse by police who were heavily
deployed throughout the city – the police has arrested more than 1600 protestors including Ambiga and other several opposition figures. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bersih_2.0_rally)

Bersih 2.0 Calls

For the purpose of communication, Bersih 2.0 has created its own weblog, facebook, twitter and youtube as to make the interaction process among the organizers and supporters smooth and free. Historically, Bersih was formed in July 2005 which started out as the Joint Action Committee for Electoral Reform. The primary objective of this coalition is to enforce the government towards a thorough reform of electoral process in Malaysia. The Joint Communique was a result of an ‘Electoral Reform Workshop’ held on September 2006 in Kuala Lumpur which emphasized on the long-term objectives and the immediate working goals of the coalition. The committee was comprised of members from various political parties, as well as representatives from the following NGOs, Suara Rakyat Malaysia (Suaram), Women’s Development Collective (WDC) and Writers Alliance for Media Independence (WAMI).

BERSIH was officially launched on 23 November 2006 at the Malaysian Parliamentary building. The event has received an encouraging response from various groups of interest: including the President of PKR, Dr Wan Azizah Wan Ismail, the Vice-President of PKR, Sivarasa Rasiah, General-Secretary of DAP, Lim Guan Eng, National Publicity Secretary of DAP cum MP of Seputeh Teresa Kok, Deputy President of PAS Nasharudin Mat Isa, Youth Chief of PAS, Salahudin Ayub, General-Secretary of PSM, S. Arutchelvan, Malaysian Trade Union Congress, Syed Shahir Syed Mohamud, Executive Director of WDC Maria Chin Abdullah and Executive Director of SUARAM, Yap Swee Seng. Bersih’s calls are summarised in the following 8 points:

1. Ensure a clean and transparent electoral process
The electoral roll is marred with irregularities such as deceased and multiple persons registered under a single address or non-existent addresses. The electoral roll must be revised and updated to wipe out these ‘phantom voters’. Accordingly, BERSIH 2.0 has suggested the government and the Election Commission (EC) to implement an automated voter registration system upon eligibility as a way to reduce electoral fraud.

2. Reform postal ballot
The current postal ballot system must be reformed to ensure all Malaysians’ right to vote is applicable; the postal ballot should not only be opened for all Malaysian citizens living abroad, but also for those within the country but incapable to be physically presented at their voting constituency on polling day. An equal right should also be given to the police, military and civil servants to vote on the poling day itself; should it be on the working days. The postal ballot system must also be transparent. The authority should be allowed to monitor the entire process of postal voting.

3. Indelible ink
Indelible ink must be used throughout the electoral process. It is a simple, affordable and effective solution in preventing voter fraud. In 2007, the EC has decided to implement the foresaid solution, however, the EC has decided to withdraw the decision as justifying the
legal reasons and rumours of sabotage in the final days leading up to the 12th General Elections,
Thus, BERSIH 2.0 demands for its effective implementation throughout the upcoming elections - failure to do so will lead to the inevitable conclusion that there is an intention to allow voter fraud.

4. Minimum of 21 days campaign
The EC should specify a campaign period of not less than 21 days. A longer campaign period would provide voters with more time to gather information and deliberate on their choices. It will also allow the candidates to disseminate information/rumours to the rural areas. In 1955, the first national election under the British Colonial administration experienced relatively a long period - 42 days but it only took 8 days for the 12th General Election (2008).

5. Free and fair access to media
Apparently, the Malaysian mainstream media fails to practice proportionate, fair and objective news reporting as such for various political parties. Accordingly, Bersih 2.0 urges all media agencies, especially state-funded media agencies such as Radio and Television Malaysia (RTM) and Bernama to provide the readers, viewers and listeners with a more proportionate and objective news coverage.

6. Strengthening public institutions
Public institutions such as the Judiciary, Attorney-General, Malaysian Anti-Corruption Agency (MACC), Royal Malaysian Police Force and the EC must serve independently as a way to upholding the democratic laws and preserving human rights.
In particular, the EC must perform its constitutional duty to act independently and impartially so as to earn and maintain the public confidence – EC is at the state of denial seeing that the empowerment of its legitimacy is recognized by Constituion in ensuring a credible electoral system.

7. Anti-corruption
Corruption has been a chronic disease infected from various aspects. Bersih 2.0 has challenged the government if corruption can ever be stopped. To them, the current efforts to eradicate such immoral activity have simply been an escape to appease the public grousse. Bersih demand that serious actions are taken against all allegations of corruption, including vote buying.

8. Dirty political game
Bersih would like to address this issue critically seeing it has been a main feature of the Malaysian political arena. Bersih urge that all political parties and politicians to put an end to the gutter politics. As citizens and voters, they are not interested in gutter politics; they are interested in the societal-based policies.

(https://bersih.org/?page_id=4109)

Responsibility Without Power : Mainstream Journalist’s Delimma

A research analyst of the Centre of Independent Journalism (CIJ), Ding Jo-Ann explains that the mainstream media has missed the opportunity to counter-argue views and perceptions but
had mostly published negative perspective of the rally instead. It was a crucial time as the media could have played a balanced role in clarifying different perspectives rather than being entrenched by a polarization of views. The mainstream media could have discussed whether the restrictions imposed on Bersih’s 2.0 under the Article 10 of Federal Constitution - which allows for peaceful assembly, but with restrictions - were necessary.

Ding believes that a number of restrictions imposed outweighed the right to assemble to the extent that assembly would seem against the restrictions and a media discussion of the issue would have informed the people correctly. CIJ monitored four mainstream newspapers – Utusan Malaysia, News Straits Times (NST), the Star and the Sun – from June 25 to July 11 on their coverage of the rally. Utusan was rated the highest number of negative articles (93.56%), followed by NST (74.83%), Star (65.79%) and Sun (62.16%).

Neutral and positive reports were significantly low, with The Sun having the highest percentage of neutral reports (35%) while Star had the most number of positive articles (5%). Utusan ranked the lowest in both categories. The four publications also tended not to mention the Bersih 2.0’s eight-point demands (68-90%) and mentioned laws restricting freedom of expression more than those that enabled such rights. They had also quoted sources from the Barisan Nasional, authorities, and a range of other sources more frequently than Pakatan Rakyat as well as other organizing parties of Bersih 2.0.

Gobind Rudra, a blogger and former editor of The Star identifies that times of social unrest posed great ethical and moral dilemmas for editors and journalists. He said that the mainstream media has been constantly faced the ownership pressure – as most publications were either owned by political parties or those aligned to the Barisan National – and community pressure from readers and advertisers.

One of the Bersih’s 2.0 demands was free access to media. Most of the journalists agree and hold the same concern, yet how could this be actualized if the decisions-making-position is in the hands of editors and publisher; who are closely connected to the government? He acknowledges that the news coverage and its reporting in the mainstream media has critically focused on demoralized the rally, creating a sense of fear, violence and dispelling the notion the fact that the people have rights to assemble and freely discuss on any matter.

According to Pauline Leong (a Senior Lecturer of Mass Communications), the fact that thousands of participating supporters had marched during the Bersih 2.0 rally and the mainstream media was with attempt to undermine the people in analyzing and evaluating the message conveyed in the news.


Power Without Responsibility: New Media and Freedom of Expression

A marketing and political analyst, Tricia Yeoh, discovers that the conversations through social media such as Facebook and Twitter hold even stronger influence to widespread any debate to the public; and everyone was encouraged to deal with the respective issues. Statistics from politweet.org has showed that the number of website visitors of the #bersih hashtag (a keyword marker in Twitter) between the June 9 and Aug 14 was 33,940 users in 263,228 tweets.
Social media and video sharing site, Youtube has made it difficult to the government and local mainstream media to repress information (such as the immediate responses online to show that water cannons were indeed fired into the Tung Shin Hospital) and they had strengthened the solidarity among Malaysians not only locally but also abroad. According to Tricia, a day prior to and after the Bersih 2.0 rally, the Malaysian social networks were buzzing like never before. Internet chatter was centred on the biggest campaign in Kuala Lumpur on 9 July 2011. Facebook, Twitter and YouTube users had a communication platform to share and update the information in a continuous virtual conversation. This was a fundamental feature of the Bersih 2.0 buzz online. There are variations in each of these social media platforms; Facebook allows for a lengthier exchange, while Twitter provides quick updates on the go, whereas the YouTube serves its users for video sharing. The combination of these three channels has definitely formed a powerful mechanism and on the other hand to vehemently criticise the rally. An ingenious website www.politweet.org has tracked 263,228 tweets by 33,940 users respectively a month before and after the rally.

In the context of Bersih 2.0 Rally, there are three most apparent themes identified on the significance of social media. Firstly, it serves as the creation of a virtual common space for “socialising”, conversation and debate. Secondly, the social media allows for contradictory viewpoints and they are verifiable and thirdly, the polarities between users were appear as more apparent. Both Facebook and Twitter has created common spaces to its users. They formed and shaped identity by allowing users to labelling themselves for identification and association purposes. Proponents of Bersih 2.0 were able to easily separate “friends” from “enemies” with the use of PicBadges on profile pictures. All it took was a click to categorise themselves socially.

Meanwhile, the activists group made use of Twitter themes to snowball the responses. Tweets and responses were humourous, witty, sarcastic, and at times highly emotional as people lashed out against each other. A spirit developed within two weeks had definitely led to the actual event, culminating in the rally day, where pictures, videos and hastily typed-out updates were sent instantaneously to people’s respective social media accounts.

During Post-Bersih, the solidarity remained, with #bersihstories (personal accounts of the Bersih 2.0 rally experience) recording of 11,192 tweets from 2,966 users. This was also the first time a Malaysian campaign was organised in more than 30 cities worldwide, largely due to the online chatters that enthused the Malaysians living abroad. Videos of these simultaneous events were thereafter similarly shared online. It is also worth to mention that the use of social media in Bersih 2.0 is its ability to clarify conflicting reports of the event. Post-Bersih 2.0; was extremely difficult for the traditional mainstream media or government agencies to report the untruths and get away without the public knowing it. Most of the media has reported that a crowd turnout at between 20,000 and 50,000, whereas the government’s estimation was at 6,000 participants.

The first Bersih rally in 2007 has witnessed a critical counter-argue by the news site Malaysiakini. However, the difference in Bersih 2.0 was that the social media allowed the citizens to be pro-actively and participatorily share their personal stories and videos instead. The group of supporters and opposition had come across clearly. The proponents of Bersih made used of social media to defend the rally at all costs, while the opponents used these channels to demonise Bersih. These provocative debates were made visible and accessible to public. To many political analysts, these polarities are definitely reflecting the current political interest between the Barisan Nasional and Pakatan Rakyat enthusiasts. Along with
the new media revolutionary, the activist group has successfully made used of the social media as a catalyst for changing and transforming the existing policy into relatively democratic (http://www.triciayeoh.com).

The Impact of New Media on the Rally

Johan Saravanamuttu, a Visiting Senior Research Fellow at the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies (ISEAS), Singapore asserts that it is important to first understand the character or orientation of the rally itself. The flood of material on the social media and through social networking websites has reached unprecedented and uncontrollable proportions. Before the rally, almost 200,000 facebook members have called on the Premier Najib to resign – by ratio, 20,000 votes or more in one day.

The attending supporters at Bersih 2.0 Rally were comprised of cross section of Malaysia - this scenario spoke well for the 8 listed changes imposed by both organizers and supporters of the assembly besides the non-existence of racial issues. The involvement of national literary laureate Samad Said who has been known to the country as a patriotic has shocked many, yet it was definitely inspired the Bersih 2.0 rallyers.

Various counter-productive attempts were taken by the UMNO-related groups as to delegitimise the Bersih 2.0 Rally. The justification being was as it the starting point to the blood tragedy of ’13 May 1969’ where the racial issues stroke between Malay and the Chinese.

The event has received a critical judgement from the Chairman of Malaysian Commission of Human Rights, Hasmy Agam who has weighed in to declare the assembly was legitimate. Najib had agreed if the so-called democratic assembly was to be held at a stadium, and in the meantime the organisers were obliged upon meeting the King, ironically, the police forces were reluctant to granting the permit as to declare a legal gathering at Merdeka Stadium.

The situation had worsened as nearly 1700 protestors were arrested; heavy use of tear gas, water cannons, and some has argued that responsibility for one death has put the government in a no-win-situation. The public might have expected that the Bersih 2.0 would outshine than the former rally (Bersih 1.0). A number of attending protestors at the rally have written up their first-hand accounts as to show why as ordinary citizens their participation was a morally and socially inspiring experience.

In addition to, the Bersih 2.0 Rally is largely an urban phenomenon – it is not to be taken lightly seeing the urbanites are becoming the voting majority. The Prime Minister and his ruling coalition, Barisan Nasional, are now at the critical stage of administration; damage control mode. The rural areas voters alone are hardly assure the government to maintaining the two-thirds majority to continue to control the Parliament. (http://aliran.com/6077.html).

The Beneficiary and Victim

According to the Malaysian Insider, this episode has once again demonstrated how fractious and divided Malaysia is with an enlightenment and liberalism on one side and almost facist
powers on the other. Some individuals were benefitted from this episode with reputations intact, while others with image destroyed forever.

**The Beneficiaries**

- The organisers of Bersih 2.0 Rally - people remember Bersih 2.0 as a channel which ‘fighting’ for clean and fair elections.
- Datuk Ambiga Sreenevasan: She was called by the Prime Minister and threatened her of having the citizenship revoked by the Malacca Chief Minister and was under severe pressure from the police and security agencies, yet the former President of Bar Council was still stood up with her motivation and decision. In the eyes of the supporters, she remained the good course and was always civilized.
- The Yang di-Pertuan Agong (the King): his democratic approach and decision to allow the rally has definitely created a positive image towards the royal institution as this has been an expectation of the people towards the monarchy administration
- The Malaysians: in the wake of all this talk of riots and tensions, the man on the street was remained and unconvinced by the fairytale stories of communist plots and Christian funding.

**The Victims**

- Datuk Seri Najib Razak: he has agreed to meet the leaders and organizers of Bersih 2.0 Rally as to discuss the venue. The mishandling of the issue also allowed Malaysia’s image to be tarnished.
- Datuk Hishammuddin Hussein
- Datuk Ibrahim Ali: he has been at the frontline of the attacks against Ambiga and Bersih 2.0 Rally and at the same time he has also tried to turn the issue into one perspective that was to protect the rights of Malay. Ironically, it turned to be abundantly clear that Bersih 2.0 has been receiving a strong support from Malaysian – regardless of the race. To some people, his fighting was contradicting to the primary objective of the rally that was for free and fair elections.
- The Royal Malaysian Police Force (PDRM): the police have made a mockery of the law by arresting people for wearing ‘Bersih’ T-shirts. While it is arguable whether preventive action and detention should still be allowed; arresting people for wearing T-shirts was a ridiculous decision. Continuing to detain people under the Emergency Ordinance over the rally is also a classic case of abusing the law. By ad large, the police should remember that if a permit was granted the rally would not have been illegal. (www.themalaysianinsider.com/.../bersih-2.0-winners-and-losers )

**Powerful and Responsible Features of New Media in Bersih 2.0**

As mentioned above, power is the ability or capacity to perform or act effectively and responsibility is the trait of being answerable to someone. New media (in this case the blog, facebook, twitter and youtube) has been widely, effectively and freely used without any accountability to anyone, besides no editing or censorship from the government – the launching of the MSC by Dr Mahathir Mohamad (former Prime Minister) has promised the nation that the information are free to be circulated around through these new media. However, he had also warned that all parties as to avoid any attempt to publishing or writing
any false or defamatory matters that impose legal implications. The security, justice and the peaceful of the country must be preserved. Though several cases of misusing the Internet have taken into place, but in the context of Bersih 2.0 Rally, no prosecution of the same offence was identified. In fact, these communication channels have been “freely” used among the organizers and supporters as to maintaining the momentum of their struggle. This resembles the powerful and responsible characteristics applied in the new media.

**Conclusion**

Apparently, the widely-used of new media such as blog, facebook, twitter and youtube has moving the people towards actualizing the rally. These channels secure clarity of information and instruction in which had make the investigation process by the authorities even harder and confusing. Despite the ‘attacks’ against the organizing parties/individuals by the government, mainstream media and other organizations, the rally was still capable of getting people gathered of over 10,000 protestors. To the protestors or even the non-partisan, the image of the government, especially the Prime Minister, Minister of Home Affairs and the Royal Malaysia Police Force was destroyed, similarly the perception towards a number of NGOs that in support of the government was at it lowest level.

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Online Anonymous Speech and Shield Laws in the United States

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Abstract: Throughout history, reporters in the United States have willingly gone to jail and faced financially crippling fines to protect the identities of news sources who risked their jobs and livelihoods to guide reporters in uncovering abuses of government power. Generally speaking, anonymous commentators react to stories after they have been vetted by editors and published. This article examines the significant differences between confidential news sources and anonymous Internet commentators and argues that shield laws and first-amendment based reporter’s privilege should not be invoked to protect the identities of anonymous Web posters.

Background: This article proposes that anonymous online posters can find protection under a body of case law dealing with pure free speech, while confidential news sources are covered by state statutes and court decisions that preserve the integrity of the press’ newsgathering function. The legal protections for each group are far from absolute, but failing to differentiate between anonymous posters and confidential news sources could confuse lawmakers and cause great harm to democracy by undermining freedom of the press. The overall goal of the paper is to distinguish the protection for anonymous speech offered by the First Amendment’s free speech provision versus state shield laws enacted by legislatures and decisions by federal courts and state judges, who interpreted their respective constitutions to justify a reporter’s claim to protect a source’s identity. For the purposes of this paper, reporter’s privilege refers to the “concept that reporters can keep information such as source identity confidential”1 (Trager, Russmano Ross, 2010:361) and, shield laws are defined as “state laws that protect journalists from being found in contempt of court for refusing to reveal a source.” (Trager, Russmanno and Ross, 2010:369).

THE GENESIS OF LEGAL PROTECTION OF ANONYMOUS SPEECH IN THE UNITED STATES

“The impulse to silence people to avoid the perils of anarchy, social disorder, blasphemy, obscenity and just plain bothersome opinions is worldwide. It has affected all governments at all times in all societies.”2 The history of anonymous speech in the United States has been an integral part of the nation’s development. Any historical account of the founding of the country would be incomplete without the Federalist Papers, which were published by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison and John Jay under the pseudonym Publius.3 Thomas Paine also used pseudonyms when he wrote some of his pamphlets, including Common Sense,4 and several reporters used the same method for their reports during the American Civil War.5 This tradition of writing anonymously or pseudonymously is also exemplified by secret ballots in elections.6 But anonymous speech has not always enjoyed robust freedom despite its lengthy history in the United States. Legislators and the nation’s courts have long debated the utility and potential harm this form of speech poses to the public. Despite the fact that anonymous speech maintains a lengthy existence in American history, there is nothing in the First Amendment that specifically affirms the right to speak anonymously. The current right to speak anonymously, even as extended to the online world, is indebted to the rich history of the republic and legal precedent that supports the freedom of speech. “Next to due process, no other constitutional provision embraces a greater variety of people, events, and concerns.”7 The “lines of the doctrine have become so multitudinous that no single formula can come close to explaining free speech, and no single summary can possibly fit all cases.”8 In Talley
In March 1958 Manual Talley was charged with violating a local ordinance that prohibited the distribution of anonymous handbills or pamphlets. The ordinance required that the names and addresses of any author, distributor and sponsor of any pamphlets be placed on the cover or face of the pamphlet. Talley violated the ordinance by distributing pamphlets that advocated a boycott of certain businesses and merchants that sold products to manufacturers who refused to offer equal employment opportunities to ethnic minority groups. Talley’s name and address were not on the pamphlets. He was found guilty of violating the ordinance and was ordered to pay a fine of $10. Talley appealed his conviction and challenged the constitutionality of the ordinance, citing the First Amendment. The appellate court upheld his conviction and several months later, the Supreme Court granted certiorari in the case.

In the case of Talley the Supreme Court justices reversed the appellate court’s ruling, holding that the local ordinance was facially invalid. Writing for the majority, Justice Black said the ordinance’s identification requirement “would tend to restrict freedom to distribute information and thereby freedom of expression.” The majority opinion in Talley relied in part on a 1938 decision, Lovell v. Griffin. In Lovell the Court unanimously struck down another city ordinance that prohibited the distribution of literature without a license, saying it violated the First Amendment. Chief Justice Hughes wrote in Lovell that the freedom of the press “necessarily embraces pamphlets and leaflets.” In the following years, the Court struck down several city ordinances that prohibited the distribution of pamphlets and leaflets in such cases as Schneider v. State and Jamison v. Texas. In Jamison the majority of the Court concluded that the right to speak anonymously is protected under the First Amendment.

The seminal case on the right to participate in political speech anonymously is the Court’s 1995 ruling in McIntyre v. Ohio Elections Commission. On April 27, 1988, Margaret McIntyre attended a public school meeting in Westerville, Ohio, and distributed a pamphlet that expressed her opposition to a referendum. A state election statute required political literature to contain the name and address of the publisher. Although some of McIntyre’s leaflets were signed “Concerned Parents and Tax Payers,” a school official told her that her pamphlets violated the state law. McIntyre continued to distribute the pamphlets at a meeting the next evening. A complaint was filed against her, and the state election commission imposed a $100 fine against her. A local court reversed the fine, but a state appellate court reinstituted the penalty, and the Supreme Court of Ohio affirmed. McIntyre did not live to see the decisions. The U.S. Supreme Court subsequently granted certiorari.

In a 7-2 decision, the Court reversed, holding that the Ohio law violated McIntyre’s First Amendment right to free speech and rejected the state’s claim that it had an interest in prohibiting certain anonymous works to prevent libel or fraud. Writing for the majority, Justice Stevens said a speaker’s wish to remain anonymous could be explained by a variety of reasons, including those that serve important First Amendment values. The Court held that the right to anonymous pamphleteering is “an honorable tradition of advocacy and of dissent.”

McIntyre and Talley remain the two most significant anonymous speech cases decided by the Supreme Court, which, by relying on the strict scrutiny standard in evaluating anonymous speech, require that state laws or ordinances be narrowly tailored to meet compelling state interests.
Responses to the McIntyre decision vary in the legal, scholarly and media communities, especially in regard to its implications for speaking anonymously online. Most viewpoints support protections for anonymous online speech due to its ability to democratize speech in cyberspace. However, some legal scholars and commentators worried about the potential for online anonymity to contribute to obscenity and defamation, as well as diminish accountability for illegal activities and protection of the electoral process. Some scholars expressed concern that protection of online anonymous speech might affect the freedom extended to anonymous speech generally. They also suggested that the process for protecting and regulating anonymous speech online might be different from what can be expected with other forms of anonymous speech.

LEGAL PROTECTIONS FOR ONLINE ANONYMOUS SPEECH

“[T]he Internet has proved to be the greatest advancement in our ability to disseminate news and information since the invention of the printing press by Gutenberg in 1450.” No invention has done more to democratize the distribution of ideas, thoughts and opinions than the Internet. And, as in the nation’s early days, anonymous and pseudonymous postings have played a significant role in the discussion of popular and unpopular ideas in cyberspace. To some “online pseudonyms force the audience to evaluate the speaker’s idea based on content rather than identity.” Although several federal courts have extended First Amendment protection to anonymous speech on the Internet, the U.S. Supreme Court has yet to weigh in directly. Lower courts—at the state and federal levels—have tackled the issue and ruled that the First Amendment protects anonymous speech online.

At the state Supreme Court level, Jaynes v. Virginia dealt with anonymous speech involving e-mails. In the Jaynes case, the question before the Virginia Supreme Court was whether Jeremy Jaynes, a prolific spammer, committed a Class 1 misdemeanor. Jaynes tried to remain anonymous by falsifying identifying information on the spam but was unmasked anyway. He was charged with transmission of unsolicited bulk electronic mail. Jaynes filed a motion to dismiss the charges, arguing that the Virginia statute violated his right to anonymous speech under the First Amendment. After initially affirming the conviction, the Virginia Supreme Court reheard the case, reversed and vacated the conviction. The Virginia Supreme Court held that the statute was overbroad because “it prohibits the anonymous transmission of all unsolicited bulk e-mail, including those containing political, religious or other [protected speech].” The court noted that Jaynes did not argue that the statute is purely unconstitutional but that it is overbroad as it affects protected First Amendment speech.

The Virginia high court compared the state law to the issue in Watchtower Bible & Tract Society v. Village of Stratton, where people who planned to proselytize had to register with the mayor’s office and with the Ohio law in McIntyre, which required people who wanted to distribute campaign literature to include their names and addresses. Both laws required speakers to identify themselves before engaging in speech activities. The Virginia law at issue in Jaynes prohibited the falsification of identifying information in e-mails even when the e-mail contained protected speech. Hence, the Virginia law was deemed to infringe on the First Amendment right to anonymous speech. The court referred to the Federalist Papers and noted that if the papers were “published today via e-mail, that transmission by Publius would violate the [Virginia] statute.”

Lower federal courts also have provided some guidance on online anonymous speech rights under the First Amendment in cases such as ACLU v. Johnson, ACLU v. Miller, Doe v. Shurtleff,
Doe v. 2themart.com\textsuperscript{51} and Columbia Insurance Company v. Seescandy.com.\textsuperscript{52} In Johnson, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the 10th Circuit affirmed the district court decision that there was a substantial likelihood that a New Mexico statute would be held unconstitutional because it “prevents people from communicating and accessing information anonymously.”\textsuperscript{53} In Miller, the plaintiffs sued to enjoin a Georgia law that criminalized the use of false names on the Internet. The district court used the Supreme Court’s reasoning in McIntyre that a speaker’s identity is “no different from other components of the document’s contents that the author is free to include or exclude.”\textsuperscript{54} The constitutional issues unfortunately were not addressed when the case made it to the appellate court for review.\textsuperscript{55}

In Doe v. Shurtleff, a federal court in Utah addressed the state requirement for sex offenders to provide the Utah Department of Corrections (UDOC) with identifying information about their activities in cyberspace, including e-mail, social networking, and instant messaging. A convicted sex offender challenged this requirement on the grounds that it infringed upon his rights to anonymous speech under the First Amendment. The district court agreed that the requirement would strip Doe of any hope of anonymity and makes him hesitant to exercise his anonymous speech rights online.\textsuperscript{56}

An anonymous plaintiff sought to quash a subpoena issued by 2themart.com to an Internet Service Provider in Doe v. 2themart.com.\textsuperscript{57} A class action lawsuit was brought against the 2themart.com company by shareholders who were upset that officers of the firm had been accused of fraud. The court in its analysis opined on the value of online anonymous speech to the free discussion of ideas, saying “people who have committed no wrongdoing should be free to participate in online forums without fear that their identity will be exposed under the authority of the court.”\textsuperscript{58}

In Columbia Insurance Company v. Seescandy.com,\textsuperscript{59} the district placed a protective arm around anonymous online speech when a plaintiff sued several John Does for trademark infringement. The court held that there is a “legitimate and valuable right to participate in online forums anonymously or pseudonymously.”\textsuperscript{60} The court then proceeded to weigh the intellectual property rights of the plaintiffs against the First Amendment rights of the defendants.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ANONYMOUS ONLINE POSTERS AND UNDISCLOSED SOURCES

As noted by Pember and Calvert, “state shield laws are statutes that permit reporters in some circumstances to shield the name of a confidential news source when questioned by a grand jury or in another legal forum.”\textsuperscript{61} Shield laws vary widely from state to state in what and who is protected from disclosure by a reporter as well as who is considered a reporter.\textsuperscript{62} According to the Reporters Committee for Freedom of the Press (RCFP), 47 states plus the District of Columbia have state shield laws with varying levels of legal protection for journalists,\textsuperscript{63} and even in states with no form of shield law, some type of legal protection is afforded journalists in all but one state.

At the federal level, the first remarkable court decision concerning the journalist’s privilege to protect a confidential source’s identity in the United States occurred in 1958. In Garland v. Torre,\textsuperscript{64} actress and singer Judy Garland brought suit against CBS and reporter Marie Torre, claiming libel and breach of contract. Torre had written allegedly libelous statements about
Garland and refused to divulge the identity of the confidential source who provided the information. Torre was subsequently held in contempt of court. She argued that being forced to reveal the identity of her confidential source would encroach on the First Amendment’s guarantee of access to information by impeding the flow of news to the public. Furthermore, Torre argued, “apart from any constitutional question, the societal interest in assuring a free and unrestricted flow of news to the public should impel this court to hold that the identity of a confidential source is protected by at least a qualified privilege.” The U.S. Court of Appeals for the 2d Circuit disagreed with Torre. In an opinion written by then-Judge Potter Stewart, the court ruled unanimously that there was no precedent to support such a privilege and while freedom of speech is vital to American society, it is not absolute.

Several years later, then-Supreme Court Justice Stewart revisited the issue in Branzburg v. Hayes. In a 5-4 opinion, the Supreme Court decided that there is no First Amendment right that allows journalists to refuse to testify in grand jury investigations. In other words the Court said there is no reporter’s privilege to protect a source’s identity. Justice White, writing for the majority, rejected the arguments of three journalists that revealing the identity of their confidential sources would impede the free flow of information and their ability to gather news. Justice Stewart wrote a dissent arguing that the right to protect confidential sources was necessary for “a full and free flow of information to the public.” Stewart proposed a balanced approach to the First Amendment’s interest in keeping confidential sources secret with the need for society’s interest in access to “everyman’s relevant evidence.”

The Branzburg decision became the benchmark case in declaring that, at the federal level, a reporter’s privilege does not exist under the first amendment. The case dealt with grand jury proceedings and had little to say about civil lawsuits and criminal trials, where plaintiffs and prosecutors might seek the identities of journalists’ confidential sources. Nevertheless, after the ruling, many lower courts followed Stewart’s approach by balancing the plaintiff’s need for the identity of the source against the free flow of information to the public. The level of protection afforded, however, varied greatly from one state to another. State courts created different forms of the reporter’s privilege, based on common law privilege, state statutes and interpretations of their respective state constitutions. Nearly all of the federal circuits recognize the reporter’s privilege in principle. At this writing, congress is still deliberating on the language and exemptions of a bill that would provide protection for journalists and their sources at the federal level. Congress had considered several variations of this bill after journalists, including Judith Miller, formerly of the New York Times, and Toni Locy, formerly of USA Today, were held in contempt of court. Miller was jailed for 85 days, and Locy was threatened with draconian fines of up to $5,000 a day for refusing to name sources. In general, however, state shield laws and acknowledgement of some level of a reporter’s privilege offer protection for journalists from being “forced to identify their sources and disclose other source materials except under certain limited circumstances.”

Due to the precarious nature of a reporter’s privilege at the federal level as well as the variations in state shield laws, the authors of this article argue that invoking a shield law to protect an anonymous online speaker may not be a tenable solution. Sources are the lifeline of any news organization. News organizations should not defend the rights of anonymous online commentators by comparing them to confidential news sources. There is much that could be lost—decades of hard work spent negotiating the language in shield laws that protect the newsgathering process, particularly the identities of confidential sources that have helped reporters change the course of American history by blowing the whistle on governmental abuses and corruption. As noted by
Kathleen Kirby, in many cases, comments posted on news websites and blogs are either hyperbole or pure opinion and, unlike unidentified sources, no attempts are made to check the veracity of the information. Anonymous online posters are unlike a confidential source whose identity is known to the reporter and whose information the journalist has verified before publication. In situations where information is provided to a journalist by unknown sources, or tips provided over the telephone anonymously, journalists make attempts to investigate the veracity of the information provided before publication. This is completely the opposite of what happens with online anonymous commentators whose identity or information has often not been verified at the time of posting. Additionally, as noted by Eve Burton, counsels for the Hearst newspapers, big media corporations receive about 150 subpoenas a year on average that seek the identification of journalists’ undisclosed sources. Burton argued that this is overwhelming enough without adding the cases of anonymous commentators. Burton further noted that her corporation has no mission, interest or, perhaps more important in the current financial climate, the resources, to defend anonymous commentators on their news sites. The best a news site can offer is notice to the anonymous speaker that his identity is being sought through a subpoena.

STATE SHIELD LAWS, THE REPORTER’S PRIVILEGE, AND ONLINE ANONYMOUS COMMENTATORS

At the time of this writing, state shield laws have been successfully invoked to protect the identity of anonymous commentators in Montana, Florida, Colorado, North Carolina, Illinois, Texas and Oregon.

In Doty v. Molnar Montana was the site of the first case in which a judge was asked to decide whether anonymous posters fell under the auspices of a shield law’s protections for confidential sources. In September 2008 Judge G. Todd Baugh quashed a subpoena of the Billings Gazette by a candidate for a local political office who wanted to learn the identities of anonymous posters whom he thought were his opponent or connected to his opponent. Applying the Montana Media Confidentiality Act, Judge Baugh described the state’s shield law as “very broad” and concluded that it covers “the situation we have here” (Molnar).

In Doe v. TS et al, Judge James E. Redman ruled that a state shield law’s broad definition of “information” included the e-mail and IP addresses of people who commented anonymously on a news site blog. Judge Redman, of the Clackamas County Circuit Court in Oregon City, said the Williamette Week and the Portland Mercury did not have to produce the information that would identify authors of anonymous blog comments. Citing the state’s shield law, Judge Redman said, “The statutory language, however, deliberately protects not only news but also ‘data’ and what is commonly understood as information.” The following month, a judge in Florida ruled in Beal v. Calobrisi that anonymous Web posters were protected under the state’s shield law as if they were confidential news sources and that the Northwest Florida Daily News had a “qualified privilege against compelled disclosure of the Internet poster’s e-mail and IP addresses and other identifying information.” Applying section 13-90-11(2), C.R.S. (Colorado) in People v. Bruce, a judge quashed a subpoena issued to a newspaper website seeking the identity of an anonymous poster alleged to be an exculpatory witness to an allegedly criminal conduct. Using the North Carolina state shield law, a subpoena from a criminal defendant to a newspaper seeking to unmask the identity of an anonymous poster was quashed in People v. Mead.
In Texas, a local judge was dealing with a similar issue raised in the *State of Texas v. Martinez*. On June 19, 2009, the *Abilene Reporter-News* reported that it would not have to turn over the names of people who posted anonymous comments on Web versions of its stories about a murder case involving a 16-year-old defendant. The newspaper successfully invoked the state’s newly minted shield law, calling the identity of the anonymous posters privileged information.

In Illinois, the court applied the state shield law in partially quashing a subpoena in a criminal investigation into the murder of a child. The prosecutor was seeking the identity of five posters on a newspaper’s website. The court concluded that the prosecution had overcome the state shield law regarding two of the posters because “the information sought is relevant... all sources of information have been exhausted... and first degree murder of a child impacts the public interest.” This is similar to a case in California, *O’Grady v. Superior Court*, which, in dicta, suggested that California’s shield law may not be applicable to website operators who “simply open their websites to anonymous tortfeasors for a fee or otherwise.”

In Kentucky, a court refused to apply a state shield law to protect the identity of someone who posted anonymously on a newspaper website. Kentucky’s shield law provides that “[n]o person shall be compelled to disclose... the source of any information procured or obtained by him, and published in a newspaper... by which he is engaged or employed, or with which he is connected.” The court in *Clem v. Doe* determined that the commentary in question was not “procured or obtained by any reporter.” In a related case out of Pennsylvania, a federal judge ruled in *Enterline v. Pocono Medical Center* that a newspaper has standing to assert the First Amendment’s free speech claims of anonymous Web posters and that the information sought was available through other sources. It is important to note that in this case, the court in *Pocono Record* was relying solely on the First Amendment protection of anonymous speech to protect the identity of the commentator. This ruling did not rely on claims of a reporter’s privilege to protect the identities of confidential sources. The *Pocono Record* in its objections to the subpoena to unmask the identity of the anonymous commentator, however, did argue that the information sought is protected by the reporter’s privilege in addition to being protected by the First Amendment’s free speech provision.

**OTHER OPTIONS FOR PROTECTING ONLINE ANONYMOUS POSTERS**

There are several options available to anonymous commentators to protect their online anonymity from unwarranted unmasking. There is the prima facie case or the summary judgment test considered in some courts in cases involving defamation claims against online anonymous speakers. These tests require that the plaintiff put together sufficient evidence to support a prima facie case, or have the possibility of withstanding a summary judgment motion before ordering the unmasking of the anonymous poster.

When anonymous speech concerns a matter of public interest, an anti-SLAPP statute—“Strategic Lawsuits Against Public Participation”—often protects both the anonymous poster and the website operator from a lawsuit and gives them the ability to recover attorneys fees in quashing a subpoena. These anti-SLAPP statues have been adopted in some states as a procedure for disposing of cases aimed at chilling speech about issues of public concern. News website operators also may argue futility against the enforcement of a subpoena to unmask and anonymous
commentator. As noted by a court, a telephone number is not indicative of the person using a phone at a given time, \textsuperscript{104} an IP address may be unrelated to the identity of the anonymous speaker and may actually lead to the unmasking of an innocent third party speaker. With the increased use of open networks, anonymizers, IP disguisers, and other technological tools, the IP address of an anonymous commentator may be a futile resource in identifying the anonymous poster.\textsuperscript{105} WikiLeaks, for example, has developed several ways to protect contributors, such as “maintain…servers at undisclosed locations, pass communication through protective jurisdiction, keep no traffic logs and use military-grade encryption.”\textsuperscript{106} Providing the IP address of an anonymous speaker may become an exercise in futility. All of those steps are available to protect anonymity of online speakers and injured parties’ ability to seek redress through the courts, without adding state shield laws to the mix.

CONCLUSIONS

Given the reluctance of the courts in the Kentucky and Illinois cases, news websites should be cautious about invoking the reporter’s privilege found in state shield laws in their efforts to quash subpoenas from plaintiffs seeking to unmask the identity of anonymous commentators. The concern is that this might lead to the erosion of support for state shield laws and the concept of a reporter’s privilege to protect confidential sources. Undoubtedly the assertion of a state court ruling in support of the reporter’s privilege or a state shield law to protect the anonymity of an online poster, combined with the immunity granted to online service providers (OSPs) through section 230 of the CDA, could thwart an injured party in seeking legal recourse. This might lead to a desire on the part of legislators to rebalance the competing rights of legitimate plaintiffs and the rights of anonymous commentators. Such legislative attempts could have the unintended consequences of eroding rights enjoyed by traditional confidential sources under state shield laws and state court decisions supporting such a protection. If news sites, owned by newspapers or television stations, invoke the reporter’s privilege or a state shield law in an attempt to protect the anonymous poster, this could lead to a legislative backlash against the state shield law and the reporter’s privilege.

Confidential sources used by journalists in the course of reporting on an issue of public importance are not the same as online anonymous posters on news websites. Generally, the operators of news web sites do not know the identities of anonymous commentators. But reporters know the identities of the confidential sources they use to report and write news stories, and journalists assess the level of their sources’ expertise and limits of their knowledge. Even when journalists receive information anonymously through the telephone or materials dropped on their doorsteps anonymously, stories are not published based on these unknown sources alone. A journalist will investigate the claims of the anonymous sources before publishing the story. This is not the same for online anonymous posters who rarely serve as source for information but merely comment on stories already published.

Equating the anonymous poster with a confidential source could lead to confusion and invite state legislatures to re-open debates on shield laws to tinker with language that often took years to craft. You need not look beyond the tortured history of the proposed federal shield law, currently pending in Congress, to appreciate what could go wrong when nervous elected officials fiddle with legislative language.

Concerned about civility and distinguishing their sites from bar rooms, news organizations are beginning to rethink their policies on anonymous commentators on their sites. Several news web sites will let you read comments but will make you register or sign-in before you are able to post
comments. The *New York Times* requires their readers to sign-in or register before posting a comment.\(^\text{107}\) The *Washington Post* does the same and so do several other news sites such as *Huffington Post* which requires you to sign-in or register through Facebook, Twitter and other social media outlets.

American democracy depends on citizens who can speak freely and a press that can report freely. Each group has played—and continues to play—important roles in the political and social history of the United States. The First Amendment provides ample rooms to protect online anonymous speech and several courts have said so. When subjects of online anonymous speech cry foul and claim injury in civil lawsuits or prosecutors seek information for criminal matters from online speakers, judges should carefully balance the need for the information against the rights of the commentators by providing the necessary notice to the anonymous poster so that he can fight for and explain himself before his identity is revealed. Doing so will ensure a proper balance between the right to speak anonymously online and the right of individuals and companies to defend themselves against defamation and other harms.

ENDNOTES


6 See for example, McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 342, n.4.

7 Lieberman, *supra note* 4, p. 204.

8 Id.
9 Talley v. California, 362 U.S. 60 (1960)
11 362 U.S. at 60.
12 Id. at 61.
13 Id.; Talley, 172 Cal. App. 2d Supp. at 799 (Defendant appeals from conviction of the ground that the ordinance violates United States Constitution, Amendment 14 and 1.”).
15 Talley, 362 U.S. at 60.
16 Id. at 64.
17 Lovell v. Griffin, 303 U.S. 444 (1938)
18 Id. at 452.
19 Schneider v. State 308 U.S. 147 (1939)
20 Jamison v. Texas, 318 U.S. 413 (1943).
21 Id.
23 Id. at 337
24 Id. at 338, n. 3; OHIO REV. CODE ANN. 3599.09(A) (1988)
25 Id. at 338.
26 McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 339
27 McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 338
28 Id. at 340-41 (“Our grant of certiorari reflects our agreement with his appraisal of the importance of the question presented.”) (Citation omitted).
29 Id. at 334.
30 Id. at 341-42.
31 Id. at 357.
32 Doe v. State of Texas, 112 S.W.3d 532 (Citing McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 377, n 2 (Scalia, J., dissenting).
35 See Tien, supra note 39 at 155, 163; Froomkin, supra note 39 at 415; Jonathan I. Edelstein, Anonymity and International Law Enforcement in Cyberspace, 7 FORDHAM INTELL. PROP. MEDIA & ENT. L.J. 231, 243-44 (1996); Noah Levine, Note: Establishing Legal Accountability for Anonymous Communication in Cyberspace, 96 COLUM. L. REV. 1526, 1532 (1996); George


38 See Lyrissa Barnett Lidsky, *Silencing John Doe: Defamation & Discourse in Cyberspace*, 49 DUKE L. J. 855, 896 (2000); See also Seescandy.com, 185 F.R.D. at 578 (The ability to speak one’s mind without the burden of the other party knowing all the facts about one’s identity can foster open communication and robust debate.”).

39 276 Va. 443, 448 (2008), cert denied, 129 S. Ct. 1690 (2009). (Jeremy Jaynes was accused of sending 55,000 email to American Online subscribers. He was also accused of intentionally falsifying the header information and sender domain names before transmitting the e-mails to recipients) id at 449.

40 Jaynes, 276 Va. at 464.

41 Id. at 453-59.

42 536 U.S. 150 (2002).

43 Jaynes, 276 Va. at 461.

44 McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 338-40.

45 536 U.S. at 166.

46 Jaynes, 276 Va. at 461 (“By prohibiting false routing information in the dissemination of e-mails, CODE section 18.2-152.3:1 infringes on that protected right).

47 Jaynes, 276 Va. at 463.

48 4 F. Supp. 2d 1029, (D.N.M. 1998) (Plaintiffs representing several professionals like doctors lawyers etc. brought suit to enjoin the enforcement of a New Mexico statute prohibiting “the dissemination if material that is harmful to minors by computer” id. at 1031. The statute required websites with sexual content including sexual health information to verify the ages of their visitors. id. at 1033 [citing McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 357 and Talley, 362 U.S. at 65]. On review, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the 10th circuit affirmed. ACLU v Johnson, 194 F.3d at 1155-56 [10th Cir. 1999]).


51 140 F. Supp. 2d 1089 (W.D. Wash. 2001).

52 185 F.R.D. 573 (N.D. Cal. 1999).


54 Id. at 1232 (quoting McIntyre, 514 U.S. at 340-42).

55 ACLU v. Barnes, 168 F.3d 423 (11th Cir. 1999). This was the appellate review of the case. The district court had granted over $200,000.00 in attorney’s fees for the plaintiffs and the Eleventh
Circuit review of the case was only the abuse of discretion in granting the fees and not the constitutional issue. .

56 No. 08-CV-64, 2008 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 73787 (D. Utah Sept. 25, 2008) at 21-22.; See also UTAH CODE ANN supra note 55, also for vacation of the decision after Utah legislature addressed the court’s constitutional concerns.

57 140 F. Supp.2d 1089 (W.D. Wash. 2001). ( See also Lucy D. Lovrien, Cybersmear Litigation through a Massachusetts Prism, 46 BOSTON BAR JOURNAL 18 (2002); arguing that corporate litigants against online smear should be aware of the scrutiny that may be applied to discovery designed to unmask John or Jane Doe for remarks made on the Internet).

58 Id. at 1092.

59 185 F.R.D. 573 (N.D. Cal. 1999).

60 Id. at 578


64 259 F.2d 545 (2nd Cir.).

65 Id. at 547

66 Id, at 547-48

67 Id. at 548


69 Id.

70 Id. at 725

71 Id. at 737

72 Reporter’s Committee for the Freedom of the Press, Confidential Sources and Information, at www.rcfp.org/csi (brief discussion of how each federal circuit has treated the journalist’s privilege).


74 See the case of Toni Locy who was held in contempt and fined by Judge Walton of the U.S. District Court in Washington for refusing to divulge the identities of her confidential sources for stories on the FBI’s investigation into the 2001 anthrax attacks. Judge Walton insisted that Locy must pay up to $5,000 a day in fines and banned anyone, including her former employer from helping her pay.


76 See supra note 3

77 id.

78 Eve Burton, Communications Law in the Digital Age, November 11-12, 2010, New York. Ms Burton was speaking on a panel about the issue of anonymous commentators on the Hearst news
sites and the position of her organization towards subpoenas seeking to unmask the identity of these speakers.

79 Russell L. Doty v. Bradley Molnar, Cause No. DV 07-022, Montana 13th Judicial District Court, Yellowstone County

81 MONT. CODE ANN. § 26-1-902, et seq.

82 Id. at p. 29.
84 Id.

85 Id., p. 2.
86 Timothy Beal v. Cosmo J. Calobrisi, Case No. 08-CA-1075, Circuit Court, First Judicial Circuit in and for Okaloosa County, Fla., order filed Oct. 9, 2008.
87 Id.
88 Id., p. 2.

90 N.C. Gen. Stat. §8-53.11

91 No. 10 CRS 2160 (N.C. Super. Ct., Gaston County, Aug. 16, 2010).

92 “Judge Rules names of ARN online commenters do not have to be turned over,”

93 Id.

94 Id.

95 The Alton Telegraph v. The People of the State of Illinois, Case. No. 08-MR-0548, Circuit Court for the Third Judicial Circuit, Madison County, Ill. at 6-7

96 Id. at 3, 6-7. The relevant portions of the shield law provide that “[n]o court may compel any person to disclose the source of any information obtained by a reporter” unless “all other available sources of information have been exhausted…[and] disclosure of the information sought is essential to the protection of the public interest involved.” 735 ILCS 5/8-901, 907(2).


98 KRS 421.100


100 Id. at 3.
Brenda Enterline v. Pocono Medical Center, Civil Action No. 3:08-cv-1934, U.S. District Court, Middle District of Pennsylvania. See e.g. Dendrite International inc. v. Doe No., 775 A. 2d 756 (N.J. Super. Ct. App. Div. 2001) and Doe v. Cahill, 884 A.2d 451 (Del. 2005). In Dendrite, a New Jersey appellate court held that, in a defamation suit, “the complaint and all information provided to the court should be carefully reviewed to determine whether plaintiff has set forth a prima facie cause of action.” (775 A.2d at 760) Cahill is another defamation claim where the Supreme Court of Delaware adopted parts of the Dendrite test but addressed it in a hypothetical summary judgment frame saying: “[B]efore a defamation plaintiff can obtain the identity of an anonymous defendant through the compulsory discovery process he must support his defamation claim with facts sufficient to defeat a summary judgment motion.” (884 A.2d at 460).

See for example, Global Telemedia Int’l Inc. v. Doe 1, 132 F. Supp. 2d 1261, 1269-71 (C.D. Cal. 2001). Court granted defendants’ motion to strike using California’s anti-SLAPP statute in a defamation suit brought against anonymous commentators on the message board of a securities dealer.


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Abstract
Ever since Georg Simmel’s classic 1903 essay on The Metropolis and Mental Life, ‘the city’ has been understood as at once a material physical entity and an imagined environment. In the subsequent development of this theme images of the city and notions of ‘imaginary urban space’ have been recognized as significant for the development of cultural economies, and as routinely created by and through such cultural institutions as the media (both ‘old’ and ‘new’), arts and heritage industries and popular cultures. Such urban imaginaries - and the contested conceptions of identity and citizenship associated with them - are also indicative of, and emergent at, those global/local intersections that are signalled by Manuel Castells’ (1989) axiom that ‘power moves in flows - but people live in places’.

This paper explores instances of the forms taken by such urban imaginaries along two dimensions; i) conceptually, via comparisons of the media in which they are expressed, as against the medium-specific tendency that is characteristic of the literature; and ii) methodologically, by the extension of Genette’s (1997) notion of paratext beyond its specifically literary employment and location.

Given the critical significance attached to such city-foregrounding films as Metropolis, Bladerunner and Akira there is, not unexpectedly, a developed body of writing within film studies that explicitly takes the (idea of the) city or particular cities as the object of inquiry (eg. Alsayyed 2006; Barber 2002; Masierska and Rascorali 2003). In television studies, however, there are altogether fewer such analyses (eg. Billingham 2000). This is notwithstanding the frequency with which, for example, American television series have been, and are, purportedly located within particular cities, whether this is prefigured by the title or the opening credits (as, for example, in LA Law, Miami Vice, Boston Legal) or made manifest in the text (as, for example, in The Wire and Baltimore, or in Seinfeld and New York). Conceptually, this paper engages with, and seeks to account for, this contrast by reference to the differing attributes of the media in question.

Methodologically, what the notion of paratext points to are the ways in which the prefaces and introductions of books are indicative of, and seek to encode, preferential readings of the works that follow. The introductory sequences and opening credits for television series, the trailers for – and establishing shots in – films, the repetitive pattern of advertising and commercials, suggest that it has utility for the investigation of these other media. The paper’s empirical emphasis is on images of the city that are invoked by such orienting devices.
Virtually Global and Resolutely Local: On putting urban imaginaries in their place

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The urban imaginary as a concept.

Georg Simmel’s (1997) classic 1903 essay on *The Metropolis and Mental Life*, is credited with ushering in an understanding that ‘the city’ is at once a material physical entity and an imagined environment. It is, however, Walter Benjamin’s (1973) writings, drawing upon Baudelaire’s exploration of 19th century Paris through the figure of the *flâneur* or ‘stroller’, that is typically identified as foundational for the concept of the urban imaginary. For the *flâneur*, the built environment of the city, together with its flows of traffic and peoples, are understood as resources for the construction of a text. For Benjamin, such a text, in its turn, was to be interpreted as an imaginative response to, and an exemplary representation of, the flux of modernity.

It is a concept that has proved to have survival value. A recent example is Iain Sinclair’s (2002) remarkable book, *London Orbital*, which offers a dedicated and near obsessive version of *flânerie*, albeit with many of the signs reversed. Its dominant subject matter is what Marc Augé (1995) chooses to term ‘non-spaces’ such as airports, supermarkets, and motorways, and is a work in which the city’s margins and periphery displace the centre as the location of socially significant cultural transformations. Sinclair’s 120 mile long walk around the M25 motorway which circles London, generates an extended metaphor for, and critique of, the contemporary social organization and cultural meaning of the capital city itself.

However, the one-time predisposition to amplify the significance of this or that city as an exemplar of a purportedly more general tendency, whether it is Paris for modernity, or Los Angeles for post-modernity, is now routinely questioned as a result of comparatively based studies. This and related developments have sought both to interrogate explicitly and thereby effectively broaden and incidentally democratize the *flâneur* concept, and also to incorporate the implications of a progressively more media-saturated environment, and with it the much enhanced internal and inter-textual relations within and between representations of the urban. The parameters of the urban imaginary have in consequence been both decisively enlarged and culturally enriched. For when notions of urbanity have become so strongly mediated; when the notion of cities as having clearly discernable and fixed boundaries is at odds with the lived experience of locals and visitors alike; when urban imaginaries are understood to have, and may indeed be knowingly orchestrated for, their material benefits in the shape of tourism, heritage industries and the like; then the textualizing of urbanity is no longer limited to understanding the presumptively unmediated city as a textual resource. Thus alongside Lefebvre’s (1996: 219-40)‘rhythmanalysis’ and poetic ‘seen from the window’ view, together with Michel de Certeau’s (1984) concepts of the ‘pedestrian’ and ‘textual poacher’, the *flâneur* has been interpreted as of a relevance that goes beyond walking tours for tourists, to include a range of contemporary media-based practices such as channel surfing and the selective appropriation of television texts . It has also attracted critical commentaries from feminist authors. The pertinence of these latter is dramatized by photographer Sophie Calle’s (1988) documentation of her stalking of a male stranger through the passages of Venice in
what is an indeterminate, but in practice more radical, extension of such critiques –
inverting the academic model of a \textit{flâneuse} or woman stroller as typically being either
a prostitute (Buck Morss 1986) or invisible (Wolff 1985).

These studies do, however, tend to rely upon – and serve to replicate – the
conventional contrast between system imperatives and the life world. Hence rather
than suggesting a conceptual alternative to traditional forms of urban inquiry, they
may best be understood as a methodological corrective to these earlier approaches;
approaches which more contemporary social theory has also been concerned to
interrogate. What they nevertheless usher in is the recognition that contemporary
urban imaginaries are comprehensively mediated and thoroughly intertextual.

Thus in what is now an altogether more densely saturated media environment, I will
argue that it has become something of a methodological imperative to clarify the
extent to which the forms taken by urban imaginaries are contingent upon the medium
through which they are expressed. So too, is a willingness to read \textit{across} different
cultural and media sites, and to compare and contrast them. This is not intended to
substitute an overly determinist or media-centric analysis for existing approaches, but
rather to probe for, and to selectively map, some of the ways in which the discursive
forms of urban imaginaries are differentially facilitated by particular media.
Moreover, reading \textit{across} media, not unlike the benefits of reading across sites,
promises to be not only revelatory of the possibilities and limits of a given medium,
but also congruent with the contemporary culture of everyday life in and through
which the urban is imaginatively apprehended.

Anne Friedberg’s (1992) looping together of the experience of cinema, shopping
malls and freeway driving in the notion of the ‘virtual mobile gaze’ is consistent with
this proposal. This is a concept that was initially inspired by her experience of moving
from New York to Los Angeles and thus being exposed to the clear contrast between
commuting in New York and the twice-daily unfolding of L.A. through her car
windscreen in the ninety mile drive from one side of the city to the other. This echoes,
but goes beyond, such motorised or media-specific versions of \textit{flânerie} as Joan
Didion’s (1979: 83) aphoristic account of the (near religious) experience of
Californian freeway driving, in that it recognises both the fluidity and the discourse-
dependent and institutionalised locations of such a cultural matrix. Friedberg also
serves to valorise a less categorical and knowingly more tactical and open approach to
theorising. Thus what might now be seen as a further extension of her notion are those
practices that are emergent as a consequence of the technical development which
allows cell phones also to function as cameras and thus generate images alongside
voice and words. Rather than being archived or otherwise collected in accordance
with the pattern made familiar by popular photography, what appears to characterize
these images is their fleetingness and disposability. For what seems to be an
altogether more typical usage is that such images are employed as a kind of day-to-
day ‘dear diary’ or \textit{aide-memoire}, that is, a device and a procedure for categorizing,
scheduling and otherwise making sense of experience, and thereby incidentally
contributing both to an imaginative ordering of the urban environment and to the
process of self construction.

\textbf{Cinematic and televisual urban imaginaries – from contrast to convergence?}

Given the critical significance that film scholars have attached to such classic and
city-foregrounding films as \textit{Metropolis}, \textit{Man with a Movie Camera}, \textit{Bladerunner} and
Akira there is, not unexpectedly, a substantial body of literature within film studies which specifically takes the city or particular cities as the object of inquiry. In television studies, however, there are very few such analyses, notwithstanding the frequency with which American network television series have purportedly been located within particular cities, reaching back to such golden oldies as The Streets of San Francisco or WKRP Cincinnati through to such series as Dallas, LA Law, NYPD Blue, Miami Vice, Boston Legal and more recently CSI New York and CSI Miami. Even when the series titles do not make it explicit, the most casual viewer is made aware that the (purported) setting for ER is Chicago, Boston for Cheers and New York for Sienfeld.

Nevertheless, location has not been foregrounded in academic studies of television. I want to suggest that such a critical or analytical anomaly is not merely incidental, but informative. It is a contrast that - at least with respect to the USA - highlights what were significant discursive differences in the articulation of urban imaginaries as between the two media. This presages a brief consideration of how this historic contrast is being interrogated by the subsequent changes associated with, and dramatised by: the rise of HBO and niche-style television; the effects of dvds and the internet on film production, distribution and reception; and the distinctive conceptions of spatiality associated with computer gaming.

The notion of a particular film as the unit of analysis is, to be sure, premised upon the historical development of cinema as an institution, in which the conditions of cinematic reception powerfully reinforced the notion of a singular, stand alone text. Nevertheless the convention of analysing individual films as discrete entities has proved remarkably resilient, and until recently, largely unaffected by such contextual developments as their appearance on television or their distribution in dvd form, or by their relation to digitally derived patterns of media convergence. What constitutes the unit of textual inquiry with respect to television, however, has, almost from the outset, been understood as altogether more problematic. Thus the notion of an individual programme as text jostles alongside such other candidates as a television series, an evening’s viewing, a weekly schedule, the fragment, the commercials, the concept of flow and literally all of television, with all of them being considered as possible, and more or less plausible, contenders. What they have in common is a recognition that intertextuality and seriality are generic features of the medium. This, together with the extent to which television’s development as a mass medium was nation-specific, has important implications for both the construction and reception of television’s version of urban imaginaries.

It is through its simulation of the temporal dimension of community that, over time, the television series as a form facilitates the construction of a community of interest and of interested fans. During that period when the networks held sway, the routine operation of commercial imperatives meant that their programme schedules sought to discursively organize the articulation and integration of such simulated social groupings. Nightly and weekly scheduling as a form thus signalled to the audiences which coalesced around a particular series that it was also part of television’s imagined model and modelling of the wider social order. Television’s formal simulations of temporal and social organization are further invested with a sense of place through their determinate settings, that is, through programme content. In terms of programme plausibility, place matters. If, for example, LA Law had, however improbably, been Green Bay Law, then it would have sought to feature plots,
characterisation and mood that had more affinities to the Wisconsin setting of *Picket Fences* than to metropolitan California.

Rather than particular programmes or series, however, it is the overall structuring of the field of network television that I want to emphasize, its mosaic-like patterning which provides for the incorporation of simulated locations from frontier Alaska, as in *Northern Exposure*, and *Men in Trees* to retirement Florida’s *Golden Girls*. During the time when American network television occupied a taken for granted position of cultural centrality, it was in this mega-textual sense that it generated an imagined national community. Whilst the construction of such a fiction has affinities with that process that Benedict Anderson saw as generated by the act of reading the newspapers and vernacular novels of ‘print capitalism’, it differs in that the continuous, plural open endless flow of sounds and images that is the television megatext, is perfectly compatible with enormous variety in the content of America as an idea amongst viewers. It is the form of such a notion that is isomorphic with the form of the megatext itself. For although each programme may insinuate some (more or less locally specific) definition of America and Americans, no verbal definition of America, of what America is, or what Americans are, reaches across the programmes. The resulting idea of America is at once eminently accessible and extraordinarily complex, easy to recognize but impossible to define. Thus notwithstanding that specific urban imaginaries would appear to be insinuated by so many television series, the dominant discourse of the medium structurally selects so as to subordinate them to the notion of television as the custodian of national culture and oriented to a national market. A semiotic indicator of this is that the singularity and specificity of place is typically at its most evident in the opening credits rather than the substantive programmes themselves, as in the images of Boston that prefigured *Boston Legal* or of Dallas that prefigured *Dallas*.

What is no less noteworthy than television’s mega-textual representation of the national is the extent to which the medium also selects for the exploration of character. This is a contemporary elaboration of a process that was initially grounded in, and symptomatic of, television’s implication in that more general social development that Raymond Williams (1974) identifies as ‘mobile privatisation’. This term refers to two apparently contradictory but effectively interconnected tendencies – on the one hand mobility (geographical and social), on the other the more apparently self-sufficient family home (manifested in the suburb, the car and consumerism as well as television). Mobility was a social and economic imperative, home-centred privatisation both an achievement and a response. Television’s combination of domestic location, the modest scale of its imagery, the seriality of its content and the real-time sense of ‘nowness’ that it induces, all work so as to allow for the amplification of interpretation, identification and interaction with the characters on the small screen. Thus although the antecedents of celebrity culture may lie in the Hollywood star system, it owes its present pervasiveness to television. By contrast, the celebration of locale and landscape seems altogether more pertinent in popular cinema, as is made manifest in the iconic status of Monument Valley in the Western, and inner city streetscapes at night in the gangster film.

This contrast notwithstanding, the narrative progression of the recent film *Up in the Air* can nevertheless serve as an allegory of how American network television would both seem to construct numerous urban imaginaries and yet subordinate them to the imagery of the national on the one hand and an elaboration of individual character on the other. The film’s central character, played by George Clooney, is a terminator, in
a story line that inverts what is the by now iconic and thoroughly familiar ‘death of a salesman’ critical motif, so that it reads as ‘salesman of (a kind of) death’. That is, his job involves continuously travelling from city to city, telling employees that ‘their services are no longer required’. The film overtly shows that practised practice through which he dispenses with employees; it incidentally, but no less certainly, also functions to signal the effective displacement of the singularities of place. What takes the latter’s place is the celebration of mobility per se and its conflation with an American Dream of competitive success, which is both exemplified and rendered banal by his relentless quest to accumulate frequent flier points. The film’s plot turns on how this (mediated) version of the American real, and - in this instance - that duplicity of character with which it is congruent, are threatened by the prospect of an emergent, and somewhat different mode of organized deceit, in the shape of a ‘new’, but no less media-facilitated pattern of virtual travel.

**Multi-media and convergence: Cinematic hybridity and Television paratexts**

That a contemporary film can, through its form, be made to serve as a commentary on the functioning of this other medium in this way, hints at changes in the relation between them. In moving to interrogate the contrast that I have thus far drawn between the two media, it is the hybridity and boundary-challenging permeability of film-maker Rainer Werner Fassbinder’s 1980 adaptation of Alfred Doblin’s metropolitan novel, Berlin Alexanderplatz that serves to provide an instructive commentary. It was made for television, but as the subject of critical interpretation, it is usually identified as a film in thirteen parts. Its theme is how the emergent multiple media-scapes of the city, its weather reports, newspaper stories, radio broadcasts, advertising, and music act to both constitute consciousness, especially that of its central character, and to render it unstable and incoherent. This is not so much a prescient version of the urban imaginary, as a protracted dystopian account of how, under modernity, the transformation of the sources from which such a notion might be constructed also pose a threat to such a possibility. The sheer length of a television series, in this case more than 900 minutes, allows for the protracted dramatisation of such psychological incoherence. It is not only the very way in which the urban may be represented, but clearly has as its correlate in the built environment, the making and remaking of Alexanderplatz itself.

Thirty years later, Fassbinder’s representation of a city remains exceptional. Rather it has been through the para-textual opening credits that urbanity has most typically and most explicitly been portrayed in mainstream television.

Genette (1997) identifies paratexts as ‘comprising those liminal devices and conventions, both within the book … and outside it …, that mediate the book to the reader: titles and subtitles, pseudonyms, forewords, dedications, epigraphs, prefaces, intertitles, notes, epilogues and afterwords’ (Macksey 1997 xviii). His subtitle, ‘thresholds of interpretation’ insinuates their ambiguous status and location vis-à-vis the texts to which they refer. For Genette, paratexts are auxiliaries; it is the texts themselves that constitute the primary object of inquiry. For my purposes, however, what is relevant is that paratexts do not just constitute a preferred orientation towards a given text. As the word threshold implies, they act as a bridge between text and context and, as such, they not only face inwards towards the former but also outwards towards the latter. They may circulate in their own right, both within and beyond the culture in which they are produced, and hence they may also serve incidentally to represent or otherwise signify attributes of the society and the culture in question. What further distinguishes the opening credits of television series - as paratexts of this
medium - is the fact of their repetition, and, increasingly perhaps, with the rise of niche-style television, the resources devoted to, and the care taken with, their construction. The HBO series *The Sopranos* is a paradigm case in point - so much so that the HBO website provides a frame-by-frame breakdown and exposition of the imagery that it employs.

Read one way, the opening credits of *The Sopranos* specifically draws upon images of, and serves to represent, northern New Jersey, albeit images that are linked by way of a car journey whose precise narrative ordering is not actually empirically available. Read another, its aesthetically accomplished invocation of Anne Friedberg’s notion of the ‘mobilised virtual gaze’, filtered through the figure of the cigar-smoking Tony Soprano, is all of the USA, a representation of the society and economy that is a miracle of compression. Thus the initial images of New York, global city centre of finance capital, are followed by images of industrialism, transportation and a landscape scarred by wasteland and rubbish dumps. The mobility that it portrays is social as well as physical, in that Tony’s journey to his *nouveau riche*, upper class home has featured glimpses of housing that is a condensed rags-to-riches representation of the entire social order and his progression within it. And this is overlaid by a soundtrack and theme song for which Tony is the referent and that thereby overtly signals a relation between such mobility and violence, a violence that is tacitly and obliquely expressed in his demeanour and gestures.

In its hybridising of the family drama and gangster genres, *The Sopranos* exemplified the development of a structurally distinctive, market niche oriented, post-network tv (aka Television 2) that knowingly and explicitly engages with cinema. In this it is instructive to think of it as an early warning system for the formally innovative HBO series *The Wire*. This latter was remarkable for the extent to which it was through the representation of the city that the continuity of the six series was constructed and expressed. Uniquely then, and in defiance of those aesthetic and narrative tendencies that are characteristic of network television and that form the basis of this paper’s argument, the central character of *The Wire* is the city of Baltimore (cf. This was insinuated by the subtitle of its precursor i.e. *Homicide: Life on the Streets*).

**Computer games and the urban**

Such shifts in and across the discursive terrain of film and tv occur within the context, and reflect the impact, of the expansion of the (no longer) new media. Let me conclude by briefly identifying the relevance of just one such development.

A defining characteristic of computer games is a structural tendency to subordinate narrative to spatiality, a process that despite Janet Murray’s (1998) spirited commitment to arguing for the continued salience of narrative, is nonetheless signalled and summarised in her description of game playing as ‘digital swimming’. Thus as well as those computer games that explicitly foreground the urban, such as *Sim City*, what is noteworthy is that the game spin-off from a narrative based series such as *The Simpsons* is actually predicated upon, and dedicated to, the exploration of Springfield as its fictional location. This is a generic feature of such games that was arguably prefigured by the MIT Media Lab’s initial and paradigmatic ‘drive and walk-through’ videodisk-based, virtual simulation (the Aspen Movie Map) of the ski resort of Aspen, Colorado in 1978/9. This development, in its turn, had been inspired by the Pentagon’s interest in the mock-up of the Entebbe airport where Israeli
commandos had practiced prior to making their successful, hostage-freeing raid on the compound where Idi Amin was holding their citizens (Brand 1988: 141).

The significance of spatiality is also a feature of Bruno Latour’s (http://www.bruno-latour.fr/virtual/index.html) Paris: Ville Invisible, an internet-based articulation of an actor-network approach that also nods towards the fabulist fiction of Italo Calvino’s (1978) Invisible Cities, both through its title and its method. Its innovative combination of text and image in an open form and multiple sites of reading serves as a novel and imaginative functional analogue of the urban imaginary through the conventions of computer gaming. Latour’s mode of cultural immersion in the realm of the virtual may productively be compared with that engagement with the new which inspired Benjamin and Baudelaire before him. But in displacing the notion of ‘strolling’ by way of a scholarly form of Murray’s ‘digital swimming’, it constitutes what is the most radical reworking of Benjamin’s original insightful, but specifically textual, articulation of a sense of transition.

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References

Macksey
Health communication research on television advertisements in Indonesia

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Abstract
The study in this paper is aimed at examining the application of a range of communication approach comprising social constructionism and visual social semiotics to investigate television advertisement about health in Indonesia. This study relates to media and mass communication studies in Asian settings in a way that the health communication programs are designed using certain ideas and methods representing certain culture, in this case is Indonesia, which can then contribute to an Asian perspective of communication. In Indonesian contemporary society, television is media which significantly contribute to a heightened awareness of risk, danger, and uncertainty. Through news reports, advertisements, and talk about disease control and prevention, emergency preparedness and response, injury and violence prevention, environmental health and workplace safety, and health, television constructs a world in which danger and risk are ever present. Although we have close access to this dominant media, most of us do not fully understand how mass communication works and the ways through which the media convey their meanings. We can say that it is clear that such a media have become important sites for the production and circulation of a proliferation of knowledge and experience about health. This leads to a need to pay attention to the conceptualization of television health communication which relates to the conceptualization of communication characteristic in the country being studied. This is important to investigate as findings of this study might show us audiences’ ways of meaning-making of the health communication programs and the chosen communication approach might help us to examine this meaning-making. Therefore, this study might offer a potential contribution to the theoretical discussions of media and mass communication in the context of Asia, in particular health communication studies and the media used for the health programs in Indonesia.

1. Introduction
It is noted in some literatures that in contemporary societies, including in Indonesia, television has influenced ways people, as audiences, think about their lives. This means, it can be seen that television has contributed to produce and circulate knowledge and experience. In terms of health messages on television advertisements, for example, about hygiene, disease control and prevention, or environmental health and work safety, television, through the advertisements, has constructed audiences’ knowledge and experience about health. Because of this role, television may contribute to heightened awareness of risk, danger, and uncertainty. The television advertisements themselves relates to other television programs which provide information about health such as news reports or talk shows. So, the television advertisements together with the other health programs might construct a world in which risk/danger/uncertainty ever present.

Investigating television programs is frequently related to audience research as researchers in this area often examine the impact of the programs including their effectiveness on to their audiences. The usual methods on audience research are, for example, ratings, effect studies, uses and gratifications studies, literary critical studies, cultural studies, and reception analysis. Ratings
are used to measure how large the audience and its demographic composition, effect studies are applied to investigate what the media do to audiences, uses and gratifications studies are used to examine what audiences do with the media, literary critical studies are employed to know how texts construct audiences, cultural studies are used to explore how culture operate to produce socially differentiated reading of texts, and reception analysis are used to examine how socially differentiated readers produce readings of text within a cultural context (Bertrand & Hughes, 2005: 43-62). However, these methods have not dealt with how the audiences make meaning about the television programs. Although in reader-response theory the reader acts upon the text to actively construct it in the process of reading, this theory is just as much as from the point-of-view of the text (Bertrand & Hughes, 2005: 39).

Investigating such a meaning-making is important as when the audiences view the television advertisement texts they make meaning about the texts which can then tell us the effectiveness of the texts. In addition, advertisements have been used for delivering health messages. This kind of medium are more like entertainment and it can be seen as a means to deliver and to educate people about health (Maibach & Holtgrave, 1995; Schoemaker, 2005; Singhal & Brown, 1996). In the context of Indonesia television health advertisements play an important role as one of media to broadcast health messages to improve the quality of life of Indonesians. This means communication has been used to address health problems in the country being studied. However, previous research in relation to investigating health messages on television advertisements are mainly focused on textual analysis. They mainly examine content of health messages (Outley & Taddese, 2006). Also, previous research about television health advertisements in the context of Indonesia more focuses on family planning topics (Kim, Heerey, & Kols, 2008). However, hygiene is one of the important health issues in Indonesia as the quality of health and public services in Indonesia is still the major concerns of health public agencies and professionals. In the study that this paper draws on, however, I will examine an application of an alternative method comprising social constructionism and visual social semiotics to broaden audience research methods in investigating the effectiveness of television advertisements about health with the topic of hygiene. Firstly, I will explain a short description of health communication research in Indonesia including approaches for such a research. This will be followed by an explanation of an alternative approach and its application. Then, I will describe an implication of the application of the alternative approach theoretically and practically.

2. Health communication research in the context of Indonesia

As mentioned previously, research about health communication in Indonesia has focused on topics related to family planning and has not concerned with formulating alternative methods to investigate the effectiveness of the media in delivering health messages. In general they are concerned with communication skills of clients or patients when they communicate with health care providers which need to be improved by building collaboration between the clients/patients and the health providers. Kim, Kols, Bonnin, Richardson, & Roter (2001) examine cultural influences in client participation in family planning consultations in two provinces in Indonesia (i.e. East Java and Lampung) during the consultation, for example, when asking questions, stating opinions, expressing concerns, and requesting clarification about the family planning topic. It shows that to increase client participation there is a need to integrate client education and provider training about communication skills. Kim, Putjuk, Basuki, & Kols (2003) study communication skills of family planning patients with health care providers in relation to cultural
barrier of the patients. They find that paternalistic model of health care and social distance between the patients and the providers may discourage patient to be more openly and more vigorously in communicating with providers. Kim, Kols, Putjuk, Heerey, Rinehart, Elwyn, & Edwards (2003) assess provider competencies and client behaviours to examine the quality of decision making during family planning consultations in Indonesia which can be improved through a collaboration of supervisors, trainers, communicators, and program managers. They may create opportunities for client involvement during family planning consultations, strengthen health providers’ ability to fully inform clients about their options, and make the providers aware of the opportunities for decision making in consultations with continuing clients. Kim, Heerey, & Kols (2008) examine personal experiences of nurses and patients in their communication during family planning consultations in several public clinics in East Java, Indonesia. It shows that to improve nurse-patient communication we should combine clinic-based interventions, for example peer feedback, communication aids, and better management of patient flow, and community-based interventions, for example, patient education and mass media.

3. Approaches for health communication research

In addition to the limitation of the topic of health communication research in Indonesia, previous research in this area is also often about the use of approaches to investigate texts as a means to disseminate health messages, for example, content analysis, discourse analysis, and social scientific measurement. Some examples of these researches are shown by Story and Faulkner (1990) who focus on using content analysis to investigate message about food and eating behavior on television during prime time (i.e. 8.00 – 11.00 pm) in America. Their findings show that sixty percent of all food in the television programs is low nutrient beverages and sweets and the television programs are not consistent with dietary guidelines. Also, Outley and Taddese (2006) use content analysis to examine health-related content and physical activity-related content of television advertisements about food in America during children’s television programming. This research shows that the message on the advertisements may decrease African-American children’s understanding about the importance of healthy living and physical activity. Another example is about applying discourse analysis as shown by Lupton (1992) who argues that such an approach can be used to investigate health communication in a way that such an approach provides an understanding of the relationship between language and ideology by exploring syntax, style, and rhetorical devices in texts. In addition, Egbert, Mickley, and Coeling (2004) review religiosity and spiritual well-being in relation to health communication practice. They suggest using social scientific measurement of religiosity and spirituality to investigate health communication.

Since interaction between people, as audiences, and health messages on television advertisements is seen as a form of communication, even though senders of the messages are absent, we need to consider communication perspectives in this kind of interaction. The study that this paper draws on offers a range of approaches from a communication perspective comprising social constructionism (SC) and visual social semiotics (VSS) to investigate how people make meanings about the health messages in the television advertisement and why.

4. An alternative approach

Although SC and VSS are related each other, these two approaches will be discussed separately. However, in the application, they will be used together.
Social constructionism
The concept of social construction is useful for analysing audiences’ understanding about television advertisement texts and their related tools since this concept relates to meanings and purposes attached by human actors to their activities. The concept helps us to understand human reality as socially constructed. Audiences’ interactions with visual and audio elements of the texts are influenced by their knowledge and experience in interacting with other visual and audio elements, television, and other similar media and electronic devices. This knowledge and experience is socially constructed during the lifetime of audiences so that such knowledge and experience influences audiences’ understanding of the texts (Turkle, 1984; Wajcman, 1993).

Social construction emphasises the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in societies and in the construction of knowledge. In the 1980s the social construction approach also began to be applied to interactions between humans and machines, which includes the machine as a ‘social actor’. For example, Hacking (1999: 25-32) discusses interactions between children’s minds when watching television and the children themselves as viewers of the television.

This social conditioning relates to conditions or backgrounds of television audiences themselves such as their education, gender, and age (Turkle, 1984) since audiences from different social backgrounds might have different knowledge of and experience with television advertisements text. The way the audiences interact with the texts may then show whether the texts are appropriate for the audiences. Thus SC can usefully be applied to the study of television advertisements interactions.

However, SC also has limitations. Any analysis of audiences’ understandings and experiences will necessarily be limited and mediated by the researcher’s subjectivity. To overcome this limitation, relevant research instruments should aim to provide clear measurement. For instance if questionnaires are used for obtaining audiences’ opinions, scale responses may be used for the measurement so that we know the degree of their opinion at any rate. This measurement may also be supported by other methods of data collection such as interviews, focus groups, and observations to know more about their understandings from the questionnaire, since this triangulation provides a greater degree of reliability in these types of investigations. In spite of the methodological limitations, SC provides a useful complement to audience research in investigating television advertisements interactions, since it can help us to understand why the elements are or are not effective.

SC also relates to VSS since audiences’ understanding of visual elements/objects is also influenced by their previous knowledge and experience of television advertisements and other related media. The relationship between SC and VSS is therefore significant for the analysis of interactions between audiences and television advertisements.

Visual social semiotics
This study takes the idea of social semiotics as described by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996/1998) focusing on visual elements and is derived from conventional semiotics, such as explained by Saussure, Pierce, and Barthes. The difference is that relationships between a
signifier and a signified in Saussure’s model and sometimes in Pierce’s and Barthes’ models are arbitrary, while in social semiotics these relationships are motivated.

Television advertisements themselves consist of ‘sign systems’ (i.e. words and images in certain compositions) which are developed based on certain purposes, which are to facilitate audiences in constructing meanings from the television advertisement texts. That means we need to consider what may be the motivation of the creation of the texts and this is the concern of social semiotics (Kress, Leite-Gracia, & van Leeuwen, 1998: 258-259). Also, the texts themselves are composed of several modes (visual and audio elements) and tools (television and its related tools, e.g. remote control, speaker, etc.). Audiences of the television advertisements interact with all these modes and social semiotics in turn is concerned with a multimodal context.

Even though social semiotics is useful for examining signs and sign systems in their contexts, and across different modes, there is a need to specifically focus on visual elements since in television advertisements visual elements play a vital role. Kress and van Leeuwen’ (1996/1998) use the idea of Halliday’s three metafunctions of language, which are interpersonal, ideational, and textual focusing on the systematic structuring of the ‘visual grammar’ consisting of visual and written language. Jewitt and Oyama (2001: 140), whose work is based on Kress and van Leeuwen’s study, make a slight change to Halliday’s terms of metafunction of language: representational for ideational, interactive for interpersonal, and compositional for textual.

**Representational meaning** is conveyed by elements depicted, whether abstract or concrete, or animate or inanimate, for instance, people, things, and places. Within this meaning, narrative structures connect elements in a text composition with regards to the doing or happening of the unfolding of actions, events, or processes of change (Jewitt & Oyama, 2001: 141-143; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1998: 45-73). Also, conceptual structures illustrate stable essences, being something, meaning something, belonging to some categories, or having certain characteristics or components (Jewitt & Oyama, 2001: 141-145; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1998: 79-118).

**Interactive meaning** is produced from interactions between viewers of images and the images themselves. Within this meaning, the concept of ‘contact’ represents the relationship between viewers and images even though they are in an imaginary relation, for instance eyelines from people in a composition which look directly at the viewer (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1998: 122). However, the concept of contact has limitations in investigating visual elements due to difficulties in determining whether elements can be seen as relating to viewers directly. However, the usefulness of the concept of contact over-rides its limitation which makes this concept useful as part of formulating an integrated communication approach.

**Compositional meaning** relates to how elements are composed. Within this meaning, the concept of framing which indicates whether elements of a composition are separated or are represented as belonging together (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1998: 214-218) can be applied to relationships among visual elements in television advertisement texts. A problem with the concept of framing, in the context of television advertisements, is that there may be difficulties in examining whether some elements are connected or disconnected in relation to the intentions of television advertisement designers. For example, a designer may provide frame lines separating some elements but he/she may not intend to create a disconnection among elements, and vice versa.
However, in spite of this problem, the concept of *framing* can support evaluations of television advertisements in the sense that when some elements are provided together in a composition, *framing* provides visual cues to help investigate these elements.

Also, within the composition meaning, the concept of *salience* indicates that some elements can be made more eye-catching than others by means of size, colour contrast, or tonal contrast (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1998: 112-114). This concept needs to be taken into account in investigating the audiences’ interactions with television advertisement texts since elements of the texts may ‘attract’ audiences. However, *salience* also has limitations since, according to Kress and van Leeuwen (1998: 122), this concept is not objectively measurable, but may result from complex interactions with some visual cues, for example size, tonal contrast (i.e. borders), or colour contrast. In the context of television advertisements, *salience* may also be applied to moving elements since these elements are also part of the composition.

In addition, within the composition meaning *modality* (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1998: 212-214) is important to be taken into account as level of similarity of visual elements in the texts and the reality might influence audiences’ understanding about the texts. However, in the context of television some technical factor might influence qualities of visual elements, apart from intentions of designers of the texts.

VSS has strengths and limitations. On the positive side, television advertisements have the potential to bring together all semiotic systems, whether in the relationship between television advertisement elements or between audiences and the advertisement itself (Jewitt, 2004: 185). Therefore, the semiosis system in television advertisements lends itself to a social semiotics approach and can be investigated by applying VSS. However, Penn (2000: 239-240) emphasises the subjectivity of semiotic interpretations. Different analysts’ subjectivities lead to different interpretations. These limitations will need to be borne in mind in this paper. However, the benefits of this approach outweigh the limitations because of their contribution to visual analysis in the context of television advertisement in supporting its evaluations.

5. An example of application of the alternative approach

For the purpose of this paper three examples of television advertisement texts about hygiene are chosen randomly as an example of the application of the proposed alternative approach. In the analysis, SC and VSS will be used together as they support each other. For the purpose of the analysis visual and audio elements of the texts are classified to examine potential meaning-making of audiences which might emerge when they interacting with the texts (Trisnawati, 2007). These categories are usefulness of still and moving images, relationship between visual/audio elements and audiences, usefulness of composition, saliency of visual and/or audio elements, roles of supported elements, and devices (Trisnawati, 2007). Potential educational and technological backgrounds of the audiences are also considered as these backgrounds relates to the audiences’ knowledge and experience about hygiene topic (Trisnawati, 2007).

To understand about hygiene audiences of the texts may relate visual and audio elements they see and hear to their daily lives. SC and VSS can be used to explain that what they see and hear in the texts in examples (1) – (3) are part of their daily activities. Their previous knowledge and experience about hygiene might influence them to understand the health message in the texts.
This understanding might also be supported by other related health topics and other media in their lives.

In relation to visual and audio elements of the texts, usefulness of the image elements can be indicated by the images of people, things, as well as word elements in the texts, as examples of pieces of scenes of the texts. The audiences might understand the health message in example (1), which is about an antiseptic liquid to kill germs and bacteria in water, by relating the elements they see and hear to their previous knowledge and experience about the elements.

![Figure 1. Dettol antiseptic liquid Retrieved from feriandundercover.blogspot.com on 30 Aug 2011 example (1)](image)

Providing an image of woman who is pouring the antiseptic liquid into the lid of the bottle indicates ways to use the liquid before we pour the liquid into, for example, bath tub or any other water place. Her activity supported by her gaze indicates a narrative structure as it represents doing something, which is pouring the liquid. Green depicted on the bottle and in the woman’s cloth in the context of Indonesia might refer to ‘cleanness’ (Saito, 1996). The composition of the images in the text might also be useful to support the message and might also be easy to understand as things depicted in the text, which are a woman and a bottle, represent an activity in a house supported by image elements which indicate an interior of a room in a house. Audio elements in this example of television advertisement support the image elements in a way that the audio elements explain the importance of hygiene which can be started and can be done by individuals in their own places. In this piece of scene, the image of women and the bottle are more salient than other elements indicated by the green colour. This colour is contrasted to the background colour, which is in general white, which makes the green more salient. This saliency might be intended by the designer of the text to emphasise the health message about using the antiseptic liquid for hygiene by providing the example of activity about using the liquid. The word elements in this piece of scene also support the image and the audio elements to emphasise the importance of using the liquid. Although the image and the audio elements already provide information about the liquid, providing the word elements might be useful to support the health message. The additional information provided by the words elements is also separated from the images elements indicated by a frame line. The frame line indicates disconnection between the words and the images element even though all these elements together build the whole text.
This potential meaning-making emerges as the activity depicted in the text is similar to activities in the real life of Indonesians. Pouring antiseptic liquid in to, for example, bath tub, before taking bath might be important in some areas in Indonesia due to water quality which is becoming a serious problem in the country (Water Environment Partnership in Asia). Audiences’ knowledge and experience about the water quality might be supported by some other television program, for example, advertisements related to water (e.g. drinking water and soaps) and talk show about water.

In example (2) narrative structures are indicated by the images of people in this piece of scene. The woman in a white blouse looks at the girl in the front. These two images represent doing something: the woman looks at the girl and the girl uses the tap of water. The activity of the girl is supported by her hand touching the tap and her eyes looking at the tap. The same as the meaning of green in example (1), in example (2) green in the girl’s dress might also refer to ‘cleanness’. This potential meaning of colour is also applicable for white (Saito, 1996) in the woman’s blouse in example (2). The image of a girl in green dress who is more salient than other elements indicating that the activity of the girl is important to be paid attention, which is washing hand using hand soap. The same as in example (1), this saliency is supported by other visual elements in the text which is depicted in white in general to contrast them to the green. The image elements in this piece of scene support each other indicating an activity in a room in a house, for example in a dining room or a kitchen. Audiences of this television advertisement might understand a social setting in this text as the setting represents a daily activity. Things depicted in the text, for example the furniture and the room, also support this understanding. This is also supported by audio elements providing information about the importance of hand wash soap when washing hands which relates to hygiene. The woman reminds the girl to wash her hand using hand soap to keep hygiene.

In example (3) narratives structure depicted by the image of a man in the right side indicating performing something to the child in the left side while biting a toothbrush. The child makes a contact to audiences indicated by his eyelines which create an imaginary relation to the audiences. The activity of brushing teeth by the two people in this piece of scene indicates the
salient elements of this television advisement text. The background image depicted in the text, which is bathroom wall, support the activity which is usually done in a bathroom. This television advertisement represents the important of oral hygiene and all family members can remind each other about this personal hygiene.

![Figure 3. Pepsodent. Retrieved from bintangiklan.wordpress.com on 30 Aug 2011](example (3))

In examples (1) and (2) the names of the television station appear in the pieces of scene, which are AN-TV (example [1]) and MNC-TV (example [2]). However, in example (3) it does not available. The names of the television stations are not a salient element; it is additional information about which stations which broadcast the program. In addition, as the elements depicted in the texts are similar to real lives, indicating modality aspect, the health message in the advertisement is easy to understand. Also, providing the image of woman in examples (1) and (2) might represent Indonesian culture that women protect and nurture children. Providing the image of woman in these examples is similar to what is conditioned in Indonesian society in general.

6. Implication of the application
Theoretically, the alternative approach contributes to theoretical discussions with regard to health communication research. The alternative approach investigates audiences’ potential meaning-making about television advertisements about health and why the audiences construct such meanings, while designers of the television advertisements imbued the text with health messages about hygiene. As the approach highlight the important of culture of the society being studied, this application may contribute to an Asian perspective of communication, which is in the context of Indonesia.

Practically, results of investigations of the alternative approach application to television advertisements about health can contribute to developing such advertisements since they provide information about whether visual/audio elements of the texts are meaningful for their audiences. Also, this investigation offers information about degree of audiences’ knowledge/experience indicated by their interactions with the texts since different ‘social’ backgrounds, for example, education, gender, and age can impact on their interactions with them.
7. Conclusion
The importance of the alternative approach is that this method can investigate the television advertisements not only from a perspective of whether the texts are usable for their audiences when they access the texts, but also from a number of other points of view which can then specify this effectiveness. In the context of this paper, the effectiveness of the texts will indirectly relate to whether designers of the television advertisement texts can communicate to their audiences through the texts.

SC and VSS give an insight into the evaluation of the television advertisements texts from the point of view that when interacting with the texts, the audiences also construct meaning about what they interact with. In this interaction the audiences use and try to understand signs within the texts as they access the content of the texts. This indicates that a communication takes place in this interaction since there are interactions which entail use of signs within the texts, provided by the television advertisement designers, which the audiences then try to interpret. Construction of audiences’ meaning-making in general can be seen in their interactions with the texts. In other words, their interactions with the texts represent their ways of understanding the television advertisement texts. Therefore, this alternative approach contributes to the investigation of the effectiveness of the texts from a communication perspective.

Apart from its strengths, the alternative approach has some limitations. Investigation using SC and VSS can be subjective while objective at the same time. The usefulness of the alternative approach, however, over-rides its limitations which makes the approach useful for television advertisement text evaluations.

References


Refining Korean Vocal Styles and Maintaining Korean Chinese Dialect: Discourses about a Korean Chinese Winner in Korean TV audition program

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Mass Communication, Society, and Globalization (Virtual Presentation)
Refining Korean Vocal Styles and Maintaining Korean Chinese Dialect: Discourses about a Korean Chinese Winner in Korean TV audition program

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Since as early as the middle of 2009, Korean cable and major broadcasts have aired audition programs in different formats. Those audition programs have gained increasing popularity among Korean viewers and newer seasons have appeared recently. Episodes of the first season of “Rising Star” (Widaehan T’ansaeng) caused a particular sensation because one of its contestant came from the Korean Chinese community. “Rising Star” aired from February 2011 to May 2011, and its stated purpose was to select the best singer and to provide the winner with the financial support to release an album in Korea. The first season’s prize went to a Korean Chinese singer, among various contestants from Japan, the U.S.A. and Canada, as well as from Korea. Throughout the whole season, Korean and Korean Chinese viewers had different responses to the Korean Chinese participant, Paek Ch’ŏng-gang. While Korean viewers’ opinions are divided into two groups: his fans and his “anti” fans (literally, a group that did not like the singer), Korean Chinese viewers not only in China but also in Korea welcomed and supported Paek throughout the season.

In this paper, I demonstrate that Korean popular music is widespread and popular among the younger generation of Korean Chinese through satellite TV, social networking services, and the Internet. By examining various media such as newspapers, journals, websites, and personal blogs, I am able to analyze narratives and discourses about Paek Ch’ŏng-gang. Lastly, by analyzing those narratives and discourses, I argue that this Korean TV program created a process of conflict and reconciliation of nationality and ethnicity between Koreans and Korean Chinese.

History of Korean Emigration
The history of Korean emigration to China traces back to the middle of the 19th century. The late Chosŏn dynasty in pre-modern Korea was characterized by an unstable socio-political situation, and both internal and external forces pushed Koreans to emigrate to other countries. Additionally, a severe nationwide famine and drought during this period made socio-economic conditions worse. These unstable political conditions and frequent famines uprooted Korean peasants from their ancestral lands and they moved to other places in search of work and food (Kim Hyung-chan 1986; Yoon In-jin 1997). Vast numbers of Koreans fled to two neighboring countries, China and the Russian Empire, seeking opportunities to work and farm new lands. Many of them settled in northeast China and the far Eastern part of the Russian Empire and established farms there. Japan annexed the Korean peninsula from 1910 to 1945 and the Japanese colonial power prompted another exodus of Koreans to China and the Russian Empire.

There are currently two million Korean immigrants in China. Huge numbers of migrants from Korea to China reside in northeast China, also called Manchuria, which encompasses Heilongjiang, Jilin, and Liaoning. The eastern side of Manchuria is adjacent
to Russia and North Korea. The Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture, where 800,000 Korean Chinese reside, is in Jilin. In 1949, the Chinese People’s Political Consultative Conference proclaimed the equality of all the minority nationalities in China and recognized minority nationality autonomous regions. In these regions, minority nationalities have the right to have an autonomous government, and to maintain and develop their own cultural practices, politics, as well as education systems (Koo Sun-hee 2007). The Chinese government first formed the Yanbian Korean Autonomous Region in 1952 and it was renamed as the Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture in 1955.

As observed in many diasporic communities, displaced people are easily able to listen to current popular music or watch soap operas thanks to technological development. Arjun Appadurai notes that different groups of Indians in the United States “participate, through cable television, video, and other technologies in the steady noise of home entertainment produced in and for the United States” (1996: 198). His remark demonstrates how easily migrants gain access to their homeland’s media in host societies. Adam Chapman in his article, “Music and Digital Media across the Lao Diaspora,” explains that “Digital technologies and media are facilitating the cultural flows and exchanges between Lao communities in Western countries and the Lao homeland, not only because they have speeded up interaction but because they have altered the nature of the interaction” (2004: 134).

Given that Korean descendants in China maintain their original language, Korean popular music and soap operas become more popular among Korean Chinese communities than those among Korean migrants in other parts of the world. However, the number of scholarly works on the impact and reception of Korean popular cultures on Korean Chinese communities is relatively small when compared with the number of works on cultural transformation and hybridity of Korean Chinese cultures since 1992, the year when Korea and the PRC established diplomatic relations. Studies on Korean popular cultures among Korean Chinese communities are often part of larger studies about music studies of Korean Chinese. Although they allow only a glimpse of the popularity of Korean popular cultures in Korean Chinese communities, those example illustrate the popular musical scene of Korean Chinese communities which is greatly influenced by the popular music of the homeland. For example, Sunhee Koo (2007) mentions that street vendors and shopping malls were playing a song from Korean popular music, Ơmôna, at the time she conducted her field research. Indeed, it is a pervasive phenomenon that Korean Chinese listen to Korean popular music and watch music videos and entertainment shows through satellite TV, digital recordings, and audio-visual files found on the Internet.

Paek Ch’ŏng-gang and the Popularity of Korean Music in the Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture

The life story of Paek Ch’ŏng-gang, the first winner of “Rising Star,” illustrates a part of the soundscape that is composed of Korean popular music in the Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture. Paek was born and raised by parents of Korean descent in Yanbian. His parents would take turns going to Korea as laborers when he was very young. He grew up separated from his parents and the three family members hardly lived together from at the time he was nine. His parents are among the huge numbers of Korean
Chinese laborers in Korea. There are huge numbers of Korean Chinese in Korea and it is not difficult to find Korean Chinese laborers and workers at restaurants, building-construction sites, and many work places. The diplomatic relations between Korea and the PRC in 1992 allowed vast numbers of Korean Chinese to come to Korea to earn money and to study (Yoon In-jin 2004). Since then, 600,000 Korean Chinese have re-migrated to Korea and the community of Korean Chinese in Korea is one-third the size of the Korean Chinese community in China. Because they maintain their Korean language, Korean Chinese have few problems readapting to Korea when they return. Most Korean Chinese take low-waged hard-working jobs that Koreans do not want to occupy. It is under these circumstances that Paek’s parents alternatively visit Korea to work as seasonal laborers.

Aspiring to be a singer, Paek attended the POP Music Institute in Yanbian and worked as a singer at a number of pam ŏpsŏ, literally meaning night business, to indicate live bars or cafés that stage music performances and sell liquor as well. It is said that Paek practiced and enjoyed singing Korean popular music while attending the music institute and working at those bars and cafés. Paek stated that he gave up his audition for a music school because it was supposed to be held on the same day of the audition for the “Rising Star” show. He describes his eagerness to be a singer in Korea. In addition, when he participated in the audition for “Rising Star,” held in China, he sang a song from Korean popular music and mimicked the singing style of the song. The repertoire and the singing style he used at the audition tell us that he was able to listen to and practice Korean music in his daily life. Nor surprisingly, every one of the Korean Chinese contestants who passed the audition in China sang Korean popular music, while participants coming from other parts of the world including Korea sang American popular music and Korean popular music.

The Format of the Program “Rising Star”
Looking at the format of the TV audition program, “Rising Star,” provides the necessary background to examine changes in Paek’s singing style according to Korean viewers’ reception. For its first season, “Rising Star” held auditions in various parts of the world including U.S., China, Japan, Thailand as well as Korea. Also, the program offered auditions through Youtube. The program is different from other types of TV audition programs in that it as part of the show it provides mentors to the participants. The mentors were in charge of judging contestants as well as giving advice and teaching the participants. The mentors were four singers, Sin Sŭng-hun, Yi Eŭn-mi, Chaurim, Kim T’ae-wŏn, and popular music composer, Pang Si-hyŏk. All the mentors selected their own students among the participants as the ones they would like to cooperate with. The mentors gave lessons and advised their students on how to correct and develop their singing style, vocal articulation, postures, facial expressions, gestures. When each participant was judged, the other four mentors were in charge of judging the participant. In addition to the mentor panel`s evaluation, TV viewers were encouraged to participate in deciding the weekly elimination through text messaging participants’ names. More importantly, the viewers’ participation consisted of the larger part of the decision in the

sense that it accounted for 70 percent of the total score, while mentor’s judgment was only 30 percent of the total score. This ruling system impacted the contestants and many contestants made efforts to change and improve their singing styles based on viewer’s reactions. Paek is one of the contestants who changed his singing style during the show on the basis of viewer feedback.

Narratives of Paek’s Singing Style and Dialect
Paek Ch’ŏng-gang did not attract the Korean viewers’ nor the mentors’ attention when he first appeared on TV, because his physical appearance and singing style did not appeal to Koreans. He is small, which is contrasting to the image which Korean youth in their twenties and thirties prefer of kkotminam, meaning handsome guys who are tall and stylish with double eyelids and big eyes. From the very first audition, Paek’s nasal style was criticized and the mentors advised him to change it. While his vocal style was criticized, he was getting recognition for his fine upper register sound that cannot be easily achieved. Throughout the program, he sang songs by Resurrection (Puhwal), Yi Sŏng-ch’ol, Kim Kyŏng-ho, which are known for their high-pitched songs. Singing those songs brought Paek more attention and awareness from the Korean viewers.

After the first half of the program’s first season, Korean viewers’ responses to Paek were clearly divided into two groups: fans and “anti” fans. His fans often said that Paek’s vocal style fit Korean sentiments due to his dulcet voice. Extra musical features led his fans to Paek including their view that he possessed childlike innocence. For example, some of his fans commented, “You are so innocent and cute. Your voice is so beautiful. Fighting!” (Youtube ID “heebeen1004”); “So innocent that he felt sorry he could not improve his nasal sound. Feeling sympathy to him.” (Youtube ID “soar5100”); “I hope you keep your genuine smile ever.” (Youtube ID “nariebobo”)

Whereas Paek Ch’ŏng-gang’s vocal style formed a fan base for him, it was also the feature that his anti-fans and mentors harshly criticized throughout the program. For example, Youtube comments includes some critiques of his nasal sound: “His nasality was severe.” (Youtube ID “keysearcher”); “I wouldn’t say singing with your nose and the nasally voice is really BAD but... using it all the time isn’t that great either” (Youtube ID “jhilee6192”). The mentor, Yi E’un-mi, kept strictly rebuking Paek’s nasality. She said that his singing style distracted her from becoming immersed in the song he was singing. In addition, responses to Paek were often differentiated between Koreans and Korean Chinese. While Koreans often use the term chaeoidongp’o, or kyop’o, literally meaning overseas Koreans, the term excludes Korean descents in China. For example, Korean descendents in the States are called chaemikyop’o. However, Korean Chinese are described as chosonjok. There, Paek is often called chosonjok. This was clearly shown when Korean viewers described another participant coming from the U.S., David Oh. Oh is a Korean American and the viewers of the program call him chaemikyop’o, meaning Koreans in the U.S. He also gained moderate responses from Korean viewers, but did not attract the same level of harsh critiques shown toward Paek’s style.

As Paek Ch’ŏng-gang’s vocal style received strong critiques, he began over the course of the season change his singing style. Krister Malm claims, “[…] feedback from the media system and market hits the performers directly” (1993:344). The important thing is that his improvement in nasality led him to gaining increasing numbers of fans. His continuous and obvious effort to improve touched Korean viewers. The viewers consistently expressed the view that they became his fans as the season’s episodes unfolded. Interestingly, Paek changed his vocal styles, but he kept his dialect. While the advice that he change his nasal sound to a sound that Korean listeners are used to listening to is probably good, his dialect was more favored by Korean viewers later in the show than it was during the early episodes when the TV program first aired. When his dialect expressions aired, he obtained more fans than before. Around the middle of the first season of “Rising Star,” the program aired a video of a short conversation between Paek and his father. Paek asked his father, “Pak Kalin-ŭl angkka (Do you know Pak Kalin)?” His father answered he did. Paek responded “Chinjja angkk (Really)?” The phrase angkka is a Yanbian dialect meaning “know.” As soon as the conversation aired through the program, not only his established fans but also many viewers who had been apathetic to him started to express great interest in his personal background as well as his speaking style. As the dialect expression, angkka, received enthusiastic response from Koreans, various news reports facilitated the circulation of the phrase when describing Paek. In addition to usage of the term in news reports, the term became an epidemic word among young Koreans. By the time the TV program ended, his dialect had become very popular among Korean viewers and many of his fans even began mimicking his dialect.

Whether the narrative of Paek’s success is more strongly related to his singing style or dialect, the show certainly shaped Paek’s identity as a singer, determining what he should maintain or restructure, change, and reform. This is because the program is an audition program that selects a winner based on a jury’s grade and the text messaging from the program viewers. Thus, reactions and responses to Paek were an important barometer for him to improve and develop his own singing manners and to keep his dialect.

**The Effects and Influences of the Program**

Throughout the first season of “Rising Star,” the presence and fame of Paek Ch’ŏng-gang created a sense of reconciliation as well as conflict between Koreans and Korean Chinese. The conflict between Koreans and Korean Chinese was formed as Paek gained his fame despite his nasality. Some Korean viewers articulated a biased view of chosŏnjok on the grounds of what they had experienced before. Because of the widely spread bias against chosŏnjok, Paek’s father thought Paek would fail to win: “I thought the audition result would not successful because Ch’ŏng-gang is chosŏnjok. When he told me that he would go to have audition, I tried to stop him. Despite his excellence in singing, he would have discrimination [on chosŏnjok].” The tense conflict between Koreans and Korean Chinese is drawn from their different nationalities. As I stated above, Korean Chinese have been excluded from the term chaeoidongp’o, or

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Because the term dongp’o, or kyop’o signifies a tendency to include Koreans overseas in Koreans, these terms are exclusive terms for Korean descents in China.

After Paek was chosen as the winner of the program, however, TV programs aired documentaries about his life and interviewed his father who has been working in Korea. Many journals state that Paek’s presence on the program created sympathy and expanded the awareness of the Korean Chinese emigration history and their low social status in Korea, ultimately supporting the idea that Korean Chinese belong to Korea and are part of the same ethnic group. For example, Yonhap News identifies the influence of Paek’s first prize and his presence in Korean society: “Paek Chŏng-gang is a prominent example for Koreans to pay great attention to chosŏnjok, who have been marginalized in Korean popular culture. It is said that his first prize in the Rising Star audition program is the Korean dream come true.”

The news reports included interviews about how Paek’s presence impacted the pervasive prejudice against chosŏnjok: “I thought that chosŏnjok come to Korea as a way to earn money, but I could learn more about them as I like Paek.” In addition, Korean Chinese in Korea also state, “it seems like that the wall between Koreans and Korean Chinese collapsed [because of his fame].”; “I [as a Korean Chinese] could be consoled as I observed warm attitude of Koreans to Paek.” Paek was appointed as a representative of Koreans overseas by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade in Korea. All of those accounts above and his appointment illustrate that Koreans attempted to embrace Korean Chinese as Koreans and as the same ethnic group. Also, the interest in and popularity of Paek play an important role in constructing a sense of reconciliation between Koreans and Korean Chinese based on ethnicity, a topic which Koreans had long ignored.

Conclusion

The TV audition program “Rising Star” and its first winner demonstrate the enormous popularity of Korean popular music culture in Korean Chinese communities due to the development of technology in the contemporary world. In addition, the TV program was a venue to reflect how Koreans view the Korean Chinese participants and how they ultimately collapsed their prejudice against Korean Chinese. The presence of Paek in Korean popular culture, not just in the TV audition program, has brought up important issues beyond the scope of musical sound itself. Harsh critiques of Paek’s nasal sound often entail intentional differentiation between Koreans and Korean Chinese. Unlike Korean descendents in other parts of the world, the presence of Korean Chinese has been

4 http://app.yonhapnews.co.kr/YNA/Basic/article/new_search/YIBW_showSearchArticle.aspx?searchpart=article&searchtext=%EB%B0%B1%EC%B2%AD%EA%B0%95&contents_id=AKR20110528031000005, accessed November 3, 2011.

5 http://app.yonhapnews.co.kr/YNA/Basic/article/new_search/YIBW_showSearchArticle.aspx?searchpart=article&searchtext=%EB%B0%B1%EC%B2%AD%EA%B0%95&contents_id=AKR20110528031000005, accessed November 3, 2011.

almost forgotten in Korean society because of the different political ideologies between Korea and China. However, the resumption of diplomatic relations in 1992 has produced influx of Korean Chinese to Korea that compose an important part of Korean laborers. “Rising Star” provides a channel through which Koreans not only reveal an issue has been pervasive yet suppressed, but also break down the biased view of Korean Chinese and open the way to reconciliation with them.

Subsequent work in this area could explore Korean Chinese popular singers, or aspiring singers in Korea. There are similar types of TV audition programs in Korea, like “Super Star K,” and Korean Chinese are often contestants on those programs as well. Interviewing the participants of these audition programs would bring new perspectives about why they want to be singers in Korea, what has been most challenging to them as singers in Korea, and what those narratives signify for studies of the Korean diaspora. In addition, narratives by Korean Chinese viewers of those TV programs would allow them to specify why they support Korean Chinese participants among other participants.

**Works Cited**


Enterprise Social Network and Employees’ Performance Improvement: An Empirical Investigation

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Interdisciplinary
Enterprise Social Network and Employees’ Performance Improvement: 
An Empirical Investigation

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Abstract—This research aims to investigate how different groups of employees use a company’s social network to improve their work efficiency and the company’s performance. In Mitsui O.S.K. Lines Co. Ltd., which is the company where the research was conducted, employees would spend a lot of resources for routine work, yet many of the employees do not know each other while the company faces difficulties to build the unity inside. To address, at least in part, these problems, a social network service system was developed and is used at the company. The presented study examines how different social network services provided by the system affect the employee’s performance. Specifically, the following six performance criteria were examined: 1) speed of decision making, 2) work quality, 3) access to needed information and up-to-the-date knowledge, 4) communication among co-workers, 5) resource consumption, and 6) stress management. Through a statistical analysis of data collected from Mitsui O.S.K. Lines Co. Ltd., it was found that different users of the social network service system have different patterns and different perspectives in the use of social network services to improve their performance. The results obtained also suggest that to improve the company’s overall performance (as specified by the six performance criteria), the services provided by the system should additionally include search, messaging, and uploading files to a shared database.

Keywords: Social network service; Enterprise; Employee; Performance

1. Introduction

Social media can be defined as a group of computer online media that consist of many attributes with the following characteristics (Mayfield, 2008):

Participation: Social media help the audience interested in creating content and sending or receiving feedback.

Openness: Most social media services are open to get a feedback or to participate. It drives people to vote, comment, and share information.

Conversation: In the past, media usually provided just one-way communication (i.e. broadcasting only), while social media support two-way communication so that people can both receive and send information via the Internet.

Community: Social media help connect people easily and quickly by using the Internet technology. When people can talk and share news almost effortlessly, they readily create communities.
**Connectedness**: Most of the social media networks are growing from the connectedness by sharing information, links, videos, and the like in the system.

Presently, social network services become an important part of our daily life. Recent research has shown that the number of people who use social network sites is continually increasing (Gross and Acquisti, 2005). Keeping in mind this fact, many companies have launched their own social network services, aiming to improve performance, build strong relationships among the employees, and create a good working environment.

A social network is a structure composed of people connected by communication. E-mail traffic, disease transmission, and criminal activity can be represented, using social networks (Jamali and Abolhassani, 2006). A social network service system is an online service or site that focuses on building up and reflecting social networks or social relations among people. A public social network service system is a website created for people who want to interact with others for business purposes or communicate with each other by using the Internet technology to pass content or conversation to the destination (Zillman, 2011). Examples of popular public social network service systems are Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn.

An enterprise social network service system is a computer system that runs inside of an organization. By providing social network services, such a system is usually deployed with an aim at improving the company’s business performance.

Research presented in this paper was conducted at Mitsui O.S.K. Lines Co. Ltd. Thailand (MOL), that is a Japanese company operating in Thailand for over 40 years. The company’s main business area is export and import of goods all around the world. The company has approximately 400 employees and it uses an enterprise social network service system since 2009. The goal of the presented research is to examine how different groups of employees use the company’s social network to improve their work efficiency and the company’s performance.

2. **Public vs. enterprise social network service systems**

Typically, in a public social network service system anyone can register and get an account for free. An example of such a system is Facebook. The purposes of a public social network service system typically include building up relationships and communities, supporting communication, and entertaining the users.

An enterprise social network service system can be seen as a strategic integration of the Web 2.0 technologies into an enterprise's intranet, extranet, and business processes. Such a system typically builds on social software and collaborative technologies, such as blogs, RSS, social bookmarking, social networking, and wikis. Most of these technologies are deployed either in-house or with the support of cloud computing. For example, companies often use YouTube for vlogging, and create and use private Facebook groups as enterprise social network service systems.
Table 1 summarizes common and different features of public and enterprise social network service systems.

Table 1. Characteristics of public and enterprise social network service systems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PUBLIC SOCIAL NETWORK SERVICE SYSTEM</th>
<th>ENTERPRISE SOCIAL NETWORK SERVICE SYSTEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose</strong></td>
<td>- Promote building relationships</td>
<td>- Reduce operation cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Entertain</td>
<td>- Reduce time consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Promote building relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Promote knowledge sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Improve communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Users</strong></td>
<td>- Anyone</td>
<td>- Only the employees and employers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus</strong></td>
<td>- Relationship strengthening</td>
<td>- Improve the employees’ efficiency and the enterprise’s performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Employees’ performance

Employees’ performance is the accomplishment of a given task measured against preset, known standards of accuracy, completeness, cost, and speed (Kazmi, 2011). Employees’ performance can be characterized alongside six dimensions defined as follows (Hakala, 2008):

1) Speed of decision-making: How fast the employees react to their tasks or their assigned jobs, or how well they select from options available.

2) Work quality: The achieved quality of a product, a process, or a service.

3) Access to needed information and up-to-the-date knowledge: How easily the employees get access to required information and how promptly important news are spread inside the organization.

4) Communication among co-workers: Sending, giving, or exchanging information and ideas.

5) Resource consumption: The company’s resource consumption audit and management.

6) Stress management: A supplementary process from the company to the employees to reduce the impact of stress in the workplace on the employees’ performance.

Figure 1 shows a framework used in this study that utilizes the six performance dimensions to examine the impact of an enterprise social network service system.
Figure 1. Functions of the MOL social network service system and its projected use and impact.

The MOL enterprise social network service system has the following functionality (i.e. services):

1) Search: Employees can search any content or file stored in the MOL system by using specific keywords.

2) File uploading: Employees can upload or download files with, for example, documents, spread sheets, tables, pictures, and presentations from the database of the system.

3) Photo album: Employees (administrators) of the MOL system can create albums (folders) to share pictures with all employees registered in the system to report on the situation in the work site, to inform or announce.

4) Comment/Wall post: Every registered employee can post comments on others’ profiles, photos, and statuses. Comments can also be posted on a specific job, report, or work situation.

5) Setting status: Any registered employee can set a status on the employee’s profile page to inform the others about his/her situation at the given time. Typical statuses used are, for example, “I’m very busy” or “I’m working in project X with customer Y”.

6) Sending message: Registered employees can exchange private messages with others without notifying anyone.
4. General methodology

The aim of this study is to understand patterns in the using of the enterprise social network service system by employees of Mitsui O.S.K. Lines Thailand. Hypotheses about the employees’ performance and the social network services are defined and explored in an experiment. For the experiment, questionnaire is developed to survey existing practices in the use of the social network services. Based on results of a statistical analysis empirical data, the influence of the social network service system on the employees’ performance is clarified.

5. Hypotheses

There are different users of the MOL system, who work at different departments, are of different age, have different levels of computer literacy, and may have different viewpoints. To explore the existing practices in the use of the company’s social network service system, the following hypotheses were developed and scrutinized in an empirical study:

H1: There is no relationship between the user’s age and the way of how he or she uses the MOL social network service system.

H2: There is no relationship between the user’s computer knowledge and the way of how he or she uses the MOL social network service system.

H3: There is no relationship between information provided by the MOL system through its first page (i.e. the front or portal page) and the usage of the MOL social network services.

6. Data collection

To collect empirical data for testing the formulated hypotheses and survey practices of using the MOL system, a questionnaire was developed. Specifically, the survey aimed to cover the following aspects (also, see Appendix):

- Personal data of the employees;
- Enterprise social network service usage (pattern/behavior);
- Employee performance evaluation.

300 copies of the questionnaire were distributed among employees of the MOL company, and 91 completed questionnaires were returned and used in the analysis. The main results obtained are presented in the following section.

7. Results

H1: There is no relationship between the user’s age and the way of how he or she uses the MOL social network service system.

A negative correlation between the user’s age and the perception of the using of the MOL system by announcing the user’s status has been detected ($r=-0.326 \ p<.05$). This result suggests that the higher the user’s age, the more the user believes that setting a status could
not help the user reduce stress. Also, older users do not see “status” as something that could improve communication among co-workers.

This and other findings apparently imply that H1 should be REJECTED that means there is a significant influence of the user’s age on the usage of the MOL social network services.

H2: There is no relationship between the user’s computer knowledge and the way of how he or she uses the MOL social network service system.

A positive correlation has been detected between the level of the user’s computer knowledge and the perception of the users about resource consumption (r=0.245, p<.05). This result indicates that users with better computer knowledge see the social network services as a means to reduce resource consumption in the company.

The results obtained thus imply that H2 should be REJECTED that means there is a significant influence of the user’s computer knowledge on the usage of the MOL social network services.

H3: There is no relationship between information provided by the MOL system through its first page (i.e. the portal page) and the usage of the MOL social network service.

A negative correlation has been detected between the amount of useful information on the portal page of the MOL system and the perception of the users about stress management (r=-0.246, p<.05). This suggests that useful information posted on the portal page reduces the need for the users to comment/wall post, set a status, or send messages with this MOL system that leads to a more efficient use of the MOL system.

The obtained results hence suggest that H3 should be REJECTED that means there is a significant influence of information posted on the MOL portal page on the usage of the MOL social network services.

It has also been found that the age of employees affects the perception of the usefulness of other services provided by the MOL system and their influence on the work performance. Table 2 and Figure 2 summarize findings of the statistical analysis of the empirical data.
Table 2. The influence of the users’ age on the perception of the usefulness of the MOL social network services (the age groups used in the analysis are 20-30 years old, 31-40 years old, and 41-50 years old)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Description</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Search for Work quality</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>4.625</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.312</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Search for Stress management</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>41.486</td>
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<tr>
<td>Upload file for Access to needed info</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>needed info and up-to-the-date knowledge</td>
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<td>Upload file for Communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>1.957</td>
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<td>Photo album for Speed of decision-making</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>Photo album for Work quality</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting status for Communication</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.014</td>
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<td>.564</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>41.843</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting status for Stress management</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>Within Groups</td>
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<td>.532</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>42.571</td>
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</table>
Figure 2. The users’ perception of the usefulness of the Search, Photo album, Upload file, and Setting status services provided by the MOL system.

The results obtained thus demonstrated that only four services—Search, Upload file, Photo album, and Setting status—influence and potentially improve the performance criteria. The results also suggest that the best service for improving the speed of decision-making, work quality, and access to needed info and up-to-the-date knowledge is Search. For communication, the best service is Sending message. For resource consumption management, it is Upload file, while the best service for Stress management is Photo album. Figure 3 and Table 3 provide details of these findings.

Figure 3. Most effective services for improving work performance.
Table 3. The best services for improving work performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Number of answers collected</th>
<th>Mean over all ages (1-disagree, 3-agree)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Search for Speed of decision-making</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search for Work quality</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search for Access to needed info and up-to-the-date knowledge</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sending message for Communication</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upload file for Resource consumption</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo album for Stress management</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.674</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Discussion and Conclusions

From the analysis presented, it is now understood that through the use of an enterprise social network service system, the company would indeed benefit in many ways, provided its employees use the Search, Sending message, Upload file, and Photo album services properly. It does not, however, mean that the rest of the services (i.e. Comment/Wall post and Set current status) are not important or useful. These latter services are also required to make the enterprise social network services complete for the employees.

One of this study’s findings is that for stress management and communication, younger employees tend to readily use the enterprise social network service system while the older employees do not adhere to this practice. It was also found that younger employees use the system as a communication tool more frequently than the older employees. Due to the fact that older employees usually have higher positions in the management hierarchy of the company, as stipulated by the seniority personnel promotion system, they usually do not use the social network services for entertainment and communication in a way anyhow similar to how the younger employees do it.

Another major finding of this study is that employees with better computer knowledge use more services provided by the system, especially for sharing various files within the company. From the collected questionnaires, it follows that the number of employees with above-average level of computer knowledge stands at approximately 25% of the total workforce. This may imply that by improving computer literacy of its personnel, the company would reduce its operation costs.
The collected data also revealed that posting useful information on the front page of the MOL system improves the work efficiency in the company. It was found, however, that currently only approximately 30% of information posted on that page deemed to be useful. Therefore, one obvious way to improve the performance of the company is to provide and regularly update useful information on the first interface page of the social network service system.

An aggregated data analysis revealed that there are four social network system services that, in a majority’s opinion, help improve work performance. These services are: Search, Sending message, Upload file, and Photo album.

Finally, an expected but still important finding of this study is that the employees’ age is a critical factor that strongly affects the way of using the MOL social network within the organization.

It should be noted that although the survey did provide useful results, it has several limitations. First of all, the survey addressed only one company in Thailand and, therefore, has a limited scope. The results obtained should not be generalized, at least due to apparent cultural differences and different business areas. Other behavioral patterns in other countries or other business areas might well exist. Another limitation of the approach presented here is the lack of consideration of legal and privacy aspects. For example, information collected about the users’ private messaging might be found irrelevant or biased due to legal and privacy concerns.

How should enterprise social network services change in the future? Would an enterprise social network service system become the main managerial tool for every company worldwide? Although the presented study did not give definitive answers to these questions, it highlighted the increasing role that social network service systems play in operation and management of modern enterprises.

This study will continue by conducting a similar survey of a Japanese company and then doing a comparative analysis of the existing practices of the use of social network services at the Japanese company in Japan and another Japanese company in Thailand.
References


APPENDIX. The questionnaire used in the study (translated from Thai).

Instructions: Please check □ for the best choice or fill in the blank.

Part 1: Personal Data

1. Sex:  □ Male  □ Female

2. Age:  □ 20-30 Years old  □ 31-40 Years old  □ 41-50 Years old  □ More than 50 Years old


4. Computer knowledge:  □ Poor  □ Fair  □ Good  □ Excellent

5. Internet usage time per day (in office):  □ 0 hr  □ 1-2 hrs  □ 3-5 hrs  □ more than 5 hrs

6. How many hours per day do you use enterprise social network system?  □ 0 hr  □ 1-2 hrs  □ 3-5 hrs  □ more than 5 hrs
   (If your answer is 0, you don't have to continue this questionnaire)

Part 2

1. Creating profile: Do you have your own profile page?  
   (If your answer is No, please continue from question 9)  
   □ Yes, I have  □ No, I do not

2. Set current status: How often do you update your status in 1 month?  
   □ Every week  □ Almost every week  □ Every 2-3 weeks  □ Not so often  □ Never
   Do other employees comment on your status in 1 month?  
   □ Yes, every week  □ Yes, almost every week  □ Yes, every 2-3 weeks  □ Seldom  □ Never
   What is/are the purpose(s) that you update your status? (multiple choices)  
   (You don't have to answer this question if you never updated your status)  
   □ Let my co-workers know my work schedule  □ Find volunteers to help me with work  □ Not related to work  □ Other ____________________________________________ (Please specify)

3. Comment/wall post: How often do you post or comment on your friend pages per week?  
   □ more than 15 times  □ 11-15 times  □ 6-10 times  □ 1-5 times  □ Never
   What is/are the purpose(s) that you comment or post on your friend pages? (multiple choices)  
   (You don't have to answer this question if you never commented or posted)  
   □ Consulting about work with my co-workers  □ Give my co-workers comments on their works  □ Not related to work  □ Other ____________________________________________ (Please clarify)

4. Chat: How often do you chat with other employees in 1 week?  
   □ Every day  □ Almost every day  □ 3 days/week  □ Seldom  □ Never
What is/are the purpose(s) that you use the Chat service?
(You don't have to answer this question if you never chatted to your friends via the system)
☐ Mostly related to work  ☐ Mostly not related to work

5. UPLOAD FILE: How often do you upload files into the social network database in 1 week?
☐ Every day  ☐ Almost every day  ☐ 3 days/week  ☐ Seldom  ☐ Never

What are the purposes of using the upload file service? (Multiple answers are permitted)
(You don't have to answer this question if you never uploaded any file to the system)
☐ Share files to your colleague
☐ Backing up my working data
☐ Not related to work
☐ Other __________________________(Please clarify)

6. CREATE PHOTO ALBUM: How often do you upload photos to the social network database in 1 week?
☐ Every day  ☐ Almost every day  ☐ 3 days/week  ☐ Seldom  ☐ Never

What are the purposes of using the upload photo service? (You can give more than 1 answer)
(You don't have to answer this question if you never uploaded any picture to the system)
☐ Share pictures with your colleague
☐ Report a situation at work by pictures
☐ For entertainment
☐ Other __________________________(Please specify)

7. NOTIFICATION ALERT: How do you learn about updated information from the organization?
☐ See alert  ☐ Always log-on to SNS  ☐ Occasionally check SNS  ☐ Never check  ☐ Other __________________________(Please specify)

8. SENDING MESSAGE: How often do you send messages to other employees in 1 week
☐ more than 15 times  ☐ 11-15 times  ☐ 6-10 times  ☐ 1-5 times  ☐ Never

What are the purposes of sending messages?
(You don't have to answer this question if you never sent any message to your colleagues)
☐ Mostly related to work  ☐ Mostly not related to work

9. FIRST PAGE OF THE SOCIAL NETWORK SYSTEM: Is there a lot of useful information posted?
☐ Yes, there is a lot of useful information
☐ Some information is useful to me
☐ No, there is no useful information

10. Which service attracts you most to use this social network system? (Only 1 answer)
☐ Search  ☐ Chat  ☐ Creating Profile  ☐ Upload File
☐ Sending Message  ☐ First Page  ☐ Comment/Wall Post  ☐ Set Current Status
☐ Notification Alert  ☐ Create Photo Album  ☐ Other __________________________(Please specify)

11. Which service needs to be improved most? (Only 1 answer)
☐ Search  ☐ Chat  ☐ Creating Profile  ☐ Upload File
☐ Sending Message  ☐ First Page  ☐ Comment/Wall Post  ☐ Set Current Status
☐ Notification Alert  ☐ Create Photo Album  ☐ Other __________________________(Please specify)

12. Which service would be removed? (Only 1 answer)
☐ Search  ☐ Chat  ☐ Creating Profile  ☐ Upload File
☐ Sending Message  ☐ First Page  ☐ Comment/Wall Post  ☐ Set Current Status
☐ Notification Alert  ☐ Create Photo Album  ☐ Other __________________________(Please specify)
**Part 3**

Please mark with a score as explained below in the appropriate space in each column (Search, Chat, Upload File, Create Photo Album, Profile Page, Comment and Wall Post, Set Current Status, Sending Message);

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>For: Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>For: Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>For: Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>SEARCH</th>
<th>CHAT</th>
<th>UPLOAD FILE</th>
<th>CREATE PHOTO ALBUM</th>
<th>PROFILE PAGE</th>
<th>COMMENT AND WALL POST</th>
<th>SET CURRENT STATUS</th>
<th>SENDING MESSAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. This service could help me make some decisions, thus I could finish my job faster and produce more.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. This service could help me improve my idea or working methodology, thus I could improve my work quality.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This service could help me access needed information, thus I could ensure that my knowledge is always Up-To-The-Date.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. This service could help me get connected with other co-workers and stay informed about my co-workers’ circumstances, thus I could pass them my work information smoothly, and our relationships in working time could be maintained.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. This service could reduce the resource consumption, such as paper and envelopes, thus I would like to use it to preserve the resources.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. This service are entertains me, thus I would like to use it to reduce my stress.</td>
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</table>

**Part 4: Suggestions (Additional comments, if any)**

What kind of additional services should be added to make this social network system more useful for our organization?
2012 Events

March 2012
March 30-April 1 2012: ACP2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Psychology & The Behavioral Sciences
March 30-April 1 2012: ACERP2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Ethics, Religion & Philosophy

April 2012
April 5-8 2012: ACAH2012 - The Third Asian Conference on Arts & Humanities
April 5-8 2012: LibrAsia2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Literature & Librarianship

April 26-28 2012: ACLL2012 - The Second Asian Conference Language Learning
April 26-28 2012: ACTC2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Technology in the Classroom

May 2012
May 3-6 2012: ACSS2012 - The Third Asian Conference on the Social Sciences
May 3-6 2012: ACSEE2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Sustainability, Energy and the Environment

June 2012
June 1-3 2012: ACAS2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Asian Studies
June 1-3 2012: ACCS2012 - The Second Asian Conference on Cultural Studies

June 15-17 2012: ACIST2012 - The First Asian Conference on Innovation, Science and Technology
June 15-17 2012: ACCOMS2012 - The First Asian Conference on Computer Science

October 2012
October 25-28 2012: ACE2012 - The Fourth Asian Conference on Education

November 2012
November 2-4 2012: MediAsia2012 - The Third Asian Conference on Media & Mass Communication
November 2-4 2012: FilmAsia2012 - The First Asian Conference on Film and Documentary

November 16-18 2012: ABMC2012 - The Third Asian Business & Management Conference
November 16-18 2012: ACM2012 - The First Asian Conference on Marketing and Social Media

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