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Table of Contents

The Construction of Justice in John Woo’s Films: Culturally Specific or Ethically Universal?
Mengshu Wang  pp. 1 - 11

The Study of Rotational Motion Perception on the Dynamical Sphere of the Surface Spiral Pattern from the Angle of Line
Guang-Dah Chen
Yu-De Jhou  pp. 13 - 22

Combining Interactive Technology with Perceptual Training to Design an Interactive Installation for Elderly
Chen-Siang Huang
Chao-Ming Wang  pp. 23 - 34

Verbal-, Textual-, Image- Traditional and New Media- Based Methodologies Adopted for the Study of Social Representations: The Integrative Perspective of the “Modelling Paradigmatic Approach”
Annamaria Silvana de Rosa
Laura Dryjanska
Elena Bocci
Martina Latini  pp. 35 - 59

An Investigation of User Perception and Behavior for Robotic Exercise Coach on Different Age Groups
Chun-Ying Wang
Hsiao-Chen You  pp. 61 - 70

A pilot study of Mobile Media Engagement: The Effect of Context on Consumer Response to Advertising
Shadi Badawood  pp. 71 - 89

Descriptive Writing Patterns Still Relevant in Political News Reporting in Malaysia
Mohd Zuwairi Mat Saad  pp. 91 - 101

The State and Watchdog Journalism in China since the Reform
Bing Wang  pp. 103 - 113

Thoughts of University Students about the Organizations That Undertake Environment Sponsorship
Ömer Bakan
Tuğba Kara  pp. 115 - 126

The Adolescent’s Media Use Pattern: Focusing on News Consumption and Its Benefits
Inhye Choi
Honglim Jeong  pp. 127 - 144
Abstract
2016 marks the 30th anniversary of John Woo’s 1986 classic A Better Tomorrow, a gangster film which not only cemented the fame of the director himself, but also made profound impact on world cinema especially on the action/crime-thriller genre. In his more than three decades of film directing, Woo has constantly probed the depth of some traditional value: honesty and loyalty, family and relationships, and most importantly, passion for justice. For Woo, moral justice, rather than legal justice, is one of the dominant themes, through which he communicates with the audience the complexities of human nature and human emotion. The construction of crime and justice in Woo’s films, on the one hand, shares particular content conventions and genre forms. On the other hand, some conflicting signatures are also frequently identified in the portrayal of justice within these films. As a result, considerations of genre alone are inadequate to examine the spectacle of justice and its meaning in Woo’s films. An intertextual approach seems more promising to offer interpretations in keeping with the director’s cross-cultural personal and professional experience. This article will cover selected works directed by John Woo, including titles produced in Hong Kong, Hollywood, and mainland China, to discuss the question: is moral justice culturally specific or ethically universal?

Keywords: crime film, John Woo, moral justice, genre study, intertextuality
Introduction

30 years ago, legendary director John Woo made his first action/crime-thriller A Better Tomorrow (1986), which re-envisioned Hong Kong gangster film. This extremely successful commercial production introduced Woo’s signature of Gun-fu to the world. Since then, he had made a series of films with similar motifs and familiar formulas in Hong Kong. He was thus labeled with such cinematic representation of extreme violent action scenes.

Meanwhile, the 1990s US showed an increased public interest in crime in various forms of media (Wilson, 2000). John Woo, with his cemented reputation and characteristic skills, took advantage of this favorable opportunity and debuted in Hollywood. He began his bigger-budget US productions in the early 1990s. As a response to market demand, Woo’s filmography was expanded to a wider range of genres, including adventure, war, and sci-fi. Nevertheless, the debate of vice and virtue is a recurring theme which provokes controversial discussion about the interpretation of Woo’s cinema.

As Woo himself confesses, he has made films trying to emphasize some traditional values, such as loyalty, honesty, passions for justice, and commitment to family, things that he felt were being lost then. Justice – more precisely, moral justice – seems to be a very interesting motif through which he communicates with the audience the complexities of human nature and human emotions. This article looks into the construction of justice in selected films directed by John Woo, so as to explore whether his use of the concept is culturally specific or ethically universal.

‘Made in Hong Kong’

John Woo’s ethnic background used to be given considerable attention in making sense of his cinema. As a consequence, film studies on Woo have concentrated on an idea of made-in-Hong Kong, and even made-for-Hong Kong. Gangster film, representative of Hong Kong cinema, experienced a flourishing period during the 1980s and 1990s. Taking into account a particular historical context before the hand-over, most of Woo’s Hong Kong crime films are argued of expressing a political anxiety of possibly losing a Hong Kong identity after 1997 (Williams, 1997). The social chaos and moral collapse, depicted in these films, are related remarkably to a temporarily specific value in a certain location.

Notable for his chaotic bloodshed action sequences through depiction of criminality, Woo is also generally considered a major influence on the action genre. It is widely acknowledged that Woo presents masculinity in a way highly different from the super muscular heroes dominant in the West, which in return has transformed the action genre (Tsang, 2016; Sandell, 1996). The furious gunplay, together with balletic movements between protagonist and antagonist, reinforces the concept of brotherhood, which, in particular, is interpreted from a very Sinocentric perspective (Hanke, 1999). Concerning the trans-Pacific passage that Woo took, a global affective cinema, argued by Xu (2010), distinguishes itself from traditional Hollywood crime.

narratives. Accordingly, the impact of foreign culture on contemporary Hollywood seems almost impossible to measure (Cieko, 1997; Desser, 2003).

Still, previous researches maintain a thematic focus that culturally specific values in the films are transformed and modified into new representation in accordance with the director’s cross-cultural professional career path. Is there another possibility towards which a novel comprehension of Woo’s cinema – in other words, it is rather the universal ethics that are simply presented in different manifestations under different cultural contexts – could be reached? Examining the construction of justice in his specializing crime-thriller genre through discussion of narrative, characterization, and conventional iconography, I believe, could lead us to a way out of the dilemma regarding culturally specific moralities in the issue of justice portrayed in these films.

**Familiar Narratives: “disruption” that damages relationships**

Structuralism theory suggests that an “equilibrium” is usually the case before a plot starts to unfold. According to Todorov, this harmonious establishment is where all the potential opposing forces are in balance. Many of Woo’s films, although set in a modern society, are about the underworld of gangs and triads. This balanced start, through depicting a fictional outlaw community of its own social orders, distances the ordinary audience. As a consequence, attempt to fully make sense of Woo’s narration of criminal activities and retributions in these films arises not from a cultural vacuum of Hong Kong but owns many of it to intertextual referencing to martial arts or wuxiao pian (Magnan-Park, 2007). In these martial-chivalric fictions, the social system of morality in a certain community is framed by traditional Chinese codes under Confusion philosophy.

John Woo is unquestionably influenced by his mentor Zhang Che, a significant filmmaker specializing in martial arts in the history of Hong Kong cinema. Yet in a point of fact, what really differentiates is not a seemingly unordinary setting of the equilibrium. Neither is the ideological assumptions of Confucian ethics that provides foundation for the traditional Chinese culture. It is rather the distinct plot of “disruption” that assists in constructing the controversy over justice in Woo’s cinema.

A recent study on a group of 30 American crime films identified a major thematic category of constructing crime as “a social problem originating in a community context where relationships among interconnected individuals are damaged, thus requires healing as opposed to punishment” (Welsh, Fleming, and Dowler, 2001). A homogeneous framework can be identified in the “disruption” stage of several of John Woo’s films. In some cases, instead of presenting an actual crime, the breaking force that disrupts the previous balanced status quo is an inside incident that damages relationship between individuals. *A Better Tomorrow* describes a retribution story in which justice is represented through regaining self-esteem and restoring private relationships. Ho (played by Ti Lung) and his best friend and partner Mark (played by Chow Yun-Fat) are respected members of the Triads. They soon are betrayed by their subordinate apprentice Shing (played by Waise Lee), which puts an end to the friendship/brotherhood relationship within the Triad community. Ho’s arrest, as a result, exposes his criminal identity and deteriorates the relationship with his younger brother Kit (played by Leslie Cheng), who is about to graduate from police college and become a detective. Just as Sandell (1996) discovered, in Woo’s films, “personal
dilemmas are always already part of the public ones”. These acts concerning the
matter of loyalty and commitment to family, undoubtedly prioritize discussion of
moral (as opposed to legal) problems. Ho and Mark’s reaction towards Shing in the
ensuing events, places the emphasis more on restoring these values in society, than on
purely seeking revenge. In this type of films, representation of the official response to
a crime from legal system is not absent but merely weakened. It is worth noticing that,
at the end of *A Better Tomorrow*, Ho, Mark, and Kit choose to bring Shing to justice,
both personally by preventing Shing’s criminal plans, and legally by handing him to
the police.

Figure 1: Triad boss, Ho, Mark, and Shing (from left to right). Taken from Woo, J.
(1986). *A Better Tomorrow* [Screenshot].

Figure 2: Ho (left) and his brother Kit in the hospital, visiting their father. Taken from
Woo, J. (1986). *A Better Tomorrow* [Screenshot].

In some other cases, the harm to relationships is in consistent with criminality. In
*Broken Arrow* (1996), Major Deakins (played by John Travolta) and Captain Hale
(played by Christian Slater) are military pilots in the United States Air Force. The
opening scene of a boxing practice reveals the relationship between leading characters
more as frenemies. Later during a top secret assignment, Deakins does not only steal
the nuclear warheads but also frames his partner Hale. The shift that deterioration
among multiple relationships is reduced to a dominant opposing one is normal in
Woo’s Hollywood productions. Magnan-Park (2007) points out this disruption of a
key established Hong Kong theme of a group of heroes in favor of the singular hero. Accordingly, the response to damages on relationships becomes the response to crime itself. As can be seen in *Broken Arrow*, the response of Hale going after Deakins seems morally ambiguous, since it can be addressed as a personal reaction, through which Captain Hale is restoring the value of loyalty. But at the same time, it can also be addressed in general/formal terms, because as a figure representing law enforcement, Hale himself is also responsible for the crime.

![Figure 3: Major Deakins and Captain Hale](image)

Figure 3: Major Deakins (left) and Captain Hale, before their last assignment together. Taken from Woo, J. (1996). *Broken Arrow* [Screenshot].

![Figure 4: Major Deakins (reflection on the window)](image)

Figure 4: Major Deakins (reflection on the window), before pointing gun at head of Captain Hale. Taken from: Woo, J. (1996). *Broken Arrow* [Screenshot].

**Stereotypical Characterization: beyond cultural boundaries**

The stress on morality can also be observed in the analysis of stereotypical characterization. The conventionally coded characters assist in getting rid of cultural restrictions in comprehending justice in John Woo’s films. As mentioned above, male heroes in Woo’s films, especially in his Hong Kong productions, are usually interpreted as being saturated with male codes of traditional Chinese values, known as *zhong*忠, *xiao*孝, *ren*仁, *yi*义 in mandarin, which can be translated as loyalty, filiality, compassion, and righteousness. These traditional values, grounded in Confucian philosophy, have been argued as the most culturally specific signification in Woo’s cinema. *The Killer* (1989) may be Woo’s most romantic crime-thriller in portraying a twisted friendship/brotherhood relationship between a hitman and a police detective. Yet throughout the movie, hitman Ah Jong (played by Chow Yun-
Fat) spends much effort in protecting a blind club singer, Jenny (played by Sally Yeh). He feels guilty for causing such tragedy to her and the protection ends up in a romantic relationship with Jenny. Ah Jong’s moral attitude towards an innocent figure used to be considered an inevitable path to re-gain his junzi status, another concept reflecting Sinocentric ideology. However, taking into account the similar characterization among Woo’s films, what’s transparently transcendent is more likely to be a moral reasoning that is common to all people, than certain values that are specific to a single culture. Face/Off (1997) is Woo’s most positively reviewed Hollywood production. Its narrative is about the cliché of a story between an FBI agent and a domestic terrorist. At the beginning of the plot, John Travolta plays FBI agent Sean Archer and Nicholas Cage plays domestic terrorist Castor Troy. In order to get more information about a potential bombing attack, Archer is forced to put on Troy’s face, through plastic surgery, to approach his brother in jail. While still wearing Troy’s face, Archer tries with all his heart to save and look after the innocent boy caught in the crossfire. Is Archer, the desperate sympathetic great white American heroic protagonist, acting according to Confucian philosophy? Or does the innocent boy represent a reward to the chivalric knight, which is more specific to a Western culture? The answer is highly unlikely, especially in the case of Face/Off, because the final scene when Archer brings home Troy’s orphan (the same innocent boy caught in the crossfire, who also reminds Archer of his own lost son), is a re-edited plot added to the film after a test screening. To call it junzi or chivalric behavior is merely a matter of terminology but does not affect its substance.

Aside from the characters themselves, the structure of relations between the leading roles is another function worth examining. The crime/thriller genre in the 1990s tends to show a shift in focus from detective/law-enforcers to criminals. The criminals in Woo’s films have been assigned almost equal importance with, if not greater than, their opponents. The setting of dual focuses, including dual protagonists and dualistic structures in Rick Altman’s term, plays an essential role in genre analysis. The relationships between leading protagonists, or between protagonist and antagonist, when pushed forward, helps to construct the socially contextualized narratives of morality and justice in these films. In The Killer, hitman Ah Jong shares settings with Li Ying (played by Danny Lee), the proactive police officer who is investigating him. The clear distinction between the good and the evil, between hero and villain, blurs as Ah Jong is portrayed as a moral assassin and Li as a rough cop. Their relationship with each other changes every time they encounter each other, and eventually becomes an intensive personal bond. In the end, when Ah Jong is shot dead by the triad boss Wong (played by Shing Fui-On), Li responds according to justice by choosing to revenge his friend. He kills Wong, other than taking him into custody. Berry and Farquhar (2006) explain that Li is reacting within the code of brotherhood rather than within Western style of legal protocols. Similarly, it can be treated as an extreme example of the power of friendship to rectify injustice (Magnan-Park, 2007). However, what is underlined at this specific juncture is that Li the cop becomes Li the killer. It might be easy to address that during the final scene, Woo constructs, through

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2 John Woo mentioned the backstage story about making Face/Off in a conversation after he received the SAMURAI Award during the 28th Tokyo International Film Festival in 2015. The original scene of Archer bringing home the innocent boy was shot and edited in the first director’s cut. Producers disagreed and deleted the scene. Reviews of a test screening before the film was officially distributed indicated that most spectators were expecting the plot. As a result, Paramount Studio re-edited the film, adding it back to its original ending.
cinematic representation, an idea of moral retribution surpassing that of legal justice. Then it is equally justifiable to suggest that the dilemma between morality and legitimacy is the one called into question. After all, constructing justice through outlaw retribution is such a popular motif among world cinema.

Figure 5: detective Li Ying’s relationship with hitman Ah Jong changes from enemy to ally. Taken from: Woo, J. (1989). *The Killer* [Screenshots].

In *Face/Off*, the same dual protagonist structure can also be identified. But this time, the changes in relationships brought into focus are more between the characters and their families, respectively, than between the leading roles themselves. The opposing position between FBI agent Sean Archer and his antagonist domestic terrorist Castor Troy is consistent throughout the narratives, even when they switch faces and shift identities with each other. Archer stands in an incompatible situation with Troy, personally as Troy is responsible for the death of Archer’s son, and generally as Archer represents law enforcement. Once again, personal dilemmas overlap with public ones. Yet similarly to *The Killer*, in the end Sean Archer, while wearing Castor Troy’s face, emotionally killed Troy as the psychopath criminal was destroying Archer’s face. Again, the cop becomes the killer, psychologically, by wearing his face, as well as physically, by committing vicious act. The dilemma, as mentioned above, continues through switches in identity and subjectivity, which is another thematic motif of the film. *Face/Off*’s narrative concentrates on the issue of how to retrieve the original identity and how to restore relationship with the family. Therefore, justice in this type of films is on both social and personal level: to reassert law and order, and to regain status of a good father and husband. Shifting faces additionally challenges the pure essence of Archer’s and Troy’s identities as it dissolves a logic of binary opposition. Woo thus constructs a novel image of justice behind which the sheer distinction between right and wrong, between good and evil, is blurred.
Finally, in discussion of moral justice in Woo’s films, a series of conventions and formulas also question the absolute standard that distinguishes right and wrong under an assumption of binary opposition. For example, white pigeon is a regular presence in many of Woo’s films. While usually symbolizing peace and harmony, they mostly appear before or during the chaotic bloodshed of gunshot sequences. Churches and chapels, as well as the status of virgin Mary, on the one hand, suggest Woo’s childhood of being raised as a Christian. On the other hand, they are one of the most frequent locations where extreme mayhem takes place in the films. Last but not least, the expression of violence, which Woo is famous for, is not a theme but more a style in considering and constructing a moral standard in his films. The more vicious a character becomes while defending an immoral force, the higher scale of morality he will achieve. Just as in The Killer, Ah Jong achieves much sympathy by demonstrating a very low scale of immorality (Bordwell & Thompson, 2004). This mixture of good and evil, as can also be seen from Woo’s stereotypically coded characters, challenges the meaning of justice established through a crude and reductionist way of binary opposition. In other words, although moral justice is concerned with the principles of right and wrong, Woo communicates with the audiences the vulnerable common sense that a sharp contrast between right and wrong is universally in doubt.

It is worth mentioning that for genre films, it is the continuous production and reproduction of such conventions that attract and speak to the audience, most of who are eventually aware of these signatures/patterns. It helps contribute to an overall larger genre or auteur scape since after a long time, spectators become familiar with and agree on them. In the case of John Woo, many of his visual repertories have transformed into films defined in genres other than crime-thriller. For instance, white pigeon also appears in his history-drama Red Cliff (2008) and war-epic The Crossing (2014). It seems that Woo manages to address the discussion of justice, under different cinematic context, on different scales.
Conclusion

In conclusion, even though John Woo diversifies crimes and criminals in his films, his emphasis on justice stands out as he moves from Hong Kong to Hollywood. The justice issue, for Woo, concerns more with morality and law. The moral issue is presented through conflicts and damage to relationships of interconnected individuals. These stereotypically constructed characters are to break down cultural boundaries within the film. By making contrast to regular significations using cinematic language, Woo encourages positioning justice outside an absolute binary opposition in which certain actions are considered either right or wrong. Under such circumstance, the construction of justice in Woo’s films is arguably more ethically universal than culturally specific, as the disposition to respond to certain moral situations, depicted in selected films, is represented in structurally similar ways, regardless of differences in cultural contexts. In the cinema of crime-thriller by John Woo, moral justice on a personal level is seeking fairness; one a general level, it is restoring certain social values.

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References


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The Study of Rotational Motion Perception on the Dynamical Sphere of the Surface Spiral Pattern from the Angle of Line

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Abstract
The research is based on the basic design and art to explore the characteristic of a dynamical sphere. And because previous studies only in the main form of the cylinder and the cone. Therefore, the purpose of this study is using a sphere as the main shape, to explore the best angle of line on the spiral pattern of the dynamical sphere. This study is divided into two parts, the first part, the literature research and analysis theory to explore the characteristics of the sphere, and regulated the angle of line that suitable for the sample. And the second part was used the adjustment method of psychophysics to experiment. With total of 30 subjects, half composed by the men and women. And the test results, defined the best angle of line on spiral pattern on the surface of dynamical sphere. Not only can promote the dynamical shapes but also can have contribute to some basic of the motion perception. Besides, it can be extended for use in performances or stage effects.

Keywords: basic design and art, dynamical sphere, motion perception, spiral pattern
**Introduction**

In the past, the study of basic design and art are more study in 2D shape or 3D shape. But when the Movement Structure appeared, increase the time elements in the original static shape. It made the basic design and art more abundant and more powerful.

The research is based on the basic design and art to explore the characteristic of a dynamical sphere. And because previous studies only in the main form of the cylinder and the cone. Therefore, the purpose of this study is using a sphere as the main shape, to explore the best angle of line on the spiral pattern of the dynamical sphere.

The Movement Structure can separate to a shape and a viewpoint-movement of movement form. In this, the shape of the movement is based on motion perception. In this study, the shape of movement as be the goal. In order to explore the motion perception of this shape movement, the sphere as the shape, in that surface drawn a spiral pattern and through the rotation of the motor as artificial power.

Motion perception can be divided into Autokinesis, Induced Movement, Apparent Movement and Movement After-Image. In this study, we only used Induced Movement and Movement After-Image, the Autokinesis and the Apparent Movement are not be discussed. Because of the shape is sphere with continuous smooth surface and no edge.

In the dynamic form of the performance of the work, the resulting movement form can be divided into two major categories, Regular Movement and Irregular Movement (Chin-Wei Lin, 2015). In this study, we choice spiral movement as the movement form, its in the Dimensional Movement of Regular Movement. And the movement form is like climbing spiral staircase with rotary feeling(Guang-Dah Chen, 2004).

**Methods**

This study is divided into two parts, the first part, the literature research and analysis theory to explore the characteristics of the sphere, and regulated the angle of line that suitable for the sample. And the second part was used the adjustment method of psychophysics to experiment. With total of 20 subjects, half composed by the men and women.

Measured methods

The psychophysical method can be used to obtain the relationship between the sensory system and the physical stimulus by threshold measurement (Chin-Wei Lin, 2015). This means that if a stimulus value enables the subject to detect the presence of the stimulus, it represents that the stimulus value is the lower absolute threshold of the sensory system. On the other hand, if a stimulus value causes the subject, who originally found the presence of the stimulus, to become the presence of a perceived lack of stimulation, it represents that the stimulus value is the upper absolute threshold of the sensory system.
However, the interval between the upper absolute threshold and the lower absolute threshold is called the velocity threshold because the stimulus value of this study is the rotational speed.

Equipments

In order to control the motor speed accurately, we use the digital frequency conversion and wireless control system which the maximum speed can reach 1300rpm, and in order to record the stimulus value of the subject more clearly, we adopt digital panel to reduce the experiment process of the error and improve the credibility of the experimental results.

Figure 1: Digital Frequency Conversion and Wireless Control System

Subjects

For the purposes of this study, we selected subjects trained in art or design in order to ensure that subjects were able to perceive more accurately the changes in shape and pattern; And 20 subjects were all from the judgment sampling of the non-probability sample, and 10 of the boys and the girls, and their eyesight were normal or corrected normal vision.

Experimental Design and Procedure

At the beginning of this experiment, all subjects will be able to understand the relevant knowledge of motion perception. Select the experimental sample and start the test. From the Induced Movement, slowly increase the rotational speed stimulus value (rpm) until the subject discovers the presence of the Induced Movement, and note the lower absolute threshold.

This is followed by a continuous increase in the rotational speed stimulus value (rpm) so that the subject perceives that the Induced Movement is no longer present and records the upper absolute threshold. After a sufficient rest, the subject will continue to receive the rotational speed stimulus value (rpm) until the Movement After-Image
appears and the lower absolute threshold is recorded and stopped the test. All other experimental samples were also carried out according to these procedures.

Result

Sample

This experiment is based on the results of Guang-Dah Chen's research in 2008. "In a rotating dynamic cylinder, the line angle of 15 degrees and the thickness of 10mm, allows the subjects to produce the largest range of velocity threshold of motion illusion".

![Figure 2: Benchmarks for experimental samples](image)

In this experiment, the sphere is taken as the sample, the line thickness is 10mm, and the angle of the line is 15 degrees as the benchmark, and the shape limitation of the sphere is taken into account. By adding angles and reducing angles to got five kinds of line angle samples, Respectively 5 degrees, 10 degrees, 15 degrees, 20 degrees and 25 degrees.
Experiment Results

The results of this experiment were to show the subjects' induction movement and Movement After-Image through the rotational speed of Samples, and got different stimulus values. We analyzed the upper absolute threshold, lower absolute threshold and the velocity threshold and get some results below:

1. From the figure 4, it can be found that 5 degrees is the optimal angle of induced movement, and the more the angle is, the worse the perception effect of induced movement is.
2. In the male analysis chart, we can see a clear trend: 5 degrees is the best; 25 degrees is the worst, in addition, from the figure 5, on the upper absolute threshold, can also be seen when the angle of line becomes larger, the upper absolute threshold of the Induced Movement will decrease significantly and the lower absolute threshold of the Induced Movement will increase slowly, so the velocity threshold will become smaller gradually.

![Figure 5: Induced Movement (male)](image)

3. Although the optimal angle of the female is 10 degrees, the velocity threshold is not much different from that of the 5 degree; therefore, this study will not be affected. In addition, male and female showed the trend is similar, that is, the velocity threshold is gradually smaller.

![Figure 6: Induced Movement (female)](image)
4. From the figure 7, we can see that the bigger the angle is, the faster the perception Movement After-Image will appear.

![Figure 7: Movement After-Image (Total)](image)

5. In the figure of Movement After-Image for male and female (Figure 8 and 9). We can see that the trend is obvious decline, it found that male and female in the perception of Movement After-Image on the results are similar.

![Figure 8: Movement After-Image (female)](image)
Figure 9: Movement After-Image (male)

Figure 10: Movement After-Image (male & female)
Conclusion and Discussion

Conclusion

From this study, we can see that "the best angle of line on the spiral pattern of the dynamical sphere is 5 degree". And it can be seen that the smaller the angle of the line (the more the number of lines) can accelerate the Induced Movement and extend its perceptual effects. On the other hand, the bigger the angle of the line (the smaller the number of lines), the less likely that the subject will produce Induced Movement and Movement After-Image.

Discussion

1. Figure 11 shows the difference in velocity threshold between male and female. It can be found that the velocity threshold of male is bigger than that of female, and it can be deduced that the ability of male to perceive Induced Movement may be higher than female.

2. In the experiment, we found that if the subject in the process does not have enough rest time will be easy to fatigue, it is not easy to perceive the motion illusion, and may affect the study data. Therefore in the future study, can be more further explore the reasons for its impact.
References


Combining Interactive Technology with Perceptual Training to Design an Interactive Installation for Elderly

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Abstract
As people grow older, seniors face many problems of physical and mental degradation, and lead to difficulties in the elderly life. This research is to combine interactive technology with perceptual training to design an interactive installation for elderly. The proposed interactive installation is named “LOHAS-GO” that means all people will get better health when they use LOHAS-GO machine.
The interactive installation applies the perceptual experience from the game-based training to enhance elderly people’s visual memory and tangible sensations, as well as promote physical limb coordination and sensitivity of body motion. “LOHAS-GO” integrates the digital images, audio, physical interaction, olfactory and gustatory perceptions to create a vigorous ambiance capable that achieves the goal of LOHAS. Experimental subject penetration caregivers assist to help elderly in executive training, and this interactive installation expects to increase the willingness of participating and the interactive pleasure for elderly.
The research conducted literature review and expert interview to build principles of interaction design, and then combined interactive technology with perceptual training to design and implement an interactive installation for elderly - “LOHAS-GO”. Finally, this research used the interview survey and observation as evaluation. This research results are shown as follows. (1) Built principles of interaction design that based on literature reviews and expert interview. (2) Combined interactive technology with perceptual training to design and implement an interactive installation for Elderly. (3) Used the interview survey and observation to analyze effectiveness.

Keywords: Elderly, Active Aging, Perceptual Training, Interactive Installation Design.
1. Introduction

The population aged 65 or above had accounted for 12.83% of total population in Taiwan (Figure 1). The situation of hyper-aged society means more and more elderly faced the problem of physical and mental degradation including hearing and visual perception and other cognitive degradation, which lead them to learn new technologies with more difficulties. Most recent interactive devices on the market were not suit for Taiwanese elderly’s custom and habits. The devices emphasized the functions and technics but ignored the affection between people (Marx, 2014).

![Figure 1: Age structure of household registration (Ministry of the Interior, 2015).](image)

The improvement of technology made interactive devices develop quickly and elderly’s acceptation of technology products became higher gradually. Through observation and interview to understand elderly’s living environment and the habit of interface operation, and then summarize the demand of elderly’s interactive interface.

This study using Arduino and sensing technics and combining traditional agricultural culture to design a work named “LOHAS-GO”. Elderly are expected to stimulate perception and enhance hearing and visual perception and promote physical limb coordination and sensitivity of body motion through; moreover improve the willingness of elderly to participate in activities and pleasure.

2. Research Methods and Purposes

This study built the design principle through literature review and prototype the work “LOHAS-GO”, and evaluated the work with interview and observation in the end. The expected results were as following:

1. Using literature review and expert interview to provide design principle of perception training installation and prototype it.
2. Combining interactive technology and perceptual training to develop interactive device “LOHAS-GO.”
3. Using interview and observation method to evaluate the effect of prototype, and build the standard of interactive installation.
3. Literature Review

3.1 Active aging

Elderly faced problems of physical and mental, and lead to difficulties a difficult elderly life as aging (Lee, 2006). The extended problems of hyper-aged society including the heavy burden for child, and due to physical degradation, elderly might lost self-esteem for living. Therefore, “Active Aging” was proposed by WHO (2002), expected elderly can keep health and improve quality of their life.

Because of vision, memory degradation and cognition error, elderly couldn’t use electronic products for long time and memorized complex operation steps, and their reaction was slower. These situations made elderly feel fearful and exclusionary when they were learning the difficult things (Tang and Shiao, 2009).

3.2 Perceptual Training

Perception divided into visual, auditory, olfactory, tactile, taste and sixth senses. Through the body organs to receive stimuli, and transmitted to the brain into message. However the elderly perceived degradation reduced the sensitivity of stimulation, resulting in slow response and limb mobility problems (Lee, 2006).

According to the interactive process while elderly operating the installation for perceptual experience design and it can separate into emotional value and functional value, and then through sensory perception, emotional perception, thinking perception and service quality to design (Yuan, 2003).

Perceived Interactivity included human-to-human, human-to-document and human-to-system (McMillan, 2002). And perceptual interactive process divided into control, communication, respond speed, humane, positive emotions, emotional links and feedback for detection.

3.3 Interactive Technology

Human–Computer Interaction (HCI) is the communication between system and user. HCI includes Information Design, Interaction Design and Sensorial Design. Sensorial Design refers to the device and the human organ through the mutual transmission or reception of messages, allowing users to experience the interactive process of vision, hearing, touch, smell, taste and other stimulation (Shedroff, 1999).

Jakob Nielsen (1995) indicated System Availability and mentioned usefulness is part of usability. Moreover, he pointed out Learnability, Memorability, Efficiency, Errors, Satisfaction are the standard for system evaluation.

3.4 Related Case Studies

According to the analysis of age structure of household from registration Ministry of the Interior, the ratio of elderly (over 65 years old) increased each year. Taiwan trade office showed that every country developed suitable products for elderly market. These products not only used for company but also for muscle stretching and brain
training, in order to prevent aging. The research did the case studies of elderly and perceptual training as following:

(1) Shooting Game (Zheng, Lin and Xu, 2015):

“Shooting Game” made user doing shooting action to have physical activity and achieve rehabilitation. At the same time, the sensors triggered the light, cheers to give visual and auditory feedback (Figure 2).

![Figure 2: Shooting Game (Zheng et al., 2015).](image)

(2) Interactive Windmill (Zheng etc., 2015):

Windmill had microphone sensor on it for airflow detection and the windmill is driven by the rear motor. According to user’s blowing volume, adjust the speed of the windmill and give light feedback (Figure 3).

![Figure 3: Interactive Windmill (Zheng et al., 2015).](image)

(3) Welcome Spring (Lin, 2013):

Through the action of putting shoes into shoebox, activating interactive wall and displaying family photos to evoke memories (Figure 4).

![Figure 4: Welcome Spring (Lin, 2013).](image)
(4) Treatment & Hope (Lin, 2013):

By interacting with objects, activating interactive wall which displaying old photos and music. (Figure 5) Providing interactive devices for scenario-based treatment.

![Figure 5: Treatment & Hope (Lin, 2013).](image)

(5) Take the wind (Lin, 2013):

By bending bamboo and telescopic mechanism, the chair adjusts the value of ride height, length and reference according to body and limb degradation state (Figure 6).

![Figure 6: Take the wind (Lin, 2013).](image)

(6) Virtual avatar interactive platform (Liu et al., 2013):

Combining “Avatar Kinect TM” technics and Unity 3D developed a Distance virtual avatars interactive platform for elderly care (Figure 7). Let student volunteer lead elderly to exercise in care center.

![Figure 7: Virtual avatar interactive platform (Liu et al., 2013).](image)
(7) Tangible Entertainment Projection System (Siqi Liu, 2011):

Using micro projector to connect real world and virtual world for entertainment (Figure 8). So that elderly can interact with their families, neighbors and so on. This work improved elderly’s social network, also to provide a space for pleasant interaction.

![Figure 8: Tangible Entertainment Projection System (Siqi Liu, 2011).](image)

Analyzing the related cases, most of the products on the market were using various multi-media and sensors. And through family and friends interaction to motivate elderly using new technology and promote the affection social between people, and it enhanced the willingness of participate activates. The analyze and comparison was as table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Interactive Interface</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shooting Game</td>
<td>Ultrasonic sensing</td>
<td>LED light, Cheers, Music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Windmill</td>
<td>Microphone</td>
<td>LED light, Wind, Music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment &amp; Hope</td>
<td>Interactive Wall</td>
<td>Old photos, Nostalgic music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welcome Spring</td>
<td>Interactive furniture</td>
<td>Old photos, Nostalgic music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take the wind</td>
<td>Interactive furniture</td>
<td>Old photos, Nostalgic music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virtual avatar interactive platform</td>
<td>Kinect, Camera</td>
<td>Virtual avatar, 3D scenes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEPOS</td>
<td>Micro project, Pattern recognition</td>
<td>Camera view, People’s sound</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to cases studies, while designing the interactive interface for elderly need to consider their life style and transfer into interactive media. The operation must be intuitive and avoid complex process. The feedback was able to wake up elderly’s memory.
This study was based on interactive game expecting to increase the feedback of touch, taste and smell, and reduce complex rules and action design. The goal is letting elderly stretch body to simulate their perception to enhance the ability of reaching message. For game design, interface should be easy to read, don’t use complicated graphics. The game will start from easy to difficult stage which is suitable for elderly. In the future, it needs to consider the design is adapt for elderly’s demand or not. With the guidance of caregivers, it is easier to bring elderly into game scenario, creating a pleasant, safe, decompression atmosphere.

4. System Design and Experiment

4.1 Introduction of “LOHAS-GO”

"LOHAS-GO” expected elderly can cultivate LOHAS attitude, balanced diet, healthy body and soul, and a meaningful life. Therefore, this work’s design focused on elderly’s diet, connecting care center, central kitchen and local organic agriculture to plan a system that prepare and distribute healthy meal for elderly.

Shown as system structure (Figure 9), first, the ingredient list will provide by local organic agriculture and sent to interactive installation, and via the game, elderly choose the ingredient they like, the system will generate the food data and sent to the central kitchen. Central kitchen will cook the nutritious meal according to the everyday dietary guidelines announced by the ministry of health and welfare (2016).

This installation is a game-based work into framing culture so that elderly experience the activities of perception. The monitor will display the visual effect and use Arduino with perceptual sensor to make elderly feel the touch, smell and taste stimulation. With the task of training to coordinate the movement of brain to complete the task.

During interactive process can increase the interaction between elderly and people, and through repeated operation enhance the chance for elderly exercise which can
delay the speed of physical degradation and also develop the interest of new technology and improve the willingness to join activities and interaction pleasant.

4.2 Interactive Schematic Diagram

Figure 10 is the schematic diagram, for “LOHAS-GO”. The installation’s perceptual experience included vision, hearing and taste, and it can divided into two parts. One is interface operation, elderly can do the easy action, like sowing, watering, harvesting, fertilizing, feeding and so on to finish the tasks; the second part is perceptual feedback, during the game, stimulate elderly by images and sounds.

![Schematic Diagram](image)

Figure 10. Schematic Diagram (Drawn by this study).

4.3 Develop Environment and Tool

This study used Arduino UNO to integrate sensor circuit, and developed user interface and game software by Processing and Unity 3D, and evaluate elderly’s demand to design the installation. “LOHAS-GO” displayed game scene by 3D projection and also having sounds effect and music, this work combined animation and human-computer interaction installation to display the stimulation.

4.4 Interactive Interface Design

Figure 11 is the game start scene, user need to press the button “Start” to enter mode selection scene. In order to close elderly’s life; the work scenario is traditional framing life. And it has two stages in game, one is “Fruit and vegetable cultivation” and the other is “Livestock breeding” (Figure 12).
If user selects “Fruit and vegetable cultivation” mode (Figure 13), he can choose the favorite seed provided by organic agriculture to begin planting (Figure 14) and user have to do 4 steps: sowing, watering, fertilizing, and harvesting to finish the task (Figure 15).
If user selects “Livestock breeding” mode (Figure 16), he can choose the favorite livestock to farm (Figure 17), the framing process includes shopping, feeding and weighting (Figure 18), after doing 3 steps to finish the task.
5. Conclusion

The improvement of digital technology will change the modern living style. In the future, elderly will face more and more technology products, and how to learn better these new interface for many applications. Currently, many products for elderly have good functions and provide convenience, but some of products ignored the real need of elderly and decreased the direct interaction between people. Elderly likes to have more contact with family and friends rather than the other benefits from products. Many researchers have to stay with elderly in order to realize the real demand of elderly in their life.

In this study, we found that the reason why elderly willing to use technology was because they can affection connection. However, the physical degradation resulting in decreased muscle strength, memory, ability to understand, and these made them encounter difficulties while operating interface and then felt fearful and exclusionary for products. To sum up, the design of interactive installation for elderly must be easy to use and clear interface.
References


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Verbal-, Textual-, Image- Traditional and New Media- Based Methodologies Adopted for the Study of Social Representations: The Integrative Perspective of the “Modelling Paradigmatic Approach”

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Abstract
Introduction: The communicative process through interaction and media has been one of the genetic dimensions of the Social Representation theory (Moscovici, 1961/1976, 2000) and it remains its core element after more than 50 years of the literature development (de Rosa, 2011a, 2011b, 2013a, 2016; Jodelet, 1989; Sammut & Andreouli, Gaskell & Valsiner, 2015; Lo Monaco, Delouvée & Rateaux, 2016). However the focus on communication remains in the majority of the studies mainly anchored to the micro-genetic interaction among people and groups and to the traditional media (basically the press, as in the seminal study of Moscovici). The new media scenario developed after the revolution of the digital area (Castells, 2006) is still less considered.
Aim: First, we present the international panorama of the worldwide scientific community through geo-mapping by Tableau software. Second, we identify the most common methodological profiles through cluster analysis by Iramuteq software to detect the relevance of methodologies according to their communicative channels and type of media. Finally we present the integration of verbal, textual, image and traditional new media based methodologies in the paradigmatic option inspired by the modelling approach applied to various thematic areas.
Data sources and Method: Extracted from more than 10,000 texts - filed in the SoReCom “A.S. de Rosa” @-library (de Rosa, 2015, 2016) - we analyze sources related to multiple methodologies adopted for the study of social representations and communication through the lens of a systematic meta-theoretical analysis using the Grid designed by de Rosa (v. 2014).

Keywords: social representations, media, communication, methodologies, SoReCom “A.S. de Rosa” @-library, big data

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Introduction

Concentrating on communicative processes and methodology, this empirical contribution addresses the dynamics of the knowledge epidemiology via the meta-theoretical analysis of diversified body of literature on Social Representations, extracted from a larger number of more than 10,000 bibliographic references filed in the repositories of the SoReCom “A.S. de Rosa” @-library (de Rosa, 2015a, 2015b, 2016 forthcoming).

First, we start from the premise that Social Representations constitute a valuable research field for the IAFOR conference on communication and media, still quite ignored in Asia, among the new emerging scenarios of the social representation theory dissemination. This can be observed when assessing the international panorama of the worldwide scientific community through geo-mapping by Tableau software.

Second, we identify the most common methodological profiles through cluster analysis by Iramuteq software to detect the relevance of methodologies according to their communicative channels and type of media.

Finally, we present the integration of verbal, textual, image and traditional new media based methodologies in the paradigmatic option inspired by the modelling approach applied to various thematic areas.

Theoretical Framework

Social representations are the product of interaction and communication, taking their particular form and shape at any moment as a consequence of the specific balance of these processes of social influence (Moscovici, 2000). A social representation has been defined as:

“a system of values, ideas and practices with a twofold function: first, to establish an order which will enable individuals to orientate themselves in their material and social world and to master it; and secondly to enable communication to take place among the members of a community by providing them with a code for social exchange and a code for naming and classifying unambiguously the various aspects of their world and their individual and group history” (Moscovici, 1976, p. xiii).

The above definition, proposed by the founder of the theory, demonstrates the crucial role of communication, which can be operationalized as function of social representations, but also a way of their genesis, transmission and transformation.

The most salient characteristics of the theory of social representations position it as an international, intercultural, interdisciplinary research domain, which is in line with the mission and vision of IAFOR conferences, aimed at broadening international exchanges, heightening intercultural awareness and expanding interdisciplinary activity. While the vision of IAFOR grew out of the perceived need to fill a vacuum in the communication and exchange activities of the academic world, the theory of social representations is intrinsically linked to communication. The mission of IAFOR arose out of realizing that the vacuum existed because of the lack of opportunity for
serious and thoughtful exchange between academics, members of the global business community, and practitioners in the fields of human endeavor that linked these groups together. This contribution promotes a fruitful dialogue between academics from the social representations research field in view of the application of the IAFOR tenets.

Among diverse paradigmatic approaches to the investigation of social representations, in this contribution we focus on the “modelling approach”, which has been only recently presented in the literature (de Rosa, 2013a, 2014). However, de Rosa has proposed the multi-method approach to social representations since the 80’s, emphasizing the integration of qualitative and quantitative, structured and projective, textual and figurative techniques and multi-step data analyses, in a wider context of social psychology dominated by a monotheistic methodological option for verbal production (de Rosa, 1994, 2002a, 2013a).

The modelling approach to social representation overcomes the logic of mixed methods research (including qualitative or quantitative research tools and their underlying epistemological viewpoints). Thus, it is more than a research practice for the integration of mixed qualitative and quantitative methods, nor can it be reduced to the application of Multilevel Modelling (MLM), Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), or Multilevel Mediation Analysis, although it can include these data strategies in its methodological plan.

**Mapping the worldwide dissemination of the Social Representations literature**

This section is aimed at mapping the dissemination of the Social Representations literature within the multi-generational community of scientists and across different geo-cultural contexts (de Rosa, 2015b; de Rosa & Dryjanska, 2016 forthcoming).

We start by presenting briefly the type of resources analysed, the year and languages of publications.

Considering the type of resource, there is a prevalence of articles in scientific journals (40.12%) and conference presentations (33.68%), then book chapters (20.35%), books (2.45%), and other as demonstrated in Figure 1 below.

![Figure 1. Type of resource](image-url)
Regarding the year of publication, the initial date is 1952 that related to the first article that Moscovici authored which mentioned the construct of social representations. We may observe a growth trend with a clear peak of 625 publications in 2014, not yet visible for 2015 as there is time necessary that elapses between the publication and the retrieval and elaboration of information, as shown in Figure 2.

Concerning the linguistic profile of the literature inspired by the theory of social representations, there is a prevalence of English with 35.34% (the universal language of science nowadays), followed by French with 22.79% (the language in which the theory originated and was first formulated), Portuguese with 18.15% (mainly thanks to the significant presence of Brazilian authors and institutions, as well as regular, bi-annual events fully dedicated to social representations), Spanish with 14.79%, and Italian with 4.76%, as shown in Figure 3 below.
Finally, moving towards the geo-mapping we present the snapshot of data as of July 2015 that although it has grown in number since, still presents similar trends positioning Europe as the homeland of the theory and Latin America as the most fertilized scenario, as shown in Figure 4.

It is important to specify that the source for the geo-mapping is the frequency of publications with authors belonging to the institutions located in specific countries, which do not always match, for example, the country of origin of a given person.
However, this technique has proved useful in examining the worldwide production, also looking at specific continents.

In fact, zooming on Europe we realize that while France, the theory’s “homeland” \( (f=1,785) \) is the top country when it comes to the institutional affiliation of first authors, United Kingdom \( (f=796) \) and Italy \( (f=770) \) stand out as important players in this scenario, followed by Spain \( (f=440) \), Switzerland \( (f=435) \), Portugal \( (f=275) \) and others, as shown in Figure 5.

A closer look at Latin America confirm the predominant position of Brazil \( (f=1885) \) as the main institution country in this continent, followed by Mexico \( (f=408) \), Argentina \( (f=406) \) and others as shown in Figure 6 below.
Figure 6. Geo-mapping the publications inspired by the theory of social representations across Latin America, taking into account the institution country of the first authors

While there is no space to go into detail of each continent, it is important to present the dissemination of the theory of social representations in Asia, given the location of the MEDIASIA2016IAFOR conference and the classification of this continent among the “new emerging scenarios”. Indeed, the role of conference is very relevant for the theory (de Rosa & d’Ambrosio, 2008), as demonstrated by the fact that a bi-annual International Conference on Social Representations has only once taken place in Asia, in particular the 9th ICSR in Indonesia (de Rosa, 2008, 2012) which nevertheless has had an impact on the position of this country, as shown in Figure 7 below.
The above figures related to geo-mapping demonstrate the wide dissemination of the theory across the world, in large measure thanks to its intersectorial and supra-disciplinary characteristics.

**Text mining for methods**

Using the IRAMUTEQ software package, it was possible to analyze keywords and abstract of 9660 texts related to social representations from around the world. Among different analyses performed, in this paper we focus on the Descending Hierarchical Cluster analysis, which resulted in four main clusters:

1. Topics, Targets, Thematic Areas
2. Constructs
3. Theories, Disciplines, Authors, Epistemologies
4. Method, Techniques, Data Collection, Data Analysis

These clusters are shown in Figure 8 below, with the cluster of our special interest (namely, Cluster 4) highlighted in yellow and relevant for 21.1% of the entire content.
Figure 8. Dendrogram of Descending Hierarchical Cluster Analysis
The Phylogram of Descending Hierarchical Cluster Analysis makes it possible to identify, graphically, lexical content of each of the classes, with the most relevant words written in bigger font ("datum", "interview", "questionnaire", "analysis", "association", etc.), as demonstrated in Figure 9 below.

![Figure 9. Phylogram of the Descending Hierarchical Cluster Analysis](image)
Another way to consider the results of Descending Hierarchical Cluster Analysis is to place them on a factorial plane, which enables us to see the intersections of clusters, in particular the Cluster 4 appears as quite separate from the other clusters (the only one on the left), as shown in Figure 10 below.

![Factorial Plane with Cluster 4 highlighted](image)

**Figure 10. Active forms for each cluster shown on the factorial plane**

It is worth emphasizing that the methodological cluster is present not only when analyzing the whole corpus (as shown above), but also in case of performing the analysis on smaller units, from the paradigmatic, geo-cultural, and thematic points of view.

For example, we can observe in Figure 11 the intersection between methodological profiles of the Journal Articles and their bibliometric impact from multidimensional analysis based on the corpus related to the thematic area of Social Representations and Politics: multidimensional identity, intergroup relations, social movements and active minorities.
The results based on the Multiple Analysis of Correspondence (performed by SPAD software) have offered an empirical evidence of a sort of “methodological polytheism” (Moscovici, 1988). The paradigmatic and methodological geo-mapping of the literature on Social Representations and Politics shows the inclusion of all the approaches (experimental, quasi-experimental, field, ethnographic and media studies), but also oppose them in the semantic factorial space. The paradigmatic and methodological distinct options are also anchored into specific geo-cultural contexts, identified with the country and continents associated to the authors’ institutional affiliation, over different decades and publishing editorial sources, opposing the journals included or not in the bibliometric databases.

Modelling paradigmatic approach

In the “modelling approach” to research inspired by the Social Representations Theory, a unifying meta-theory of the social sciences, it is fundamental to do not restrict the focus of the investigation to its “objects” (de Rosa, 2013a,b). Therefore it is crucial to operationalize one of the key epistemological assumptions founding the Social Representation theory: i.e. to assume the interplay between the social actors (and their positioning), the social objects and multiple forms, channels, tools, contexts and scenarios of communication, essential to explore the social process of knowledge building, as a set of interrelated system of social representations dynamically co-constructed and circulating within society.
The modelling approach is usually operationalized in a research design table including along the horizontal axis - the various levels of analysis in logic of a multi-step level of complexity of the interrelated research lines, including field and media studies. In agreement with an ordinary multi-step logic of statistical analysis, the research design table’s sections reserved to the research lines focused on field study usually includes three sub-sections:

1. **descriptive level of analysis**, reserved to those variables characterizing:
   a) the typology of the participants in the study;
   b) their socio-demographic variables supposed interesting;
   c) other descriptors selected by the researcher to be first investigated at purely descriptive level (as dependent variables) to characterize the research population and to be in a following step used (as illustrative or independent variables,) to position the diversified groups and sub-groups in the representational semantic space detected regarding the object/s of the study.

2. **intermediate level of analysis**, reserved to those variables playing a mediational role in the research plan, supposed to be relevant both for diversifying the subjects and at the same time for the target object of representation in a logic of set of multiple interrelated objects of representations;

3. **cross-level of analyses** aimed at understanding the core object of representation by positioning on the semantic field the various groups and sub-groups, finely identified according to all the complex set of dimensions included in the whole research design. At this purpose it is also interesting to detect the meta-representations expressed by the different groups as regards each others.

The research design table’s sections reserved to the research lines focused on media study includes - along the horizontal axis – a combination of multiple sources based on:

- *traditional media* (press, radio, TV, cinema, theatre, literature, advertising, etc.), that can be diversified according to different communicative channels: textual (like in the case of the print media: newspapers, documents, magazines, books, etc.), figurative (like adverts, posters, maps, photos, artworks, vignettes, etc.), sonorous (like song, different genres of music), multi-channels (like films, spectacles, TV programs, etc.);
- *new media and the multiple digital worlds* (websites, social networks, blogs, chats, forum etc.).

Along the **vertical axis**, the research design table usually includes:

a) the main theoretical constructs, the paradigmatic elements of the Social Representation, theory under scrutiny, the specific analytical dimensions selected for the study, other theoretical perspectives considered intertwined;

b) objectives concerning each of the various constructs/paradigmatic elements/other theoretical perspectives/analytical dimensions chosen and their relationship with the core object of the study;
c) hypotheses concerning expected results regarding each of the various theoretical dimensions chosen and their relationship with the core object of the study, with the kind of the techniques used (based on oral, textual, figurative or behavioral channels, their degree of projectivity/structuration, etc.), with the data analysis strategy, with the population;
d) instruments and techniques, adopted or specifically designed for each of the main theoretical constructs and the specific analytical dimensions selected for the study;
e) multi-step data analysis strategies;
f) research population.

At the end this comprehensive modelling plan of the whole study, conceived while designing the research, may be integrated by the key results obtained at the three main levels of analyses (descriptive, intermediate and cross-level), confirming or redefining the expected results guided by the specific hypotheses formulated in advance.

The integrative perspective of the *modelling paradigmatic approach* includes verbal-, textual-, image- traditional- and New Media- based methodologies adopted for the study of social representations, is a research practice confirmed by the cluster 1 detected by the Descending Hierarchical Cluster Analysis performed by the IRAMUTEQ software on the corpus of sources related to the modeling approach. This cluster 1 interpreted as *Beyond the simple cumulative “multi-method and mixed method* includes words related to:

- “Projective and Structured Techniques in the Multi-Method (questionnaire, associative networks, technique, tool, scale, map, tour, grid, interview, survey instruments, test, observation, inventory, .....)
- Textual, Verbal, Iconic and Multi-media channels as data sources in the real and digital world (verbal, discourse, conversation, discussion, graphic, communication, campaign, advertise, advertisement, publicity, brand, message, multi-media channels, website, navigator, forum, social networks, .....)
- and data analyses ( package, software, polarity, neutrality, usability, factorial correspondence, facet, corpus .....)
- at the core of modelling approach and its articulation/differentiation of different constructs (structure, attitude, representation, communication, practice, familiarization, familiarity, anchor, nostalgia, diffusion, peripheral, risk .....)

Among other ad-hoc designed textual techniques, we can enlist:
- the “Associative Network” (de Rosa,2002b,2005a,2015c),
- “Self Identification Conceptual Network” (de Rosa & Holman,2011),
- “Involvement Level Scale” (de Rosa & Holman,2011),
- “Place-identity, Life-cycle Timeline and Place Evaluation Questionnaires” (de Rosa,2013c).
12.1. Associative Network

- Draw a line connecting the word in the middle, which means yourself with each of the words you think it should be connected. Don’t draw more than 16 lines, and also indicate with number from 1 to 5 the degree of identification (1 = minimum, 5 = maximum identification).

- The words you will leave unconnected express a lack of relationship between yourself and that dimension.

- Indicate with + or - whether the connection between yourself and the respective dimension is positive or negative.

12.2. Self Identification Conceptual Network
12.3. Involvement Level Scale

1. The timeline below represents your life from birth until today.
   Please divide it in segments that represent your childhood, adolescence, youth, maturity, and old age.
   Please indicate only the stages of your life until now.
   You decide the length of each segment according to the importance that each stage had in your life.

birth ................................................................................................................ today

2. Now please write down in order of importance the places most meaningful to you during each stage using the corresponding columns.
   We understand a "place or location" as every kind of physical or natural environment (ex. Parks, gardens), social environment with historical or artistic (ex. Monuments etc.) and related to habitation (ex. one’s own home, parents home, etc.) characteristics or simply places to which people are bound by affection.
   You need to consider these places without any space restrictions. That is to say these places can be either the whole environment or parts of them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHILDHOOD</th>
<th>ADOLESCENCE</th>
<th>YOUTH</th>
<th>MATURITY</th>
<th>OLD AGE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>10</td>
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</table>

3. Among all the places you indicated, please specify those you think are the most meaningful to you and give a short explanation why.

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12.4. Place-identity, life-cycle Timeline

Figure 12. Textual techniques
Image-based techniques include among others:

- Hand-drawings “of” and “as” a mad person compared to the hand-drawing of the “human figure”, also exploring similar iconic structures in the Popular Print and Artworks anchored into collective memory of “madness” (de Rosa, 1987, de Rosa & Bocci, 2013a)
- Hand-drawings of current, future and ideal family (de Rosa, D’Ambrosio & Aiello, 2014), also exploring Artworks on family ritual ceremonies, inter-generational and gender relations (de Rosa, D’Ambrosio & Aiello, 2014),
- the Body-map, as one of the techniques designed for a research on social representation of beauty and aesthetic surgery (de Rosa & Holman, 2011),
- Adverts as research stimulus or as iconic-textual material for content analysis (de Rosa, 2001; de Rosa & Smith, 1998, de Rosa & Bocci, 2013b, de Rosa & Holman, 2011),
- Photo language in “individual” and “focus group” setting, using as iconic-stimulus the most media-diffused images of the 9/11 collective traumatic event (de Rosa, 2005b, 2007)
Instructions for the EuroSKYcompass technique:

We are interested in finding out about your personal image of Europe rather than your geographical or political knowledge.

The map printed on the left represents the perimeter of what constitutes geographical Europe, including both Eastern and Western countries.

The points on the map indicate the position of the capital city of each country.

We would like you to:

- draw the borders of each of the EC Member States;
- write the name of each EC Member State within the border you have drawn and the name of its capital city (capitals are down on the map by black squares);
- indicate, with an arrow, the areas subject to social or ethnic conflict.
Finally, among Web-based techniques there has been outstanding research on social representations focusing on:

- Website analysis through Website usability and Thematic Analysis concentrating on diverse aspects, for example institutional stems and commercial logos (de Rosa & Bocci, 2014; Bocci, de Rosa, & Dryjanska, 2016 forthcoming; de Rosa, Bocci & Picone, 2013),
- Internet forum textual analysis (Analysis of conversations, photos and videos on Social Networks) (de Rosa, Fino & Bocci, 2014, 2016 forthcoming; de Rosa & Holman, 2011; de Rosa & Bocci, 2014),

**Figure 13. Image-based techniques**

- Benetton Campaign’s Adverts as Iconic-stimulus material
- 9/11 most media diffused photos as Iconic-stimulus material
Conclusion

The modelling approach is a paradigmatic option specific to the research field inspired by the theory of social representations (de Rosa, 2013a, 2014). It is aimed at grasping the core value of the theory as a unifying meta-theory of the social sciences, by operationalizing the investigation about any object of this supra-disciplinary field in multi-methodological research designs. Such designs should be fully justified and adequately complex, depending on the multi-theoretical perspective adopted and the variety of constructs selected, as functions of specific hypotheses also concerning the interaction between the nature of diverse techniques (structured and projective, textual and figurative, verbal or behavioral, etc.), the choice of the data analysis strategies and the expected results.

The need for the modelling approach to research inspired by the Social Representation can be seen as a road map for the integration of the different classical paradigms. It has been conceived in order to empirically detect the articulation of social representations with its different constitutive dimensions and other socio-psychological constructs (also anchored in diverse multi-theoretical perspectives, like for example: multi-dimensional identities, place-identity and identity theories, collective memory, social emotions, etc.), selected in function of the target research object investigated within and by the specific communicative contexts/channels.
References


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An Investigation of User Perception and Behavior for Robotic Exercise Coach on Different Age Groups

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Hsiao-Chen You, National Taichung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan

Abstract
With the advancement of robot technology, service robots for home use have gradually entered people’s daily life. However, what is the acceptance and expectation from people for such innovative products and services? Will it be different among different family members of different ages? This study aims to compare the user perception and behavior on robotic exercise coach among different age groups through experimental design. By applying the Wizard of Oz method in the experiment, 100 participants of different age groups were recruited and instructed to interact with a robotic exercise coach, which was remotely controlled by one of our researchers. The researchers recorded the experiment and evaluated the performance of each participant during the experiment. After each session, a five-point likert scale questionnaire was used to collect the participant’s subjective ratings on the interaction with the robot. Finally, through statistical analysis of experimental data the influence of user’s age on the robot interaction was inspected; in addition, suggestions for the robot interaction design for users of different ages for the future were also proposed.

Keywords: Human-robot interaction, Embodiment, Exercise coach, Wizard of Oz method
Introduction

The time of intelligent robots has come, are we ready for that? Ericsson Consumer Lab (2014) had included “Internet Expected Everywhere” and “Domestic Robots” in its 10 Hot Consumer Trends reports for the years 2015-2020. This suggests that the business circles are optimistic about the business opportunities arising from the application of hi-tech for promoting human health and improving quality of life. For example, the Pepper (Figure 1), a robot developed by Soft Bank, has been so far widely used in stores and exhibition halls. Consumers can communicate with this robot through language and limbs movement. The Pepper has on its chest a touch screen with which people can set up the robot for such jobs as entertaining customers, presenting products, and interacting with consumers.

In recent years, the interaction between humankind and robots has been making progress all the time. In scientific studies, Human-Robot Interaction (HRI) has gone beyond industrial applications to applications in the service sector (Cynthia, 2000). Robots have been used more and more in daily life, including elderly care, medical care, babysitting, and education (Fong, Nourbakhsh & Dautenhahn, 2003). Their application mode varies in different fields. It is a trend for future research whether robots can be put up with and accepted by all family members. In a study by Powers, Kiesler, Fussell & Torrey (2007), physical and virtual robots served the role of health adviser and interacted with subjects. The study results showed physical robots left more positive social feel to the subjects than virtual robots did. In light of the above-mentioned studies, the perception left on and the behaviors provoked in the subjects by HRI of physical robots are a topic worth exploration in HRI research field.

According to a study by Syrdal (2015), which probed into the perception left and behaviors provoked in human subjects by HRI in specific scenarios, the establishment of an interaction scheme is indispensable for HRI. The experiment attempted to identify potential users and corresponding interaction schemes and revealed that during the early development stage of prototype, it is possible to identify potential users and interaction schemes by scenario setting and conditional experiments. In light of that, this study establishes a health coach robot that is capable of providing health information service, in order to determine whether it will leave different perception and provoke different behaviors in subjects of different age groups by virtue of interactive schemes for health consultation.
Related Works

Fong et al. (2003) in their study of Socially Interactive Robots argued that a social robot is similar to our colleagues, partners, and assistants, which means it has to be capable of receive information from human or the environment and make social response in an interactive scenario. The study also mentioned that social robots have to be provided with better social sensing module.

Cory (2008) in a study of health advisor robots investigated the long-term interaction between human and a robot that can provide weight reduction consultation and take records. The results indicated that the subjects preferred the interaction with the Autom(Figure 2), a physical robot, over the interaction with a computer agent and via paper logs.

Matsusaka (2009) investigated the TAIZO (Figure 3), a rehabilitation and exercise robot which demonstrated physical exercises in various operation modes in collaboration with a human demonstrator, and determined whether there was any significant difference in subjects’ operation mistakes/fulfillment; opinions on the robot’s ease of use, enjoyment, expectation; and willingness to use the robot. It is a research direction of our future studies to determine whether robots can deliver better service and feeling in the field of health.

Wizard of Oz method has been used in experiments that involve prospective technology to evaluate subjects’ behavioral response to the technology as an attempt to identify potential users and application scenarios for the technology (Dautenhahn, 2014). The subjects during such experiments may feel that the robot is autonomous, but in fact it is controlled by the experimenter. Fasola & Matarić (2013) in their experiment used the Wizard of Oz method to explore the interaction between a health coach robot and senior subjects and to help them do exercises.

Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) scale was originally proposed by Venkatesh (2003) for determining whether a technology product is acceptable in its working environment by people. Later, Heerink (2010) proposed a modified UTAUT scale and used it to determine whether a social robot would be accepted by seniors. The original and the modified scales were compared and it was found that in addition to the items of the original UTAUT scale for use in working environment, several items, including faith, perceived enjoyment, perceived sociability, perceived adaptability, and social presence, had to be added to the
modified scale, in order to determine the acceptability of the robot in seniors.

**Methodology**

This study aims to investigate the interactive behaviors and emotions of users of a health coach robot in different age groups. The experiment was carried out in two stages and subjects were divided into 4 age groups. The first stage involved health consultation tasks and the second stage involved limbs coordination exercise tasks. Once both tasks had been completed, the subjects would be requested to complete the scale and take an interview.

1. Variables of the study and design of the scale

The control variable in this experiment design was the subjects' age groups. There were 4 age groups, i.e. Youth (aged 18-27), Mature (aged 28-38), Middle-aged (aged 39-49), Senior (aged 50 or above). Dependent variables were measured with the modified UTAUT scale of Heerink (2010) and a self-subjective scale developed by Powers (2007), in which the subjects’ subjective feeling was divided into two aspects, *Psychological/Emotional Status* and *Attitude towards the Physical Robot*. The two aspects were subdivided into 10 factors (see Table 1), i.e. anxiety, perceive ease of use, response attitude, perceived enjoyment, perceived sociability, perceived adaptability, perceived usefulness, social influence, social presence, and Trust, and designed into a 5-point Likert scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Response</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Dependent Variables Measured</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological/</td>
<td>Frame of</td>
<td>Anxiety(4 questions), Response Emotional Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>Perceive Ease of Use (4 questions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coenesthesia</td>
<td>Perceived Sociability(4 questions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude Towards</td>
<td>Responsive</td>
<td>Social Influence(3 questions), Trust(3 questions), the Robot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social Presence(5 questions), Perceived Adaptability (3 questions), Perceived Usefullness(3 questions)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Experiment Subjects

A total of 100 subjects were recruited in this study, covering the afore-mentioned 4 age groups. Every participant would receive a $50 bonus card for remuneration upon their completion of the experiment tasks.
3. Research instruments

Layout of the laboratory was as shown in Figure 4. The research instruments used were as follows:

(1) Robot Alpha 1S
Alpha 1S, as shown in Figure 5, is a program-controlled robot developed by UBTech and capable of taking movement and speech commands from a mobile phone. It was used in this study for its operation flexibility and with Wizard of Oz method for delivering a more realistic interactive experience to the subjects.

(2) Laptop computers
Two computers, installed with Skype and networked, were placed in the laboratory and the observation room for the experimenter’s convenient remote monitoring of the subjects’ response.

(3) ASUS tablet PC
A tablet PC, installed with controlling APP for the Alpha 1S, was used for the experimenter’s convenient manipulating of the robot’s movement and speech.

(4) Camcorder
A camcorder, placed at a corner of the laboratory, was used to record the experiment.

(5) Microphone
A microphone, placed behind the robot, was used to pick up the subject’s speeches so that the experimenter can hear the subject’s response more clearly.

4. Experiment Design and Workflow

The experiment cost 10 to 15 minutes. Its workflow included: (1) Explanations of the experiment workflow and main points; (2) The robot’s self-introduction; (3) Health consultation questions; (4) Limbs coordination exercises; (5) Scale completion. Once the experiment began, the experimenter would explain to the subject how to interact with the robot and would outline the tasks to the subject, then the experimenter would return to the observation room, where he would use a tablet PC to control the robot. The robot would first introduce itself to the subject and guide the subject to the task performance stage. A total of 2 tasks would be performed, the first task would be 5 “health consultation questions”, as shown in Table 2; the second task would be 4 questions on “limbs coordination exercises”, as shown in Table 3. Upon completion of all tasks, the subject would be asked to fill out a self-subjective scale.
Table 2. Health consultation questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The health consultation questions were in the following order</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Limbs coordination exercises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The limbs coordination exercises were in the following order</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Data Analysis**

Experiment data of the 100 subjects were collected and subjected to factor analysis and confidence analysis for determining the validity and confidence of the questions in the questionnaire’s aspects; the significance of every individual aspect to the factors was tested by one-way ANOVA. Finally, significant difference between age groups in terms of the factors was tested by Scheffe’s post hoc procedure.

1. Sample structure

A total of 100 subjects, 38 males, 62 females, were recruited in the study. Age distribution of the subjects was as shown in Table 4.
Table 4. Age distribution of the subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Youth</td>
<td>18 - 27</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature</td>
<td>28 - 38</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-aged</td>
<td>39 - 49</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>≥50</td>
<td>25</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2. Test of the questionnaire’s validity

First, the 10 factors of the scale were subjected to Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin(KMO) test and Bartlett’s sphericity test to determine their suitability for factor analysis. These factors had to have a KMO-measure greater than 0.7 and a p-value less than 0.05 in Bartlett’s sphericity test. 8 factors, as shown in Table 5, remained after unsuitable items had been culled out.

Table 5. KMO and p-value of the questionnaire’s factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>KMO-measure</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Enjoyment</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Sociability</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Adaptability</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Usefullness</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influence</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Presence And Reality</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Test of the questionnaire’s confidence

The remaining 8 factors of the questionnaire were assessed by their Cronbach's alpha to determine the confidence of the questionnaire. According to DeVellis & Dancer(1991), a Cronbach's $\alpha$ in the range of 0.65 ~ 0.70 is acceptable; a Cronbach's $\alpha$ in the range of 0.70 ~ 0.80 suggests high confidence; a Cronbach's $\alpha$ greater than 0.80 indicates optimal confidence. Some questions would be culled out in order to increase a factor’s Cronbach's $\alpha$. The Cronbach's $\alpha$ values after the culling out were as shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Cronbach's alpha of the factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>0.791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Enjoyment</td>
<td>0.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Sociability</td>
<td>0.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Adaptability</td>
<td>0.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Usefullness</td>
<td>0.854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influence</td>
<td>0.813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Presence And Reality</td>
<td>0.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>0.748</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Analysis of the subjects’ interactive behaviors and emotion by age groups

In order to determine whether an independent variable was significant to individual dependent variables, one-way ANOVA was carried out. First, the mean p-values of the independent variables to the factors were listed in the following Table 7 to determine whether there was any significant difference between the factors.

As the experiment’s age groups had different number of subjects (28/23/24/25), Scheffe’s post hoc procedure was used to test the difference. As can be seen in Table 7, significant difference (p < 0.05) was identified in the factors of Perceived Enjoyment, Perceived Adaptability, Social Presence and Reality.

Table 7. Factor analysis of the age groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Youth</th>
<th>Mature</th>
<th>Middle-aged</th>
<th>Senior</th>
<th>P -value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Enjoyment</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.034*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Sociability</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Adaptability</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.016*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Usefullness</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influence</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Presence and Reality</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Statistical analysis results of HRI revealed that subjects in Senior group had higher Perceived Enjoyment and Perceived Adaptability ratings than subjects in Mature group. It is generally believed that senior people may repulse or misfit robots. In our interactive environment with the health coach robot, however, subjects in the Senior group yielded the highest rating in terms of the enjoyment arising from HRI and the response to adaptability to change.

On the other hand, statistics showed subjects in the Senior group had relatively higher perceived Social Presence and Reality than subjects in the Youth group and the Mature group, suggesting that compared to people in their young/prime days, people in their old age may tend to treat the robot as a true human being or a living thing.

It was originally hoped that the experiment design and interview would help to find out the subjects’ opinions after their interaction with the robot. However, the subjects proposed basically indiscernible suggestions regardless of their age groups. Generally speaking, most people included “excessive joint noise”, “less prompt reply speed”, and “less clear-cut demonstration of limbs coordination exercises” as the robot’s shortcomings and mentioned “an acceptable partner”, “a fashionable pet to have”, and “the ability to give health advices” as the robot’s merits. However, the experiment at this stage could not give any advices on the interaction with the robot for subjects of any specific age groups.
The interview revealed that subjects in the Youth group and the Mature group were curious about the robot’s internal program and actual functions; subjects in the Middle-aged group and the Senior group on the other hand were more intrigued by the robot’s appearance. It is suggested that physiognomical questions such as appearance, functions, voice, and impression should be included as topics of the interview in order to yield more discriminating opinions.

Acknowledgement

Special thanks to Ministry of Science and Technology for its subsidy(MOST 105-2221-E-025-001), and to Mr. Yu-Cheng Yang, for his generous assistance to the planning and analysis of this study.
References


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A pilot study of Mobile Media Engagement: The Effect of Context on Consumer Response to Advertising

Shadi Badawood, The University of Hull, UK

Abstract

The arrival of rich media has changed the way that people consume news and interact with it. Smartphones features drive user value and satisfaction. These features can lead to further mobile user engagement. Nowadays, smartphone news apps are considered one of the main ways for accessing news, and they have higher level of engagement than traditional media. As well as, media engagement plays a major role in advertising effectiveness and the consumer’s response to advertising. This research proposal intends to redefine engagement concept in a way that represents knowledge differences (preferences) and dependencies (consequences) in consuming media content. The effect of context and subjective experience in media are discussed widely, and both of them affect the engagement consequences in the context of mobile news consumption.

As the research aims to explore the impact of media engagement on consumer’s response to advertising, a subjective approach has been adopted in this study. The research method is a qualitative in order to understand experiences of individuals within the context of smartphone news apps, based on the interpretivist perspective. A pilot study has been implemented in order to test the accuracy and precision of the collection data instruments. This study provides different perspectives that might open new horizons for academics and practitioners in the advertising industry.

Keywords: Engagement, Media, Mobile News, Advertising, Mobile Apps, Smartphones, Subjective Experience, In-App Advertising.
Introduction

The smartphone has created a new face of engagement, and extended our access points for news and information. This encouraged advertisers and consumers from different sectors to benefit from the functionality and interactivity of smartphones in general (Kim and Han, 2014). Likewise, news “apps” such as newspapers, magazines and TVs news apps engage consumers frequently, and provide a new media context for advertisers, as consumers’ responsiveness might be higher when they are engaged with media (Aaker and Brown, 1972).

A number of studies have discussed the topic of media engagement and advertising effectiveness, which has many antecedents and various consequences, especially when consumers experience a particular content that they can share and talk about, about consumes their time and inspires their lives (Calder and Malthouse, 2008; Chang et al., 2010; Coulter, 1998; Dahlén, 2005; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002; Zanjani et al., 2011). In this regard, scholars have suggested that ad might be more effective if consumers are engaged with the media context, which is considered an important situational factor in advertising effectiveness (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002; Norris and Colman, 1993). This would highlight the importance of comprehending the impact of media engagement on advertising effectiveness, which is critical for both advertisers and publishers. In this regard, previous studies have discussed the relationship between engagement and advertising effectiveness in traditional media from different perspectives (Bronner and Neijens, 2006; Calder and Malthouse, 2008; Dahlén, 2005; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002; Tipps et al., 2006), but few studies have discussed it in the online context (Calder et al., 2009; Zanjani et al., 2011). This research investigates how media engagement impacts on consumer’s response to advertising in the context of smartphone news “apps”. The research question can be answered from two different perspectives, which are considered the main research objectives: 1) to explore how consumers experience mobile media news content when using smartphone “apps”. 2) To explore how consumers respond to advertising when using smartphone media news “apps”. 3) To investigate how smartphone media characteristics affect consumer’s response to advertising. 4) To explore why people engage with smartphone news apps.

This paper is divided into three sections; the first section discusses the significance of the study; the second section contains a literature review and the third section presents the method that has been used in this research and the last part is the pilot study and its results.

Rational And Significance Of The Study

Significance of the study

The Internet Advertising Bureau (IAB) reports that the total global mobile advertising spend increased by 29% from 2012 to 2013, and is expected to reach 18.6 billion by the end of 2014 (eMarketer, 2014). The advertising industry makes a major contribution to the UK economy by increasing consumption and allows new competitors offering innovative products; also it is moving online rapidly. As media convergence is breaking down most advertising categories and creating new consequences. In fact, this makes the analysis of advertising and its macro-effects
more complex (Albert, 2011). A report by the Advertising Association (A A) states that “Advertising is a vital enabler in the economy, underpinning at least £100 billion of UK GDP” (Deloitte, 2012). Besides, advertising industry is accelerating the growth of the digital economy, as it plays a critical role in developing the Internet by providing funding for free search activities, social media, instant messaging and the majority of websites (Deloitte, 2012). With these indicators of the digital transition in advertising industry, the UK smartphone audience is estimated at 37.5 million users with a population of 63.9 million (Statista, 2014; TradingEconomics, 2014).

A study found that news apps, rather than mobile websites, are often the main way of accessing news, and almost 50% of smartphone users mainly use apps in the UK as presented in figure.1 (Newman, 2014). Recently, UK smartphone apps users exceeded 34 million in 2014, and the number is increasing dramatically (Statista, 2014). So, this shows the power and importance of apps among other mediums. It actually attracts advertisers to invest in mobile apps and news apps specifically. Additionally, the majority of smartphone users prefer to receive ads via “apps” rather than any other medium such as: mobile internet, mobile video, online games and SMS (Nielsen, 2013a). Intriguingly, almost three-quarters (72%) of mobile ad impressions in the UK come from apps, rather than mobile web (Drum, 2014). Accordingly, it can be said that the smartphone apps will take mobile media to a higher level of engagement as users rely on them most of time (Bergstrom and Wadbring, 2012).

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1 – Accessing news via mobile apps and browser in the UK, Source: (Newman, 2014)**

**Research Gap**

There is a debate about the concept of engagement between academics and practitioners (Gambetti and Graffigna, 2010b). Despite the wide use of the term “engagement”, the theoretical meaning and foundations are still underexplored in the online context (Brodie et al., 2013). Therefore, this study intends to re-define the engagement concept in a way that represents differences in knowledge (preferences) and consequences between consumers in using media applications via “smartphones”. At the same time, consumer response to Internet advertising is unfortunately low,
which may be due to the problems of ad clutter and avoidance, which advertisers are therefore seeking to avoid (Cho, 2004; Kelly et al., 2010). The media context is a potential solution, as it affects consumer’s response and reaction to ads (Calder et al., 2009). Moreover, the expansion of online advertising has redesigned the advertising industry and changed the strategies of publishers and advertisers, especially for “mobile” applications (Evans, 2009). Besides, mobile advertising via smartphones has created a new face of engagement, and encouraged advertisers and consumers from different sectors to benefit from the functionality and interactivity of smartphones (Kim and Han, 2014). Consequently, there is a need to explore how media engagement and experiences can make mobile advertisements more effective (Calder et al., 2009).

**Literature Review**

**Defining Engagement**

The word engagement is rather a controversial concept; there is a debate about the concept itself. Practitioners in the advertising field have identified the concept of engagement as a major factor that shows what consumers like and prefer when they respond to communications (Gillin, 2007; Swedowsky, 2009; Wang, 2006). The concept of engagement is associated with consumer experiences in the media context, and it reflects the level of interactivity and involvement (Abdul-Ghani et al., 2011; Maslach et al., 2001).

Mainly, the emergence of new advertising formats and mediums encouraged advertisers to understand how and why advertising works (Rappaport, 2007). This has raised the need for defining “involvement” and “engagement” in the media context, as mentioned before, but these terms have different definitions and overlap with other advertising concepts. Some scholars stated that involvement; relevance and engagement are mere synonyms, but academics and professionals disagree on the use of terms. For this reason, a recent study defined all forms of consumer involvement, engagement, and perceived relevance as dimensions of overall advertising involvement (Spielmann and Richard, 2013). Notably, engagement can take many different forms, as online consumers use most of the online features such as downloading, reading, sharing, watching, or listening to a specific media content (Evans, 2009). Furthermore, Marc (1966) defines engagement as “how disappointed someone would be if a magazine were no longer published”. Also, Watkins (1991) stated that “engagement is the degree to which various role behaviours are actually practised or engaged” (Watkins et al., 1991). In the last few years, the Advertising Research Foundation has identified the concept of engagement as “turning on a prospect to a brand idea enhanced by the surrounding media context” (ARF, 2006). This definition describes media engagement in particular and has linked the context with engagement. However, Rappaport (2007, p.138), believes that engagement focuses on “two key ideas: high relevance of brands to consumers and the development of an emotional connection between consumers and brands”.

74
Theoretical foundation of engagement

Building a theoretical perspective of engagement needs a consideration of the three main dimensions: cognitive, emotional and behavioural. Engagement applies to a consumer’s connection with media (Calder et al., 2009), advertising (Higgins and Scholer, 2009), entertainment (Scott and Craig-Lees, 2010) or brands (Bowden, 2009; Sprott et al., 2009). The literature review indicates the importance of the multidimensional (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural) perspective of engagement. However, some definitions focused on a single aspect of engagement. The behavioural dimension is the most dominant in a number of engagement definitions, while other definitions focus more on two dimensions (i.e. cognitive and emotional). But, most previous studies do not reflect the rich conceptual scope of engagement. Additionally, scholars have yet to consider the antecedents and consequences of engagement. It is very important that the engagement concept should be reconceptualised and taken from an emergent theme in the literature to a more mature concept. Moreover, confirming past researchers claim (although limited in number) that engagement consists of cognitive, affective and participative dimensions will hopefully provide supporting evidence of its complexity.

Consumer’s response to advertising

Ad/Context Congruency

This concept was built based on the Congruity theory; which was formally articulated with the statement, "Changes in evaluation are always in the direction of increased congruity with the existing frame of reference" (Osgood and Tannenbaum, 1955). Actually, it describes some attitudinal patterns of the relationship between two or more dimensions. In this regard, ad-context congruency is defined as “the degree to which advertising material is thematically similar to the editorial content of the media vehicle” (Zanjani et al., 2011). Most previous studies of both traditional media and the web have found positive effects of ad-context congruency. In fact, the similarity between advertisement and context affects consumers’ response to the ad (Moore et al., 2005; Oates et al., 2002). Also, Choi and Rifon (2002) explored the role of source credibility in determining Web advertising effectiveness, and found ad-context congruency is associated with positive attitudes towards the advertised brand, and it has a significant effect on both interest and purchase intention.

Zanjani et al. (2011) examined the relationship between ad-context congruity and ad memory in an e-magazine context. They found that consumer’s response to banner ads is better when there is relevance between a site’s content and the banner ad. The result of their research showed that ad–context congruity increases ad recognition for those readers who seek information. However, Ha and McCann (2008) established a theoretical basis to combine the effects of congruity in online and offline contexts. Their study proposed an integrated model of advertising clutter that addresses the unique characteristics of the online media environment. They suggested that online readers who seek information are “goal-directed” and they do not want to be disrupted by ads. Also, Furnham et al. (2002) agree with the previous point of view, as they stated that placing ads in irrelevant media contexts might affect ad recall negatively.
Context Appreciation and Ad Response

Context appreciation is defined as “the extent to which persons find a particular context interesting or boring and would like to read a similar article or watch a similar program again” (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). There are two points of view regarding context appreciation. Some scholars claim that context appreciation is associated with the viewer’s mood, which might affect the ad processing negatively, and others believe that it affects the ad positively (Coulter, 1998; Dahlén, 2005; Danaher and Mullarkey, 2003).

Mackie and Worth (1989) utilized the cognitive capacity theory to explain how positive mood limits the recipient’s incoming information (Mackie and Worth, 1989). In other words, people might avoid ads when they are in a positive mood. In contrast, Lee and Sternthal (1999) provided an explanation based on the hedonic contingency theory, stating that people in a positive mood interact with the ad as they expect that the result will be favourable (Lee and Mason, 1999). With these contradictory findings and theories, Norris and Colman (1992) provided a point of view in between the two previous explanations. They argued that radio and TV ads cannot be avoided, but print ads can be skipped based on various considerations such as mood and context appreciation and the relationship between them (Norris and Colman, 1993). However, De Pelsmacker (2002) found that context appreciation has a strong influence on television advertising, especially when targeting older consumers. He believes that media planners should consider making contexts and ads more matched or contrasting.

Subjective experience

Several papers addressed subjective experience in the media context from different angles, such as the enjoyable, utilitarian, socialising and inspirational (Vorderer et al., 2004). In fact, it is considered a major aspect of engagement, and it differs from one person to another. Some previous studies discussed the behavioural and experiential aspects of TV viewing, reading magazines and listening to the radio (Kim, 2015 and Kubey, 1990). Most of these papers incorporated the experience element into different media contexts, and showed how this element plays an important role in engagement.

Engagement and advertising effectiveness

There is no specific definition of advertising effectiveness. However, the term has been associated with various aspects in marketing and advertising literature such as consumers’ response to ads, recognition and ad recall. It reflects the extent to which people remember the advertising message with in a particular context (Malthouse et al., 2007; Norris and Colman, 1992). Corvi and Bonera (2010) tried to define advertising effectiveness as “the extent to which advertising generates a certain desired effect”. This desired effect takes different forms (e.g., attitudes, recall and recognition of ads).

Theoretically and practically, media context is a vital factor in discussing engagement and advertising effectiveness, as it is considered a situational factor, and defined here as “the characteristics of the content of the medium in which an ad is inserted” such as an article in a news website (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). It is important for
advertisers to consider media context, as some types of context might be more appropriate for a particular ad than others. Also, De Pelsmacker et al. (2002: 50) asserted that “the effectiveness of advertising may be greatly improved by embedding it in the appropriate media context”.

The previous discussion provides different explanations of why engagement should affect reaction to advertising and might increase its effectiveness. Besides, Kamins (1991) and De Pelsmacker (2002) have provided a comprehensive understanding of how media context affects consumers’ response to the ad.

**Theoretical framework**

The proposed theoretical framework of this study interlinks the main concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of how media engagement affects advertising effectiveness in the smartphone media context. Moreover, it reflects the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions of the research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The proposed conceptual framework (see figure.2) is developed based on three theoretical explanations. The first one, explaining the antecedents to engagement, is the theoretical foundation of the uses and gratifications theory. The theory explains how use of media for various purposes evokes subjective responses, e.g. utilitarian or hedonic experiences, which lead to deeper engagement. However, information is associated with use of media for entertainment.

The second is congruency theory, which describes the attitudinal patterns of the relationship between media engagement and advertising, based on relevance or thematic similarity. The third is the context appreciation concept, which plays the same role as congruency theory, but focuses more on the role of the viewer’s mood in the consumers’ response to ads (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002; Katz et al., 1973).

![Figure.2 – The theoretical framework of the study](image-url)
Research Method

Qualitative approach

Mainly, qualitative methods were used in this research in order to gain deep understanding of how consumers use news apps via smartphones and how engagement with news apps content affects consumers’ response to advertising. Qualitative methods provide a depth of understanding of how people experience an object and interact with it.

Data collection

Using qualitative methods means that this research will be generating data that is primarily in the form of words that reflect how people experience things, such as news apps via smartphones. Some of the most common data collection methods are interviews and group discussions. In order to explore the media engagement topic, a semi-structured interview technique will be used to understand how engagement with smartphone media context might affect consumer response to ads. It is a very useful way in collecting attitudinal data in interpretivist approach (Barriball and While, 1994). The method is distinguished by the flexibility, as it does not restrict participants with standardized questions formats (Saunders et al., 2011). In fact, interviews are very similar to everyday conversations and they are focused on the researcher’s needs for data. Semi-structured interviews will be used to explore participants’ experiences deeply and to clarify interviewees’ meanings (Drever, 1995).

Pilot Study

Pilot studies play an important role in social research, but they can be misused, mistreated and misrepresented. In qualitative research studies, researchers often use some or all of their pilot data as part of the main study. The analysis of qualitative data is often progressive, and the way that interviewer use to collect data is considered an accumulative work and experience. In this study, each of the research questions is used to structure the presentation of findings derived from qualitative data collection methods. For question 1 the responses have been presented by News apps platforms. Mainly, during the analysis it was noticed that the existence of impact of consumer’s response to advertising based on the news context or platform. For the remaining questions responses are presented thematically and points that emerged are illustrated by example quotations. The anonymity of respondents is maintained by assigning each a reference code (N1 – N5) and responses from all participants have been quoted to ensure an appropriate representation of views.

Practically, I have browsed through all transcripts, as whole, and written some important notes of my first impressions regarding the responses of participants. Then I have labelled relevant words, phrases and sentences. Mainly, the codes have been created based on wheat have mentioned and repeated in several places. Also, I have considered what interviewee have explicitly states that It is important.

I decided which codes are the most important, and created categories by bringing several codes together. So, the important codes have been grouped together and
categorised. Then, I have labelled the categories based on how they are connected to each other.

3 college students have been interviewed. They have been news apps users for approximately two-three years and on average “used apps” over 3 news apps. The most common types of news apps were sky sport, BBC, sky news and The Guardian. Most respondents spend 30min- 2 hours per day on the news app that they use.

Findings

The analyses were summarized to describe the processes of the use of smartphone news apps, and how it impacts consumers’ response to advertising. Different themes were connected based on the informants’ explanation. The informants explicitly explained the outcomes of smartphone uses in daily lives, including their feelings and specific behaviour changes and cognitive thinking in everyday living. Further, the informants explained how these changes in daily lives influenced the consumers’ experience and their reaction to ads.

In this part, I will describe the categories and how they are connected. About 10 main categories have been shaped during the analysis of the pilot study. In addition, the analysis of the study was associated with the main objectives, and each object has been divided into a number of interview questions. Thus, answers also have been arranged based on the objectives.

Key research findings

As a result of these three interviews and in answer to the overarching research question, five main key research findings emerged and will be discussed in this chapter.

These findings are:
- News apps have an impact on advertising effectiveness.
- The features of news apps increase the level of media engagement.
- The media context can serve as a cognitive prime that guides the attention and determines the users’ interpretation of the ads.
- User experience and relevance are the most important triggers of media engagement on smartphones.
- Relevancy between advertisement and content play a major role in consumer’s response to advertising.
Table. 1 – Types of smartphone news consumers by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Users by age</th>
<th>20-28</th>
<th>26-38</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Users characteristics</td>
<td>- paying for news apps does not affect their acceptance to see an ad.</td>
<td>- Some of them do not expect to see an ad if they paid for news app.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Likes to use apps more than web browser.</td>
<td>- uses apps and web browser.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Uses news app for more than an hour every day.</td>
<td>- Uses news app for an hour or less every day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the pilot study

1st Objective: Understanding consumer’s interest in news (cognitive)

The data collected on the first research objective have been grouped according to the interview schedule and are presented as following:

Participants explained that the word “News” means for them more that information. For example, one participant mentioned

“The news means information, events and entertainment” (N1)

But participant N2 said

“in my opinion the word news means informative materials that are updated from time to time based on the surrounding environment” (N2)

At the sometime participant N3 focuses on the word “latest” as a feature for news item.

“The latest information for anything from trivial to major event from politics, science.. etc.” (N3)

They believe that news consumption satisfies their needs and inner desire. This understanding motivates them to access news frequently using different ways especially the smartphone application due to the ease of use everywhere.

2nd Objective: To explore how consumers experience mobile media news content when using smartphone “apps”

The data collected on the second research objective have been grouped according to the interview schedule and are presented as following:
Participants emphasized that accessing news via smartphone applications is so convenient for them. One of them said:

“In fact I use my smartphone frequently, and it is so convenient for me” (N1)

Some of the participants trust the branded news apps such BBC Sport and Sky Sport, and they describe as reliable and always updated.

“In fact, sky sports news and the BBC Sport are considered the mainstream channels, and they are very popular, quite reliable and always gain updated all the time” (N1)

3rd Objective: To explore how consumers respond to advertising when using smartphone news “apps”. (Behavioural & Emotional)

The data collected on the third research objective have been grouped according to the interview schedule and are presented as following:

Some of the participants believe that the response to advertising might be subconscious. Despite the fact that they ignore ads and consider them annoying, but they recognise the design and content of the ads in the news app.

“I think advertising is very annoying, I want to watch my videos and some of the articles. Actually, I am not interested that much in watching ads, so I find it very rude thing!” (N2)

Participant N3 agreed with N2, and added:

“I do not expect to see an ad if I paid for the app. but, it depends sometimes on the advertising as well. Some of the ads are attractive than others”(N3)

For some consumers, it is obvious that paying for the app means reading the news without the interest of seeing an advertisement. However participant No.3 and N.1 agreed that the relevancy and matching between ad and content encourage them to interact with advertisement in different ways.

4th Objective: To understand how media engagement relates to advertising effectiveness.

The data collected on the sixth research objective have been grouped according to the interview schedule:

Participant N1 described advertisements in the news app as irritating. But when I asked him if you recognise a particular ad in the app, he said:

“Well, I do remember FIFA advertisement in the news app, I remember how the famous player messy stands and the t-shirt colours. I really liked the quality of the ad as I am interested in these kinds of games” (N1)

Mainly, recognising the ad in this context is considered one of advertising effectiveness forms. Participant N3 response shows how consumer in some cases
respond to the advertisement unconsciously, as long as he/she remember it. Moreover, the participant N1 explained how the technical features of smartphone might affect the response to advertising by saying that:

“One of the things that facilitated the remembrance of advertisement is that smartphone has a small screen, and the advertisement could be half or part of this screen. Simply, you cannot miss it” (N1)

Participant N1 was looking at his smartphone and describing the details of how he interacts with the device and content through the small screen.

Comparing news apps with other media platforms such as radio or TV in terms of consumer’s response to advertising, Participant No.3 remember some different advertisements in social networks rather than news apps, as she spends more time on social networks apps than the news.

“Well, I would remember some ads in social networks as I follow some accounts that relate to my interests” (N3)

5th Objective: To explore why people engage with smartphone news apps.

Participant No.1 emphasised on the ease of use and the features that differentiate news apps from other news platforms.

“I always feel connected to my smartphone all day. The ease of use and variety of news that I find in my news apps encourage me to check it frequently and explore the news items by myself within the app” (N1)

Participant No 3 does not have different opinion from Participant No.1, as she believes that social media apps also considered a motivation to keep her attached to her smartphone. As well as she considers the social media apps a source for some news, especially celebrity news via Instagram app.

“I feel that I am connected to my smartphone all time as I use it for many things. Some of these things are social media and news apps. Also, I check the news apps at least 3 times a day” (N3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Three main different users categories to access news via smartphones</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>News apps only</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>News apps and web-browser</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Apple’s Newsstand</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Users categories to access news via smartphones
### Table 3 Summary of the findings based on the main objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understanding consumer’s interest in news</th>
<th>Engagement Construct</th>
<th>Responses summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To explore how consumers experience mobile media news content when using smartphone “apps”. (Behavioural &amp; Emotional)</td>
<td>Behavioural (do) &amp; Emotional (feel)</td>
<td>Participants emphasized that accessing news via smartphone applications is so convenient for them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To understand how media engagement relates to advertising effectiveness.</td>
<td>Emotional (feel) &amp; Cognitive (Think)</td>
<td>Mainly, recognising the ad in this context is considered one of advertising effectiveness forms. Participants’ response shows how consumer in some cases respond to the advertisement unconsciously. This is some of the advertising effectiveness forms, as long as he/she remember it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explore why people engage with smartphone news apps.</td>
<td>Cognitive (Think)</td>
<td>The ease of use and the features that differentiate news apps from other news platforms, in addition to the technical features of smartphones.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously, the analysis of the pilot study has illustrated the matching between the proposed theoretical framework of this research and the findings. As the theoretical framework is divided into three theoretical explanations, the first one, explains how use of media for various purposes evokes subjective responses, e.g. utilitarian or hedonic experiences, which lead to deeper engagement. However, information is
associated with use of media for entertainment, based on U&G theory and adaptive social constructive theory.

The second describes the attitudinal patterns of the relationship between media engagement and advertising, based on relevance or thematic similarity based on the congruency theory. The third is the context appreciation concept, which plays the same role as congruency theory, but focuses more on the role of the viewer’s mood in the consumers’ response to ads (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002; Katz et al., 1973b).

**Discussion**

The literature review in this study provides empirical evidence about engagement in digital media and advertising, confirming the surge in interest in this area over the past 10 years. A comprehensive approach to combining the findings from the previous papers was developed which categorised studies in terms of the different approaches used by their authors to understand the impact of mobile media engagement on consumers’ response to advertising and enhancing the effectiveness. This research is intended to understand consumers’ status when they are engaged with mobile media vehicle and why they might respond to advertising in this context. This is what the research proposes, rather than measuring the level of engagement from emotional and affective perspectives, or measuring the degree of advertising effectiveness.

**Conclusion**

This explored the concept of engagement in general and with particular reference to media and advertising. Engagement was shown to be a complex construct, encompassing thought processes, emotional responses and behavioural intentions toward the material. A number of those were applied in an attempt to explain how such responses are invoked, and their implications for consumer reactions to advertising. IGN App, OK! Magazine App Sky News App, etc.) Uses and gratifications theory identifies users' motivations for using media: the purposes they seek to accomplish and/or the feelings they hope to experience. These antecedences, experienced subjectively, were shown to influence engagement. Congruency theory and context appreciation were suggested to offer explanations for the consequences of media engagement in terms of response to advertisement.

The former suggests that response to advertisements is affected by the degree of similarity or relevance between the ad and the content, while the latter suggests that the viewer's mood also influences his/her response. Drowning the concepts and theories introduced in the chapter. A theoretical framework has been proposed, which will guide the conduct of the research and the interpretation of its findings.
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Descriptive Writing Patterns Still Relevant in Political News Reporting in Malaysia

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Abstract
This paper discusses the journalist writing patterns from the perspective of a journalist in presenting information primarily in political issue. The discussion is divided according to the research questions arising from previous studies such as relevance of conventional news writing, use of the concept in interpretive writing and perspective on political news reporters. Some scholars are still doing research to understand the concept of interpretive especially in the writing of journalists in conveying information to the public on an issue and is associated with several descriptive concepts in retaining the old way of outright to report any issues with using the concept 5W1H. Definition pattern interpretive report led to analyze, evaluate, and explain the development, and not just to limit the mere fact. While the old pattern is defined as a reporter writing a descriptive report, in which the journalist clearly explained the events, where journalists had to stick to the facts and left the speculation and interpretation to the reader. However, the pattern writing is often associated with the role of journalists in framing an issue in their news reporting, particularly issues relating to politics. In-depth interviews conducted against five journalists for writing a pattern phenomenon and their role in the delivery of election information in the news. The study found that the patterns of conventional writing are still used by the issues to be conveyed. Even journalists try to analyze political news presented by issues that can attract audiences without leading to any particular political party.

Keywords: Journalism, interpretive, descriptive, writing patterns, Framing
Introduction

Every day a variety of activities, events in various aspects such as political, social, economic occur in Malaysia documented in the form of news media whether print or electronic media. But not all activities or events is a news (Fleming, Hemmingway, Moore, & Welford, 2004; Lippmann, 2006).

Mansor Ahmad (1986) define news in the context in Malaysia as reports on current issues right, odd, important, and interesting, as well as the opinions and ideas that attract audiences. While Chamil (2008) believes the news is a report that is based on the fact (a fact, not fiction or fable), and attract new audiences to read, listen and watch. However, in the world of news writing only journalist is a presenter of information to the public. According to Tuchman and Gaye (1978) only an individual professionals working in the media can determine the selection, collection and dissemination of news.

This proves that the media and professionals such as journalists play an important role in the pattern of news journalism, especially television and the newspaper. Maras (2013) believes, when discussing professions in journalism often it is associated with a profession related to objectivity. Objectivity in journalism is considered strong and dominant in determining the identity of the professional journalists, especially in the United States and it is associated with the pattern of coverage that focus pattern interpretive writing in journalism. According to Maras (2013), initially objectivity within the profession of journalism is to remove the passive, judgmental, and emotional in reporting the news and he believes in the form of interpretive reporting be more active in the criticism, fair and thorough.

Communication scholars, Patterson (2000a, 2000b, 2000c), Salgado and Stromback (2011) debate on the perspectives that should be emphasized in news reporting by mainstream media growing. Writing good news should not merely describe a series of events on the other hand, the news should outline a different perspective by explaining the background, interpret and evaluate the importance of the consequences of what might happen in the future (Erik, 2011). According to him, generally in the pattern of journalistic approach to news coverage of the needs of a message sender of politicians, interest groups of priority beneficiaries or the listener or the audience. But the opposite occurs when the pattern changed from descriptive writing to interpretive.

The changes to the content and journalistic approach occur in prioritizing the needs of the audience. With this change to the news report it becomes in the form of storytelling. Robinson and Sheehan (1983) stated that news must have structure and conflict, problem and resolution, rising action, beginning, middle and end in news reporting. For news selection criteria, selection based on the timelines, importance, sensational, conflict, and identity in the pattern of news coverage itself (Meilby, 1996).

News Writing Pattern From Global to Local

Writing patterns play an important role in putting the role of journalists in a position when writing news. At first the news focus on pattern descriptive writing style in which journalists put themselves in the role of observer (Patterson, 2000b). Duties as
a reporter in the pattern writing descriptive report and describe the events and it is beneficial to journalists in providing information to the public (Erik, 2011).

Globally, the pattern of coverage changed since the 1930s began in the United States. This is due to downturn in 1930, which had a profound impact on the world media in the United States (Bondi, Harris-Fain dan Hipp 1995). Scholars often refer to the revolution of the American Society of Newspaper Editors (ASNE) in 1933 where they encourage the press to focus on the aspects of space and explanations and encouraged the character of interpretive news (Forde, 2007; Landers, 2005; Schudson, 1978).

Starting in 1980 in the United States, most news reports have turned to writing interpretive pattern (Hallin, 1992). Journalists gradually using interpretive writing pattern arise from a change in the pattern of this writing more independent approach used in writing their news: the news explaining what has happened and explain why it has happened (Erik 2011).

In the pattern writing interpretive role of journalists as analysts (Patterson, 2000b). In order for the newspaper to become the preferred choice of audiences, the press should show interesting patterns in delivering news issues not only depend on the events that have been displayed on electronic media such as television or heard on the radio about a particular issue. Local phenomena in Malaysia, the changes happen since 1997. According to Mohd Zuwairi Mat Saad, Normah Mustaffa, Abdul Latiff Ahmad, & Badrul Redzuan Abu Hassan (2016) mainstream newspaper in Malaysia shift from descriptive to mixed between two writing patterns especially in election news frame.

Changes in the direction of the news reports that focus coverage pattern style of writing interpretive journalism has shown that the reality began to report the issue to the audience rather than to focus on how news makers (politicians, interested groups or people) see the news. This change also means that the control over the news turned out of the hands of newsmakers (politicians, interested groups or persons) themselves into the hands of journalists (Erik, 2011). According to Stromback (2008) 'Political logic' is gradually replaced by 'media logic', this means that the media needs to be formed with the main thing and the way in which political communication played by politicians, protected by the media, and understood by the people.

However the journalist who reported the issue of reality with interpretive style still hold on to the information content based on the facts. Salgado and Stromback (2011) interpretive of writing style or exceed conceptualized opposite style of writing descriptive, factual or journalistic sources; journalism requires greater control over news content and sound journalism is more important, including the comments outright by journalists; bring a stronger emphasis on the theme chosen by the journalists; and focuses on the why and the purpose and set aside the who, when, what, where and how.

This shows that the pattern of interpretive writing, journalists entering the element analyze, explain and assess for any information to be conveyed to the audience not to rely on the concept of who, when, what, where and how alone. To maintain market news, media reporters had to analyze, interpret and explain information or information in the pattern of reporting that will be presented to the audience. In recent years with the advent of internet news reports that almost contemporaneous with the
news itself - requires the need for the print media to dig more deeply about an issue when delivering information to the public (Erik, 2011). New media, especially the Internet is very different from other traditional media. This is because the internet can provide a source of political information and expression of the political environment (Dahlgren, 2000; White, 1997).

Thus, the pattern of writing as a subject by focusing on the election news. It is because of election news has distinctive patterns compared to other news that restricts how journalists write in conveying information to the audience. Message elections delivered through various media forms, has become an important topic to study and compare the different roles played by various media in their coverage of the candidates and issues and in delivering a message related to options great (Flowers, Haynes, dan Crespin 2003).

Past studies of the western countries showed reporters have been using a new pattern in the writing of their interpretive pattern whether journalists conscious or not. The understanding of this among journalists should not arise biased of writing. This could also be due to the editor to 'guard' in the report written by the journalist. Studies need to be done to look at the views of journalists to the pattern of writing from the perspective of Asian countries like Malaysia where political issues are taken as study materials as a political issue is the dominant issue in the pattern of writing for studies and by western countries for dismantling understanding of this matter in the world of journalism and political in Malaysia. Results from previous studies, several research questions submitted as follows:

1. Does the conventional writing is still used in news writing now?
2. Is the concept of interpretive writing (analyze / evaluate / explain) used by the journalists who serve as a medium to deliver issues of political news?
3. What is the point of view of political news reporter?

Methodology

This study used interview of five experienced journalists to see the phenomenon of journalists in news writing. According to Creswell (1998) the number of informants for in-depth interview for studies related to the phenomenology requires only 5 to 25 informants. Purposive sampling will be used in selecting informants by creating a number of features to ensure the accuracy of the information gathered. Specifically, this study will use a type of semi-structured interviews. Othman Lebar (2014) semi-structured interviews result of a combination of structured and open interviews or known as unstructured interview. Interview questions will be formulated in advance and openly answer by informant and developed by interviewers (Othman Lebar, 2014).

Research Findings

Differences between Conventional and Interpretive Journalism

At the beginning news writing in the world of journalism focused on conventional concept that emphasizes the concept of writing 5W1H. In contrast to the concept of interpretive journalism more emphasis on one element of the original concept of why.
However, the literature shows that there is a conceptual distinction between journalism interpretive, almost all think journalism interpretive as somewhat contrary to or beyond the descriptive, factual, and emphasis related to 5W in journalism: What, Where, When, Who and Why. Generally, the concept of journalism interpretive gives greater emphasis to the 'meaning' of news beyond the facts and the statements of resources and emphasizes the element 'Why' in 5W’s (Patterson 1993).

One of the critics of interpretive journalism is Patterson (1980, 1993, 2000a). Referring to his concept, interpretive journalism is journalism that is driven by the theme, the main facts which are used to illustrate the theme chosen by the journalists. This concept should be understood in the context of the relationship between journalists and their sources. Journalism is actually focused on the What, When, Where and Who allows the source to set the news agenda and framing the news, as well as the reduction of journalists to carry and to emphasize the message source. Instead interpretive pattern empowers reporters by giving them more control over the news message. While descriptive pattern puts reporters in the role of observers.

To answer the first research question whether the journalist still uses the concept of 5W1H in political news, the reporter made a statement that 5W1H concept is still used in news writing but it is only used in certain issues such as news reporting news 'hard news'. Suitability of the concept depends on the issue you want reported. In fact, the concept of conventional reporting is said to be writing that no attraction to the audience to read a news writing.

...depending on the particular issue. 5W1H often used for crime news writing. [Journalist A]
In the competitive world of media that is strong enough at the moment, each media has its own way to create unique presentation. 5W1H theory he only on paper and not merely practiced for major or critical writing. The theory of writing practiced for low profile and lack of traction. [Journalist B]
Yes. Still practiced mostly for hard news. [Journalist D]

This shows that the journalists tried to use a various creativity to attract the attention of audience. Studies in western countries show a pattern that can attract an audience is to use interpretive writing patterns. Interpretive pattern requires journalists to act also as an analyst. Based on interviews conducted reporter said that the issues that interest only to be highlighted in the news and news analysis made does not cover the whole issue reported due to the limited factors in the writing of news in print media such as paragraphs. In fact, the analysis made by a journalist still based on the facts in a report content.

For me, the world of politics, the number of sentences or paragraphs to play an important role for any writing. Political writing scientific writing which need not be explained from beginning to end. Only interesting thing only highlighted and political writing is an average of paragraphs 10 to 14 only. Analysis was made but not all of the factors disclosed above. In the world of digital media now, speed is the main thing. The writing short and compact to be a priority. [Journalist B]
Not necessarily. Depending on the facts of the report. [Journalist D]
Interviews show that the journalists tried to enter interpretive elements in their news writing. But there are factors that become their constraints in incorporating elements of interpretive writing. Journalist gradually using interpretive writing pattern arising from a change in the pattern of this writing more independent approach used in writing their news: the news explaining what has happened and explain why it has happened (Erik 2011).

Point of view Journalist in delivering Political News

Patterns of news reporting is often associated with the issue is framed by journalists, particularly in political journalism. Shaw and Brian Roberts (2000) found in their study during campaigning, the media's role and relationship with the victory of president of the United States in 1992 and 1996 during the election, that the role of media in framing has a huge impact on the events that are expected to affect the decision of the voters. These results are consistent with studies conducted by Patterson (2000a, b) and Iyenger (1991) and other media gave a lot of reaction to the public for political campaigns.

The current study shows how writing journalists can influence what is read by the people and play an important role in how a particular issue is framed. For example, Barbour and Wright (2001) which introduces two examples that define their views in framing the issue in which the first assumption to say that each news writing has not changed but the audience sees something on the issue. While the second assumption, every delivery of news by different journalists. One of the journalists can report the news of the disaster on the number of journalists were injured while others may focus on the number of victims was not injured.

In addition, Barbour and Wright (2001) stressed that as a journalist working in a competitive environment, they are required to write stories that attract and retain the attention of their audience. This requirement requires journalists convey information in an entertaining way or make audiences think. Meanwhile, the politicians want the ability to communicate with the public and set the agenda. However, objective reporter and regulations they sometimes conflict with the will of the politicians who want to convey a piece of information has a positive and effective leadership. Based on the interviews conducted, journalists involved in reporting political issues need to understand style and rhythm in the writing of news so they become more impartial to any political party. Rich media practitioners to something political information but there are constraints in the delivery of the audience.

Politics is a complex issue. It is difficult for me to say who's telling the truth or not. Unlike writing court, the decision can be concluded when the sentence was passed. In politics anything could happen and persists for a long time depending on the attractiveness of the issue. At times, new writers will be confused with the submission of the political issues. This can be seen in several examples of writing which misinterpreted. Political journalists need to understand the rhythm and style of presentation of political issues based on their experiences during the charge. Media practitioners with information is much greater than what is reported in news writing. However, the authors are bound by ethics, agendas owner / investor companies, government, politics, society and others. At times, the
author is not satisfied with the quality of the information presented but the constraint factor that needs to be recognized. But in reality, in the world, no one hundred percent independent media to report something without the above constraints. Journalists can choose which company can meet the satisfaction of writing them based on confidence. [Journalist B]

The question arises of whether the primary factor constraints of journalists in conveying information to the audience about political issues? Framing issues in the dailies to the community is important because opinions are formed or changed by reporters who have the power to control the content and format of a news causing the change. Based on interviews found that every word said to be biased and still follow journalistic ethics outlined. Each media has its own agenda and neutral fact-based, language used in other aspects of diversity.

Malaysian media history, from the first has been controlled by certain parties who have a particular agenda. Struggle and agenda they change with time. When the pre-independence era, the media also have an agenda against the invaders. No neutral agenda here, they raised the issue on the basis of their struggle. If we say they are neutral, they will report on the benefits of colonial rule at the time. [Journalist B]

No, journalists are still maintaining the ethics of journalism that cannot be bias or bias in reporting the news, but the way writing is now more 'advanced' so that it becomes an issue exclusive but still neutral. [Journalist C]

Still neutral for the mainstream media. Notice of the facts, the use of language and other aspects. The opposition media and new media bias that triggers coverage and many elements of the charges and allegations. Anti-government parties like such coverage, and vice versa. [Journalist D]

This assertion is supported by Lotz (1991) who argued in McCombs, Shaw and Weaver (1997) framing is not an ideological bias, even if it is one-sided, but it is a structural bias the results of the selection process or edits occurring in the news. For example, when journalists need to enter some information into a few paragraphs, some parts are accidentally left behind and some of the more deliberately highlighted. The cause distortion of information occurs in every story written by journalists. Lotz (1991) said that in sociology, communication bias is always present.

Patterson (2000b), most of journalists believe they have instructions to represent the community. Wish journalists play a role as public advocate has increased significantly since the 1960s. Patterson said that the status of journalists increased, they became more assertive, news writing style tends toward interpretive report. News about the Watergate scandal was one of the issues on politics also contributed to the change in the pattern of writing and events like these have convinced many journalists that their judgment in a news report focusing on the political leaders.

Studies show that the journalists tried to serve as a community representative, spokesman and advocate public. The role of journalists is also seen as a political activist. However, Patterson (2000b) believes that the media does not fit the role as public representatives of political leaders. Journalists are not selected and society cannot attack journalists. Therefore, people do not have control over the media. In
their role as journalists, people expect the journalists provide the facts on the basis of their opinion.

As a political activist, a journalist trying to influence public opinion by framing the issues to the public through the media. The role of a daily newspaper in framing the issue during the election is a significant topic for research. Media cannot tell people what to think, but it tells people how to think about an issue (Barbour dan Wright, 2001). As a result, journalists are using their position as a political activist when writing reports and misuse of power when framing issues become important for political news.

**Conclusion**

The development of research on writing patterns can give a clearer understanding of the trend of writing news reports by journalists and their role in framing political issues, especially the issue. Conventional concept in the literature is still used, but depending on the issue you want reported. In fact, the study also found that there is a limiting factor in the delivery of which involve factors internal culture of the organization, external and social change in which most studies show that there are characteristics, patterns and effects associated with the cultural framing of the news that a lot depends on the cultural orientation of narrators. Cultural differences in framing evidence also supports the establishment of an investigative news that the news is a product built (Altheide 2002). Studies ahead to be done to see changes in the pattern of journalists in Malaysia within a prescribed period in which political issues were used as research material and see how journalists frame the issue in the same time the study will also identify patterns of writing is writing patterned interpretive, descriptive or the combination of these two patterns of writing. Understanding reporter's writing style and framing this issue also needs to be refined as it can affect the audience from time to time.

In addition, studies on the pattern of writing pioneered by Stromback and friends (Stromback and Aalberg 2008; Stromback and Dimitrova 2006; Stromback and Aalberg 2008; Stromback and Shehata 2007). Salgado and Stromback (2011) suggests that the study of the interpretive report in journalism should be expanded to take into account the relationship between interpretive journalism and journalism in the political framing. The above recommendations then, studies have focused primarily on the pattern writing in the newspaper in Malaysia are taking a political issue as research material. Given this kind of research can enhance the understanding and clarify the definition of the concept of writing pattern-focused journalism in Malaysia. According to Salgado dan Stromback (2011) again, the definition of the concept and understanding the differences may occur between interpretive journalism media diversity and differences in the country in the context of the study patterns and relationships between other features in journalism.
References


The State and Watchdog Journalism in China since the Reform

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Abstract
The main purpose of this study is to explore the state’s influences on watchdog journalism in an authoritarian China. In classic liberal theory, the western independent watchdog press must have two pre-conditions: press ownership in the market and non-interference and non-control from the state. But in an authoritarian country such as China, although the state is dominant control power for media, the state promotes watchdog journalism actively. Starting from the party's thirteenth Congress in 1987, the watchdog press has since been used in every Party congress report from 1987 to 2007, a sign of its importance to the party-state. But after the Tiananmen crackdown, the party-state is playing the contradictory role in both promoting and stifling the watchdog press. This paper examines the state's role changes on the watchdog journalism since the reform to the present over 30 years, and seeks to present a particular state-controlled institution within the Chinese watchdog press and one that is different from western watchdog press. This study aims to explain three questions: How does the state influence watchdog journalism? Does the state promote and stifle watchdog journalism? What key factor contributes to the shift in the state’s promotion and control? This study found that the state's role on watchdog press has a shift between promotion and control. This depends on the state’s attitude changes between the media as a form of the state’s interest expression and media as a form of the public interests expression.

Keywords: Watchdog journalism; the state's role; authoritarian china
Introduction

In Chinese media field, the “state” is regarded as the dominant control power (Xia & Yuan, 2014). But the state is still strictly controlling media coverage? Neither as in a totalitarian regime which is characterized by dictatorship, the state is strictly controlling the society and the media, nor as in a democracy regime which emphasizes non-interference and non-control for media from the state, in an authoritarian regime such as China, the state’s control coexist with loosening for the media. The main purpose of this paper is to explore how the state influences media in an authoritarian China. In this paper, the party, the government and the leaders are all regarded as the concept of the “state”. In addition, this paper only explores the watchdog journalism of traditional media such as newspaper, not includes the watchdog reports in internet.

In classic liberal press theory, the western independent watchdog press must have two pre-conditions: press ownership in the market and non-interference and non-control from the state. But this western context is clearly not applicable to analyze Chinese watchdog journalism. In Chinese authoritarian regime, although the state is dominant control power for media, the state promotes watchdog journalism actively. In the 13th party congress report in 1987, for the first time, the state introduced the media’s watchdog function. The 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th party’s congresses also used watchdog journalism, a sign of its importance to the state.

Chinese watchdog journalism in the 1950s experienced a boom, but during the Cultural Revolution it almost disappeared. Since the reform in 1978, with the media's market-oriented reform, watchdog press has a rapid growth. In the 1990s, watchdog journalism has reached its peak. Nowadays it has great influences on Chinese politics and society. For example, the “SunZhiGang” event was exposed by southern metropolis has abolished the central government’s Internment and repatriation policy. The great development of watchdog journalism is due to the support of the party and the government.

Literature review

Lots of Chinese watchdog journalism researches are from the perspectives of media commercialization, media professionalism, media publicity, and journalism practice. For example, YueZhi, Zhao (2000) argues that the rise of watchdog journalism is the result of the media's market reforms. Jing Rong, Tong (2011) explored the flourishing of watchdog journalism in the 1990s and the fall in the 21st century from the journalism perspective. Current researches ignore the discussion on how the
state influences watchdog journalism. In addition, Cho LiFung (2007) reconsidered the state’s role in the development of Chinese watchdog journalism and indicated the state’s contradictory role in both promoting and stifling Chinese watchdog journalism which is different from western watchdog press context. But this research has not discussed the state’s role changes on watchdog press during the different periods since the reforms and not analyzed the reason why the state’s role changes.

Therefore, this paper sets out to analyze the state’s influences on watchdog journalism by examining the state’s role changes during the different periods since the reforms. And this study seeks to present a particular State-controlled institution within the Chinese watchdog press and one that is different from western watchdog press. In doing so, the study seeks to explore the following research questions: in Chinese authoritarian country,

1. How does the state influence watchdog journalism?
2. Does the state promote and stifle watchdog journalism?
3. What key factor contributes to the shift in the state’s promotion and control?

According to the official definition, Chinese watchdog journalism (Yulun Jiandu) refers to public people through the media to watchdog on the implementation of the party and the government policy, criticize the party and government cadres’ corruption and other various social problems(Yang, 2001). This means that the state allows watchdog press as a form of public expression. But at the same time, Chinese media also as the mouthpiece of the party and the government, plays the function of the party and the government's expression. Hence, in this paper, two variables – “the state expression” and “the public expression” will be used for analysis.

This study chose to adopt broad definition for Chinese watchdog journalism (Yulun jiandu). Chinese watchdog journalism has expanded not only to monitor those who exercise power, namely Party-state officials, but also to bring attention to any wrongdoing, including those committed by small-time crooks. Even reports about jaywalkers, imposters, unethical merchants selling fake baby formula, natural disasters such as floods and earthquakes (coverage of them often involves the cover-up of death tolls or loss of property). This peculiarity becomes tenable when placed in China’s media context.

**Methodology and data**

This study uses historical perspective to explore the process of the state’s role changes on watchdog journalism and examine the state’s dual role in both promoting and stifling watchdog journalism. Therefore, this study explores the state’s role on watchdog press during 4 periods – in the 1980s (since the reforms – until 1989); after Tiananmen crackdown (1989-1992); in the 1990s (1992- until 2003); after 2003 (2003 – current). The reason for choosing these 4 periods is that the state’s role on watchdog journalism has an obvious change in every period. It can present an unambiguous process of the state’s role changes and examine the reason for this change.

The data are both from the party and the government’s congress work reports, journalism regulations, the state leaders’ statements, speeches for media, and from...
other documents of media practice, media reporting.

**Background**

Before the reforms, Chinese media which was commonly portrayed as a compliant mouthpiece of the party and government, played the traditional propaganda role to serve for the party-state. Chinese press was modeled after the Soviet Pravda model, which uses the press as a tool for class struggle and a tool for rallying the people to support Party policies. Chinese press organizations were fully subsidized by Party-state coffers and the Party exercised complete control over financial and personnel decisions of all news organizations.

Since the reforms, economic reform policies reduced the number of news organizations eligible for state subsidies. The press became responsible for its own economic survival and performance. This has changed the state-press relations. The state loosed its control for media. First, the party decentralized the business rights to media organization. Beginning in 1978, the state promoted the media market-oriented reforms actively. Secondly, the party-state allowed the media that not only plays as a mouthpiece of the state, but also as a watchdog and other roles. Under this background, Chinese watchdog press has a rapid growth. The rise of watchdog coverage is one of the most significant press development in post-1992 China. Watchdog coverage reflect the social instability that resulted from large-scale worker layoffs in money-losing state enterprises, dislocation of farmers and unfettered taxation abuses by local governments that accompanied China’s accelerated market reforms. China’s economic reform policies since 1978 have created tremendous growth but also concentrated collusion of power and money. Inequality increasingly came to characterize the path of Chinese economic development and this inequality created the social conditions that led to reader demand for watchdog reporting that exposes wanton abuses of official power, police abuse, unscrupulous business practices, tax exploitation and crime. For example, in the late-1990s, famous watchdog press *southern weekend* influenced a whole generation of the Chinese population with its reports focusing on official corruption and care for powerless groups’ needs. Although watchdog journalism suffered from a setback, it still has great influences on Chinese politics and society.

The state’s role on watchdog journalism in the 1980s

During the 13th party congress in 1987, Premier Zhao Ziyang, for the first time, used the term *yulun jiandu* to stress the importance the media's watchdog role to monitor the Party and government. It is the first time that watchdog reporting is introduced in the party’s official document.

Watchdog press’s importance was stressed by the party because of the following broad political and social context. First, during the 1980s, the main task of the party-state is political reforms. The state needed to rely on the media to explore the road of political reforms and use the press criticism to promote the reforms. Since

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the reforms, within the context of the ideological debates between the Dengists and the Maoists were settled in the Dengists’ favor, the Dengists’ reformist party leaders such as Zhao ZiYang supported watchdog press actively (Xia&Yuan, 2014). Secondly, the party-state’s media recognition has an important change. The party-state not only regarded media as its mouthpiece, but also put forward the media as the mouthpiece of the people. It means that the “media as the mouthpiece of the people” theory can be regarded as a breakthrough in media role. In 1985, Premier Hu YaoBang stated:

“What is the way to describe our Party press? When succinctly summed up, above anything else, it is the Party’s mouthpiece. Naturally, this means it is also the mouthpiece of the government and the mouthpiece of the people. However, since the Party serves the people whole heartedly, and the Party line and policies originates from the masses, and goes back to the masses, then it goes without saying that the Party press is exercising its mouthpiece function when it effectively transmits information from the top down, as well as from the bottom up, ensuring that the Party and people are in close communication by speaking on behalf of the people, and ensuring that the people’s need to know is satisfied”5. This means that the party allowed media’s public expression function as appose media’s traditional expression for the state.

In Zhao’s 13th Party Congress report, Section 5, under the banner of creating a systematic communication channel between the Party and society, Zhao set out three principles for China’s press: (1) the press should exercise oversight over the work and conduct of public officials. This concept was expressed by the phrase "supervision by public opinion" (yulun jiandu); (2) the press should inform the public of important events, expressed by the phrase (zhongda shijian rang renmin zhidao) ; (3) the press should reflect public debates on important issues expressed as (zhongda wenti rang renmin taolun)6.

There are several important meanings in Zhao’s speech. First, the fact that Zhao sought to use the press to increase government transparency, to open up channels of communication between the Party and the general public, and to give the general public a sense of ownership over the government was, in effect, an endorsement of the concept of people’s right to know. Secondly, Zhao’s call for the media to represent the voices and criticisms of the masses in serving its watchdog function is effectively allowing the Chinese press to become a public channel to expose the Party’s shortcomings and to combat official abuse. Zhao’s construction of watchdog press (yulun jiandu) is significant as it, for the first time in Chinese Party history, promoted a public process for the press to check on official power in the public’s interest. With the blessing of the Chinese Communist Party, through watchdog press, a public channel was created for the press to expose official wrong doing and to report and reflect the views of the general public7.

6 Zhao ZiYang, "Advance Along the Road of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics [Yanzhe You Zhongguo Tese De Shehui Zhuyi Daolu Qianjin].
7 Cho, Li Fung (2007), The Emergence, Influence, and Limitations of Watchdog Journalism...
Watchdog journalism in this period showed a clear reform of color, often criticized the existing institutions. For example, The People’s Daily, the official Party organ, criticized the emerging “administrative-business complexes” in a front-page commentary as a fundamentally unfair and corrupting institution. Another example is the “Ministry of Commerce Minister eat without paying” reporting. Chinese Youth Daily published this event in the first edition, and also published commentary "reformer, summon up your courage". The character of watchdog reports in this period is that from a "small event" to rise to the deficiencies and shortcomings of the economic, political, cadre institutions. Through the “small specific event” reporting, watchdog journalism expressed the criticism for the institutions.

The state’s role on watchdog journalism after Tiananmen crackdown

However, after Tiananmen crackdown, the political reforms ended, the press reforms and so on. The reformist liberal leader Zhao ZiYang fell from power and was blamed for “guiding the media in the wrong way”. Political uncertainty and unrest had brought about a new wave of Party policy that attempted to stifle the press’ watchdog function. After Tiananmen crackdown, the party-state’s cognition on watchdog press has a great change. The state’s guidelines and policy on watchdog press in this period has a great impact on today’s media policy.

In this period, the party reemphasized the media’s “party principle”(Dangxing Yuanze) which is the central concept that guides china’s press. This notion can be traced back to 1921, when the CCP founding congress stated that the Party’s central executive committee will manage all journals, daily publications, books and booklets and that neither central nor local publications are allowed to carry articles that oppose the Party’s principle, policies and decisions. Jiang Zemin replaced Zhao as the Chinese Communist Party Secretary and reemphasized the media’s “party principle”. In November 1989, Jiang Zemin in his “on the party's news work on Several Issues” speech, stated “our press work is an important part of the whole of the party works. Therefore, press work must adhere to the party principle”.

The media’s “party principle” inevitably reflected in the party-state’s cognition on watchdog press. In this period, the party has put forward the two principles: "positive propaganda’s priority" and "guide and direct public opinion". These 2 principles which have been used up to now are the guiding principle of China's media policy. In November 1989, The Politburo member Li Ruihuan, who was in charge of ideological work, stressed that the Chinese press must give priority to the Party’s positive propaganda⁸. And at meanwhile, Jiang emphasized that the press should

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⁸Li, Guidelines That Insist on Giving Priority to Positive Propaganda [a] [Jianchi Zhengmian Xuenchuan Weizhu De Fangzhen]. Li said the Chinese press must “publically declare that that it speaks from the standpoint of the Party and the people; politically, it must remain on the same page as the Party; stick to the facts, seek the truth, do not lie; communicate closely with the masses, sincerely live amongst the people, share hardships, love and hate together, accurately reflect their wishes, cries, and demands; submit to the Party’s leadership, and observe propaganda discipline.
ensure that watchdog press (yulun jiandu) serve to “guide and direct” public opinion toward stable economic and social progress under the Party’s leadership. The official term used, known as zhengmian xuanchuan weizhu or “positive propaganda priority”, in Li’s speech and yulun daoxiang or “guidance of public opinion”, in Jiang’s speech marked the formal affirmation that the Party’s interest must always have priority. These two principles shows that the Party play a key role in framing, directing and overseeing watchdog press is a clear shift away from Zhao Ziyang's more liberal conception of the practice. According to Li and Jiang’s formulation, the overriding role of the watchdog press must be to serve overall state agenda. In this period, the party-state emphasized that media as a form of Party’s interest expression must always have priority than public’s interest expression and attempted to stifle the press’s watchdog function. This shift from emphasizing the watchdog role to zhengmian xuanchuan weizhu, or “positive propaganda priority” and yulun daoxiang, or “guidance of public opinion” reflected a basic departure from the party’s policy in the 1980s.

The state’s role on watchdog journalism in the 1990s

After Tiananmen crackdown, from 1989 to 1991, the reforms stagnation lasted for several years until Deng Xiaoping made the “Southern-tour” in 1992, in which the old man bypassed central leadership and advocated a deepening of economic reform. In the 1990s, the focus of the party's work shifted to the economic system reform. So the party put forward that the media should serve the economic reform. From the 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th party congress, the party used the term watchdog press (Yulun Jiandu) in working reports and promoted the watchdog press strongly. Because of the party-state’s supports, Chinese watchdog journalism first experienced a boom in the 1990s.

The reason for the party's support for the watchdog journalism comes from the deep social background. Market reform has resulted in serious corruption in the party, abuse of powers by local governments and social ills. This has caused public discontent. The first social problem was the low, and even fake quality of commodities and commercial services. This problem damaged the interests of ordinary people who were losing their confidence in the Socialism economic market, and this therefore worried the top leadership. The second social problem was the serious party cadres’ corruption. According to the Party’s Prosecution Department, 122,476 cases relating to corruption and bribery were put on file for investigation and prosecution in 1995. In the same year, more than 4000 officials from all administrative levels were declared guilty and sent to prison (Lin 2003). These social problems threatened the authority of the party-state.

To promote public faith in government, the Central government began to actively encourage watchdog journalism as a means for combating local official corruption, and even fake goods. For example, in 1992, with the support of the State Council, the Chinese Journalism Cultural Promotion Committee and the People's Daily organized a national news reporting campaign involving 20 news media

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organizations to critically scrutinize poor quality products.

And the state also used watchdog press as an administrative tool for strengthening Party cadres and social control. The best example of this form of watchdog journalism is China Central Television’s Focus news program. One award-winning episode exposed the misappropriation of national funds earmarked for payment of farmers for harvested grain. The funds went into failed investment schemes. China Central Television and Focus both function at the central government level. Therefore, the reporters of Focus report directly only to Central level Party and government officials and enjoy the protection of the central authorities when officially investigating wrongdoing at the provincial or local level.

During this period, watchdog reports focused on social problems in social transformation, showing a obvious social interests value. The subjects of watchdog reports reported in the 1990s can be broadly classified into five types: (1) the wrongdoings and corruption of local government officials, (2) social problems existing within society, for example, environmental problem, (3) major and key criminal cases, (4) social injustice encountered by vulnerable populations, and (5) democratic events such as elections.  

The state’s role on watchdog journalism after 2003

Chinese watchdog journalism experienced a boom in the 1990s and made a great leap in 2003 (Branigan, 2010); but soon after this, it suffered from a setback as a result of serious pressures from the Party-State. In 2003, the state’s attitude toward watchdog press had an important change. After 2003, the state strengthened its control for the watchdog press. The reason for the state’s change is that since the 1990s the watchdog press which gained the state's strong support has gradually expanded the editorial autonomy. Entered in the 2000s, the media gradually challenge the bottom line of the party, often beyond the party-state’s rule. Watchdog reporting during the 1990s was supposed to help facilitate the implementation of the central policy in localities, and ensure that the local implementation was in accord with the always-correct-grand-policy of the CCP and was also under the control of the CCP. However, entered in the 2000s, watchdog reporting started to turn around their guns and called the central policies and policy making of the central government into question. The party is trying to limit the scope and scale of “media supervision” to a manageable level, while Chinese journalism is struggling to break through the boundaries set by the party.

Both SARS reporting and the case of Sun Zhigang are two outstanding examples of this. The case of SARS is one in which Chinese media, especially the media in Guangdong Province, successfully forced the central government to give up its stubborn traditional approach towards risk communication. SARS reporting has broken the party’s ban on reporting. And media questioned the government to conceal the truth.

The case of the Sun Zhigang event reporting was also seen as a breakthrough in

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Chinese journalism. In 2003, Sun Zhigang, a migrant worker in Guangzhou, was arrested for not carrying his ID card. He was beaten to death by local officials. *Southern Metropolis Daily* investigated and exposed the brutal event that led to a nationwide social movement and a change in the constitution. Sun Zhigang event reporting challenged the political authorities. And this reporting set agenda for the public and the latter actively participate in discussions about the issues raised by watchdog reports. In Sun Zhigang event reporting, several jurists have appealed for a revision of the regulation in the name of the Chinese citizens (Zhao 2008). The public expression and anticipation of lawyers, scholars and ordinary peoples has caused the state’s wariness.

After 2003, The party’s public declarations are actually a way in which the Party attempts to keep watchdog journalism under its control and to grab the right to define what watchdog journalism should be and should do. In this way, the Party strengthens that watchdog journalism should be in accordance with the propaganda needs of the Party. For example, in the 2004 regulation, the party reiterated that “news media should stick to the Party Principle, obey news rules and occupational ethics, correctly guide public opinion when practicing media supervision, and pay attention to the social influences of media supervision.

Furthermore, *Liaowang* Magazine, a current affairs news magazine launched by Xinhua News Agency in 1981, stressed again that media supervision is part of the work of the Party and the government, and further introduced ten rules for the practice of media supervision.

In September 2004, in government documents, the criticism of the party and government by media is strictly limited.

The attempt of the central Party to limit the practice of watchdog journalism was further expressed by the issuing of the 2005 document that banned cross-regional media supervision\(^1\), which is a major genre of Chinese watchdog journalism. This is regarded as a symbol of the tightening grip of the authorities over the media. Cross-regional media supervision is a prominent characteristic of Chinese watchdog journalism. In September 2004, seventeen provinces and municipal cities signed and delivered a statement to central government to appeal for the forbidding of cross-regional reporting in consideration of regional stability and economic development. The central propaganda department publicized a document, which banned cross-regional media supervision, in May 2005.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

This paper used a historic perspective to explore the state’s role on Chinese watchdog journalism. In classic liberal theory, the western independent watchdog journalism

\(^{1}\) In the Chinese press system, the Party Committee is responsible for newspapers at the same administrative levels as the Party Committee. Newspapers need to obey order and accept governmental censorship at the same administrative level, and they cannot criticize government(s) at the same or higher levels. There are lacunae in the control of local government over media at higher administrative levels and over media from other cities (Tong 2010).
press has the pre-condition that is noninterference form the state for the media. But in authoritarian China, the state is dominant control power for media. This paper presented a particular State-controlled institution within the Chinese watchdog press and one that is different from western watchdog press.

This paper found that in authoritarian china, the state plays an active role on supporting and promoting watchdog journalism. But at meanwhile, the state also plays a contradictory role in both promoting and stifling the watchdog press. Through an historic analysis for the the state’s policy on watchdog journalism, the state’ role has a shift between promotion and control. This depends on the state’s attitude changes between the media as a form of the state’s interest expression and media as a form of the public interests expression.
References


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Thoughts of University Students about the Organizations That Undertake Environment Sponsorship

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Tuğba Kara, Selcuk University, Turkey

Abstract
Sponsorship is one of the most important subjects in the public relations discipline. There are various sponsorship areas. One of these areas is environmental sponsorship. Organizations conduct environmental sponsorship activities to achieve several goals. This study aims to determine the thoughts of university students towards the organizations that undertake environmental sponsorship. Survey method was used in the study. In this context a questionnaire was applied on 400 university students from Selcuk University by using face-to-face technique. One of the results of the study indicates that most of the students have positive attitudes towards the organizations that undertake environmental sponsorship activities. Another result shows that most of the students approve that the organizations that conduct environmental sponsorship activities are more reliable organizations for them.

Keywords: sponsorship, environmental sponsorship, university students
Introduction

Today increase of similar products and services and awakening of the consumers have raised the importance of the symbolic features in the relationships between the brands and consumers. Sponsorship practice is an important communication strategy. Consumers give more importance to sponsorship practices than advertisements which are broadcasted in communication tools by paying the price (Enginkaya, 2014).

Sponsorship is a support to a certain event which is not related directly with a corporation’s normal activities or a person. Besides sponsorship is an important marketing communication tool which aims to reach proper advertising for a corporation or a brand (Cliffie & Motion, 2005).

Sponsorship was defined by Meenaghan from a marcom perspective by stating that “sponsorship is an investment, in cash or kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with this activity”. According to this definition, it can be concluded that sponsorship is an independent marketing communication activity that ultimately attempts to impact a firm’s bottom line positively. As a result of this, a claim stating that sponsorship should be considered as an independent marketing communication activity, which has shared goals with the traditional marketing communications elements and achieves these objectives in an indirect manner as general public relations and marketing public relations (MPR) do, would doubtless wring strong support from academia and practitioners (Erdoğan & Kitchen, 1998).

Sponsorship spending has increased significantly in the last 30 years, from just $2 billion worldwide in 1984 to $55.3 billion in 2014. The increasing of sponsorship activities reflects the growing belief that developing a brand through association with an event might be effective in building brand equity (Mazodier, 2016).

Sponsorship potentially provides the opportunity for brands to leverage brand experiences that would not otherwise be possible, by linking the event experience to the brand. Also, intense brand image and brand personality associations could be created and strengthened via the experiential aspects of sponsorship (Cliffie & Motion, 2005).

The expectations of businesses from the sponsorship activities are classified as indicated below (Çoban, 2003):
• Large scaled support activities cause image and assessments such as greatness about business, financial power, and international prestige.
• The aim of sponsor is to share the image and prestige of the event via associating the company name with the supported event.
• Businesses obtain an opportunity to reveal their responsibilities to society by sponsorship.
• The aim of the sponsorship usage in newly established businesses is to increase the recognition rate of business in the market. To realise this aim, the popularity of supported area come into prominence.
• The businesses can use the sponsorship activities to change their images.
The businesses obtain the chance to announce themselves and their products on the media.
Sponsorship is a marketing communication tool to create brand and corporate image for the businesses which manufacture advertising banned products such as alcohol, and cigarette.

In a study sponsorship aims are presented as below (Okay, 2005):
- To announce the advertising banned products on radio and televisions.
- To support the products.
- To use other advertising opportunities.
- To increase the recognition of brand and Corporation
- To support brand and corporation image.
- To reinforce corporate identity.
- To gain goodwill of the society.
- To draw attention of the media.
- To develop the motivation of employees and internal relations
- To promote a product
- To place a product in a market.
- To support the usage of product
- To increase customer loyalty
- To support the sellers
- To change the marketing policy.
- International marketing

It can be said that the environmental sponsorship have become popular in recent years. The environmental sponsorship has been conducted to inform citizens about the topics such as cleaning, environment pollution, afforestation and to support the precautions about these topics (Çoban, 2003).

Environment sponsorship give the opportunity to the businesses to show their responsibilities for their society and it provides large opportunities for small scale and medium scaled enterprises. About the environment, competitions can be organized, campaigns can be organized, the informing activities can be done, concrete aid programs can be prepared, sports competitions can be organized and a concert revenue can be donated. For this reason environment sponsorship can be appeared as an event or corporate social responsibility (Peltekoğlu, 2014).

Meenaghan and Shipley categorize sponsorship types as sports, high art, mass art, social causes and environment programmes. When the sponsorship types in literature are examined they can be classified in main topics such as sports sponsorship, culture and art sponsorship, social sponsorship, media sponsorship, adventure and travel sponsorship (Ateşoğlu, 2010). Environmental sponsorship can be accepted as a sub-category of social sponsorship.

According to Head in general sponsorship can be illustrated as a mutually benefical business relationship between two parties being named as sponsor (usually companies) and sponsored (e.g. actors in the field of arts, sports, education). Nowadays also other parties- e.g. sponsorship agencies and media organizations are getting involved increasingly (Olkkonen, 2001).
It can be said that in most instances sponsorship involves three actors: the sponsor, agency events, and consumers. The sponsor can provide financial support, equipment, or know-how; in return, the event organizer will help provide an image and awareness, promoting its event space for the sponsor (Cheblia & Gharbib, 2014).

Sponsor companies use various communication strategies, and 85% of companies see sponsorship as part of their marketing strategy. Nowadays sponsorship has become one of the most important factors in the marketing communications business (Cheblia & Gharbib, 2014).

The firms with their sponsorship activities which are to protect the nature and environment show their sensitiveness to these areas. Also they try to leave a livable environment for future generations by demonstrating a good example of social responsibility. Especially in recent years environmental issues which are universal like global warming reveal that both the corporations and the individuals need to give more importance to these environmental issues. The corporations, which prevent nature's and environment’s renewal themselves and pollute the environment, are not tolerated by the society. The subject of environment is not only today’s issue but also it is the issue of the next generations (Okay, 2005: 166).

In USA the firms conduct the environmental and nature sponsorships in the areas such as protecting the green fields for the city and monuments, regulating the traffic, determining the water conservation areas, creating shopping centers, protecting the parks, regulating the public areas. The sponsor firms try to inform their target groups about their sponsorship activities by denominating to their sponsored areas and activities. Corporations can link between their brands and their environmental and nature sponsorship activities. Also they can utilise from these sponsorships in their other communication activities like advertising (cited from Erdtmann; Okay, 2005: 164).

The corporations which damage to the environment with their products carry out some environmental sponsorship activities in order to demonstrate that they minimize the damage and their sensitiveness to the environment (Cited from Greener; Okay, 2005).

In Turkey some corporations and firms conduct environmental sponsorship activities. One of them is Konya Şeker draws attention with its afforestation works especially in Konya and its region. It can be said that these activities affect its target groups’ impressions positively toward Konya Şeker and its brands.

**Methodology**

In this study survey method was used. A face to face questionnaire was applied on 400 participants in Konya. The questions were asked to participants in order to determine their views and attitudes about environment sponsorship. Data were analyzed by using various statistical tests. By the study the views and attitudes of participants about environment sponsorship was evaluated. Also whether the participants’ views and attitudes are differentiated or not according to their genders and ages were examined.
Findings

In this part firstly the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants are presented. Then the views and attitudes of the participants on environment sponsorship and the corporations which undertake environment sponsorship are mentioned.

Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Participants

In this part of the study the data about the genders and ages of the participants are presented.

Table 1: Distributions of Participants According to Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the gender distributions, 58.8 percent of participants are female (N=235) and 41.2 percent of participants are male.

Table 2: Distributions of the Participants According to Their Age Ranges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age ranges</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16-26</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-36</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-46</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the distributions of the participants according to their ranges. According to the table, 72 percent of the participants are between the ages of 16-26; 23 percent of them are between the ages of 27-36 and 5 percent of them are between the ages of 37-46.

The Attitudes of the Participants to the Statements about Environment Sponsorship

In this part attitudes of the participants for the statements about environment sponsorship are presented.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sincerity of the sponsor is important for me.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,5</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>236</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The image of the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4,3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>15,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship draws my attention.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>23,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think positively about the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>22,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My trust increases to the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5,5</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>19,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>147</td>
<td>36,8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment sponsorship provides that I consider the products of sponsor corporation.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4,3</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>21,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>132</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment sponsorship increases the possibility of my usage of sponsor corporation’s products.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4,8</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>25,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>31,5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer the products of an environment sponsor to others even if its products are more expensive.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>107</td>
<td>26,8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship of which price and properties of its products are as same as others.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3,3</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>22,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>153</td>
<td>38,3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I trust local environment sponsor corporations more than foreign environment sponsors.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>161</td>
<td>40,3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship in my hometown is important for me.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8,5</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>165</td>
<td>41,3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A corporation which has undertaken environment sponsorship effects my first time preference of its products.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7,3</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>29,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>125</td>
<td>31,3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a corporation undertakes more than one environment sponsorship activities, this situation effects my product preference.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4,3</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>23,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About the statement that “The sincerity of the sponsor is important for me”, 3.5 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 15.8 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 21.8 percent of them answered as “often” and 59 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “The image of the Corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important”, 4.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 15.3 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 30.5 percent of them answered as “often” and 50 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “The corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship draws my attention”, 2.5 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 23.8 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 33.8 percent of them answered as “often” and 40 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “I think positively about the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship”, 3.8 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 22.3 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 34 percent of them answered as “often” and 40 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “My trust increases to the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship”, 5.5 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 19.3 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 38.5 percent of them answered as “often” and 36.8 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “Environment sponsorship provides that I consider the products of sponsor corporation”, 4.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 21.5 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 41.3 percent of them answered as “often” and 33 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “Environment sponsorship increases the possibility of my usage of sponsor corporation’s products”, 4.8 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 25.5 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 38.3 percent of them answered as “often” and 31.5 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “I prefer the products of an environment sponsor to others even if its products are more expensive”, 9.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 39 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 25 percent of them answered as “often” and 26.8 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “I prefer the corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship of which price and properties of its products are as same as others”, 3.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 22.5 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 36 percent of them answered as “often” and 38.3 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “I trust local environment sponsor corporations more than foreign environment sponsors”, 8.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 19 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 32.5 percent of them answered as “often” and 40.3 percent of them answered as “always”.


About the statement that “A corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship in my hometown is important for me”, 8.5 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 18 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 32,3 percent of them answered as “often” and 41,3 percent of them answered as “always”.

About the statement that “A corporation which has undertaken environment sponsorship effects my first time preference of its products”, 7.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 29.5 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 32 percent of them answered as “often” and 31.3 percent of them answered as “always”. About the statement that “If a corporation undertakes more than one environment sponsorship activities, this situation effects my product preference”, 4.3 percent of the participants answered as “never”, 23.8 percent of them answered as “sometimes”, 33 percent of them answered as “often” and 39 percent of them answered as “always”.

The Relations Between the Statements and Genders

In this part whether the participants’ answers are differentiated or not according to their genders are presented.

Table 4: The Relationship Between the Statement “The image of the Corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important” and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>The image of the Corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

X²= 12.74; df= 3; p= .005

According to the answers 57.4 percent of females answered as “always”, 26.4 as “often”, 12.8 as “sometimes” and 3.4 as “never”. 39.4 percent of the males answered this statement as “always”, 36.4 as “often”, 18.8 as “sometimes” and 5.5 as “never”.

Table 5: The Relationship Between the Statement “If a corporation undertakes more than one environment sponsorship activities, this situation effects my product preference” and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>If a corporation undertakes more than one environment sponsorship activities, this situation effects my product preference.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

X²= 13.82; df= 3; p= .003

While the rate of male participants who give the answer of “always” for the statement “If a corporation undertakes more than one environment sponsorship activities, this situation effects my product preference” are higher than female participants, the rate
of female participants who give answers “often”, “sometimes” and “never” for this statement are higher than male participants.

**The Relations Between the Statements and Age Ranges**

The answers of the participants about some statements were differentiated according to their age ranges.

**Table 6: The Relationship Between the Statement “The image of the Corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important” and Age Ranges**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Ranges</th>
<th>The image of the Corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-26</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-36</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2= 15.83; \text{ df}= 6; p= .015\]

The rate of participants who give the answer of “always” for the statement “The image of the Corporation which undertakes environment sponsorship is important” are the highest among the participant between the ages of 16-26. It is seen that the rate of the participants who give the answers of “often”, “sometimes” and “never” are the highest among the participants between the ages of 37-46.

**Table 7: The Relationship Between the Statement “I prefer the products of an environment sponsor to others even if its products are more expensive” and Age Ranges**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age ranges</th>
<th>I prefer the products of an environment sponsor to others even if its products are more expensive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-26</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-36</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-46</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2= 18.06; \text{ df}= 6; p= .006\]

The rate of participants who give the answers of “always” and “often” for the statement “I prefer the products of an environment sponsor to others even if its products are more expensive” are the highest among the participants between the ages of 37-46. The rate of participants who give the answer of “sometimes” for this statement are the highest among the participants between the ages of 16-26. It is understood that the rate of the participants who give the answer of “never” are the highest among the participants between the ages of 27-36.
The Interest Level of the Participants Towards the Events of Environment Sponsorship

In this part the interest level of participants related with the events of environmental sponsorship are presented.

Table 8: The Interest Level of the Participants Towards the Events of Environment Sponsorship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants were asked in which level they were interested in environment sponsorship events. For this question 13,5 percent of the participants answered as “low”, 52,5 percent of them answered as “middle” and 34 percent of them answered as “high”.

The Views of the Participants About the Practices Which Should Be Increased by the Corporations about Environment Sponsorship

In this part of the study the views of the participants about the practices which should be increased by the corporations are presented.

Table 9: The Practices Which Should Be Increased by the Corporations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practices</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garbage collection</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection of natural sources</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afforestation</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To raise awareness of citizens about environment</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>399</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants were asked which practices should be increased by the corporations about environment sponsorship. According to the answers 22 percent of the participants answered as “garbage collection”, 32,8 percent of them answered as “protection of natural sources”, 43 percent of them answered as “afforestation” and 2 percent of them answered as “to raise awareness of citizens about environment”. It can be said that according to answers the rate of participants who think that the sponsorship practices related with afforestation should be increased are more than the others.
Conclusion

Most of the participants think that the sincerity and the images of environmental sponsors are important.

The results show that most of the participants think positively about the environmental sponsors and their confidence increases to the companies if they undertake environmental sponsorship activities.

Many of the participants stated that they might prefer the products of an environment sponsor even if its products are more expensive than the products of other companies. According to the results of the study it can be stated that more than 90 percent of the participants have a favorable image towards the corporations which undertake environmental sponsorship.

It can be said that female participants and the participants between the ages of 16-26 pay more attention to the image of the environmental sponsors than the other participants.

It can be stated that the participants between the ages of 37-46 tend to buy the products of environmental sponsors more than other age groups.

As a general result of this study it can be argued that the participants are sensitive to environment and give great importance to the environment sponsorships.

Acknowledgement

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References


The Adolescent’s Media Use Pattern: Focusing on News Consumption and Its Benefits

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Abstract
The study examined a changed media use pattern of Korean adolescents, which is due to the arrival of smart media era. The research focused on issue which was not dealt heavily in previous researches: adolescents. The study specifically concentrated on their news consumption pattern.
To obtain empirical data, the research conducted an online survey, with teenagers in various academic steps and regions as participants. Out of 59 responses, 50 responses were used for the study, excluding 9 incomplete or insincere responses.
The survey showed that social media, such as Facebook is most used media among adolescents, recording average use of 2 hours per day. The smartphone was most frequently used media platform, through which adolescents watch the news. The next most used media platform was SNS, through mobile Internet. In term of time spent on seeing the news, the social media again is rated as most used platform, recording 51 minutes, over other platforms such as television and Internet websites. For the usefulness of news, many participants answered “average”, and further analysis of such results was performed, utilizing word cloud and sorting participants into different groups. Lastly, the research explored how adolescents expressed their opinions and studied reasons for limited consumption of news.
This study had revealed that social media is a major source for media among adolescents. It also confirmed that SNS’s dominance reaches to news as well, with most adolescents using SNS as news platform and subscribing news via SNS. Interestingly, the difference between sexes was also shown, in media platform used to see the news: fixed, stationary Internet such as personal computers were used more among male participants, while female participants used mobile Internet, such as the smartphone, more.
Based on survey results and previous studies, the research examined adolescent’s media and news consumption in a digital age, in which media and news are offered in many digitalized platforms. The research also raised an issue of media literacy and education through such examinations.

Keywords: Adolescent, News Consumption, Social Media
I. Introduction

The media is a significant factor in adolescent's life. As the adolescents often spend most of their time in a limited space of school, they communicate and share information with others through various media. The media has become a way to indirectly experience various aspects of life, and the most popular pastime for them. The significance of media is an undeniable part of adolescent’s life.

Such significance is supported by previous studies. According to the survey report from the previous research, the adolescents responded to the question that asked, “What is a factor that influenced you the most in your life?” by listing “mass media(18.6%) and “Internet(10.3%)” as their significant influencers next to their parents and friends (Bai, Sang-Ryul, 2015). This study was performed to high school students from four nations, which were Korea, United States, China, and Japan. The Korean high school students had the higher rate of a student who counted "mass media" as an influential factor, compared to high school student from other three nations, showing that mass media has a considerable influence over Korean adolescence. (Bai, Sang-Ryul, 2015)

Even within such influential, but fast-changing media, one remains as unchanging and notable: news. Despite advances of multimedia and media convergence, the news remains to be our media from which we gain news most conveniently in our lives. However, we are doubtful if adolescents now days have an interest in news. This research will examine adolescent's media consumption, with the concentration on their news consumption, and their perception of news.

As there is no clear statistics regarding adolescent’s news usage, the study utilized surveys which were conducted to adult participants. According to ‘2014 Research on Media Consumer’s Consciousness’ by Korea Press Foundation, how an individual approach news article has changed dramatically over the past four years. The traditional paper newspaper showed a continued decrease in use for four consecutive years, rating 30.7 percent of usage on 2014. On the other hand, news usage through mobile internet has dramatically increased starting in 2012, and rated a high percentage of usage of 60% in 2014.

Though the research was conducted with the adult participant over the age of 19, the adolescent’s news consumption will differ dramatically with these results. The traditional paper newspaper is in decline, and seeing news through the mobile internet is on rise. The text-oriented news is receiving less attention, and "Card News", which mixed text and images is receiving more attention and fanfare, not only in online websites but also on social media. Considering such tendency, seeing “Card News” via smartphone may have been a natural turn of news consumption for adolescents.

To further analyze the changed media environment and adolescent's lives within such environment and to see how adolescents are attaining information and communicate with others, the research aim to examine the media consumption patterns of adolescents. Therefore, this research will investigate the media consumption pattern of adolescents, which has changed upon entering an era of smart media, with the focus on adolescent's news consumption which previously lacked academic attention.
II. Literature Review

1. The Internet Usage of Korean Adolescents.

Contrary from popular conception, the adolescents are not disinterested in issues related to politics, society, and government policies. According to ‘2014 Survey In Actual Status Of Information Culture’ by National Information society Agency, 31 percent of teenagers are shown to search for news regarding politics, society, and governmental policies. Moreover, 9.8 percent of teenagers are shown to participate in public consensus or vote regarding such issues (NIA, 2015). Such rate of information search within online environment among adolescents was seconded on by rates from the population in their 20's and 30's, proving that adolescent’s online activities are not limited to online gaming.

‘2014 Statistics in Actual Status Of Internet Use’ by Korea Internet & Security Agency also shows a similar tendency regarding online activities of different age groups. The 91 percent of teenagers had answered that they use the Internet to search for resources and information and 94.4 percent of teenagers answered that they utilize the Internet for communication (KISA, 2015). ‘Statistics on Adolescents’, published by Korean Statistics Agency also shows adolescent’s active Internet use. According to 2014 statistics report, the adolescents spend an average of 14.4 hours per week, rating a slight increase of 0.3 hours compared to prior year's survey. With 95.2 percent of teenagers utilizing the Internet more than once, almost all adolescents are using the Internet daily. It has been reported that they use the Internet mostly to communicate (Korean Statistics Agency Press releases, 2015.04.24). Such statistic clearly reflected the characteristics of adolescents who utilize profile-based SNS such as Facebook and mobile messenger to communicate with their peer group.

The high use of SNS among adolescents are presumably due partially to Korea’s high smartphone penetration rate. With 90 percent of middle and high school student using the smartphone, use of mobile Internet through the smartphone is steeply increasing, with the use of stationary Internet in decline. The teenager's average hours spent on smartphone rated as 2 hours and 50 minutes, recording a longest average hour among age groups ranging from 10 to 60 years of age (Hankyoreh, 2015.09.23).

2. The Changes On Adolescent’s Media Consumption With Advance of Social Media.

Now days, how adolescents approach the news, are changing. The previously mentioned statistics from Korea Internet & Security Agency, reports that 91 percent of teenagers use the Internet for information search, and 94.9 percent of teenagers use it for communication. Such statistics is stating that majority of adolescent utilizing Internet and SNS for information and communication. It is no longer a surprise to see adolescent finding information through SNS, rather than using news broadcasts and newspapers.

With an era of mobiles and smartphones, not only the media consumption but also the media itself had changed. Adapting to the changes, the media started to produce a new type of news: “Card News”. The most visible advantage of the Card News it that it easy to read. It is consisted of succinct writing, posed with several images, often
under ten photos per news. Such news is made to deliver a touching story and to persuade people to reconsider about an issue. Due to such characteristic, Card News is shared actively on SNS. However, such SNS-friendly nature of Card News also causes side effects as well. It has been found that Card News frequently posts provocative and eye-catching information only to attain more attention, such as "Like" on Facebook.

On the other hand, the adolescents are also paying attention to video clips. Such tendency is due to increased public Wi-Fi and advances of Unlimited Data phone plans, which reduced the burden of overusing the mobile data plans. Such phenomenon is proven with various researches. Especially the teenagers are shown to watch more Youtube contents than other age groups. In case of United States, it is shown that 46 percent of adolescents aging from 16 to 19 years of age watch Youtube more than an hour a day (Ericsson Consumer LAB, 2015). The Korean adolescents are expected to exhibit a similar tendency, considering the increased number of Korean Youtubers, who rapidly update intriguing contents for adolescents, such as games and cosmetics.

The debut of social media has greatly transformed how adolescents consume media. Moreover, an increasing number of adolescents are taking a step further than being a viewer. They produce the contents themselves. The number of active BJ in ‘Afreeca TV’ is over 30 million. According to the article by Cine21, the adolescents comprise a significant part of such numbers. The interview by Cine 21 depicts a nineteen-year-old producer, Mr. Kuk Buem Geun who established a self-maintained media named G Pictures. He uploads contents in many genres, from a parody of current issues to stories that adolescents can relate to (Cine21, 2015.10.13). The adolescents are already serving a part of a content provider within online environments. The adolescents who were raised as “digital natives” are nor creating new careers within this new, digitalized era.

3. The Media Consumption of Adolescent in Other Nations.

There is positive and negative use of media. There must be various reasons for the adolescents to misuse a media, but it must also be noted that they had not received a public, appropriate education regarding media usage.

To overcome such educational limitations regarding media, the Korean government is attempting to include media education in a public curriculum. More and more schools are planning to include media education, which was previously absent, into their curriculums through a "free term system" which is fully implemented in 2016. This chapter will examine the cases of developed nations, which implemented media education in their academic curriculums prior to Korea.

The previous studies and case-studies of other developed nations report that such nations do not utilize media platforms singularly, but used multiple platforms, with each platform mutually supplementing the other medium of news. The case of Britain, such mutual supplementation between various media platforms was used for news. For instance, SNS is utilized most popularly and estimated highly as it offers many individual opinions, and has a high participant rate from users. However, SNS lacks accuracy, credit, and equity, in comparison to other platforms, and such aspects are
supplemented by using other media platforms such as TV (Media & Future Institute, 2014). Such Cross-Platform form of news consumptions is a characteristic and common practice with Britain.

The young generation in Germany is reported to gather information through the various platform such as cellphone, TV, computer, and radio. The use of television is preferred for news regarding current social phenomena and issues, while the radio is recognized as a most significant source for daily news. The Internet is mainly used for communication. Such tendencies show how German youth use diverse media platforms mutually to find their desired information (Media & Future Institute, 2010)

The case of Finland shows more clear connection to adolescents. According to Foreign Trend Report by Korean National Youth Policy Institute, in Finland, media education is handled with importance in every institution, from kindergarten to university (NYPI, 2014). The education that highlights comprehension of and communication within the media platforms within a fast-changing media is held significantly.

The studies that compared the media use of Korean and Finnish adolescents shows a difference between these adolescents. The Korean adolescents participate in online activities more actively but is found to be less criticizing of the information they encounter online. Moreover, in contrast to Korean adolescents who discredit the online security and information, the Finnish adolescents are found to examine sources and published dates of the information they found online, and judge the credibility of the news provided by the media (Media Today, 2015.11.19).

Such discretion to distinguish, estimate, and judge the information comes from media literacy education of Finland. The media literacy is not a grand theme. It refers to critical reading skills, through which one can read, comprehend, and analyze the information provided by the media. In past three years, the media usage via Internet has steadily increased, and Internet media usage rate had been recorded as 92%, as of July, 2015 (MSIP, 2016). It is also notable that "reading news" has been rated as highest motivation for consuming media through Internet, with the rate of 82.7%. This is a higher rate than other motivations such as "watching movies"(66.7%) and “watching TV programs”(44.8%). Such results prove that even in this Internet era, news-reading remains as significant part of media and its consumption.

Traditionally, the newspaper has been a window to a sea of information, through which one can comprehend the currents of the world. Such roles remain the same even now, in 2016, where the news is presented to us not only through newspapers but also through television and the Internet. The news can be a prism, looking-glass, and the window through which one can see societal issues in varying perspectives. I believe that news can encourage an individual to learn about problems through news, comprehend them, and encourage him or her to have own opinions regarding the issue. Moreover, such power of critical thinking is best raised in adolescence. Yet, despite such importance, there had not been an in-depth study regarding the news use of adolescents.
III. Research Question

This study has examined both international and domestic studies, reports, and broadcasts concerning adolescent's media use. However, if there is something amiss from such diverse researches and report, it is that of adolescent's news consumption. The studies regarding news consumption with adolescents as their main topic, are scarce. The studies that reflected a rapidly changing media environment and asked whether adolescents are reading news, and if they do, what platform do they use, are near to non-existent. Therefore, this study aims to examine the news consumption of adolescents, which lacked prior discussion. Moreover, study researched how present-day adolescents, who are living in a smart-media era communicate and express their opinions online. Following are clarified research questions:

<Question 1> What is Korean adolescent's media consumption pattern?
<Question 2> How is Korean adolescent’s news consumption pattern?
<Question 3> How does Korean adolescent express their opinions?

IV. Research Method

1. Research Method and Subject.

This study conducted a survey with Korean adolescents as subject to gain empirical information. As the previous studies showed a tendency to set a minimum age of media users as 10 and categorized adolescents as those under the age of 19, this study has selected subjects aging from 14 to 19 year to take the survey.

2. Composition of Survey

The survey was made with Google Survey. Firstly, the survey's main topic and usage were introduced, and it was specified that subject's answers will not be used for any other uses. The survey comprised of 16 questions, which were made after consulting both domestic and international reports regarding adolescent's media use. Firstly, the survey placed questions to examine the adolescent's average media usages. Secondly, it asked adolescent's news usage, and lastly their usual method of expressing their opinions. In last part of the survey, basic demographic information such as sex, age, grade, and type of school was asked. The specific questions are included in a later chapter which concerns the result of the survey.

3. Participants

The study recruited volunteers for survey over a month, starting from December. The adolescents who participated in the survey totaled 59. The total of 50 answers was used for the analysis. Nine answers which were either incomplete or whose respondents were in a different age than intended age range were not used. The average age of respondents was 17.88 years. The survey had higher correspondence rate from female students, with 19 male correspondents (38%) and 31 female correspondents (62%). In term of academic progression, the correspondence rate of high school students was considerably higher, with 41 correspondents in high school (82%) and 9 correspondents in middle school (18%).
As for school types, the correspondents were from diverse types of schools, reflecting that answers represented students from various types of schools; 9 correspondents were from middle school (18%), 33 from average high school (66%), three from specialized high schools (6%), and four from Foreign Language or Science high schools (4%). The students from average high school had most correspondences. As for regions of correspondents, students from diverse parts of Korea participated in the survey, with 22 correspondents were from Seoul, 4 from Gyeonggi Province, 23 from Dae-gu, 1 from Chueng-Buk.

V. Results

1. Adolescent’s Media Consumption.

Before analyzing the adolescent's news consumption, this study will discuss the adolescent's overall media usage. The survey questioned average time spent on TV, newspaper, the Internet, SNS, to answer <Question 1>, which is “What is Korean adolescent’s media consumption pattern?” The participants reported spending average of 64.2 minutes per day in media. The time spent on overall media consumption is only approximately an hour, due newspaper, which takes considerably more time in reading compared to other platforms. The specific time spent on each platform shows that each platform has a varying use time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Television</th>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Internet</th>
<th>SNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>54.12</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>81.34</td>
<td>115.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>58.42</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>118.95</td>
<td>78.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>51.48</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>58.29</td>
<td>137.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With average rate as a standard, it is shown that SNS is a most used media among adolescents, with approximately 1 hour and 55 minutes per day spent on SNS. It is followed by the Internet (approximately 1h 21m), TV (54 minutes), and lastly newspaper (6 minutes). The time spent on newspaper are significantly lower, while the time spent on SNS is notably high. Such tendency is also in accordance with review of previous studies, which was discussed earlier in the research.

With overwhelming use of SNS, high use of smartphone can be assumed, and such deduction complies with ‘Media Platform Usage Report’ by Korea Communication Commission. In this survey, 67.9% of teenagers counted smartphone as a necessary platform in their daily lives. Also, the adolescents who participated in this research's survey answered that they spend lengthy hours on SNS or Internet, and exhibited the same tendency with Media Platform Usage Report.

The result of the survey shows an interesting difference between both sexes. The time spent on watching television is approximately 50 minutes, and there is no significant difference between sexes. However, in case of Internet, the male participants spent twice as much as female participant did, spending 118 minutes. On the other hand, the
female participant spent 137 minutes, which is 1.8 times more than their male counterparts spend in SNS. In conclusion, there is no difference between sexes in television-watching. Yet, in case of internet and SNS, male participants spent more time on the Internet, and their female counterpart in SNS.

2. News Consumption of Adolescents.

The <Question 1> has focused on the overall media use by adolescents. In this chapter, this research will concentrate on adolescent’s news consumption, which had provided a starting point for this research. To answer <Question 2>, the survey asked participants categorize their method of seeing news, their frequently observed news genre, and time spent on seeing news. Next, the research sought to investigate the adolescents' perception of news, by asking how helpful news is to them, and what are their reasons for not seeing the news, if they do not see news.

1) Methods for Approaching News.

How one sees news, has become a question with multiple answers, as ways of seeing the news has diversified from traditional method of watching television and seeing news. To have more clarified categories to distinguish media platform for news, the research referenced from a credible research report. The survey questions from ‘2014 Research on Media Consumer’s Consciousness’ by Korea Press Foundation were used for the research. Considering the participants, the stationary Internet was stated as “websites through desktop/laptop” and mobile Internet as “websites through tablet PC/smartphone”. The scores are ranged from 1 to 3 (1 : Rarely, 2: Average, 3 : Frequently), and higher number are explained as more frequency.

[ Chart 2 ] Frequently Used Media Platform for News (On Scale of 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Platform</th>
<th>Television</th>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Website via desktop/laptop</th>
<th>Website via tablet PC/smartphone</th>
<th>SNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey results show that adolescents in their teens approached news by visiting a website through tablet PC/smartphone, (scored 2.38 point). The next most popular platform of seeing the news was SNS(2.16), followed by website via desktop(1.8), television(1.78), and newspaper(1.32).

The approach to news also exhibited a difference between sexes. More male participants are found to use website news through stationary Internet than female participants. In contrast, the female participant used mobile internet such as smartphone to see the news more, with frequency score of 2.45. Lastly, the previous chart showed that female adolescents spend more time on SNS, and it is also shown with the result of this chart that female adolescent also use SNS more frequently than male to see the news.
As it can be seen from the charts, it is no longer a surprise to read the news through smartphone, which represents a mobile internet, instead of stationary internet. For present-day adolescents who are nicknamed as "Digital Nomad", such online affinity and subscription are natural. In this chart, that adolescents are receiving news through SNS should be noted. It can be seen that SNS became more than a way to share their lives with their friend. It became a window through which they see the world. That new platform through which adolescent can approach the news easily may be a good news. However, whether the news through SNS can deliver an unbiased and credited news is concerning factor in such media consumption.

2) Time Spent for Reading News.

To investigate a specific amount of time spent for news, the survey included questions that asked the average amount of time spend on reading the news on each media platform. The survey results showed that adolescents spend 51.2 minutes reading the news on SNS, 37.6 minutes on websites, 20.1 minutes on televisions. Such results are also in accordance with results of <Question 1>, which showed similar results, with SNS as a leading media platform, followed by websites and television. The difference between times spent on each platform, as did <Question 1>, shows SNS as a most popular platform, in both frequency and time spent on SNS. Such results illustrate how SNS has become a most popular platform for news among adolescents, and the time spent on reading newspapers has transferred to time spent on reading news on SNS.

[ Chart 3 ] Average Time Spent On Platforms For Seeing News (Measure : Minute)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Platform</th>
<th>Television</th>
<th>Internet Website</th>
<th>SNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>20.10</td>
<td>37.64</td>
<td>51.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16.84</td>
<td>41.32</td>
<td>30.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22.10</td>
<td>35.39</td>
<td>64.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This research has examined whether there is a difference in time spent on each media platform by sexes. The chart three shows the results of survey divided by sex and type of platform. The platform which showed a significant difference was SNS. As it was repeatedly seen in the survey result, female adolescents spent more time on SNS. They spent twice as much as their male counterparts, spending the total of 63 minutes on SNS. From such results, it can be estimated that female adolescents spend more time in news through SNS as they spent more time on overall SNS. Additionally, female participants reported longer hours on television than male participants, while male participants reported longer hours on website news than female participants.

3) Most Frequently Seen Genres of News (On Scale of 5)

Next, the survey investigated what kind of news the adolescents see most frequently by asking the participants to rate their most-read genre by scale of 5, with 1 as “Never” and 5 as “Very Frequently”. The categorization of news followed popular category of news genres. However, considering the characteristic of adolescents,
culture, societal, international news had been categorized as one genre. Consequently, the survey categorized four genres of news: politics, economy, culture/societal/international, sport/entertainment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Politics</th>
<th>Economy</th>
<th>Society/Culture/International</th>
<th>Sports/Entertainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most read genre of news among adolescents has been found as Sports/Entertainment(3.04), followed by Societal/Cultural/International(2.92), Economy(2.42), and Politics(2.2). The Sports/Entertainments are found to be the most popular genre. However, in that even Sports/Entertainments scored little over 3, which is a median within the scale of five, the results are not promising. Moreover, as the other genre’s average has been rated as under “average”, it appears that this survey suggests that most adolescents do not, or “Never” see the news.

4) The Usefulness of News (On Scale of 5)

The survey asked participants to rate the usefulness of news with scale of 5 (1 as Unhelpful to 5 as Very Helpful) through the question, “How much do you think does reading news helps you?”. The average of scores was 3.2 point. Overall, the adolescents perceived news as neither helpful or unhelpful them, maintaining a neutral position. As the average score was unfit for in-depth analysis, the study divided participants into groups, according to how they rated the helpfulness of news.

The study grouped Group A with participants who rated helpfulness of news as 4 or five, stating that news was “Helpful” or “Very Helpful” to them. The Group B was constituted with participants who rated helpfulness as 3, as “Average”. The Group C was comprised with those who rated helpfulness of news as 1 and 2, marking it as unhelpful. The chart below shows how each group has answered to helpfulness of news, and how each group consists of the survey’s entire participants. The below is chart of the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Ratio to Overall Participant</th>
<th>Usefulness of News</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A: participants who answered news as helpful</td>
<td>17(34%)</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B: participants who answered helpfulness as average</td>
<td>26(52%)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C: participants who answered news as unhelpful</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants answered to news’s helpfulness as “average” the most. It appears that as the average score was lowered to 3.2 point, with 52 % of the participants rating e helpfulness of news as 3 points.
In Group A, which rated news as helpful to them, the average score of helpfulness scored up to 4.23 and differed from an overall average of 3.2 by 1.03 point. In contrast, the Group C, which stated the news as unhelpful, had the average helpfulness rate of 1.42 points, showing that each group differed greatly in their perceived helpfulness of the news.

Then why does the helpfulness of the news differ greatly among groups? The survey comprised a question to learn about participant’s opinions regarding the issue. Each answer was analyzed through word cloud after distinguishing them/categorizing them by their keywords.

(1) Reasons for Perceiving News as Helpful

The participants answered to the question Why is news helpful, by using keywords such as “information”, “society”, and “could know”. Considering that these keywords were most frequent keywords, it can be observed that they mostly see news as beneficial because they could know about information and society. The second most popular keywords were “how”, “help”, “happens”, “going on”, “gain”, “daily life”, “know”, “world”. Such sum of words indicates that adolescents read news as it can help them know what happens around the world, and gain information. The above is a word cloud made from responses, with frequently appearing keywords in more bold, bigger letters.

(2) Reasons for Perceiving Helpfulness of News as Average
As for why helpfulness of news remained as average, the participants responded with keywords such as “information”, “common sense”, “help”, “understand”, “could know”, which coincides much with answers for the earlier question, “why is news helpful.” It appears that participants who answered helpfulness of news as “Average” agree with helpfulness of news to a degree, but fail to estimate the helpfulness highly, as their usual purposes for news are limited, such as weather forecasts. Above is a world cloud made with the response, with frequent answers highlighted.

On the other hand, the group which rated helpfulness as average are also shown to have a negative perception regarding news. The results included responses which answered that they do not have a specific reason for not seeing the news, such as “Don’t See”, or “Just Not”. The negative keywords were also found. For instance, words such as “no reason”, “don’t”, “cannot trust”, “don’t know”, and “can’t” were among the news, describing that many adolescents do not agree with benefits of news.

(3) Reasons for Perceiving News as Unhelpful

There were seven responses which rated news as “Unhelpful”. These answers were “same things are repeated”, “It seems that there is no issue in living without the news”, “because news has many words that we can’t understand”, “knowing does not change things” and lastly “no particular reason”. For such reasons, these participants felt that news are unhelpful. What would be a reason for such negative reaction?

(4) Reasons for Infrequent Consumption of News

To investigate the reason for the adolescent’s disinterest toward news, the survey asked participants about reasons for not seeing the news. To the question, “If you do not see news often, what is your reason for doing so?”, the participants were encouraged to choose one among the options; "lack of time", "lack of interest/fun", “difficulty in comprehending the news”, “too much news”, and “low quality of news”. For this chapter, out of 50 responses, 41 responses were used for analysis and responses from 9 participants who answered that they see news frequently. The specific survey result can be found in the chart below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Lack of Time</th>
<th>Lack of interest/fun</th>
<th>Difficulty in understanding news</th>
<th>Too much news</th>
<th>Low quality of news</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
<td>17(41.5)</td>
<td>17(41.5)</td>
<td>3(7.3)</td>
<td>1(2.4)</td>
<td>3(7.3)</td>
<td>41(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research focused on the frequency of each option. Among the response options “lack of time” and “lack of interest/fun” had been selected as the most frequent responses. For Korean adolescents who are renowned for their study load, finding time for news is not a common or easy practice. Unless the adolescents, in their senior year at high school, sees news to prepare themselves for Logic Tests, which are often part of university acceptance tests, the adolescents in their middle, high school years find it difficult to make time for news. For adolescents within such environment, the result of this survey which states that the adolescent does not see news due to their lack of time, may be an apparent conclusion.
Moreover, “lack of interest/fun” also showed an identical frequency rate with “lack of time”. Such also appears to be a result of education system which focuses heavily on college entrance, which starts as early as senior years in elementary school in some extreme cases. The adolescents do not have sufficient time nor environment to develop an interest in non-academic subjects. However, if the curriculum encourages news-reading, for example by including an education about children’s news-reading starting from elementary school, the adolescents will be encouraged to continue their interest throughout middle to high school years.

As the adolescents have insufficient time and interest for news, consequently they find it difficult to comprehend the news that consisted of multi-dimensional perspectives on the issue. They also find that their ability to perceive and select the news with critical perspective is lacking. Given such circumstances in which interest and approach to news are blocked, the responses that news is difficult to understand (7.3%) and that news is too many (2.4%), appears to be natural consequences.

3. Expressing Opinions

This research aimed to approach how adolescents express their opinion, which has received an insufficient attention in previous studies, for investigative purposes. This research approached and studied how adolescents express their opinions, given that the topic received an insufficient attention in previous studies. Unfortunately, Korea lacks environmental supports that encourage adolescents to voice out their opinions. Only a few selected adolescents, such as those in Youth Participant Board, Youth Administration Committee, can voice their opinions, through representative positions. Then, how do most adolescents voice their opinions? This research classified adolescent’s expressive behaviors into a diverse and multi-dimensional options for the participants to choose from.

Speak out refers to expressing one’s opinions in public. To estimate how adolescent speak out, the survey asked “What do you do to express your thoughts?” and provided nine expressive behaviors, to which the participant can response by either choosing “do” or “don’t”. Such expressive behaviors were divided into online and offline expressions, as the settings of these two expressions are different. While expressing one’s opinions online is facilitated through its accessibility and anonymity, the expressing one’s opinion offline does not provide anonymity. The research esteemed that such difference between online and offline settings will also make difference in expressing one’s opinion. The specific results are provided in below, in Chart 7. In reading Chart 7, it should be noted that percentage within a parenthesis is not a percentage of a particular answer among entire responses, but a percentage for “do” and “don’t”.
Clicking “Like” or “Agree” button for the article or issue are found as a most popular way of expression. As a simple click can express whether their opinions agree or disagree with the article or news, it appears to be most widely used option of expression.

Next, expressing opinions on SNS is found as second most popular method of expression. It is estimated that as adolescent spend prolonged time in SNS, consequently they speak out within SNS frequently. The participants are found to express their opinions in SNS through various ways, from posting on SNS (36%), uploading photo (34%), sharing the news they agreed with on SNS(32%), commenting on news posted on SNS(24%). Lastly, 26 % of participants are found to participate in online/street campaigns.

Among such options, “Sharing the news they agreed with on SNS” and “Commenting on News posted on SNS” are most notable expressive behaviors. Even though the percentage of such answers is low, with less than half percentage, it confirms that the adolescents, at least part of adolescent population, is actively speaking out their thoughts through news. Sharing news on SNS means that they are spreading the news they agreed with to their social circle in SNS. Such sharing encourages other adolescents to read or take interest in the news, as their friends shared it. Even if news discusses an uninterested topic, the friends are encouraged to take a glance at the title, or read the news. Sometimes such shared news becomes a topic of their offline discussion.

On the other hand, commenting on news on SNS can be seen as more active form of expression. Not only can such method enable adolescents to either agrees or disagree with the contents or nuance of the news, but also enables adolescents to voice their thoughts to the existing comments. Through such various method of expressions, it
can be seen that adolescents are expressing themselves gradually online, with news as their medium.

VI. Conclusion

1. Summary of Results

This study has conducted a research on media usage of adolescents, who lives in a fast-changing media environment. The research focused specifically on news, which provides adolescents a window to the world. To investigate such issues, the research conducted an online survey, with 59 adolescent participants. Through the survey, the research analyzed following results.

The analysis of <Question 1>, which examined Korean adolescent’s media use, found that most used media is SNS, to which adolescents spent the average of 2 hours per day. Next, the analysis of <Question 2> showed that adolescents observed news mostly through mobile internet, such as smartphone, followed by SNS. To examine the specific time spent for news, the survey asked for average time the participants spent on each media platform to see the news. The social media has been selected as a most used media platform for news, over television and Internet websites, with approximately 51 minutes spent per day. As for helpfulness of news, many participants rated it as average. Lastly, examination of <Question 3> has concluded that speak-out through SNS was most active form of expressing opinions among adolescents.

Through such results, this research has confirmed that SNS is a most used platform for adolescents, and that SNS is a most used platform for news consumption, in both frequency and time. Moreover, there was a distinguished difference in each platform’s use and news consumption depending on the sex. The male adolescents are found to use stationary Internet more, while female adolescents consumed media through mobile internet such as SNS and smartphone more.

2. Research Conclusion

This study has significance in that it delved into adolescent’s media usage and news consumption, and their method of expressing their opinions. Yet, the research had few limitations. Firstly, the sample population of the survey was small to represent the adolescent population more accurately. Therefore, result of the survey cannot properly represent the entire Korean adolescent population. Secondly, the research is limited in that it failed to conduct a further analysis based on academic progression of adolescents. Even though the survey had both middle and high school students as participants, the survey was not able to conduct analysis based on their academic progression, as there was a significant difference between middle and high school participants, with only a handful of participants from middle school. The additional analysis based on adolescent’s academic progression, with even participants from middle and high school, will be a notable research as well.

The news is like a breath in daily life. Like breath, news is with us, whether we are conscious of it or not. Moreover, with advance of Internet, the news is omnipresent than it ever was. In this age in which news are overflowing, “curation service” which
finds needed news for an individual is being implemented. However, such catered news cannot essentially be the only necessary news for the individual. The world we live in consists of a complex knot, made with entangled interests, that we cannot see it properly only by perceiving it with one perspective.

Then what would be a solution? The answer to this question relies in education. The adolescent can find their way through such difficulties if they are equipped with ability to read news and analyze the information with critical perspective. The recently published study regarding media literacy stated that media literacy and critical thinking increase as one spends more time on paper news, books, and magazine, while such traits decrease as one spend more time watching television. Moreover, in Britain, it was published that 10 percent of children and adolescents between age of 8 to 15 does not suspect the credibility of information they encounter through SNS (Nownews, 2015.11.23). With such recent researches, the significance of media literacy education is rising, as such education will train adolescents to select correct information and have diverse perspectives.

Whether it be a newspaper, or a television news, everyone is aware of news’s importance. The research has concluded that the adolescents sees such news through SNS. The SNS has become an essential tool of communication for the adolescents. Now, the adolescent should learn, through news, how to interact with world and communicate with others. Our society is needed to develop a quality media education to provide a much-needed media literacy education to our adolescents.
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