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언론정보학석사학위논문

# Generational Differences in News Literacy

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# **Abstract**

## **Generational Differences in News Literacy**

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This study proposed the concept of 'news literacy' as a basis for analyzing the difference in news literacy between the younger generation and the older generation. Specifically, this study proposed a news literacy model based on previous research and empirically examined how the younger generation and the older generation differ in the three dimensions of news literacy: the knowledge structure, the personal locus, and the competencies and skills. To accomplish the purpose of the study, this study conducted an online survey of 862 adults, including the younger generation in their twenties, and the older generation in their fifties. The main findings were as follows. There was no significant difference between the younger generation and the older generation in the knowledge structure. The younger generation did not differ significantly from the older generation in the perception of traditional news information and

awareness of the importance of news. However, the younger generation regarded contextual journalism and watchdog journalism to be more important compared to the older generation. Regarding the personal locus, the younger generation showed more tendency to use news for economic opportunity and education-related information than the older generation, but overall there was no significant difference in the motivation for news use. Finally, the younger generation showed a significant difference in each stage of news use, and it appeared that they use more diverse methods and strategies in news approach, analysis, evaluation, and sharing. In particular, it has been confirmed that the younger generation is a group of demanding news users who appreciate not only the journalism norm but also the pleasant user environment and optimized screen composition when evaluating the news. In other words, the younger generation used the news in more diverse ways and evaluated the news in a wider range of criteria when using the news. The results of this study directly contradict the prejudice that the younger generation is a group of ignorant and indifferent news users. The results show that the younger generation is not a group of news users with low news literacy compared to the older generation, but news users with news literacy composed of different competencies from the older generations. The results of this study are significant in that the multi-faceted generational differences in news literacy were identified through a news literacy model.

**Keyword** : Generation, Generational Difference, Media Literacy, News Literacy,  
News Use, Factor Analysis, Online survey

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# **Chapter 1. Introduction**

## **1.1. Research Background**

This paper examines the generational difference in news literacy between the younger generation and the older generation in Korea. This paper attempts to investigate the generational difference in the various constructs of news literacy including the perception of news, the motivation for using news, and strategies that are deployed in accessing, selecting, critically using, evaluating, and sharing news. In the chapters that follow, this paper will review the literature concerning generational difference and news literacy, and then discuss models and measures of news literacy suggested in prior research. By formulating a model of news literacy that synthesizes discussions from prior research, this paper seeks to investigate the generational difference in news literacy.

Generational difference is a significant social phenomenon that requires scientific research as well as empirical approaches. Generational difference has been indicated to globally engender social



and political tension (Pew Research Center, 2004). In Korea, generational difference has also been pointed out to be a significant factor in understanding the Korean society and its people (Park, Seo, Kim, Ryu, Lee & Lee, 2013). Different generations not only exhibit different political ideologies, place their trust in different news sources, and rely on different outlets for news, but they also disagree on more fundamental issues of the society including the role of the government, social acceptance of homosexuality and immigration, and views of marriage, family, and life values (Kim, 2015; Park et al., 2013; Pew Research Center, 2018). Recent research conducted by Pew Research Center (2018) examined the attitudes and political values of different generations between the age of 18 and 90 in the United States, based on data compiled in 2017 and 2018. In this research, the generational difference was found in a wide range of political attitudes about issues including same-sex marriage, racial discrimination, foreign policy, and America's relative standing in the world (Pew Research Center, 2018).

Generational difference is not a phenomenon limited to the United States. Studies in South Korea have also scrutinized generational difference concerning political attitudes and ideologies. The older generations was more likely to display negative attitudes towards

political issues such as the 2008 candlelight vigil, same-sex marriage, and students' accusations of corporal punishment (Park et al., 2013). Generational difference exacerbates when it comes to beliefs and attitudes towards marriage, gender roles, and reactions to conflicts within the family (Park et al., 2013). The younger generation was less likely to believe that marriage is necessary, respect gender roles, and conform to parents (Park et al., 2013).

Generational difference is not identical with generational conflict (Park et al., 2013; Park, 2017). Generational conflict is a concept that not only refers to the generational difference but also includes how each generation react to the difference (Park et al., 2013); generational conflict, thus, is a consequence of negative reactions towards generational difference, not the generational difference itself. When the generational difference in beliefs and attitudes fails to be understood and communicated between generations, generational difference potentially leads to generational conflict (Burke, 2004; Kim, 2015; Park et al., 2013, Platteau, Molenveld, & Demzere, 2011). Generational difference and generation conflict are multifaceted concepts (Kertzner, 1983, Loos, Hadden, Mante-Meijer, 2016; Park et al., 2013), collectively including the generational difference in beliefs and attitudes concerning

politics, economy, culture, and family (Park et al., 2013). Thus, generational conflict, along with other social conflicts, surface in a variety of social domains, causing a prodigious cost to the nation and hindering national development (Park, Kim, Lee, & Kim, 2009; Jung & Ko, 2014, Choi, Kim, & Lee, 2015). In fact, Korea's level of social conflict continues to worsen. Korea's index of social conflict was fourth-most severe among 27 OECD member states in 2009. In 2010, Korea's level of social conflict deteriorated to be the second-highest nation in social conflict level following Turkey (Park et al., 2009; Park et al., 2013). National economic loss of Korea due to social conflict was estimated to be 246 trillion won annually (Park et al., 2009). For this reason, research that attempts to understand and resolve social conflicts in Korea have been acknowledged to be critical projects for both the people's quality of life and the nation's sustainable development (Park et al., 2009; Choi et al., 2015).

Generational difference has constantly prevailed in media usage and perception as well. This difference is significant since media use and perception is directly affect how people perceive, understand, trust, and believe the society they are living in (Kim, 2017; Pew Research Center, 2018, Mitchell, Gottfried, & Matsa, 2015; Mitchell, Gottfried,

Shearer, & Lu, 2017). Notably, Korea Communications Commission's annual research concerning people's media usage and perception have shown that generational difference exists in a wide range of media use including media outlets used, motivations for using news media, perceptions of media importance and media influence (Korea Communications Commissions, 2016, 2017, 2018). For example, the frequency of television usage increased with age. While only about half of the younger generation watched the television more than five times a week (41.4 percent for adolescents, 57.9 percent for respondents in their twenties), a majority of the older generation watched the television in the aforementioned frequency (including 89.3 percent of respondents in their fifties, 96.5 percent in their sixties, and 98 percent in their seventies) (Korea Communications Commissions, 2018). In contrast, results were reversed regarding the frequency of smartphone usage. The younger generation in their adolescence and twenties used the smartphone more than five days a week with the percentage of 91 and 97 respectively; on the other hand, this percentage dropped drastically for the older generation in their sixties and seventies (Korea Communications Commissions, 2018). 60.5 percent of the respondents in their sixties frequently used smartphones, but when it came to the

respondents in their seventies, the percentage fell to 19.1 percent (Korea Communications Commissions, 2018). Generational difference is also reflected in the perceptions of media importance. The older generation perceives television to be the most critical medium in daily life, whereas the younger generation believes smartphone to be most critical. To be specific, only 11.6 percent and 9.8 percent of respondents in their adolescence and twenties answered television as the most critical medium of their daily routine, while more than half of the respondents over fifty believed the television to be most essential medium (Korea Communications Commissions, 2018). Markedly, the older generation in their seventies showed a high percentage of 93.4 percent in selecting television as their most essential medium (Korea Communications Commissions, 2018). The younger generation, on the contrary, regards smartphone as the most necessary medium in daily life. Less than half of the respondents over fifty selected smartphone as their most essential medium in daily life (the fifties 43.3 percent, sixties 19.6 percent, seventies 4.4 percent), while the younger generation's percentage was over 80 percent in average (the adolescents 78.8 percent, the twenties 84.2 percent; Korea Communications Commissions, 2018). Thus, results show that the frequency of media

use is reflected in how different generations perceive the media. In other words, media use and media perception are closely related to each other. General trends of generational difference in media use and perceptions have been similar for the past three years of research (Korea Communications Commissions, 2016, 2017, 2018).

Generational difference in media use also leads to a generational difference in news use. News using habits significantly differ between generations. According to a series of research from the Korea Press Foundation, which has traced generational trends of Korea in news use since 1984, generational difference is evident in the news media outlets used. More than 70 percent of the younger generation(74.3 percent) (respondents under 30) used news through the Internet, messaging services, and social networking services, while these news media only occupied 27.8 percent of the news use of the fifties and 10.8 percent of that of the sixties (Korea Press Foundation, 2017). Television holds over half of the daily news media consumption of the older generation (respondents over fifty). Time spent on the news via different news media also vary. The younger generation used approximately 40 minutes on the online news (the twenties 38.6 minutes, the thirties 40.9 minutes) while spending less time on

television (the twenties 15.5 minutes, the thirties 29.9 minutes) (Korea Press Foundation, 2017). On the other hand, the older generation used approximately an hour on television news (the fifties 49.4 minutes, over sixty 65 minutes)( Korea Press Foundation, 2017).

The generational difference in news use consequently leads to a generational difference in news perception. According to the study of the Korea Press Foundation (2017), the percentage saying that internet portal websites are news organizations was highest (71.5 percent) among the younger generation (respondents in their twenties). When asked the same question, the older generation (respondents over sixty) were least likely to say that internet portal sites are news organizations (24.9 percent). A notable fact is that more than half of the respondents over sixty responded that they “do not know (56.5 percent)” whether internet portals are news organizations or not (Korea Press Foundation, 2017). This result implies that the older generation is not accustomed to the new media environment after the emergence of internet portal sites in Korea, whereas the younger generation is much familiar with using portal sites for news. Overall, previous research reports that generational difference in news media use and perception reflect more fundamental differences in the understanding of the world.

This research seeks to explore the generational difference in news use in a comprehensive and systematic manner based on the concept of 'news literacy.' In order to guarantee that the digital information presented through online new media is accessible to, usable by, and useful for different generations, we need insight on how younger people use new media differently from the older people, and vice versa (Loos, Hadden, Mante-Meijer, 2016). Only by comparison can we get a clearer picture of how different generations access, use, and share digital information that benefits them and the society. News literacy and its neighboring concepts of literacy has been accepted as a theoretically and methodologically useful tool in understanding the generational difference (Loos, Hadden, Meijer, 2016). Glister (1997), for example, has asserted that digital and media literacy can be a defining factor in how different generations manage their daily lives in the information society. Prensky (2001) has also seen digital literacy as a quality that divides the younger and the older generation.

News literacy requires acknowledgement in the aspect that the concept not only stresses the constructs included in digital literacy, but it also sheds light to the relationship people establish with news, the role of news as a critical source of information in people's daily lives,



and the value individuals place on different news media and journalism (Mihailidis, 2012, 2014; Yang, Kim, Kang, & Park, 2015; Maksl, Ahsley, & Craft, 2015). As a sub-field of media literacy, news literacy has shared its fundamental constructs with media literacy. Although no single definition of media and news literacy has been consistently employed in the field (Hobbs & Jensen, 2009; Potter, 2010), approaches tend to center on critical thinking abilities (Silverblatt, 2008, Maksl et al., 2015), analysis and evaluation skills (Hobbs, 2010; Potter, 2004, 2010), and conscious processing of news messages (Potter, 2004; Maksl et al., 2015). Many researchers also evaluate the ability to produce media messages as an essential component of media literacy (Aufderheide, 1993; Hobbs, 2010). However, this construct has generally been objected by scholars in the field of news literacy who believe the appreciation of news to be more critical than the production of news (Craft et al., 2013).

There are three definitions of news literacy widely accepted in the field (Powers, 2014). First is the definition of media literacy suggested by Aufderhiede (1993): media literacy is “the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate messages in a variety of formats”. Aufderheide’s definition of media literacy has been widely accepted by

scholars and educators of media literacy (Buckingham, 2003; Primack & Hobbs, 2009; The Center for Media Literacy, 2003). Next is Potter's definition of media literacy that defines media literacy as "a set of perspectives that we actively use to expose ourselves to the media and to interpret the meaning of messages we encounter (2004)." Studies of news literacy have accepted these definitions of media literacy and applied them to understanding news literacy. Lastly, the definition of news literacy suggested by Schneider, who first established the highly-appreciated news literacy program of Stony Brook University, is also widely accepted: news literacy is the ability to use critical thinking skills to judge the reliability and credibility of news reports (Stony Brook's Center for News Literacy, n.d.). The idiosyncrasy of news literacy compared to media literacy, its neighboring concept of literacy, will be described in the following chapters of the paper. This paper sought to utilize the concept of news literacy that enables comprehensive and systematic analysis concerning the generational difference in perception of news and its importance, motivations for using news, and strategies applied in accessing, selecting, using, evaluating, and sharing news.

Research on generational differences in news literacy entails significance in the following aspects. First, this study attempts to understand how generations differ in their perceptions of news and its importance, motivations for using news, and strategies they apply while accessing, selecting, using, evaluating, and sharing news by applying the concept of news literacy. News literacy is a multifaceted concept encompassing access, understanding, analysis, evaluation of news message and cognitive aspects on discerning and evaluating quality news, which is expected to allow in-depth understanding in generational difference. Second, this paper acknowledges the fact that generational difference in news literacy may engender generational conflict by leading to difference in beliefs and attitudes including how different generations view the world, perceive social and political issues, align with political ideologies, and solve problems. This paper will help diagnose and unravel the enigma of generational conflict in Korea. Third, this paper provides implications that are significant for the news industry. The younger generation has new and changing ways of perceiving, accessing, selecting, using, evaluating and sharing news that differ from those of the older generation (Maksl et al., 2015). This study provides the news industry with accurate evidence concerning how the

younger generation use news, thus, suggesting implications for the future of the industry.

News literacy research has recently seen rapid advances as an emerging subfield of media literacy (Yang et al., 2015). To date, current news literacy research confronts difficulty in two aspects. Most of all, there has been little agreement on the constructs of news literacy. Reasons for this are twofold. One reason is that scholars and practitioners still lack consensus on the definition and assessment of media literacy, the umbrella term of news literacy (Christ, 2004; Craft et al., 2013; Hobbs & Jensen, 2009; Potter, 2010). As a result, debate continues about the constructs of news literacy as well. Scholars have indicated the lack of agreement in the definition and constructs of news literacy has forestalled the development of the field (Ashley et al., 2013; Maksl et al., 2015; Maksl, Craft, Ashley, Miller, 2017; Vraga & Tully, 2016; Yang et al., 2015). Moreover, several studies have produced quantitative studies on news literacy (e.g., Ashley et al., 2013; Maksl et al., 2015; Lee & Lee, 2011), but what the studies measured as news literacy significantly diverge. Prior research on assessing news literacy have employed news-related knowledge (Ashley et al., 2013), news literacy self-efficacy (Lee & Lee, 2011), and personal competencies

(Yang et al., 2015) as measures of news literacy. In sum, there exists a variety of viewpoints on the constructs of news literacy and the relationship between its constructs. This phenomenon is due to the flexibility of literacy concept itself, but it can also be the consequence of the consistent evolution occurring to the news literacy concept and its constructs due to the fast-changing situation of the news industry (Yang et al., 2015). Therefore, this study seeks to incorporate the scattered definitions and theories of news literacy into one comprehensive model of news literacy, and utilize the concept of news literacy in examining the generational difference reflected in news media use.

In addition, research to date has focused on determining learning outcomes of news literacy education by piloting curricula and testing assessment tools (Powers, 2014), thus only concentrating on the news literacy levels of the younger generation. However, researchers have been asserting that news literacy measures should be tested both on the younger and the older generation, and appropriate refinements to the measures should be made if needed (Maksl et al., 2015). Researchers have also started suggesting the possibility of different generations entailing different sub-skills of media and news literacies (Ahn, 2013), arguing the usefulness of the media and news literacy

concepts in understanding generational difference (Loo et al., 2016). In agreement with the prior studies that have urged the need of examining generational difference in news literacy, this study attempts to include both the younger generation and the older generation as research subjects and provide novel implications through generational comparisons.

In summary, this paper seeks to suggest a model of news literacy that incorporates the scattered definitions, constructs, and theories that have been suggested by the well-known literature of the field. Through the review of literature, the paper analyzes the definitions and constructs of news literacy, theoretical backgrounds of the concept, and suggests the generational difference in some news literacy constructs already identified by prior research. Research questions are formulated through this theoretical review of the field. Results on the generational difference in news literacy are suggested based on the data collected by an online panel survey of 862 participants. In conclusion, this paper proposes an examination of the generation difference in news literacy including the perception of news and its importance, motivations for using news, and strategies applied in accessing, selecting, critically using, evaluating, and sharing news.

In conclusion, the purpose of this paper is to examine the generational difference in news literacy. Understanding news literacy of different generations is significant since news carries social importance in a democratic society as a source of quality information. By building upon literature in the field of news literacy, this paper seeks to accomplish three purposes. The first purpose is to suggest a theory-driven model of news literacy that integrates the scattered definitions, constructs, and theories of prior research. Next, this paper aims to utilize the concept of news literacy in examining the generational difference in a variety of aspects in news media use, thus, proving the usefulness of the concept in understanding the generational difference as already suggested by many scholars. Lastly, this paper aims to conduct survey research to gain insights into how generations differ in specific strategies deployed in accessing, selecting, critically using, evaluating, and sharing news.

The approach of this paper is significant in three aspects. First, this paper suggests a comprehensive model of news literacy that incorporates different constructs and theories indicated by previous research. The model of news literacy suggested in this paper mainly focuses on the examination of the generational difference in news

literacy, attempting to prove the suggestions of prior research that have asserted the usefulness of the sub-concepts of media literacy, including news literacy, in understanding generational difference. Second, this paper attempts to overcome the limitations of prior research by including both the younger generation and the older generation, instead of only focusing on the younger generation. By comparing different generations, this study seeks to obtain a clearer picture of how people access, select, use, evaluate, and share online news. Third, this paper provides survey data of a larger scale compared to previous research conducted in Korea. By including 862 participants, this paper attempts to suggest implications based on statistically-significant results.

## **1.2. Composition of Paper**

This paper is composed of five parts. This paper begins with an introduction in chapter 1 that provides background information about the research along with the purpose and significance of the paper. Chapter 1 introduces various aspects of generational difference and conflicts in Korea, which provide an understanding of the Korean society and its people. In addition, this chapter states the significance of the



concept of news literacy and its usefulness in analyzing generational difference as a social phenomenon.

Chapter 2 postulates the focus of this study by reviewing selected literature at the intersection of generational difference and news literacy. First, this chapter reviews the concept of generation and gives a brief overview of prior studies that have focused on the generational difference in social studies context. Also discussed is how generational difference reflected in a variety of attitudes and beliefs concerning politics, economy, culture, and family can lead to severe generational conflict. Next, definitions, constructs, and theoretical models of both media literacy and news literacy are examined in the chapter. Lastly, a model of news literacy that incorporates the scattered definitions, constructs, and theories of news literacy is suggested in the chapter.

Chapter 3 describes the research questions of this paper and elaborates on the methodology of this paper, including details about the sample, the measurement tool, the procedure of the study, and the analysis of the data. Chapter 4 presents the results of this paper, mainly focusing on the generational difference in news literacy. Lastly, chapter 5

discusses the results, including implications, limitations, and the conclusion of this paper.

## **Chapter 2. Literature Review**

### **2.1. Generational Difference**

#### **2.1.1. Generation**

The first concepts to be examined are ‘generation’ and ‘generational difference.’ Generation and generational difference provide a useful tool for understanding how different formative experiences during technological and social shifts interact with the life-cycle and aging process to shape how people view, understand, and interact with the world (Pew Research Center, 2018). The concept of generation generally refers to cohort members who share historical-biographical past, thus, leading to similar attitudes, worldviews and beliefs grounded in their shared context and experience accumulated over time (Mannheim, 1952/1928; Park, 2017; Pilcher, 1994; Scherger, 2012; Timonen & Conlon, 2014). However, generation and generational difference have been contested concepts since scholars using these concepts may be referring to different aspects of generation including age, experience, lifestyles, historical events, and media use (Bolin & Skogerbø, 2013). Still, there is a consensus between scholars with the

basic nature of the concept. Generation is a concept that describes the homogeneity within a particular generation group and its difference with other generation groups. Thus, the way in which generation is understood inevitably presupposes the existence of two generations, one that previously existed and the other that emerged next (Nash, 1978; Bengtson, Cutler, Mangel, Marshall, 1985). Therefore, the question of what criteria should be used to categorize generations is a preliminary issue to be resolved when conducting generational research.

Prior research has sought to fathom whether such generations are fundamentally dissectable. Positivists who have viewed generation to be dividable at regular intervals have differentiated generations in such a way that chronological time is broken into certain intervals, identifying how each generation is replaced in historical time (Marías, 1974). On the other hand, scholars who emphasized the importance of historical approaches have refuted that generations cannot be and should not be separated at regular intervals. These scholars argue that, even for those living in contemporary times, mechanically positioning them in a single generation group is not possible because their subjective internal times are different (Mannheim, 1952; Sorokin,

1962). However, whether the generation is divided by chronological time intervals or by subjective internal time intervals, the arbitrary nature of generational boundary is inevitable when conducting generation studies (Spitzer, 1973). In order to perform empirical comparisons between generation groups, the problem of generation division must be solved in any way, and this division depends on how the researcher defines the concept of generation.

Although there is not one accepted or 'true' version of generational theory (Pendergast, 2010), scholars agree on the fact that the key feature in understanding the generation concept is "the predicate of relativity (Nash, 1978: 2)." According to Nash (1978), a generation is only formed with respect to its parents' generation or the children generation born after it. The fact that the concept of generation exists through the similarity to one group and difference from the others gives strength to the concept; different groups of generations are 'distinct, but also complementary (Nash, 1978:11)' at the same time. Hence, generation is a term that is used to express the novelty and distinctiveness of a certain generation possesses compared to the others (Park, 2017).

Researches that attempt to build upon the concept of generation all have extensively referred to Karl Mannheim and his study in which he first introduces this concept (1952/1928) (Timonen & Canlon, 2015). This research has been extolled to be the first systematic study on the concept of generation (Park, 2017). Mannheim's purpose of generational research initiated from his intentions to correct two incorrect assumptions of his contemporary researchers and the general public (Mannheim, 1952). One assumption he sought to correct was the rigid dichotomy between the progressive young generation and the conservative old generation, and the other was the assumption that a generation would be homogeneous. The contemporaries of Mannheim mainly used the following two approaches on generational research, which still endure to date: the 'positivist' approach and the 'romantic-historical' approach (Mannheim, 1952/1928). Mannheim regarded these two approaches to both have certain limits in studying the concept of generation. First, concerning the positivist approach, Mannheim concurs with the idea that the biological rhythm including birth, growth, and death do cause the phenomenon of generation. Nonetheless, Mannheim points out that the approach makes the fallacy of biological reductionism. Comte, Cournot, J. Dromel, Mentré, for

instance, have been under the influence of the positivist approach (Mannheim, 1952/1928). Representatively, Comte attempted to understand the generational phenomenon by elucidating the nature and tempo of progress (Mannheim, 1952/1928). Comte extrapolated the span of human life and, thus, the generation period to be 30 years. He also believed that the shorter the lifespan, the faster the progress would be due to generational replacement (Mannheim, 1952/1928; Park, 2017). The problem with this approach conveys an error of oversimplifying that generational replacement would take place regularly according to the biological rhythm of 15 or 30 years. In contrast, the romantic-historical approach claims that generation cannot be quantified but only 'experienced in purely qualitative terms (Mannheim, 1952/1928: 281).' This approach replaces the time-intervals used by the positivists to separate generation with 'subjectively experienceable time (Mannheim, 1952/1928: 282);' that is, different generations exist in the same objective time but in fact live different subjective eras (Mannheim, 1952/1928). This 'non-contemporaneity of the contemporaneous (Mannheim, 1952/1928)' is what interested the romantic-historians including art historian Pinder (Mannheim, 1952/1928). Mannheim points out that the romantic-

historical approach provides researchers with invaluable concepts such as 'entelechy' in understanding generation, yet it overlooks how social events and processes influence the phenomenon of generation (1952/1928). Mannheim asserts that mere co-existence of members of the society is insufficient to form a generation and the involvement of "crucial group experience (1952: 310)," or a historical or social event, is critical. Hence, Mannheim's concept of generation can be defined as 'an age group that is 1) born in the same generation location by sharing biological data, possessing the potential of becoming generation actuality, and then 2) have shared a crucial group experience due to the specific dynamic of the historical and social sphere, thus, actualizing the potential as a generational group.

Mannheim's conceptualization of the generational phenomena is composed of three aspects: generation location, generation unit, and generation actuality. These three concepts are distinct in their terms. Whereas generation location is only a potential for 'similarly located contemporaries' to form a generation, generation unit refers to any generation that exists in a common destiny of the era. These differentiated generation units together constitute a generation



actuality because ‘they are oriented toward each other, even though only in the sense of fighting each other (Mannheim, 1952: 398).’

While follow-up studies have appreciated Mannheim’s conceptualization of generation, they have struggled to apply Mannheim’s argumentation on the distinction between ‘generation location,’ ‘generation actuality,’ and ‘generation unit.’ Vexations were twofold. First, Mannheim’s concept of generation was too closely related to historical stimulus to be utilized in understanding generational phenomena in general. Park (2017) has pointed out that Mannheim’s conceptualization of generation is too narrow to be applied to extended generational phenomena such as generational difference and conflict, thus, suggesting a modified framework of generational difference and conflict introduced in the following chapter.

Second, the concepts that Mannheim suggests as qualifications required for generation locations to become generational actuality are not concrete enough, which makes it hard for them to be applied to empirical studies. For instance, researchers have suffered from difficulty operationalizing concepts such as ‘entelechy,’ which is suggested as a unique style that defines a generation, and ‘generation awareness.’ However, generation awareness or entelechy has been

appreciated by prospective research as an important factor of dividing between generations (Choi & Choi, 2013), which will be presented in the later part of this chapter.

Generational studies have attempted to clarify the concept of generation. There are four main ways in which generation is conceptualized in social science (Kertzer, 1983). These different concepts of generation are mutually-exclusive, and many sociologists simultaneously apply more than one to define the concept of generation in their studies (Kertzer, 1983). The first concept of generation refers to the sense of kinship descent. In this tradition, the concept of generation is understood as the principle of family succession and the primary concern is the different psychological developments of different generations within the family (Bengston, 1975; Acock, 1984). The second is to understand the generation as a cohort of people who were born at similar times and who experienced similar life events in a particular historical period. As Mannehim (1952) explains in terms of 'stratification of experience', the experiences of individuals accumulate sequentially, and the dialectical integration with the primary stratum of experience gives specific meaning and character to subsequent experiences. The interplay of these experiences forms the

consciousness of the individual (Mannheim, 1952). Thus, the premise of the cohort concept is that stratified experience is an essential psychological attribute that distinguishes the generation group. The third is to view generations as task-homogeneous cohorts (Acock, 1984), who are at the same stage in their lifecycle and face the same task in human development. In this case, there is no presupposition of generation effect as they pay attention to the age effect. Finally, there is a concept of the generation of history academics who regards the generation as people who survived in a specific historical period.

The division of generations depends on which of the definition mentioned above is used in conceptualizing the generation concept. When the first concept of generation related to kinship is used, the position in the family hierarchy becomes the standard of generation. For instance, generational studies in media effects, where the effect of parental mediation on children's media use is measured, generational groups are divided into parent and children relationships (Ahn, 2008; Ahn et al., 2013; Kim, 2011). On the other hand, when the concept is conceptualized based on the cohort concept, generations are divided based on the historical events and social changes experienced in adolescence. When the generation is regarded as a task-homogeneous

group following the third definition, the classification according to the social psychological development process is applied. Lastly, the historical academia uses specific historical events as standards of dividing generation groups.

Trends in generational studies of Korea show how the aforementioned definitions of the generation concept (Kertzer, 1983) have been applied in research. In Korea, attempts to differentiate generations by regular time intervals have been consistently deployed in studies demonstrating the differences between generations. To date, generational studies in Korea have conceptualized generational difference by dividing the generations into two groups: the younger generation(젊은 세대) and the older generation(기성세대). These studies have used the concept of cohort to define generation in part because they pay attention to the different historical experiences of the two generations, but they give the impression that they are also dealing with the succession and disconnection of the two generations in the context of social succession, which closely relates to the first definition of generation. These dichotomous generational divisions have increased significantly in the 1990s, especially when the new term "New Generation (shin-sae-dae)" appeared in Korean media. Different

terms to refer to the news generation including 'Generation Y,' 'Generation Z,' 'Generation R (The 2002 World-cup Generation)' or 'Generation 8.8 million' followed. Thus, a number of studies have attempted to examine the younger generation through comparison with the older generation, age forty being the standard point of generational division (Korean Social Association, 1990; Han, 1991; Park, 1995; Im, 1996).

Unlike previous studies, which focused primarily on sociological and psychological dimensions, recent studies have sought to show the difference in consciousness among generations in order to understand the interaction between social structural variables and social experience. The effort to expand the scope of the discussion on generation to social structure level was also an opportunity to introduce more sophisticated classifications of generation according to the difference of the historical experience in the generational study. Researchers began to distinguish generations by age groups based on a time interval of 10 years, which was suggested to show clear distinctions of generational experience in Korea (Im, 1984; Kim, 1987; Ahn & Choi, 1987). In these studies, the difference between generations

was interpreted as the product of the cohort effect entailed from common social experience within a generation.

Based on the fact that the time interval between generations that experience rapid social fluctuations is shorter, the generation classification in Korea usually follows the interval of 10 years instead of the 15 years or 30 years interval widely-used in other countries (Choi & Choi, 2013). This is a sensible conclusion considering that generation scholars have underlined the importance of historical contexts in defining and categorizing generation (Stoerger, 2009). Furthermore, scholars have emphasized that distinctive consciousness of generation is a significant factor in dividing generations (Mannheim, 1952; Choi & Choi, 2013). Research on subjective consciousness of generations in Korea has shown that people in their thirties can be integrated with people in their forties as a single generation group based on their subjective consciousness of generation (Choi & Choi, 2013). This was also true for people in their sixties and seventies, who also regarded each other to be in the same generational group (Choi & Choi, 2013). Results showed that only the people in their twenties regarded themselves as the younger generation, while only people in their fifties regarded themselves as the older generation (Choi & Choi, 2013).

This study seeks to examine two groups of generation: the people in their twenties as the younger generation and the people in their fifties as the older generation. The selection of these two groups of generation comprehensively utilizes the four concepts of generation (Kertzer, 1983), which are applied to the Korean context. First, the relationship between the twenties and the fifties can be understood in the sense of kinship descent, since the fifties are generally the parent generation of the twenties in terms of family succession. Second, these two groups are also appropriate generational groups in terms of the second conceptualization of generation. Under the definition of understanding generations as cohorts, the twenties and the fifties show the 'stratification of experience,' which means that they are contemporaries living in the same era but show distinct characters with each other because they have experienced different historical periods in different life stages. The third conceptualization of the generation defines generational groups according to the stages in their lifecycle and human development. Adulthood, according to the stages in the lifecycle and human development, is divided into three stages (Newman & Newsman, 1975; Erickson & Erickson, 1998): early or young adulthood, middle-aged adulthood, and later or older adulthood. The

twenties and the fifties, also in this sense, show clear distinction as different generational groups since the twenties are included in the young adult stage of life while the fifties are going through the middle-aged adult stage of life. Fourth, the concept of generation in terms of historical period also explains the generational division in the twenties and the fifties since the twenties have enjoyed the economic and cultural prosperity of Korea while the fifties are those who have experienced the times of industrialization and democratization movement (Park, 2017). Also, the twenties have utilized the Internet since childhood while the fifties have been first introduced to this network in their adulthoods (Park, 2017).

Moreover, there are three additional reasons for choosing these two groups as the subjects of examination. First, prior research emphasizes sociopolitical and cultural context as significant factors in distinguishing between generations (Stoerger, 2009). Since historical context is different from country to country, applying a universal classification of generations was not an option for this study. In Korea, prior research divides the younger generation and the older generation based on the age of forty (Korean Social Association, 1990; Han, 1991; Park, 1995; Im, 1996). Previous studies have also pointed out that the



consciousness of the generation plays a vital role as one of the criteria to distinguish the generation. In the case of Korea, people in their twenties consider themselves as the younger generation (Choi & Choi, 2013). On the other hand, people in their thirties and forties defined themselves as “twixters (the generation in betwixt and between)” located between the younger and older generations. People who are older than fifty recognized themselves as the older generation. Thus, the younger generation and the older generation in this study were defined based on how generation groups define themselves.

Second, this study aimed to compare between generations in how they perceive news, why and how they use news, and how they communicate via the internet. Thus, people over sixty were exempted from samples of the study since prior research has reported a considerably small amount of people in the age group as online news users (Korea Press Foundation, 2016, 2017). In previous research, people’s consciousness of generation is based on their mutual consciousness of identifying each other as the same generation and separate themselves from other generations. The people in their sixties, although they are commonly tied with the people in their fifties as ‘5060,’ considered themselves to be in the same generation group with

the people in their seventies, not the people in their fifties (Choi& Choi, 2013). In addition, previous studies have demonstrated that twenties and fifties are unique generations in the aspect that the two group do not share any mutual generation consciousness with other groups (Choi& Choi, 2013). While other generation groups tended to blur their generational boundaries depending on issues asked, the people in their twenties and fifties showed unshared consciousness of their generation group. Thus, this study selected the people in their twenties as the younger generation and the people in their fifties as the older generation, which are the two groups that considered themselves as distinctive units of generation.

Lastly, the people in their twenties and fifties are generation groups positioned at both ends of the economically active population. In Korea, people over 15 are conducted research on their working status (Statistics Korea, May 2018). Considering that the working population in the adolescent and people over 60 are less than 50 percent of the age group (Statistics Korea, May 2018), people in their twenties and fifties were considered as the two groups that are at both ends of the economically active population.

### **2.1.2. Generational Difference**

As mentioned in the previous chapter, generation research innately focuses on the similarities within the group and the differences between the groups (Bengston et al., 1985). In examining generational difference in Korean context, a series of research conducted by Park (2003, 2005, 2012, 2017) has been acknowledged to suggest the most systematic theoretical framework of generational difference (Park et al., 2013); National research on generational difference (Park et al., 2013) has also been conducted based on this framework of Park (2003, 2005, 2012, 2017). Park (2003, 2017) conceptualizes the relationship between generational difference and socio-cultural change based on the framework of Mannheim (1952). Figure 1 demonstrates the core of the conceptual framework proposed by Park (2017).

Figure 1. Park's Framework of Generational Difference and Conflict  
(Park, 2017: 48)

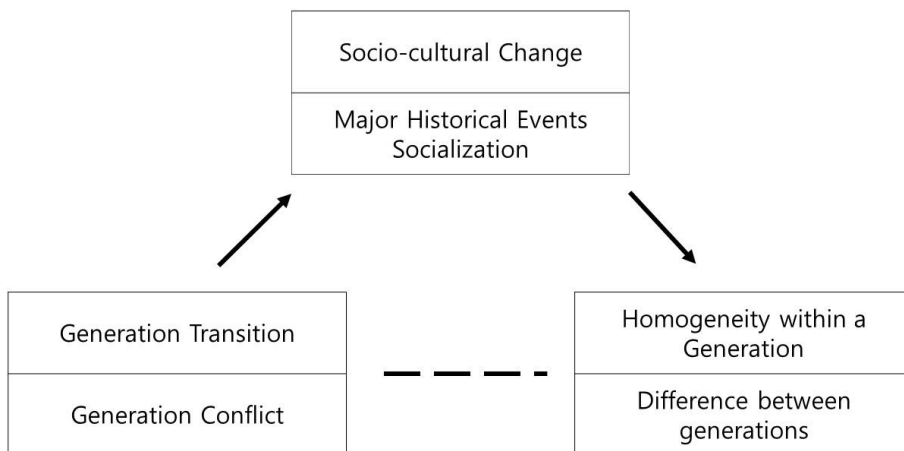


Figure 1 includes Park's (2017) framework of generational difference and conflict. This part of the chapter attempts to explain the logic of Park's (2017) framework and the usefulness of the framework in understanding the relationship between generational difference and conflict. Then demonstrated will be how this framework is reflected in the generational difference in news literacy, especially concerning online news.

Park's framework in Figure 1 is in line with the relationship between generational difference and generational conflict suggested by researchers including Mannheim (1952), Ryder (1965),

Riley (1985), and Bengston et al. (1895). The framework can be summarized into three aspects. First is the relationship between the generation experience and socio-cultural shift: the socio-cultural shift in the structural level forms the personal historical events experienced by different generations at the individual level. For example, when the Korean government unbarred foreign tourism for citizens in 1983 and pursued a total liberalization of the overseas trip in 1989, this socio-cultural shift profoundly formed the personal experience of individuals and generations. Almost immediately after overseas travel was fully liberalized in 1989, the number of outbound travelers exceeded one million for the first time (Ministry of Public Administration and Security, National Archives, n.d.). According to the statistics announced by the Korea Tourism Organization on Sept. 8, 1990, the growth rate of overseas travel for people in their twenties was the highest (Ministry of Public Administration and Security, National Archives, n.d.). Second is the relationship between generational homogeneity and generational difference. People within a single generation group experience similar historical events in similar stages of life, thus, leading to similar ways of thinking and lifestyle. The generational homogeneity and the generational difference are in fact two sides of one coin: the refer to the

same phenomenon from different aspects. Last is the relationship between generational difference, generational conflict, and generational transition. In short, generational difference cross-sectionally entails generational conflict, while longitudinally entails generational transition. Generational difference occurs in various aspects of the society, and due to this difference, generation groups may disagree with, disapprove of, or even reject the views of other generations. When generational difference is not understood, generational conflict occurs. However, in a longitudinal view, it is evident that the viewpoint of the younger generation will replace that of the older generation. Thus, generational difference eventually leads to generational transition. Generational transition again triggers socio-cultural shifts since the demand of the new generation differs from that of the past generation.

Park's (2017) framework is also useful in understanding the generational difference in new use. Whereas the younger generation has enjoyed access towards a wide range of news media and internet connection, the older generation has enjoyed these kinds of access gradually during their adulthoods. Thus, the technological shift of the society has caused a difference in the personal experience of different generations living in the same era. Difference in personal

experience and historical events have caused generational difference. The younger generation is characterized by their heavy use of smartphones and social media, while the older generation is more of a heavy user of the television (Korea Press Foundation, 2018). Both generations also show generational difference in the levels of trust in news media. The older generation was more likely to trust the television news and newspaper articles (Korea Press Foundation, 2017). Generational difference does not inevitably cause generational conflict (Park et al., 2013; Park, 2017). Research, however, indicate that generational difference in Korea have been criticized for causing generational conflict, thus, leading to serious social problems (Park et al., 2013). Generational stereotypes and the myth of generation gap have intensified these erroneous criticisms on generational difference in news literacy. First, research show that different generations convey negative stereotypes towards each other (Park et al., 2013). These stereotypes show the emotional distance each generation convey towards each other, regardless of whether the generation has such a tendency. The negative stereotypes attributed to the younger generation included lack of concern for society, lack of consideration for others, and excessive dependence. Negative stereotypes attributed to

the older generations include lack of productivity, lack of adaptability to changes in society, and lack of rigor. Another study of Park (2005) asserts that both the younger and the older generation's adverse reactions towards generational difference cause generation conflict. The younger generation, for example, tended to show an attitude of youth admiration when it comes to generational difference (Park, 2005). This attitude of the younger generation reveals a sharp criticism to the older generation and pays more attention to the positive sides of the younger generation (Park, 2005). Similarly, the older generation tended to vindicate the traditional ways, displaying attitudes that immensely exaggerate the positive aspects of the older generation and emphasize the negative aspects of the younger generation (Park, 2005). Well-educated men were more likely to exhibit this kind of attitude, actively acting to persuade, discipline, and reproach the younger generation (Park, 2005). Through this research, Park (2005) emphasizes the fact that the stereotypes towards the other generation do not form based on facts; they are formed through discourse that are often based on assumptions. Individuals imitate the stereotypes through the already existing discourse and emulate the perceptions and reactions toward the other generation. This uncritical acceptance of the existing



discourse towards other generations have resulted in the lack of solidarity between different generations (Park et al., 2013). Results show that neither generation perceive each other as a member of a shared society or as a partner that can solve social problems together (Park et al., 2013). Consequences of the discordance between generations get critical when it comes to news literacy. Concerning that news literacy highly appreciates the intentions of people to share and communicate with others the quality news they have accessed, understood, and evaluated as an informed citizen of a democratic society, the fact that each generation does not regard other generations as members of the same civil society suggests significant implications. The absence of shared awareness as members of the civil society can lead to neglect of the influence and effect that their news literacy can have to other members of the society.

Generational stereotypes and disbelief in the counter generation still endure in news literacy without being empirically tested. Although it is true that a generational difference exists in perceptions and use of news media (Korea Press Foundation, 2017, 2018; Pew Research Center, 2018), assumptions that the younger generation is indifferent and ignorant of news has been believed without being tested. For

example, as generally noticed, the younger generation access news less from newspapers and the television compared to the older generation (Korea Press Foundation, 2018). The general belief held towards the younger generation that the generation does not appreciate news (e.g., Hong, 2016) has been based on these statistics, which show less readership of newspaper and television of the younger generation. However, whether these results indicate that the younger generation is shying away from news requires a closer scrutinization. Also, the question whether the younger generation's heavy reliance on social media to access news (Korea Press Foundation, 2017, 2018) indicates the generation's lack of critical selection and evaluation of news also requires empirical evidence to be answered. The same questions can be raised for the older generation. Statistics have shown that the older generation heavily relies on traditional news media including newspapers and televisions, and depends less on other sources of news including podcasts, social media, and news curation services (Korea Press Foundation, 2017, 2018). Based on the fact, the older generation has been characterized by their preference for traditional journalism norms and being less adaptive to the new media environment. Nonetheless, whether the older generation tends to show an inclination

to conventional journalism norms and is less adaptive to the new media environment also requires verification. Hasty stereotypes stemmed from superficial phenomena has engendered misbeliefs between generations. The younger generation believes that the older generation lacks the digital skills to access online news, only prefers the traditional agendas of news, and is intractable towards different opinions. The older generation believes that the younger generation is proficient in digital skills but lacks the critical thinking ability to evaluate news, is uninterested in traditional categories of news including politics, and only consumes news that is related to celebrities or entertainment. Media have referred to these generational stereotypes and beliefs as 'generation gap' without studies to empirically support the argument. Thus, concerns that the generational difference in news perception and news use will cause generation gap and conflict has intensified. This paper attempts to demystify the generational difference in news perception and use through the concept of news literacy and diagnose the actual consequences this generational difference in news literacy conveys towards the society.

## **2.2 Generational Differences in Media Use**

### **2.2.1 Generational differences in media use**

Before introducing the concept of news literacy, this part of the chapter presents the generational difference that have been indicated by prior research concerning media use. Generational difference is one of the important factors that explains why people differ in their patterns of using different media (Loos, Haddon, Mante-Meijer, 2016). Explanations on generational difference suggest that people who are born in a certain period adopt the dominant mass media of that certain period of time, and exhibit particular patterns of media use (Voorveld & Ven der Goot, 2013). However, previous studies on generational difference in media use and sub-fields of media literacy tend to interpret the generational difference as 'generation gap.' Under this perspective, one generation is evaluated as superior or inferior than the other on a vertical scale, usually the inferior being the younger generation. For instance, the study of Na (2002), which examined the generational difference in the use of cell phone, states concerns on the younger generation that they might become more uninterested in communicating with superiors since they prefer horizontal communication via cellphone with their

peers. Concerns related to the reluctance of the older generation to use text-messaging functions of cell-phones were not stated.

Another study conducted by Ahn (2013) also attempted to compare the digital media literacy levels between generations, but the competencies and skills of the younger generation were unfairly assessed with the standard of the older generation. For example, children were measured their access to digital media by being asked whether they know how to purchase products online. Also, children were measured their ethical norms in Internet use by being asked whether they have used other people's security number or ID to use the Internet. Children were concluded to be less knowledgeable and less ethical in media use compared to adults following these criteria. However, considering that children's media use have a high tendency of being mediated by parents (Ahn, 2008; Cho & Bae, 2010), children are often encouraged to use the ID of parents or be forbidden from purchasing online. Therefore, the paper's conclusion that children show lower levels in digital literacy and ethics seems to be unfair. Still, the research entails some significance. Based on theoretical backgrounds of Potter (2004), Jenkins (2006), Ofcom (2003) and EAVI (2009), the researcher explored theory-driven competences of media literacy including the ability to

access, understand, create, participate, and communicate with others through digital media. Also, This research suggested the need for understanding the generational difference in levels of media literacy as a multifaceted comparison rather than a linear one.

Moreover, assumptions concerning generational difference have been accepted as true without further verification (Voorveld & Ven der Goot , 2013). For example, the generational difference in media multitasking behaviors has also been believed to entail a 'generation gap,' which in fact is not true (Voorveld & Van der Goot , 2013). This study points out that the widely-accepted assumption that media multitasking is more prevalent in the younger generation than the older generation has been tested by only one study conducted by Carrier, Cheever, Rose, Benitez, and Chang (2009) (Voorveld & Van der Goot, 2013). Thus, the negative consequences that are expected due to media multitasking including hinderance in learning performance, stress, information overload, and limited enjoyment of the media (Jeong & Fishbein, 2007) have been only attributed to the behavioral patterns of the younger generation (Voorveld & Ven der Goot, 2013). Even the only one study that tested the generational difference (Carrier, Cheever, Rosen, Benitez, & Chang, 2009) failed to report any generational

difference in media multitasking. The study of Voorveld and Van der Goot (2013) advanced to apply a media diary method instead of the one-item media multitasking measure of Carrier et al. (2009). Results showed that both the younger and the older generation use different media in multiple ways, but there exists a generational difference in the combination and patterns of media devices used in media multitasking. The younger generation tended to multitask media with a combination of music, social media, and online video, while the older generation was more likely to use media as a combination of newspaper, e-mail, and radio. Generational difference in media multitasking explains the generational difference in media multi-tasking. The older generation, consisted of individuals who are currently between 50 and 65 years old, tend to watch television and read newspaper more than average because these media were the dominant mass media in their socializing years and during their lives (Peiser & Peter, 2000; Voorveld & Ven der Goot, 2013). Thus, the older generation tended to show patterns of media multitasking that includes the combination of traditional media such as radio and newspaper. On the other hand, the younger generation, raised up with the Internet (Tapscott, 1998) and social media (Livingstone, 2008), showed more patterns of media multitasking in

combination with these media.

Assumptions on generational difference in news use has also foregone empirical tests. The younger generation has been constantly criticized for their lack of news use (Jeong, 2015.03.18). A news article from Media Today has condemned the younger generation for reading an average of 7 minutes a day on portal web sites based on the results from the Korean Press Foundation (2015). The article argues that although the younger generation spends most of their time on their mobile phones, they only spent such a small amount of time on news. However, what the news article does not concern is the other various news media and outlets the younger generation may utilize in their news use. In the article, an interview with professor Kim mentions that the younger generation do not distinguish between news that should be read and news that is just for entertainment. Also, the younger generation are criticized for their skimming and light-reading of news. Nonetheless, no empirical study has proved whether these assumptions on the younger generation are true. A recent study from the Pew Research Center (2016) shows that, unlike what it conventionally believed, the younger generation exhibited more “reading” behaviors when using news compared to the older generations. The older generation was more likely



to "see" news because their primary source of news was television. This research casts doubt on the assumption that the younger generation does not critically read and evaluate news, although empirical verifications are needed for further argumentation.

The logic of this paper is that generational difference in media use in general leads to the generational difference in news literacy, but the generational difference in news literacy does not show in a form that the younger generation lacks the ability to access, select, critically use, evaluate, or communicate about news compared to the older generation. Rather, we expect that generational difference will appear in patterns of news literacy since the younger generation and the older generation will utilize different news media outlets and have different pattern of socializing online (Chang, Choi, Bazarova, and Lockenhoff, 2015).

Earlier studies on news literacy has generally focused on the younger generation, based on the assumption that lack of news literacy is prevalent among the younger generation than the older generation. To date, however, there has been no empirical analysis that comprehensively reports on the generational difference in news literacy. This study aims to provide more insight in generational difference in news literacy by examining whether the younger generation and the

older generation differ in the perception of news and its importance, the motivation for using news, and different strategies they apply while accessing, selecting, using, evaluating, and sharing news.

### **2.2.2 The Concept of Media Literacy**

News literacy, the core concept of this paper, has been positioned a sub-concept of media literacy by scholars of the field (Fleming, 2014; Powers, 2010; Vraga & Tully, 2016; Yang et al, 2015). Even Schneider, who rejected using the established media literacy framework in his newly started Journalism School of Stony Brook University in New York, positioned news literacy as a subset of media literacy (Fleming, 2014). As a result, this chapter attempts to examine the concept of media literacy before diving into the concept of news literacy. The importance of news literacy can be only explored when it is defined along with and distinguished from the broader and more widely used term, media literacy (Powers, 2010). Discussing media literacy is also sensible when acknowledging the fact that news literacy literature has advanced by referring to media literacy literature for components of news literacy (e.g., Powers, 2010; Maksl et al, 2015).

Media literacy is a concept that enables a comprehensive

examination of people's state of media use. Instead of examining one or two aspects of media use, the media literacy requires a variety of aspects of media use and perceptions to be considered for a clearer picture of how people perceive, use, understand, evaluate, and share media messages. As a result, an increasing interest in media literacy has generated a significant body of literature in the field. Many studies have attempted to suggest general conceptualizations of media literacy. The conceptualizations suggested at the beginning of media literacy research are quite broad and lack specificity. For example, the National Association for Media Literacy Education (NAMLE) defines media literacy as a series of communication competencies, including the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and communicate information in a variety of forms. The Center for Media Literacy ([www.medialit.org](http://www.medialit.org)) defines media literacy as the ability to communicate competently in all media forms as well as to access, understand, analyze, and evaluate the media messages. Similarly, Hobbs (1998) conceptualization of media literacy states that media literacy is the process of critically analyzing and learning to create one's own media message through multimedia. As observed, the conceptualization of media literacy is broad since it requires the ability concerning media of all forms. Though lacking some specificity, the

common constructs of media literacy that are commonly suggested include the ability to 1) access, 2) understand, 3) analyze, 4) evaluate, 5) create or communicate media messages. Thai (2014) points out the fact that although a plethora of conceptualizations have been available regarding the concept of media literacy, many of these have not been used in studies that measured media literacy. This is due to the lack of specificity most studies have conveyed (Thai, 2014). Thai (2014), for example, suggests that Hobbs' conceptualization of media literacy (1998) provides no guidance to researchers of how to translate its definition of media literacy as a process and measure the concept.

Researchers have emphasized the need of a comprehensive and systematic conceptualization of media literacy that explicitly breaks down the components of the concept and provide a clearer map in how to operationalize the concept (Potter, 2004; Thai, 2014). Compared to other conceptualizations of media literacy, Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy has been evaluated as one of the most useful tools in measuring media literacy due to its specificity and well-articulated framework (Thai, 2014; Craft et al, 2013; Maksl et al, 2015, Vraga et al, 2015). By synthesizing the various conceptualization of media literacy available in the field, Potter (2004) developed a four-

component definition of media literacy including the knowledge structure, the personal locus, the skills and competencies, and the information-processing tasks. Though Potter (2004) has suggested four major factors of media literacy, researchers have suggested that the last factor, the information processing tasks, is the result of media literacy rather than a component of the concept (Thai, 2014; Maksl et al, 2015). Thus, this study follows the discussions suggested by the scholars in the field.

Table 1. Potter’s (2004) Model of Media Literacy and the adapted frameworks of Thai (2014) and Maksl et al. (2015)

<b>Potter’s (2004) Model of Media Literacy</b>	<b>Thai’s (2014) &amp; Maksl et al’s (2015) Adapted Framework of Media Literacy</b>
Knowledge Structure	Knowledge Structure
Personal Locus	Personal Locus
Competencies and Skills	Competencies and Skills
Information Processing	Excluded (Outcome of Media Literacy)

Potter (2004) suggests that being media literate means that a

person who shows proficient abilities in all three components of media literacy consciously activates these abilities in the process of news. When an individual who shows proficiency in all three components of media literacy does not activate these skills in the process of using news due to lack of energy, lack of motivation, or other reasons, the individual is not in a media literate state. Thus, media literacy is a continuum rather than a dichotomy; media literacy only guarantees that the individual is capable of being media literate with a proficiency in the abilities of media literacy.

The three major constructs of Potter (2004)'s cognitive model of media literacy should be described for an understanding of the basics of the concept. First, the knowledge structure prepares the individual for exposures to media messages. Knowledge provides the individual with the information needed to understand and analyze the media message. Next, the personal locus refers to the needs of information that guide individuals to seek out for information that will be useful to serve their own goals. Lastly, the information processing tools include a variety of cognitive tools that are needed to process the information included in media messages. Based on these three constructs of media literacy, including knowledge structure, personal locus, and competencies and

skills, an individual is able to do better in information processing tasks of media messages.

Research to develop methods for studying and evaluating the usefulness and effectiveness of media literacy education continues to grow (Hobbs & Frost 2003; Duran 2008; Vraga, Tully & Rojas 2009; Ashley et al. 2010). Indeed, the need to assess media literacy has been one of the main concerns in the field (Martens 2010; Potter 2004). Such assessments have been complicated, however, by the range of ad hoc approaches and different definitions and measures employed, which make it difficult to compare results across studies or over time. Scholars have taken quantitative approaches applying measures including but not limited to message comprehension, writing and critical thinking, media structures, and influence scales. Overall, the conceptualization of Potter (2004) has been proved to be the most useful framework in operationalizing and measuring media literacy (Thai, 2014; Craft et al, 2013, Maksl et al, 2015). Studies that have attempted to measure media literacy will be introduced based on two approaches; then, a study that operationalized and measured media literacy based on Potter's model will be suggested to show how this study overcame the limits of prior research.

To date, research and scholarships have made progress in refining the measurement of media literacy through two different approaches: competency-based approach and self-report approach. Measures that rely on competency-based measures of media literacy and those that rely on self-report measures of media literacy display distinctive characteristics. Each approach provides different values to practitioners and scholars. Competency-based measures precisely capture dimensions of media literacy competencies through tasks that are highly similar to everyday practices of analyzing and creating media in the real world. Since competency-based measures are mostly revealed through performance tasks, they are also referred to as performance-based measures (Hobbs, 2016). On the other hand, self-report measures help researchers test theories by asking users to self-assess their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors that have a relationship with media literacy. Many researchers rely on self-report measures of media literacy that enables measurement on similar dimensions of the concept, because competency-based measures are too expensive to be developed, scored, and maintained over time. Self-report measures have a long history in media literacy literature (Hobbs, 2016). Researchers have deployed self-report since they have acknowledged its value of finding



ways to identify how people make critical judgments about the media (Brown et al, 1991). Scholars have asked participants to self-assess their competencies and skills, usually through surveys. While competency-based measures require researchers to code and score the analysis received from the participants, self-report measures ask participants to reflect on their perceptions, behavior, and attitudes as media literacy constructs.

Self-report measures of media literacy have been widely adapted by public health and communication researchers to examine how media literacy education influences teens' knowledge and attitudes that lead to behavior change. In one study conducted by Primack, Gold, Switzer, Hobbs, Land, and Fine (2006), the researchers developed and validated a self-report scale that includes items that measure the Smoking Media Literacy of the adolescent. The theoretical framework of this study adapted the aforementioned framework suggested by Hobbs (2006), which included authors and audiences (AA), messages and meanings (MM), and representation and reality (RR) as its constructs. The measures of Primack et al.'s study (2006) were found reliable with both middle and high school students.

In another study that used self-report measures, Pinkleton,

Austin, Chen, and Cohen (2013) explored how a media literacy curriculum influences adolescents' responses to and interpretations of sexual media messages. A pre- and posttest quasi-experiment was conducted in the field. The results provided that the participants who received media literacy education demonstrate increased knowledge about the potential consequences of sexual activities, improved understanding in the media influence on decision making regarding sex, and a more accurate understanding in teens' sexual norms and the ways media depict sexual activities. More positive behaviors about delaying sexual activity and efficacy for controlling sexual behavior were also reported, along with reduced expectancies in engaging sex.

Thai (2014)'s study has identified the lack of validity and reliability in the field of media literacy and developed a measure that measures the three components of Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy. Potter's (2004) model was selected as the conceptualization to guide the development of a comprehensive measure for media literacy. The results of this study suggested that Potter's (2004) model of media literacy offered adequate specificity to guide and ensure the development and refinement of media literacy measures.

## **2.3 Generational Differences in News Literacy**

### **2.3.1 The Concept of News Literacy**

News literacy has been the focus of recent attention of scholars, educators, and professionals as an emerging subfield of media literacy (Ashely et al, 2013; Craft et al, 2015, Fleming, 2013; Hobbs, 2010; Maksl et al, 2015; Mihailidis, 2011, Yang et al, 2016). Albeit the definition of media literacy is applicable to news literacy, it requires qualification since news literacy, unlike media literacy, has its focus on news media and its messages. Schneider, the founding Dean of Stony Brook University's new School of Journalism with its focus on news literacy (Center for News Literacy, 2016), has defined news literacy as "the ability to use critical thinking to judge the reliability and credibility of information, whether it comes via print, television or the Internet (The Center for News Literacy, n.d)." Literature has provided similar definitions (see Appendix 1).

News literacy has been considered to enable a more comprehensive analysis on how people perceive and use news media and news content (e.g., Powers, 2014). Thus, scholars have attempted to conceptualize news literacy in a way that embraces the knowledge and

abilities required to access, evaluate, and use quality news. Many scholars that attempted to conceptualize news literacy have related the concept with critical thinking skills or the ability to access and use quality news or reliable information from news. For instance, Craft, Maksl, and Ashley (2013) have defined news literacy as “the knowledge and motivations needed to identify, appreciated, and engage with quality journalism.” This definition was used by Rady (2014) in his quantitative study on news literacy. The same team further elaborated on the definition of news literacy in their other study as “being equipped with a complete understanding of the conditions in which news is produced so that they can be better at accessing, evaluating, analyzing, and creating news (2013).” Similarly, Spikes and Haque (2016), quoting Klurfeld and Schneider (2010) have defined news literacy education as teaching people to “demand high quality, verified information from reliable sources, so they can take action, make a decision, or responsibly share it.” Hornik and Kajimoto (2014) have suggested a definition of news literacy in relation to critical thinking. The researchers conceptualized news literacy as “the critical thinking skills necessary to identify reliable, actionable information” in the digital era. Fleming (2014) also underscores the importance of critical thinking skills and the ability to

identify high-quality news. Critical thinking skills and the ability to judge quality news sources have also been mentioned by researchers including Vraga and Tully (2016). Others have sought to apply the widely held definition of media literacy to news literacy. Craft, Ashley, and Maksl (2017), for instance, have defined news literacy as “the ability to access, analyze, and interpret news messages.” Tully and Vraga (2018) have adapted the conceptualization of Craft et al (2017), appreciating the usefulness of this definition in conceptualizing and operationalizing news literacy. Through the dissection of the conceptualizations of news literacy, this study acknowledges the common skills that have been commonly mentioned in prior research: the ability to access, evaluate, and use quality news and use critical thinking skills in the process of news use. Thus, this study defines news literacy as “the ability to access, understand, identify, evaluate, and communicate quality news message and use critical news-reading behaviors during news use.”

### **2.3.2 Maksl et al’s (2015) Model of News Literacy**

To date, the study of Maksl, Ashely, and Craft (2015) has most successfully measured news literacy, and its scale has been adapted in a series of studies (Ashely et al, 2017; Craft et al, 2017; Maksl et al,

(2017). Based on Potter's cognitive model of media literacy (2014), Maksl et al. (2015) suggested a news literacy model composed of knowledge structure, personal locus, and competencies and skills, although focusing on the measure of only two constructs among the three. The research proved that Potter's model provides a useful framework for defining and assessing news literacy. The individual components of the model were identified their contribution to the overall news literacy.

Maksl et al. (2015) sought to apply Potter's cognitive model of media literacy (2004) to measuring news literacy. Research to develop methods for measuring news literacy has grown, and the need to assess news literacy based on theory has been suggested by scholars (Craft et al., 2015; Maksl et al., 2015; Potter, 2004). Instead of applying the previously established measurement of Ashely et al. (2013), which applied the constructs of smoking media literacy (Primack et al., 2016; see Table 2) to news literacy, Maksl et al. (2015) advanced a theory-driven news literacy scale based on Potter's cognitive model of media literacy. This study sought to suggest a comprehensive framework of news literacy based on Potter's model (2004), and measured news literacy by constructs based on the model. The results of this study reveal

that highly news literate teenagers displayed higher levels in all components of news literacy compared to less news literate peers. This study showed how theoretically-derived components of news literacy could reliably measure the concept. However, the study of Maksl et al. (2015) is not without limits. Although this study conveys significant meaning since it introduced constructs of news literacy based on Potter's cognitive model of news literacy (2004), researchers of the field have pointed out the fact that the constructs of this study were heavily focused on the cognitive aspect of news literacy (Vraga et al, 2015). Maksl et al. (2015) states that the study's adaptation of Potter's (2004) model focused on only two aspects: the knowledge structure and the personal locus. The competencies and skills component was left aside, so specific measurements were not dealt in this study. In a study that measured media literacy based on Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy (Thai, 2014), the researcher has asserted that operationalizing competencies and skills is the hardest among the three constructs. Thus, the constructs of Maksl et al's model (2015) do not include the aspect of news competencies and skills, thus, only measuring the knowledge, motivation, and self-efficacy aspects of news literacy.

Table 2. Framework of Smoking Media Literacy (Primack et al, 2006)

Domain	Core Concepts
AA (Authors and Audiences)	AA1. Authors create media messages for profit and/or influence
	AA2. Authors target specific audiences
MM (Messages and Meanings)	MM1. Messages contain values and specific points of view
	MM2. Different people interpret messages differently
	MM3. Messages affect attitudes and behaviors
	MM4. Multiple production techniques are used
RR (Representation and Reality)	RR1. Messages filter reality
	RR2. Messages omit information

### 2.3.3 EAVI's (2009) Framework of Media Literacy Competencies

The competencies and skills component, which was not measured by the study of Maksl et al. (2015), is one of the most frequently dealt components when measuring media literacy. The European Association for Viewers Interest (EAVI, 2009) suggests that individual competences of media literacy include the ability to use, critically understand, and communicate media content. Based on the definition of media literacy conceptualized by the European Commission, EAVI (2009) presents a framework of competencies and skills that include three categories. These three categories refer to different



dimensions of skills and each category can be further divided into subcategories based on the definitions given. The 'use' competency in media literacy refers to the technical dimension skills that are needed to use and access media. Emphasized is the fact that access in this framework implies access to information and not just access to the media (Celot, 2012). Thus, the 'use' competency is measured by assessing the access strategies of participants. The 'critical understanding' competency refers to the cognitive dimension of skills that are needed in evaluating and interpreting media content. According to the definition suggested by EAVI, the 'critical understanding' competency includes critical using skills, evaluation skills, and interpretation skills regarding the media content. The 'communicate' competency of media literacy refers to the communicative and participative dimension of skills that are required when interacting with others, participating in public sphere as active citizens of the society, and create and produce content. The 'communicate' competency generally encompasses the various strategies users apply to create conversation, including sharing media content, leaving comments, or leaving reactions. The research (2012) shows how the constructs of competency suggested are in line with prior research by presenting a comparative

summary of the frameworks of competencies suggested by prior research including Center for Media Literacy (2008), Livingstone (2008), Martens (2010), NAMLE (2010), OECD (2009), Ofcom (2008), and the European Commission (n.d.). Overall, the frameworks present similar constructs in general.

This study attempts to suggest a comprehensive framework of news literacy that embraces not only Maksl's (2015) model of news literacy but also EAVI's (2009) framework of competencies and skills of media literacy to fill the gap that was left unmeasured in previous research. Maksl's (2015) model and EAVI's (2009) framework both have strengths in the aspect that they synthesize the critical frameworks that have been suggested by different advocates of theory-driven medial literacy models; this study would like to integrate these two model and framework to formulate a complete model of news literacy that directly reflects Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy. A survey conducted based on this integrated model of news literacy is expected to identify the multi-faceted generational difference in news literacy. In the following section, introduced is a news literacy model that captures the complex dimensions of the news literacy concept. Therefore, this study has adapted the framework of EAVI (2009) to news literacy based on

the conceptualization of the European Commission. <sup>1</sup> In the process of

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<sup>1</sup> Viherä's model of Communication Capability (1999) is a useful tool in understanding the relationship between the framework of competencies and skills suggested by EAVI (2009). Viherä's model of communication capability shows how communication is enabled through three elements: the ability to access to the message, the skills or competences needed to interpret the message, and the motivation to engage in the communication process as an active member of the community. Failing to meet any of the elements leads to a communication problem. For example, lack of access to the adequate media outlet will hinder an individual with the adequate skills and motivations from accessing to the right information or message. Next, the lack of skills to interpret the accessed information or message also leads to a problem. Even though an individual accesses the right information, the individual is not possible to evaluate the appropriateness of the message due to lack of interpreting skills. Lastly, the lack of motivation is most challenging among all incompatibilities. Only when the individuals are motivated to share news and start a news-related conversation, communication does not occur despite the news users are qualified with access and skills to do so. Thus, Viherä's model of communication shows how the components of news literacy are closely related to each other. Lack of one component will lead to incompatible news use and news-related interactions. Viherä (1999) has also noted the fact that access is the most easiest to measure among the three elements, skills being moderate, and motivation to communicate being the most complicated to operationalize. The convoluted nature of measuring motivation has been proved by prior research in news literacy since attempts to operationalize motivation to use news has failed. For example,

adapting the framework, criteria were slightly modified to match the definitions presented by prior research in the field of news literacy. The model of news literacy of this study, which adapts Maksl's (2015) model of news literacy for the overall framework and the EAVI (2009) framework for the competencies and skills construct is introduced in the following chapter.

#### **2.3.4 A Model For Generational Difference in News Literacy**

This study aims to utilize a synthesized model of news literacy that enables the examination of generational difference in news literacy. Thus, this study is both a conceptual study of news literacy and an empirical study of the generational state of news literacy at present. Based on the literature review presented in the previous chapter, Maksl et al.'s (2015) model of news literacy and EAVI's (2009) framework of

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Vraga et al. (2015) suggested self-efficacy of news literacy as a sub-concept for motivation for using news, but failed to prove the relationship between self-efficacy of news literacy and news literacy. Researchers merely assume that higher self-efficacy may have the potential to increase motivation in seeking news according to the Self Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Therefore, more validated measures to assess motivation for using news are required.

media literacy competencies and skills were integrated in order to formulate a model of news literacy for this study. Based on the three models, new index measures are presented to assess the generational difference in news literacy.

First, Potter's cognitive model to media literacy (2004) has been adapted in conceptualization and testing measures of news literacy (Maksl et al., 2015, 2016; Vraga et al., 2015, 2017). In these studies, news literacy has been referred to as the ability to access, analyze, and interpret news messages, as well as the ability to discern high-quality news from poor-quality news (Maksl et al., 2015, 2017; Vraga et al., 2015, 2017). Following Potter's theory (2004) and studies that have adapted the theory to news literacy (e.g., Maksl et al., 2015), a news literate individual would draw on her knowledge structure of news, according to her information needs and motivations, and apply the appropriate skills and competencies needed in accessing, selecting, interpreting, evaluating the news as well as creating communicating concerning the news. The model of news literacy consists of three dimensions that represent the "knowledge structure," "personal locus," and "competencies and skills" components of Potter's model. Previous research has shown that the Need for Cognition scale (Maksl et al.,

2015) has yielded consistent results in measuring the personal locus of media literacy (Maksl et al., 2015; Ashley et al., 2017, Vraga et al., 2015).

Next, the Framework of Media Literacy Assessment Criteria proposed by the European Association for Viewer's Interest (EAVI, 2009) was employed to develop the indicators of competencies and skills. This part of the model was excluded from measuring in previous research (Maksl et al., 2015, 2017). By including the indicators of competencies and skills suggested by the framework from EAVI (2009) based on the media literacy concept of the European Commission, this model of new literacy provides a more comprehensive picture of news literacy compared to prior research.

Figure 2. A Model of News Literacy

Main Category	Sub-category
<b>Knowledge Structure</b>	Perception of News
	Perceived Importance of News
<b>Personal Locus</b>	Motivation to use news (based on information need)
	Mindful thought processing
<b>Competencies and Skills</b>	News Access
	News Selection
	Critical News Use
	News Evaluation
	News Sharing

This model of news literacy adapts Maksl et al. (2015)'s news literacy model, which applied Potter's cognitive model of media literacy to news literacy. The main categories of the model suggested in this study derives directly from Maksl et al. (2015)'s category of news literacy, which has been widely accepted in the field (Ashely et al., 2017; Craft et al., 2017; Maksl et al., 2017). The sub-categories of knowledge structure and personal locus adapted the concepts suggested by prior research (Maksl et al., 2015, 2017). The sub-

categories of the competencies and skills are consistent with those suggested by frameworks of media literacy from different studies.

In the model of news literacy postulated by this study, three major factors contribute to news literacy: knowledge structures (perceptions of news and its importance), personal locus (motivation to use news), and a variety of competencies and skills needed at each step of news using processing including access, selection, critical use, evaluation, and sharing.

The first factor is the knowledge structure of news. This factor includes the kind of information people perceive as news and the type of journalism people perceive as important. These knowledge structures are what feeds into one's personal locus, which is the second factor of the model. Personal locus includes people's motivation to use different sources of news. Usually, these sources include the critical information that people need in their daily lives and support their decisions as citizens of the democratic society. The third factor is the competencies and skills people practice while using news. Different competencies and skills are required in different stages of news use. With these competencies and skill, one is able to access, select, critically use, evaluate, and share quality news.



## **Chapter 3. Method**

### **3.1 Research Questions**

Based on the literature on generational differences in news literacy discussed in the previous chapters, this paper attempts to demonstrate the following research questions in detail. Through the first research question, this study attempts to further explore the subcategories that form the three dimensions of news literacy. Next, this study will address how the younger and the older generations perceive news and its significance through the second research question. Then, the third research question deals with the personal locus dimension of news literacy, which will show what motivates the younger and the older generations to use news whether they are motivated to use news critically. The last research question explores the different competencies and skills used by the younger and the older generations in different stages of news use , including access, analysis, evaluation, and sharing. Thus, this paper proposed the following research questions:

RQ1: What kind of factors are included in each three dimensions of news literacy (the knowledge structure, the personal locus, and the competencies and skills)?

RQ2: How do the younger generation and the older generation perceive news?

2.1 What does each generation perceive as “news”?

2.2 How does each generation perceive the significance of different types of news?

RQ3: What motivates the younger generation and the older generation to use news?

RQ4: What competencies and skills do the younger generation and the older generation apply during different stages of news use?

4.1 How does each generation access news?

4.2 How does each generation select news?

4.3 How does each generation evaluate news?

4.4 How does each generation share news?

## **3.2 Method**

### **3.2.1 Sample**

Participants in this study included 862 adults 19 years of age or older. Because this study focused on generational differences between the young adults and the middle-aged adults, the first group of participants included young adults between the age 19 to 29 while the second group included middle-aged adults between 49 to 59. The survey was conducted by Macromill Embrain among a sample of adults in their nationally representative online research panel, Embrain Panel (total panel size 1,291,397 as of June 2018).

*Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria.* Since the study focuses on the divergence between generations, the participants were qualified to the young adults and middle-aged adults. For the sake of distinctive comparison, each generation group was limited to 19-29 and 49-59. A screening question was utilized in order to determine whether the individual was within the age range. The screening question only appeared on the screen after the participant had given consent to participate in the survey.

*Sample Size and Evidence of Determination.* The sample size was determined by a sample size calculator provided by SurveyMonkey, a survey research company. The calculation was based on the population size suggested by national statistics. According to the statistics of the Korean Ministry of the Interior and Safety, as of December 31, 2017, there are 6,810,967 and 8,490,204 people in their 20s and 50s, respectively. Aiming a 95 percent confidence level with a margin of error of +/- 5 percent, the sample size needed was calculated to be 385 for each group. 95 percent level of confidence is well-accepted in the research community to represent a reasonable balance between the risks associated with Type I and Type II errors (Rea, L. M., & Parker, R. A., 2005). In order to achieve this statistical power goal, this study intended to survey 400 participants per group, which eventually led to 862 participants in total. Missing data was originally planned to be removed, yet no missing data occurred. This is because the participants were prohibited from moving forward during the online survey unless they answered all questions on the given page.

*Participant Protection.* This study involved voluntary participation as it

was conducted as an online survey. Participants were allowed to withdraw at any time during the survey when they were willing to do so by shutting down the survey page. Responses from participants who ceased to continue the survey were not saved as data. Privacy and confidentiality were maintained through the use of a third-party research company. Participation was anonymous with the researcher never knowing which participants participated in the survey. Furthermore, minimal risk was involved in the survey with no vulnerable population including children or teenagers were involved.

*Design and Procedure.* This study was conducted as an online survey. Data was collected between May 18th and 25th through an online research panel. Participants were sent an e-mail message briefly explaining the research and asking for their participation on an online survey that takes approximately 15 minutes. The participants were able to start the survey once they showed consent by clicking the “participate” button included in the e-mail form.

### **3.2.2 Instrumentation**

A Likert-type survey was developed and adapted to measure the news

literacy constructs according to the newly formulated model of news literacy. The instrumentation focused on generational comparisons in news literacy constructs, with participants responding to all survey items using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1="Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree"). The survey was conducted in Korean, which was the native language of all survey participants. The participants were asked to select the number along with the scale that most closely describes them, their perceptions, or their behaviors. A voluntary consent was replaced with a consent button at the beginning of the online survey. The participant needed to click the consent button before starting the survey and further proceeding to the survey questions.

Certain demographic information, including age, sex, education, occupation, and monthly household income was gathered. Along with demographic data, the survey was composed of nine parts: (1) general media use, (2) perception of news, (3) perceived importance of news, (4) motivation to use news, (5) news accessing strategy, (6) news selection strategy, (7) mindful thought processing of news, (8) news evaluation strategy, and (9) news sharing strategy.

*General Media Use.* General media use was measured by asking 1) news

media use in terms of frequency and 2) time spent on news.

*1) News Media Use in terms of Frequency* News media use in terms of frequency was used to measure how often participants accessed news via each news medium presented. This study adapted a scale previously used to measure the extent to which individuals accessed news via different types of news medium (Yang, 2017). Online video platforms were additionally included as an item since research revealed that the younger generation heavily depended on such medium for news access (Korea Press Foundation, 2017). This scale included 10 items ( $\alpha=.837$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how often they accessed news through each news medium on a five-point scale (1=never; 5=more than once a day). Items included 'domestic internet portal sites,' 'international search engines,' 'internet news sites,' 'curation services,' 'messaging services,' 'social networking services,' 'blogs,' 'online café/communities,' 'podcasts,' 'online video platforms.' The items were suggested with one or more examples to support participants' understanding of each category. Two items ('curation services' and 'podcasts') were presented with additional explanations at the bottom of the survey question since prior research showed small percentage of people using these media compared to other well-known

news media such as portal sites and social networking services (Korea Press Foundation, 2015, 2016; Yang, 2017).

*2) Time Spent on News* Time spent on news was collected by asking participants to answer in terms of hours and minutes the time they spend on news on an average weekday and weekend. In response to the question of how much time they spend on news during a day, participants were given space to type in the amount of hours and minutes. Time spent on news on a average weekday and weekend were separately asked since weekday and weekend schedules significantly differ for an average adult in Korea. This is the method used by the Korea Press Foundation when conducting the National Survey of Media Users annually (Korea Press Foundation, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017).

*Perception of News.* Perception of news was used to measure what participants think of as news. Participants were asked to answer the degree to which they regarded the given information item as 'news.' This study adapted a scale previously used to measure the extent to which individuals think of specific information topic as news (Yang, 2015). This scale is an adapted version of a scale previously used by the National Survey of Media Users (2014, 2015) to measure the extent to which an



individual is interested in different news topics. This scale included 20 items ( $\alpha=.888$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how much they regarded the given information topic as 'news' in a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Items included information topics that are traditionally regarded as news such as 'social affairs (social events, crime reports, etc.),' 'Economy (business, finance, markets, etc.),' and 'world (international politics, international economy, etc.)' and information topics that are traditionally not regarded as news such as 'fashion/style,' 'hobbies/leisure/traveling' and 'entertainment/celebrity,' although completely distinguishing the items into two categories is impossible and unnecessary.

*Perceived Importance of News.* Perceived importance of news was used to measure the degree to which participants thought specific types of journalism as important. Appreciating "responsible" journalism that contributes to democracy and the society is one of the major constructs of news literacy that is underscored by scholars and practitioners of the field (Fleming, 2014). Regarding this variable, participants were asked to answer the degree to which they regarded the stated type of journalism as being significant. This study adapted a scale previously used to

measure the extent to which individuals preferred specific types of journalism (Yang, 2017). This scale included five items ( $\alpha=.782$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how important they regarded each type of journalism to be on a five-point scale ( 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Items included 'breaking news,' 'straight news,' 'contextual journalism,' 'investigative journalism,' and 'watchdog journalism.'

*Motivation to Use News.* Motivation to use news was used to measure the degree to which participants were motivated to use news by asking corresponding information needs. Participants were asked to answer the degree to which each type of information need motivated them. The items of this scale adapted the eight categories of critical information need that were defined through a systematic and extended dissection (Friedland, Napoli, Ognyanova, Weil, & Wilson, 2012). The eight categories of critical information need were suggested after an examination of more than 1000 references solicited by scholars across the US (Friedland et al, 2012). This scale included eight items ( $\alpha=.803$ ), which were identical to the eight categories suggested by Friedland et al. 's research (2012). Participants were asked to respond to each item

by saying how each item contributed to their motivation to use news on a five-point scale ( 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Items included information related to 'emergencies and public safety,' 'health,' 'education,' 'transportation,' 'economic development,' 'environment and planning,' 'civic information,' and 'political life.'

*News Accessing Strategy.* News accessing strategy was measured by asking news accessing behavior regarding social media and internet portal sites respectively.

1) News Accessing Behavior via Social Media News accessing behavior via social media was used to measure the degree to which participants utilize each behavior as a strategy to access news in social media. Participants were asked to answer how often they use each behavioral strategy to access news. This study adapted a scale previously used to measure the extent to which individuals used each way of accessing news in social media (Yang, 2017). This scale included 11 items ( $\alpha=.911$ ), with one item ("I access news recommended by the service itself") added to the original 10 items in accordance to the news selection criteria scale. Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how often they used each behavioral strategy to access news in a five-point scale

( 1=never; 5=more than once a day). Items asked items including whether the participant accessed news through social media accounts of news organizations, reporters, or celebrities. They also included whether the participant accessed news that appears on the first screen of the social media service, searched news of interest using search words or hashtags, or accessed news accidentally while doing other tasks (See appendix 2).

2) News Accessing Behavior via Internet Portal Sites News accessing behavior via internet portal sites was used to measure the degree to which participants utilize each behavior as a strategy to access news in internet portal sites. Participants were asked to answer how often they use each behavioral strategy to access news. This study adapted a scale previously used in the National Survey of Media Users to measure the extent to which individuals used each way of accessing news in social media (Korea Press Foundation, 2015, 2016, 2017). This scale included ten items ( $\alpha=.869$ ). From the original scale used by the Korea Press Foundation (2017), two items related to online news websites were excluded. Specifically, items including “I directly go to the online newspaper website to access news” and “I directly go to the legacy newspaper website to access news” were excluded from the list. Also, the

first item that originally stated as “I see the news title or news image from the portal site’s front page and click it” was divided into two items since the original statement had involved two actual questions: whether it was the news title or the news image that the participant saw and decided to click the news. Thus, the item was divided into two individual items in this study in order to avoid asking a double question (Wrench, Thomas-Maddox, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2008). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how often they used each behavioral strategy to access news in a five-point scale ( 1=never; 5=more than once a day). Items included whether the participant accessed news through selecting an individual news item, a news topic, a news organization, or searching through the search engine (See appendix 2).

*News Selection Strategy.* News selection strategy was used to measure what participants consider significant when selecting news. Participants were asked to answer the degree to which participants regard different criteria to be important in their selection of news. This study adapted a scale previously used to measure the extent to which individuals considered each criterion important during news selecting process (Yang,

2017). This scale included thirteen items ( $\alpha=.862$ ), with one item related to the usability in news-related activities (“Usability in News-related Activities including commenting, recommending, and sharing”) added to the original twelve items. Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how important each criterion was considered when selecting news in a five-point ( 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). The scale included items related to news organizations (e.g., brand, popularity, mission), specific news content (e.g., usefulness, amusement), and new media environment (e.g., pleasant user environment without ads, access via multiple platforms).

*Mindful Thought Processing of News.* Mindful thought processing of news was used to measure the degree to which one engages in mindful thought processing regarding news. This study adapted the scale previously used by Maksl et al. (2015), which was also included in the research’s instrumentation of news literacy. This scale used by Maksl et al. (2015) was based on the five-item need for cognition scale of Epstein et al. (1996). This scale included five items ( $\alpha=.648$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how much they agreed with the statements in a five-point ( 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Items

included “I prefer complex to simpler news” and “I do not like to have to do a lot of thinking” (See Appendix 2). Some items were reverse-coded so that a higher score indicated a greater degree of mindful thought processing of news.

In translating the original scale from English to Korean, the native language of the participants of this study, the researchers applied three methods of survey translations. Among the five methods of translating surveys advanced by Behling and Law (2000), this study used the modified direct translation method, parallel blind technique method, and the random probe method. Using these translation methods in combination when translating surveys was highly recommended by Behling and Law (2000) to make sure that the survey’s translation is equivalent in semantic, conceptual, and normative levels.

To briefly explain the process of translating the scale, parallel blind technique modified direct translation, and a random probe was used in that order. First, the researcher recruited two bilingual individuals whose nationalities are Korean but have earned a bachelor’s degree in the US. The researcher received the translated version of the survey from the translators, which was the final version of translation both translators agreed on. Next, the researcher applied modified direct

translation by asking two communication scholars for examination, with one of them having an academic focus on news literacy. The researcher received feedbacks three times each from both scholars, including feedbacks received after the random probe for final modification. Lastly, the researcher pilot tested the translated version of the survey to three bilingual participants, asking them open-ended questions on how they understood the translated version of survey questions. Adjustments were made after receiving feedback from both the pilot test’s participants and communication experts.

Table 3. Five methods of Translating a Survey (Behling and Law, 2000)

<b>Translation Method</b>	<b>Process</b>
Simple Direct translation	The researcher recruits a bilingual individual to translate the survey from one language to another.
Modified Direct translation	In addition to the simple direct translation, the researcher gives the translated version of survey to a panel of experts who are bilingual and ask them whether the translation is appropriate.
Translation/ Back-translation	In addition to the simple direct translation, the researcher gives the translated version of survey to another bilingual individual without showing him the original version. Then, the second translator



	would back-translate the given survey into the original language and the researcher would check whether the back-translated version of survey is similar to the original version.
Parallel Blind Technique	The researcher recruits two bilingual individuals to translate the survey in the same way as simple direct translation. After the translators compare their translations and make a third translated version of survey that only includes the translations both agreed on, the researcher receives this third translated version of survey.
Random Probe	In addition to the simple direct translation, the researcher pilot tests the translation to a group of bilingual participants. Then, the researcher would ask the participants a series of open-ended questions in order to ascertain whether the survey was understood as intended.

*News Evaluation Strategy.* News Evaluation Strategy was used to measure the degree to which the participant applies critical questions related to journalism code of ethics when evaluating news. This study adapted the items suggested by Kim et al. (2017) in their research of news evaluation criteria. This scale included 16 items ( $\alpha=.919$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how much they asked the suggested questions when evaluating news in a five-point (1=never; 5=always).

*Critical Thinking Behavior.* Critical thinking behavior was used to measure the degree to which participants utilize each critical thinking behavior as a strategy to understand, analyze, and verify the news they are using. Participants were asked to answer how often they use each behavioral strategy to critically think when using news. This study adapted a scale previously used in the media literacy education effect study (Korea Press Foundation, 2018). This scale included seven items ( $\alpha=.802$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how often they used each behavioral strategy to share news on a five-point scale (1=never; 5=more than once a day). Items included whether the participants check whether the news is accurate, ask acquaintances for further information, or try to find a variety of news with different perspectives (See appendix 2).

*News Sharing Strategy.* News sharing strategy was measured by asking news sharing behavior regarding both social media and internet portal sites respectively.

1) News Sharing Behavior via Social Media News sharing behavior via social media was used to measure the degree to which participants utilize each behavior as a strategy to share news in social media.

Participants were asked to answer how often they use each behavioral strategy to access news. This study adapted a scale previously used to measure the extent to which individuals used each way of sharing news in social media (Yang, 2017). This scale included ten items ( $\alpha=.956$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how often they used each behavioral strategy to share news on a five-point scale ( 1=never; 5=more than once a day). Items included whether the participants post news links, post opinions when sharing the link, use hashtags or tag a friend, show reactions, leave comments (See appendix 2).

2) News Sharing Behavior via Internet Portal Sites News sharing behavior via internet portal sites was used to measure the degree to which participants utilize each behavior as a strategy to share news in internet portal sites. Participants were asked to answer how often they use each behavioral strategy to share news. This study adapted a scale previously used to measure the extent to which individuals used each way of sharing news in internet portal sites (Yang, 2017). This scale included eight items ( $\alpha=.936$ ). Participants were asked to respond to each item by saying how often they used each behavioral strategy to share news on a five-point scale ( 1=never; 5=more than once a day).

Items included whether the participants share news links, react to news articles, leave opinions via comments, subscribe to a specific reporter. (See appendix 2)

### **3.2.1 Statistical Analysis**

Once data collection was completed, data analysis was performed using the SPSS software package for Windows (SPSS, Chicago, IL). The method followed here was to first examine the news literacy of the participants by factor analysis to identify subsets of components that are included in each category of news literacy based on the model suggested beforehand. Then, survey responses were analyzed at each category and component level by conducting t-tests. The protocol adopted here for factor analysis was to use default settings initially (Principal Axis Factor - PAF) and to rotate the matrix of loadings to obtain orthogonal (independent) factors (Varimax rotation). The prime goal of factor analysis is to identify simple (items loadings  $>0.30$  on only one factor) that are interpretable, assuming that items are factorable based on the Bartlett's test of sphericity. Once clearly defined and interpretable factors had been identified (Factor loadings  $\geq .10$  were illustrated via an

included table even though only item loadings  $>0.30$  were considered relevant to factor loadings), and responses related to these factors were saved in the form of factor scores.

## Chapter 4. Results

The results of the data analysis in this study have been divided into three sections. The demographic data are presented to provide background information about the participants. Following this information, the results of the exploratory factor analysis are presented. This analysis was conducted to further formulate the components of the three categories of the news literacy model and, thus, provide the foundations of comparing the two groups. Next, the results of the independent sample t-tests are explored. The independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the younger generation and the older generation, accordingly to the components extracted by the exploratory factor analysis. A summary of the data concludes this chapter.

*Demographic Data.* Table 4 presents the demographic data of this study. The average age of the young adult group was 25.22 (SD=2.64), while the average age of the middle-aged adult group was 53.62 (SD=2.79). Among the young adult group 206 were male (49.3 percent), while 212 were female (50.7). Similarly, the middle-aged adult group included 255

male participants (50.7 percent) and 219 female participants (49.3 percent). In terms of education, 385 received some college education or more (92.1 percent) in the young adult group, whereas 336 received some college education or more (75.6 percent) in the middle-aged group.

Table 4. Demographic data

Characteristics		20s (N=418)		50s (N=444)	
		N	percent	N	percent
<b>Age</b>	<b>M (SD)</b>	<b>25.22 (2.64)</b>		<b>53.62 (2.79)</b>	
Sex	Male	206	49.3	225	50.7
	Female	212	50.7	219	49.3
Education	Highschool or Less	33	7.9	108	24.3
	Some College or College	355	84.9	287	64.6
	Graduate				
	Post-college Studies	30	7.2	49	11.0

Monthly Household Income	Under ₩2,000,000	48	11.5	28	6.3
	₩2,000,000 to ₩3,999,999	142	34.0	122	27.5
	₩4,000,000 to ₩5,999,999	116	27.8	149	33.6
	₩6,000,000 to ₩7,999,999	55	13.2	84	18.9
	₩8,000,000 to ₩9,999,999	33	7.9	39	8.8
	Over ₩10,000,000	24	5.7	22	5.0
Total		418	100.0	444	100.0

*Factor Analysis* To determine the dimensions that comprised the multiple choice format of news literacy, a factor analysis was conducted on 133 Likert scale questions from this survey questionnaire, which included data gathered from 862 participants. Judgements were made under the aim to make sure that the placement of an item into a subcategory made intuitive sense. First, items were identified through a principal component analysis



with an eigenvalue of greater than 1. Then, a scree plot was also utilized to help decide on the possible numbers of subcategories. Eigenvalues are presented in a scree plot in descending order, showing the point where a rapid drop occurs in the proportion of variance. In this study, the scree plots initially suggested a model of five for the first category, six for the second category, and nine for the third category. The factor analysis was then repeated using a varimax rotation. For instance, four and three factor solutions were repeated for the first category and the solution was chosen when it made the most intuitive sense based on the definitions suggested by previous studies. Similarly, eight and seven factor solutions were repeated for the third category. On the other hand, the initial model of the second category was accepted without additional analysis because the results made the most intuitive sense based on existing definitions. Eventually, three, six, and seven factor solutions were chosen for each category respectively.

For the first category, Knowledge Structure, a Principal Axis Factor (PAF) with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation of 7 of the 24 Likert scale questions was used. An examination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable (KMO=.888). Bartlett's test of sphericity test indicated that the factor model is appropriate (Approx. Chi-Square=9200.56, df=276,  $P<.001$ ). The results of an

orthogonal rotation of the solution are shown in Table 5. When loadings less than 0.40 were excluded (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988), the analysis yielded an eight-factor solution with a simple structure (factor loadings  $\geq .40$ ; Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988).

Table 5. Factor Loadings for 24 survey items in Knowledge Structure

Category	Component		
	I Traditional News Items	II Untraditional News Items	III News Importance
World (International politics, international economy, etc.)	.734	-.149	.306
Economy (Business, finance, markets, etc.)	.693	-.027	.284
North Korea/Unification (Inter-Korean affairs, Denuclearization, etc.)	.657	-.099	.383
Technology/Science	.655	.147	.114
National Politics (Government, congress, elections, etc.)	.654	-.083	.370
Traffic	.601	.273	.166
Stock Market/Real Estates	.595	.273	-.044
Social Affairs (Social events, crime reports, etc.)	.545	.011	.450

Education/Parenting	.541	.415	-.016
Weather	.501	.216	.295
Local	.453	.296	.246
Shopping/Product Information	-.119	.810	.059
Fashion/Style	-.003	.805	.084
Cooking, Gardening, Home DIY	-.023	.779	.040
Hobbies/Leisure/Traveling	.122	.735	-.030
Culture/Art	.356	.652	.032
Entertainment/Celebrity	.163	.631	-.010
Health	.446	.523	.058
Sports	.447	.449	-.015
Breaking News	.142	.071	.749
Straight News	.201	-.040	.724
Contextual Journalism	.140	.073	.676
Investigative Journalism	.194	.010	.661
Watchdog Journalism	.143	.046	.661
Eigenvalue	4.79	4.28	3.29
Percentage of variance explained	19.96	17.84	13.69

Eleven items loaded onto Factor 1. It is clear from Table 5 that these eleven items all relate to items that are traditionally regarded as ‘news.’ This factor loads onto reported level of perceiving the following items as news: World (International politics, international economy, etc.), Economy (Business, finance, markets, etc.), North Korea/Unification (Inter-Korean affairs, Denuclearization, etc.), Technology/Science, National Politics (Government, congress, elections, etc.), Traffic, Stock Market/Real Estates, Social Affairs (Social events, crime reports, etc.), Education/Parenting, Weather, Local. This factor was labelled, “Perceptions about Traditional News Items.”

Eight items load onto a second factor relate to items that are traditionally not regarded as news. This factor loads onto reported level of perceiving the following items as news: Shopping/Product Information, Fashion/Style, Cooking, Gardening, Home DI, Hobbies/Leisure/Traveling, Culture/Art, Entertainment/Celebrity, Health, Sports. Sports was a double loaded item that is closely related to both categories of traditional news items and untraditional news items, but it was included into the closer second factor. This factor was labelled, “Perceptions about Untraditional News Items.”

The five items that load onto the third factor relate to the

perceptions about the importance of different news types. This factor was labelled, “Perceptions about News Importance.”

Table 6. Reliability, Mean, and Standard Deviation

Component	$\alpha$	M	SD
Knowledge Structure	.889	3.55	.198
Traditional News	.871	3.68	.091
Untraditional News	.854	3.09	.102
News Importance	.782	3.98	.035

*Personal Locus* For the second category, Personal Locus, a Principal Axis Factor (PAF) with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation of 6 of the 20 Likert scale questions. An examination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable (KMO=.810). Bartlett's test of sphericity test indicated that the factor model is appropriate (Approx. Chi-Square=5738.079, df=190, P<.001). The results of an orthogonal rotation of the solution are shown in Table 7. When loadings less than 0.40 were excluded (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988), the analysis yielded an eight-factor solution with a simple structure (factor loadings =>.40).

Table 7. Factor Loadings for 20 survey items in Personal Locus

Items	Factor Loadings					
	I Critical News Use by Norms	II Personal Motivati ons	III Mindful Thought Processi ng (Negativ e)	IV Social Motivati ons	V Critical News Use by Utility	VI Mindful Thought Processi ng (Positive )
I look for news with different viewpoints on a specific issue.	.796	.171	.093	.053	.061	.072
I access news from news organizations whose opinions do not align with my own.	.762	.177	.054	.022	.024	.126
I ask others or search for additional information for further understanding.	.726	.167	.044	.067	.177	-.033
I check the news provider of the news.	.692	-.020	.090	.170	.080	.168

I check whether the news is fact-based.	.568	.017	.053	.136	.451	.134
(To access information about) Education	.072	.739	-.057	.204	.029	.112
(To access information about) Civic Life	.147	.724	-.036	.099	-.013	.107
(To access information about) Economic Development	.138	.705	.036	.187	.138	.004
(To access information about) Transportation	.080	.705	-.081	.186	.057	-.094
I try to avoid situations that require thinking in depth about news (re).	.103	-.052	.888	-.007	-.048	.056
I do not like to have a lot of thinking (re).	.121	-.027	.876	-.020	-.046	.106
Thinking hard and for a long time about something gives me little satisfaction (re).	.043	-.046	.763	.024	.025	-.092
(To access information about) Emergencies and Public Safety	.042	.191	-.021	.793	.080	-.138
(To access information about) Health	.109	.360	-.042	.760	.079	-.004

(To access information about) Environment and Planning	.042	.336	-.016	.609	.137	.035
(To access information about) Political Life	.369	-.003	.114	.561	-.070	.213
I select news that is helpful for me.	.085	.071	-.048	.120	.846	.051
I check whether the news meets my needs.	.225	.107	-.029	.025	.843	.056
I prefer news that challenges my thinking abilities rather than news that requires little thought.	.082	.016	-.052	.017	.123	.856
I prefer complex to simple news.	.247	.101	.105	-.022	.012	.805
Eigenvalue	2.90	2.46	2.21	2.09	1.72	1.58
Percentage of variance explained	14.50	12.32	11.04	10.43	8.75	7.88



Five items loaded onto Factor 1. It is clear from Table 7 that these five items all relate to critical news use driven by journalism norms. This factor loads onto reported level of looking for news with different viewpoints on a specific issue, accessing news from news organizations whose opinions do not align with their own, asking others or search for additional information for further understanding, checking the news provider of the news, and checking whether the news is fact-based. This factor was labelled, “Critical News Use by Journalism Norms.”

Four items load onto a second factor relate to personal motivations for using news. This factor loads onto reported level of using news to access information regarding Education, Civic Life, Economic Development, and Transportation. These motivations are especially related to information needs for personal opportunities. This factor was labelled, “Personal Motivations for Using News.”

The three items that load onto Factor 3 relate to mindful thought processing while using news, asked in negative statement forms. This factor was labelled, “Mindful Thought Processing in Negative Statement Forms.”

The four items that load onto Factor 4 identify the social motivations for using news. This factor loads onto reported level of using news to access information regarding Emergencies and Public Safety,

Health, Environment and Planning, and Political Life. These motivations are especially related to information needs for maintaining a civic life within the society. This factor was labelled “Social Motivations for Using News.”

The two items loaded for Factor 5 relate to critical news use driven by utility of the news item. This factor loads onto reported level of selecting news that is helpful for oneself and checking whether the news meets one’s need. This factor was labelled, “Critical News Use by Utility of News.”

Two items for Factor 6 related to mindful thought processing while using news, asked in positive statement forms. This factor was labelled, “Mindful Thought Processing in Positive Statement Forms.”

Table 8. Reliability, Mean, and Standard Deviation

Component	$\alpha$	M	SD
Personal Locus	.816	3.20	.052
Critical News Use by Norms	.807	3.25	.024
Personal Motivations	.751	2.95	.045
Mindful Thought Processing (Negative)	.811	3.21	.004
Social Motivations	.713	3.32	.006
Critical News Use by Utility	.737	3.54	.003
Mindful Thought Processing (Positive)	.673	2.95	.060

*Competencies and Skills* For the third category, Competencies and Skills, a Principal Axis Factor (PAF) with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation of 8 of the 63 Likert scale questions. An examination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable (KMO=.949). Bartlett's test of sphericity test indicated that the factor model is appropriate (Approx. Chi-Square=38964.885, df=1953, P<.001). The results of an orthogonal rotation of the solution are shown in Table 9. When loadings less than 0.40 were excluded (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988), the analysis yielded an eight-factor solution with a simple structure (factor loadings =>.40).

Table 9. Factor Loadings for 63 survey items in Competencies and Skills

Items	Factor Loadings						
	I News Sharing	II News Evaluati ng	III Portal Access via Search and Clicks	IV Social Media Access	V News Selectin g by Organiza tion	VI News Selectin g by Utility and User Environ ment	VII Portal Access via Personal ization
I leave my thought or opinion by re-commenting on news-related comments of others (social media).	.874	.071	.051	.065	.058	.085	.039
I leave my thought or opinion by commenting on news-related posts of others (social media).	.863	.061	.029	.096	.058	.092	.054

I leave my thought or opinion by re-commenting on news-related comments of others (portal sites).	.852	.051	.106	-.026	.051	.090	-.038
I leave my thought or opinion by commenting (portal sites)	.846	.055	.100	-.029	.082	.076	-.045
When sharing a news link, I upload my thoughts and opinions together (social media).	.836	.063	-.003	.083	.014	-.026	.179
I post my opinion or other information related to a debated news that may open a discussion (social media).	.821	.055	.010	.080	.033	-.025	.257
I recommend news by using voting functions (e.g., ‘upvote’) (portal sites).	.820	.071	.118	.102	.062	.041	-.033
When sharing news via social media, I mark the key points by using hashtags(#).	.819	.012	-.024	.092	.052	-.005	.253

When I am satisfied with the news article, I press ‘subscribe’ to receive news written from the same reporter (portal sites).	.805	.051	.074	.077	.065	.056	.158
When sharing news via social media, I tag(@) a friend who may be interested in it.	.796	.004	-.009	.186	-.024	.076	.208
I re-share the news link that others have shared on social media (social media)	.795	.105	.025	.149	.026	-.014	.223
When the news includes contents that others might be interested, I share the link via my social media account (portal sites).	.789	.073	.050	.145	.053	.001	.125
I react to news articles by pressing ‘like,’ ‘angry,’ ‘want follow-ups,’ etc. (portal sites)	.757	.092	.152	.170	.079	.087	-.227
I react to (e.g., ‘like’) news-related comments of others (social media).	.750	.092	.084	.309	.085	.096	-.127

I react to (e.g., 'like') news-related comments of others (portal sites).	.746	.094	.163	.175	.060	.108	-.276
When the news includes contents that others might be interested, I share the link via my social media account (social media).	.733	.112	.049	.127	.013	-.011	.225
I react to (e.g., 'like') news-related comments of others.	.700	.108	.025	.377	.051	.110	-.084
I further access news recommended based on news use history	.630	.166	.263	.187	.111	.023	-.084
Beyond the 5Ws and 1H, does the story provide contextual information (cause, effect, alternatives, etc.)?	.019	.724	.131	.075	.106	.090	-.057
Does the story reflect only one side of the issue at hand?	.014	.709	.115	.039	.024	.198	-.121
Are there conflicts of interests related to a certain political group?	.051	.707	.115	-.012	.140	.035	-.229

Is the story transparent about methodology?	.108	.698	-.005	-.020	.127	.074	.082
Is the story useful in understanding the issue at hand?	.063	.694	.033	.085	.027	.148	.131
Does the story include various sources?	.016	.691	.069	.123	-.066	.223	.010
Does the story seek sources whose voices we seldom hear?	.045	.683	.041	.134	.055	.081	.061
Is it clear why this particular statement is being checked?	.102	.680	.019	-.013	.147	.092	.161
Could anything the reporter has written be based on assumption?	.043	.666	.108	.070	.064	.036	-.192
Does the story include the 5Ws and 1H (Who, When, Where, What, Why, How)?	.009	.632	.129	.062	.118	.017	.048
Is the story useful in forming novel opinions?	.066	.616	.115	.127	.051	.267	.172
Is the story based on the reporters' own original reporting?	.106	.613	.051	-.052	.266	-.180	.080



Are technical terms explained in digestible form?	.174	.597	.060	-.124	.209	-.052	-.064
Are there conflicts of interests related to a certain advertiser?	.211	.596	.004	-.149	.244	.028	.078
Are sources identified?	.049	.595	.076	.102	.027	.154	.106
Is the story useful in conversing with other people?	.110	.460	.092	.161	-.002	.335	.281
I see the news title from the portal site's front page and click it.	-.068	.055	.772	.095	.120	.168	-.078
I see the news image from the portal site's front page and click it.	.028	.049	.758	.129	.136	.142	-.017
I select the news topic of my interest from the portal site's news section and access news within.	.121	.162	.690	.041	.077	.087	.134

When searching for information, I click on the news that appears in the search results.	.123	.238	.656	.185	-.032	.087	.107
I click on news with good user response (most viewed, most commented, etc.)	.239	.096	.642	.264	.122	.183	.086
I click on a person or an event from the real-time search ranking to access news.	.070	.164	.617	.331	.003	.139	.065
I use the search engine to access news of my interest.	.317	.220	.542	.130	.004	-.040	.278
I access news with the most likes on social media.	.329	.059	.312	.708	.108	.115	.000
I access news recommended (liked, commented, etc.) by my social media friend.	.447	.104	.043	.674	.057	.045	.132
I access news shared by my social media friend.	.441	.119	.031	.664	.031	.047	.136
I access news with the most comments on social media.	.344	.032	.370	.640	.109	.160	-.039

I access news recommended by the social media service.	.319	.016	.257	.619	.054	.088	.128
I access news that appears on the first screen of social media.	.102	.033	.418	.601	.066	.159	-.085
I access news accidentally while doing other tasks on social media.	.192	.142	.372	.580	.030	.133	-.001
Brand of News Organization	.067	.268	.134	.080	.751	-.001	-.039
Mission of News Organization	.061	.365	.049	.070	.696	.118	-.118
Popularity of News Organization	.141	.092	.114	.138	.682	.187	.126
Differentiated Contents from other News Organizations	.149	.243	.021	.033	.589	.242	.212
News Recommended by News Organization	.132	.109	.083	.042	.557	.291	.372
Credibility of News Reporter	.036	.344	.077	-.019	.528	.262	-.036
Optimized Readability on Different Devices	.085	.193	.132	.095	.070	.713	.004

Access via Multiple Platforms including Mobile/PC, SNS, and Portal	.029	.235	.173	.098	.090	.655	-.086
Pleasant User Environment without Pop-up and Display Ads	-.001	.286	.114	-.010	.088	.628	-.126
Amusement of News Content	.111	.028	.132	.201	.219	.570	.031
Usability in News-related Activities including commenting, recommending, and sharing	.289	.092	.089	.112	.173	.555	.147
Usefulness of News Content	-.063	.257	.133	.022	.313	.469	-.046
I access news via newsletters.	.463	.083	.214	.077	.137	-.059	.606
I access news via my news presets (My News, Subscribed News, etc.)	.454	.117	.313	.127	.136	-.052	.574
I select the news organization of my interest from the portal site's news section and access news within.	.404	.112	.332	.056	.281	-.115	.500

Eigenvalue	13.18	7.81	4.48	3.90	3.19	3.14	2.21
Percentage of variance explained	20.93	12.40	7.11	6.20	5.06	4.99	3.51

Eighteen items loaded onto Factor 1. It is clear from Table 9 that these eighteen items all relate to news sharing behaviors via social media and internet portal sites. This factor loads onto reported level of different behaviors of news users to share news and generate news-related communication online. This factor was labelled, “News Sharing Behavior.”

Sixteen items load onto a second factor relate to news evaluating behaviors. This factor loads onto reported level of evaluating news based on journalism norms including accuracy, transparency, independency, completeness, fairness/impartiality, and utility. These items were all related to the specific questions based on journalism norms that news users would ask in order to critically evaluate news. This factor was labelled, “News Evaluating Behavior.”

The seven items that load onto Factor 3 relate to news access through internet portal sites via searching and clicking news items. These items were all related to news accessing behaviors that require the news user to search news or click news titles or images from the Internet page. This factor was labelled, “News Access through Internet Portal Sites via Search and Clicks.”

The seven items that load onto Factor 4 identify news access through social media. This factor loads onto reported level of accessing

news with the most likes on social media, news recommended (liked, commented, etc.) by my social media friend, news shared by my social media friend, news with the most comments on social media, news recommended by the social media service, news that appears on the first screen of social media, and news that is accidentally accessed while doing other tasks on social media. This factor was labelled “News Access through Social Media.”

The six items loaded for Factor 5 relate to news selecting criteria based on news organizations’ features. This factor loads onto reported level of selecting news based on the news organizations’ features including the Brand of News Organization, the Mission of News Organization, the Popularity of News Organization, the Differentiated Contents from other News Organizations, the News Recommended by News Organization, and the Credibility of News Reporters of the Organization. This factor was labelled, “News Selecting by News Organization.”

The six items loaded for Factor 6 relate to news selecting criteria based on news utility and user environment. This factor loads onto reported level of selecting news based on the Optimized Readability on Different Devices, Access via Multiple Platforms including Mobile/PC, SNS, and Portal, Pleasant User Environment without Pop-up and Display Ads,

Amusement of News Content, and Usability in News-related Activities including commenting, recommending, and sharing. This factor was labelled, “News Selecting by News Utility and User Environment.”

Three items for Factor 7 represented news access through Internet portal sites via news personalization. Respondents reported their access to news via newsletters, via news presets (My News, Subscribed News, etc.), and via selecting the news organization of interest from the portal site’s news section and access news within. This factor was labelled, “News Access Through Internet Portal Sites via Personalization.”

Table10. Reliability, Mean, and Standard Deviation

Component	$\alpha$	M	SD
Competencies and Skills	.958	2.94	.489
Social Media Access	.895	2.77	.096
Internet Portal Access via Personalization	.845	2.37	.028
Internet Portal Access Via Search and Clicks	.862	3.44	.060
News Selecting by Organization	.827	3.46	.046
News Selecting by Utility and User Environment	.778	3.61	.072
News Evaluating	.919	3.50	.032
News Sharing	.970	2.01	.028



*T-tests* The results obtained from the first category, Knowledge Structure, and its subcategories—Perceptions of Traditional News, Perceptions of Untraditional News, and Perceptions of News Importance—are shown in Table 11. Table 11 reveals a significant difference in the category of Knowledge Structure, which is the first layer of the Model of News Literacy. The knowledge structure of the younger generation and the older generation was significantly different, with the mean score of the younger generation ( $M=3.59$ ,  $SD=.47$ ) being higher than that of the older generation ( $M=3.52$ ,  $SD=.44$ ). This result suggests that the younger generation was more likely to show higher certainty in their perceptions of news items and news importance. Among the subcategories, there was significant difference in the perception of traditional news between the younger generation ( $M=3.74$ ,  $SD=.60$ ) and the older generation ( $M=3.59$ ,  $SD=.51$ ). The result indicates that the younger generation generally showed higher tendency in perceiving traditional news items as news. No significant differences were found in the other two subcategories, which are perceptions of untraditional news and news importance. This result suggests that, unlike the general belief, the younger generation was not more likely to perceive untraditional news items such as product information or life hacks as news. The younger generation also showed similar levels of perceptions when it comes to news importance.

Table 11. Knowledge Structure

Category	20s (N=418)		50s (N=444)		t-test	P
	M	SD	M	SD		
Knowledge Structure	3.59	.47	3.52	.44	2.24	<.05
Traditional News	3.74	.60	3.59	.52	3.99	<.001
Untraditional News	3.03	.74	3.04	.64	-.20	Ns
News Importance	4.01	.60	3.95	.56	1.62	Ns

The results obtained from the second category, Personal Locus, and its subcategories—Personal Motivations for Using News, Social Motivations for Using News, Mindful Thought Processing (Positive Statements), Mindful Thought Processing (Negative Statements), Critical News Use driven by Utility, and Critical News Use driven by Journalism Norms—are shown in Table 12. Table 12 reveals a significant difference in the category of Personal Locus, which is the second layer of the Model of News Literacy. The Personal Locus of the younger generation and the older generation was significantly different, with the mean score of the younger generation (M=3.42, SD=.42) being higher than that of the older generation

( $M=3.17$ ,  $SD=.41$ ). This result suggests that the younger generation was more likely to show higher levels of control in using news. Among the subcategories, there was significant difference in personal motivations for using news between the younger generation ( $M=3.03$ ,  $SD=.79$ ) and the older generation ( $M=2.87$ ,  $SD=.74$ ). The result indicates that the younger generation were more likely to use news due to personal motivations related to educational, economic, and cultural opportunities. Also, there was significant difference in mindful thought processing that were asked in negative statement forms, with the mean score of the younger generation ( $M=3.90$ ,  $SD=.78$ ) being higher than that of the older generation ( $M=3.01$ ,  $SD=.70$ ). The result indicates that the younger generation are more likely to show mindful thought processing when using news. Significant difference also exists between the two generations in terms of critical news use driven by utility. Participants from the younger generation ( $M=3.67$ ,  $SD=.66$ ) were more likely to ask themselves whether the news is helpful or useful to critically use news. No significant differences were found in other subcategories including social motivations for using news, mindful thought processing in positive statement forms, and critical news use driven by journalism norms. These results also suggest important implications since they refute generally held misconceptions about the news use of the younger

generation. The results show that the younger generation do not show significant difference from the older generation when it comes to using news for social motivations including public safety, public welfare, the environment, and civic and political information. The younger generation also did not show significant difference from the older generation in critical news use by journalism norms, which indicates that the younger generation do consider journalism norms when using news as much as the older generation.

Table 12. Personal Locus

Category	20s (N=418) 50s (N=444)				t-test	P
	M	SD	M	SD		
Personal Locus	3.24	.42	3.17	.41	2.67	<.01
Personal Motivations	3.03	.79	2.87	.74	3.07	<.01
Social Motivations	3.35	.70	3.29	.70	1.16	Ns
Mindful Thought Processing (Positive)	3.22	.83	3.19	.75	.58	Ns
(Negative)	3.90	.78	3.01	.70	-2.24	<.05
Critical News Use by Utility	3.67	.66	3.42	.74	5.2	<.001

Critical News Use by Norms	3.29	.75	3.21	.70	1.48	Ns
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The results obtained from the last category, Competencies and Skills, and its subcategories—News Access through Social Media, News Access through Internet Portal Sites via Personalization, News Access through Internet Portal Sites via Search and Clicks, News Selecting by News Organization Features, News Selecting by News Utility and User Environment, News Evaluating, and News Sharing—are shown in Table 13. Table 13 reveals a significant difference in the category of Competencies and Skills, which is the third layer of the Model of News Literacy. The Competencies and Skills of the younger generation and the older generation was significantly different, with the mean score of the younger generation ( $M=3.07$ ,  $SD=.57$ ) being higher than that of the older generation ( $M=2.98$ ,  $SD=.57$ ). This result suggests that the younger generation was more likely to deploy various strategies in accessing, selecting, evaluating, and sharing news online via social media and Internet portal sites. Among the subcategories, there was significant difference in news access through social media between the younger generation ( $M=3.02$ ,  $SD=.95$ ) and the older

generation ( $M=2.53$ ,  $SD=.97$ ). The result indicates that the younger generation were more likely to use various routes in social media to access news. Also, there was significant difference in news access through internet portal sites via personalization with the mean score of the older generation ( $M=2.53$ ,  $SD=1.09$ ) being higher than that of the younger generation ( $M=2.21$ ,  $SD=1.11$ ). This result suggests that the older generation were more likely to use strategies related to news personalization including newsletters and selecting favorite news organization brands were news optimization. Significant difference also exists in how the two generations select news. When it comes to news selecting by news organization features, the mean score of the older generation ( $M=3.55$ ,  $SD=.62$ ) was higher than that of the younger generation ( $M=3.37$ ,  $SD=.71$ ). On the other hand, the mean score of the younger generation ( $M=3.73$ ,  $SD=.61$ ) was higher than that of the older generation ( $M=3.50$ ,  $SD=.60$ ) when it comes to news selecting by utility and user environment. Thus, these results indicate that the younger generation is more likely to consider news utility and pleasant user environment to be important when selecting news, while the older generation tend to focus more on the brand, popularity, or other features of the news organization they prefer when selecting news. The two generations also displayed significant difference in news sharing. The younger

generation ( $M=2.14$ ,  $SD=.99$ ) was more likely to share news via social media and internet portal sites compared to the older generation ( $M=1.89$ ,  $SD=.89$ ). The younger generation ( $M=3.50$ ,  $SD=.82$ ) and the older generation ( $M=3.39$ ,  $SD=.87$ ) did not show significant difference in news access through internet portal sites via search and clicks. Furthermore, no significant difference was found in news evaluating. This result suggests important implications since the result is different from the generally held stereotype of the younger generation. Unlike what they have been criticized for the past decades, the respondents of the younger generation considered journalism norms when evaluating news as heavily as the respondents of the older generation.

Table 13. Competencies and Skills

Category	20s (N=418)		50s (N=444)		t-test	P
	M	SD	M	SD		
Competencies and Skills	3.07	.57	2.98	.57	2.16	<.05
Social Media Access	3.02	.95	2.53	.97	7.54	<.001
Internet Portal Access via Personalization	2.21	1.11	2.53	1.09	-4.29	<.001
Internet Portal Access Via Search and Clicks	3.50	.82	3.39	.87	1.82	Ns
News Selecting by Organization	3.37	.71	3.55	.62	-4.05	<.001
News Selecting by Utility and User Environment	3.73	.61	3.50	.60	5.56	<.001
News Evaluating	3.51	.59	3.49	.60	.56	Ns
News Sharing	2.14	.99	1.89	.89	3.83	<.001



## **Chapter 5. Discussion**

### **5.1 Overview**

The main purpose of this paper was to examine the generational difference in news literacy by formulating a conceptual framework of 'news literacy' that synthesizes the scattered conceptualizations and operationalizations of the concept. To address this issue, the present study focused on Maksl et al's (2015) framework of news literacy, which applied Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy to news literacy. The original framework introduced by Potter (2004) included four factors of media literacy, including the knowledge structure, the personal locus, the competencies and skills, and the information processing tasks. However, scholars have pointed out that the last factor, information processing, should be excluded since the factor was considered to be the result of media literacy and not a construct. Thus, studies that have measured media and news literacy based on Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy have refined the concept of news literacy into three constructs—the knowledge structure, the personal locus, and competencies and skills— and have measured media and news literacy accordingly (Thai, 2014; Maksl et al, 2015). Maksl et

al. (2015), adapting Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy to news literacy, also suggested these three factors to be included in news literacy. However, Maksl et al. (2015) only focused on measuring the first two factors, the knowledge structure and the personal locus. Therefore, an additional framework from a study by the EAVI (2009) was adapted to fill the gap left by Maksl et al.'s (2015) model of news literacy. Thai's (2014) study, which measured all three factors in Potter's (2004) cognitive model including the media literacy skills, was not available for reference in this study because competencies and skills were assessed through qualitative analysis. Since all three constructs of news literacy were measured through a self-report survey for this study, the framework developed by EAVI (2009) was considered to be more appropriate. EAVI's (2009) study presented a comprehensive framework for media literacy competencies and skills by conceptualizing the European Commission's definition of media literacy. By integrating Maksl et al.'s (2015) model of news literacy and EAVI's (2009) framework of media literacy competencies and skills, this study formulated a model of news literacy that has conceptualized and operationalized all three factors of news literacy based on the three

constructs of Potter's (2004) cognitive media literacy. This model of news literacy was used in examining the generational difference in news literacy. Data was collected from samples of two generational groups, with the participants in their twenties as the younger generation and participants in their fifties as the older generation. The model of news literacy synthesized and advanced through this paper was found useful in identifying the generational difference in news literacy and the results generated meaningful findings.

This study draws together existing research on media literacy (Potter, 2004, 2010; Hobbs, 2006, 2010; EAVI, 2009) and journalism (Lacy, 2015; Vehkoo, 2010), as well as information needs (Friedland, Napoli, Ognyanova, Weil, & Wilson, 2012), and strategies applied while seeking information through news (Yang, 2017; Powers, 2010). More profound specificity was given to existing definitions and assessments of news literacy (Ashley et al, 2013; Craft et al, 2017; Maksl et al, 2015, 2017). This builds upon existing evidence to provide a more thorough understanding of the news media landscape (Pew Research Center, 2013; Korea Press Foundation, 2016, 2017). Moreover, this study not only distinguished between the younger and the older generation in terms of

new literacy but also showed how critical aspects of news literacy can differ between generations, leading to practical and theoretical implications.

On the theoretical side, this study attempted to adapt well-known theoretical backgrounds of media literacy to formulate a theoretical model of news literacy, which is especially useful in identifying generational difference in news literacy. Maksl's (2015) model of news literacy and EAVI's (2009) framework of media literacy competencies and skills were integrated for this study in order to formulate a model of news literacy. Based on this model of news literacy, new index measures are presented enabling us to assess the generational differences in news literacy.

On the practical side, this study helps the news industry to grasp the generational difference in the multi-faceted concept of news literacy, which includes news-related perceptions and behaviors. By providing a more in-depth understanding of the news literacy of the younger generation in comparison with the older generation, this study suggests implications for the news industry's future.

## **5.2 Contributions**

This paper suggested a model of news literacy that is useful in examining the generational difference in news literacy. Based on Potter's (2004) cognitive model of media literacy, this paper integrated Maksl et al.'s (2015) framework of news literacy and EAVI's (2009) framework of competencies and skills of media literacy to formulate an improved model of news literacy. This model was useful in identifying how different generations perceive news and the importance of news, get motivated to use news, and apply different strategies in various stages of news use, which was the main focus of this paper. The three main constructs of this model – the knowledge structure, the personal locus, and the competencies and skills – were found useful in understanding how the news literacy structures are formed differently depending on generation.

The findings of this paper emphasize the need to focus on the concept of 'generation difference' instead of 'generation gap.' The younger generation has been unfairly criticized as indifferent and ignorant about news without this claim being empirically tested. Data on

the decreasing readership of newspaper and the relatively small amount of time used in the news sections of domestic portal sites among the younger generation has been used to indicate that the younger generation is shying away from critically understanding and evaluating news. These hasty concerns were rooted from unidimensional data that measured only a part of the younger generation's news use. Using the concept of 'news literacy,' the findings of this data have been drawn based on a comprehensive and systematic model. The findings show that the generation gap between the younger and the older generation is not valid. Generational differences existed in a variety of constructs, only to show that the younger generation used news as much as the older generation, though the generation applied different strategies.

The findings of this paper suggest meaningful insights about generational differences. No significant difference in news-related knowledge structure was observed between the younger and the older generations, including perceptions of news and the importance of news, as well as time spent on news. The younger generation also did not differ from the older generation in the motivations for using news, although the generation was more likely to use news to earn

information related to economic opportunities and education. These findings refute widely-held beliefs that the younger generation is less motivated to use news and spend less time on news compared to the older generation. More surprisingly, the younger generation in Korea was more likely to believe that contextual journalism and watchdog journalism is important for the society. This is different from the younger generation of the US, as reported in a recent study of The Media Insight Project (2018), since the younger generation of the US (45 percent) were less likely to believe that the watchdog role of journalism is important compared to the older generation (61 percent). The findings of this paper reveal that the younger generation is as active as the older generation as news users.

Moreover, the younger generation was defined by a wide range of competencies and skills compared to the older generation, especially when accessing and sharing news. The younger generation used a large variety of news outlets while the older generation enjoyed using mostly the domestic portal engines. The younger generation was also more likely to utilize various strategies in sharing online news, actively create news-related online communications via leaving comments and

reactions to not only the news article itself but also comments of other users. The younger generation was more likely to consider pleasant user environment and usability when selecting news compared to the older generation. The younger generation in our survey also exhibited a more extensive range of critical news-using behaviors. In summary, the results suggested that the younger generation was more active in approaching news in every construct of news literacy, which holds essential implications for scholars, practitioners, and policymakers in the field of news literacy.

The results of this study also suggested interesting findings related to the older generation. The older generation is defined by a reliance on domestic portal sites including Naver and Daum. The older generation is also more likely to consider the brand, popularity, news content, and news recommendation system of the news organization of their interest when selecting news compared to the younger generation. The older generation in our survey also showed a more liberal way of defining news compared to the younger generation, even including non-traditional news categories as 'news.' Finally, though surprising, the older generation was more likely to personalize news on portal sites by



receiving newsletters or selecting a news organization of interest to access news.

### **5.3 Implications**

The results of this study contain several implications. Most of all, this study suggests important implications for the news industry. To date, the news industry and the press have regarded the younger generation as indifferent, ignorant, and less active news users. As a result, the younger generation has been believed to prefer soft news about celebrities and entertainment, to not regard journalism norms when using news, and to create less news-related communication. However, the results of this paper revealed opposite results. The younger generation is composed of more active and more skillful news users who believe that journalism and news organizations should not only meet the high standards of quality journalism but also fulfill high standards in user experience when it comes to online news. To be specific, the younger generation required news to meet standards of quality journalism including accuracy, transparency, independence, completeness, fairness/impartiality, and utility, while also meeting standards for user experience including access

via multiple platforms, readability from various digital devices, and a pleasant user environment without pop-ups and display ads. The younger generation also believed that context should be provided when presenting news (contextual journalism) and that public affairs should be transparent to the public (watchdog journalism). Thus, these findings imply that the short-term decisions made by news organizations at present to meet quarterly revenue targets—adding more pop-up and display ads, focusing on soft news only concerning entertainment and celebrities, and putting teasing headlines or obligatory pre-roll ads on news video clips—have only alienated the younger generation from the organizations. News organizations must find more creative ways to add context, connote quality and credibility, and reduce unnecessary clutters from their websites.

Moreover, these results contribute to the literature concerning the generational differences in news literacy. Other researchers have hinted at the connection between generation and news literacy constructs, but this paper advanced to theoretically suggest a model of news literacy and empirically demonstrate the generational differences in detail. Also, this paper provides results on the generational difference

in news literacy in Korea that are comparable with the results of the US. Second, consistent with prior research (Ashley et al, 2017; Craft et al, 2017; Maksl et al, 2015, 2017; Yang et al, 2015), this study viewed the concept of news literacy as a multi-faceted term through and beyond the variables suggested by existing literature. These results also provide further evidence for the utility of news literacy as a useful term in understanding generational differences (Loos, Hadden, Meijer, 2016). The results also confirm Glister's assertion (1997) that digital literacy can be a defining factor in how different generations manage their lives, extending his claim to news literacy.

Finally, there are limitations to this study that must be acknowledged. First, this study is based on the South Korean context, which may limit the implications of this study from being applied to global contexts. Second, data was collected by self-report, so these data may be subject to a number of biases such as social desirability. Third, the length of the instrumentation of this study may have contributed to participant fatigue and impacted the quality and nature of the responses. Fourth, this research heavily relied on a quantitative method, an online survey, in examining the generational difference in news literacy. Other

research methods such as experiments and ethnography might find ways to avoid the problems inherent in relying on self-report in surveys. Future work may also want to explore the relationship between news literacy and variables related to civic engagement. Lastly, the idea of news continues to undergo certain transformations as new generations keep emerging and economic, technological, and cultural disruptions continue to unfold. Future research in news literacy should continue to consider the ongoing changes in their news literacy models and consistently make necessary adjustments for the field.

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## Appendix 1. Selected Literature of News Literacy

Authors	Year	Method	Conceptualization of News Literacy	Constructs of News Literacy	Outcome Measures
Tully, M.& Vraga, E. K.	2018	Mixed Method (Experiment & Interview)	To examine and deconstruct news, and to develop and share informed views on social issues (Maksl, Ashley& Craft, 2015).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The responsibilities and constraints of the press in producing news</li> <li>• The role of citizens to critically engage with news</li> <li>• The interaction of the press and the public as part of a democracy (Ashley et al., 2017; Mihailidis, 2014).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-perceived media literacy (SPML)</li> <li>• Internal political efficacy (IPE)</li> <li>• Epistemic political efficacy (EPE)</li> </ul>
Ashley, S., Maksl, A.& Craft, S.	2017	Quantitative (Survey)	Only media literacy is defined	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mindful thought-processing</li> <li>• Media locus of control</li> <li>• Knowledge structures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy (Maksl, Ashley&amp; Craft 2015)</li> <li>• Current events knowledge</li> <li>• Political activity</li> <li>• Political trust</li> <li>• Political efficacy.</li> </ul>
Craft, S., Ashley, S.& Maksl, A.	2017	Quantitative (Survey)	An ability to access, analyze, and interpret news messages. A news media literate person would draw on her knowledge of the news media industry,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mindful thought-processing</li> <li>• Media locus of control</li> <li>• Knowledge structures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy (Maksl, Ashley&amp; Craft 2015)</li> <li>• Conspiracy Theory Endorsement (CTE)</li> </ul>

			according to her personal needs, motivations, in interpreting the news messages she encounters.		
Maksl, A., Craft, S., Ashley, S. & Miller, D.	2017	Quantitative (Survey)	No definition suggested	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mindful thought-processing</li> <li>• Media locus of control</li> <li>• Knowledge structures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy (Maksl, Ashley &amp; Craft 2015)</li> <li>• News consumption</li> <li>• Motivation to news use</li> <li>• Knowledge of current events</li> </ul>
Tully, M. & Vraga, E. K.	2017 a	Quantitative (Experiment)	An understanding of news making, journalists' role in the process, and the responsibility of the audience to be critical news consumers capable of deconstructing news messages (Ashley et al, 2013; Craft et al, 2013; Vraga & Tully, 2015).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No constructs suggested</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perceived Media Literacy</li> <li>• Media Literary Beliefs</li> <li>• News Media Literacy (Ashley et al, 2013)</li> <li>• Perceptions of Bias in the PSA</li> <li>• Evaluations of PSA</li> <li>• Political Ideology</li> </ul>
Tully, M. & Vraga, E. K.	2017 b	Quantitative (pretest and posttest quasi-	Assessing, analyzing, and evaluating—to news content (Ashley et al, 2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Authors and Audiences (AA)</li> <li>• Messages and Meanings (MM)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy</li> <li>• Value for Political Disagreement</li> <li>• Exposure to Disagreement</li> </ul>

		experiment)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Representation and Reality (RR) scales</li> <li>• Self-Perceived Media Literacy (SPML)</li> <li>• Value of Media Literacy (VML)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for Cognition</li> <li>• Media Locus of Control</li> <li>• Party Affiliation</li> </ul>
Hoffman, M. E.	2016	Quantitative (Survey)	The ability to use critical thinking skills to judge the reliability of news reports and sources” (the McCormick Foundation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for Cognition</li> <li>• Media Locus of Control,</li> <li>• News Media Knowledge Structures</li> <li>• (Maksl et al, 2015)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy Scale (Maksl et al, 2015)</li> </ul>
Kleemans, M.& Eggink, G.	2016	Quantitative (Survey)	To understand how media are made and to understand how media colour reality.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Awareness of the production of media content</li> <li>• Awareness of the influence of media on its users and producers</li> <li>• Awareness of the way in which users deal with the media”</li> <li>• (Rosenbaum et al 2012, p. 338)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy (based on Ashley et al 2013; Rosenbaum, 2007)</li> </ul>
Vraga, E. K.& Tully, M.	2016	Quantitative (Experiment)	Critical thinking and thoughtful consumption of news to empower publics to recognize news, including partisan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> </ul>

			news and entertainment news, deconstruct news content, develop and share informed views on social issues, and make choices as part of a functioning democracy (Ashley et al, 2013; Klurfeld & Schneider, 2014; Mihailidis, 2014; Potter, 2016).		
Williams, B. J.	2016	Qualitative (In-depth interview)	The ability to critically appraise the news information we consume, regardless of the platform on which it is received (Loth, 2012).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ways and purpose of news consumption</li> <li>• Appraisal and assessment skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No measures</li> </ul>
Maksl, A., Ashley, S.& Craft, S	2015	Quantitative (Survey)	Having a more complete understanding of the conditions in which news is produced that could better equip news audiences to access, evaluate, analyze, and create news media products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Knowledge structure</li> <li>• Personal locus</li> <li>• Competencies and skills</li> <li>• (Potter (2004)'s cognitive media literacy model)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Levels of intrinsic motivation</li> <li>• News media skepticism</li> <li>• News use</li> <li>• Current events knowledge</li> </ul>

Vraga, E. K., Tully, M., Kotcher, J. E., Smithson, A.-B. & Broeckelman-Post, M	2015	Quantitative (Survey)	How to apply core media literacy skills (i.e., analyzing and evaluating content) to news	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Authors and Audiences (AA)</li> <li>• Messages and Meanings (MM)</li> <li>• Representation and Reality (RR),</li> <li>• Self-perceived Media Literacy (SPML)</li> <li>• Value for Media Literacy (VML)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Knowledge</li> <li>• Current Events Knowledge</li> <li>• News Media Skepticism</li> <li>• News Media Literacy (Ashley et al, 2013)</li> <li>• Self-perceived media literacy (SPML)</li> <li>• Perceptions of the value of media literacy (VML)</li> </ul>
Fleming, J.	2014	Qualitative (Case Study)	How to identify well-sourced journalism would sharpen their critical thinking skills and come to support high-quality news sources.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The ability to</li> <li>• Access news</li> <li>• Evaluate and analyze news</li> <li>• Appreciate a specific genre of news</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No measures</li> </ul>
Hornik, R. & Kajimoto, M.	2014	Qualitative (Commentary)	The critical thinking skills necessary to identify reliable, actionable information in the hyper-speed environment of the digital era.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The power of information</li> <li>• What is news</li> <li>• Truth and verification</li> <li>• Looking out for prejudice</li> <li>• How to navigate new media</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No measures</li> </ul>
Rady, D. M. F.	2014	Quantitative (Survey)	“The knowledge and motivations needed to identify, appreciate and engage with quality journalism”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Access/Retrieval</li> <li>• Evaluation/Understanding,</li> <li>• Use/Create/Communicate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Access skills</li> <li>• Retrieve skills</li> <li>• Understand skills</li> <li>• Use/communicate skills</li> <li>• Analyze skills</li> </ul>

			(Craft, Maksl & Ashley, 2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• (UNESCO's Model of Media and Information Literacy)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate skills</li> <li>• Create skills</li> </ul>
Spikes, M. A.& Haque, Y. S.	2014	Qualitative (Case Study)	Teach consumers to demand high quality, verified information from reliable sources, so that people can "take an action, make a decision, or responsibly share it" (Schneider & Klurfeld, 2010, p. 4). (Not explicitly defined)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Verification</li> <li>• Independent</li> <li>• Accountability from the source of the news</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Level of skepticism when evaluating sources of news stories</li> </ul>
Ashley, S., Maksl, A.& Craft, S.	2013	Quantitative	Audiences can be better equipped to access, evaluate, analyze, and create news media products if they have a more complete understanding of the conditions in which news is produced. (No explicit definition).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Authors and Audiences (AA)</li> <li>• Messages and Meanings (MM)</li> <li>• Representation and Reality (RR)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• News Media Literacy Scale</li> <li>• (based on Smoking Media Literacy Scale by Primack et al (2006))</li> </ul>
Craft, S., Maksl, A. M.& Ashley, S. D.	2013	Quantitative (Survey)	The knowledge and motivations needed to identify, appreciate and engage with quality journalism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The degree to which one engages in mindful versus automatic thought-processing of news</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mindful thought-processing</li> <li>• Media locus of control</li> <li>• Knowledge structures</li> </ul>

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The degree to which one perceives herself as being in control versus the news media being in control of the influence of news media</li> <li>• The knowledge one has of the institutions that produce news</li> </ul>	
Powers	2010	Qualitative (Interview)	“The ability to use critical thinking skills to judge the reliability and credibility of news reports, whether they come via print, television or the Internet” (Schneider and Klurfeld).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Core elements of news</li> <li>• Types of news</li> <li>• Implied meaning</li> <li>• Civic engagement</li> <li>• Media ownership</li> <li>• Online news</li> <li>• News evaluation</li> <li>• News production</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No measures</li> </ul>

## Appendix 2. Survey Questionnaire (Korean)

1. 귀하의 연령은 만으로 몇 세입니까? 만 \_\_\_\_\_ 세  
 [만 20세 ~ 29세, 만 50세 ~ 59세 이외에는 screen out]

1. 귀하께서는 다음의 각 미디어에서 ‘뉴스’를 얼마나 자주 접하십니까? [변인명: 뉴스미디어 이용 빈도]

유형	전혀 하지 않 음	주1회 미 만	주1~2회	주 3~6 회	매일 1회 이상
1. 국내 인터넷포털 (네이버, 다음, 네이버 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 해외 인터넷포털 (구글, Bing 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 인터넷 뉴스 사이트 (언론사닷컴 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 큐레이션 서비스 (피키키스트, 슬로우 뉴스 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 메시징 서비스 (카카오톡, 라인 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. SNS (페이스북, 밴드, 카카오톡스토리, 트위터 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 블로그	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 온라인 카페/ 커뮤니티	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 팟캐스트 (팟빵, 아이튠즈 팟캐스트 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 온라인 동영상 플랫폼 (유튜브, 넷플릭스, 네이버TV 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤

➢ 4번 보기의 “큐레이션 서비스”란 수많은 콘텐츠를 수집해 일정한 기준으로 선별하고 여러가지 형태로 재가공해서 제공하는 편집 서비스를 말합니다.

➢ 9번 보기의 “팟캐스트”란 오디오/비디오 파일 형태로 다양한 콘텐츠를 인터넷망을 통해 제공하는 서비스로, 기존의 라디오/방송 프로그램 달리 해당 시간에 맞춰 들을(볼) 필요가 없이 스마트폰 등을 통해 구독 등록을 해 놓으면 자동으로 업데이트되는 관심프로그램을 내려 받아 아무 때나 들을 수 있습니다.

2. 귀하께서는 뉴스를 하루 평균 얼마나 이용하십니까? (지난 1주일 기준) [변인명: 뉴스 이용 시간]

평일	_____시간 _____분
주말	_____시간 _____분



3. 아래의 항목들은 귀하께서 뉴스를 보시는 이유에 얼마나 부합합니까? [변인명: 뉴스정보 욕구]

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않은 편이다	보통이다	그런 편이다	매우 그렇다
1. 재난재해, 긴급상황 및 공공안전에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 공중보건, 건강 및 복지에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 외국어 교육, 직업훈련 등 교육 기회에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 대중교통 시간표, 도로 교통 상황 등 교통에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 취업 및 창업 지원 등 경제적 기회에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 공기와 수질의 오염도 등 환경에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 공연이나 전시회 등 문화행사에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해서	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 선거, 공공정책 등 정치에 관한 정보에 접근하기 위해	①	②	③	④	⑤

4. 귀하께서 뉴스를 이용하실 때 아래의 각 항목이 얼마나 중요한 요인으로 작용합니까? [변인명: 뉴스 선택 기준]

	전혀 중요하지 않다	중요하지 않은 편이다	보통이다	중요한 편이다	매우 중요하다
1. 언론사/뉴스서비스의 브랜드	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 언론사/뉴스서비스의 대중적 인기	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 언론사/뉴스서비스가 추구하는 가치	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 타 언론사/뉴스서비스와 차별화된 콘텐츠	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 뉴스의 유용성	①	②	③	④	⑤

6. 뉴스의 흥미성	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 기자, 앵커 등의 신뢰도	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 언론사/뉴스서비스가 추천하는 뉴스	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 팝업이나 디스플레이 광고 등이 없는 쾌적한 이용자 환경	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 모바일/PC, SNS, 포털 등 다양한 경로를 통한 접근용이성	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 기자, 앵커와의 소통 가능성	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 댓글, 추천, 공유 등 뉴스 관련 활동의 용이성	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. 모바일, PC화면 등 다양한 기기에 최적화된 화면 구성	①	②	③	④	⑤

5. 귀하께서는 다음의 각 뉴스가 얼마나 중요하다고 생각하십니까? [변인명: 뉴스 중요도]

	전혀 중요하지 않다	중요하지 않은 편이다	보통이다	중요한 편이다	매우 중요하다
1. 속보성 뉴스 (갓 발생한 사건 및 사건 추이에 관한 속보)	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 사실성 뉴스 (사건이나 이슈에 관한 사실 보도)	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 맥락성 뉴스 (특정 사건이나 이슈의 배경, 맥락 등을 자세히 짚어주는 해설 보도)	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 심층성 뉴스 (주요 사회현안 등을 장기간 기획 취재한 심층 보도)	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 폭로성 뉴스 (권력기관이나 권력자의 범죄, 비리 등을 수사기관처럼 파헤쳐 취재한 내용을 담은 탐사보도)	①	②	③	④	⑤

6. 귀하께서는 뉴스를 평가할 때 다음의 질문들에 얼마나 관심을 두십니까? [변인명: 뉴스 평가 정도]

	전혀 질문하 지 않는다	질문하 지 않는 편이다	보통이 다	질문하 는 편이다	항상 질문한 다
1. 직접 취재한 보도인가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 추측에 근거한 내용이 들어가 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 전문적인 용어를 알기 쉽게 풀어 설명하는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 취재원이 누구인지를 밝히고 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 취재의 과정을 밝히고 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 취재의 동기를 밝히고 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 특정 광고주와 이해관계가 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 특정 정치집단과 이해관계가 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 육하원칙(누가, 언제, 어디서, 무엇을, 어떻게, 왜)에 관한 정보가 포함되어 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 육하원칙 외에 심층적이고 맥락적인 정보(원인분석, 과장분석, 대안제시 등)를 제공하는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 논쟁적인 사안에서 한쪽의 입장이나 주장만 제시되었는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 다양한 정보원을 활용하고 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. 사회적 약자나 소수의 의견이 반영되고 있는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. 관련 사안을 이해하는 데 도움이 되는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. 주변 사람과 대화할 때 도움이 되는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. 새로운 의견을 형성하는 데 도움이 되는가?	①	②	③	④	⑤

7. 귀하께서는 소셜미디어서비스\*를 통해 뉴스를 보실 때 다음의 행위를 얼마나 자주 하십니까?

[변인명: 소셜미디어 뉴스 접근 행위]

\*'소셜미디어서비스'에는 SNS(페이스북, 카카오토리, 밴드, 트위터 등), 메시징 서비스(카카오톡, 라인, 왓츠앱 등), 블로그 등이 포함됩니다.

나는 소셜미디어서비스를 통해...	전혀 하지 않 음	주1회 미만	주1~2 회	주 3~6 회	매일 1 회 이상
1. 특정 언론사 계정을 등록해 (친구 맺기, 좋아요, 팔로우 등의 방식) 뉴스 를 받아 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 특정 언론인과 관계를 맺어 (친구 맺기, 좋아요, 팔로우 등의 방식) 뉴스 를 받아 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 특정 주제와 관점의 뉴스를 자주 올리는 유명인 (시사평론가, 정치인, 연예인 등)과 관계를 맺어 (친구맺기, 좋아요, 팔로우 등의 방식) 뉴스를 받 아 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 소셜미디어 친구가 공유하는 뉴스 를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 소셜미디어 친구가 추천하는 (좋아 요 등) 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 서비스 자체에서 추천하는 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 많은 추천이 달린 (좋아요 등) 뉴 스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 댓글이 많이 달린 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 접속 시 화면에 가장 먼저 뜬 뉴스 를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 보고싶은 뉴스를 검색하여 (검색 어나 해시태그 등) 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 다른 일을 보다가 우연히 마주친 뉴스링크를 따라가 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

8. 귀하께서는 인터넷포털\*에서 뉴스를 보실 때 다음의 행위를 얼마나 자주 하십니까? [변인명: 인터넷포털 뉴스 접근 행위]

나는 인터넷포털로 뉴스를 볼 때...	전혀 하지 않 음	주1회 미만	주1~2 회	주 3~6 회	매일 1 회 이상
1. 포털 사이트 첫 페이지의 뉴스 제목을 보고 뉴스를 클릭한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 포털 사이트 첫 페이지의 뉴스 사진을 보고 뉴스를 클릭한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 포털 사이트 뉴스 홈(네이버뉴스, 다음 뉴스 등)에서 관심 분야/주제를 선택해 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 포털 사이트 뉴스 홈에서 특정 언론사를 선택해 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 보고싶은 기사와 관련한 검색어를 검색창에 입력해 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 실시간 검색 순위에 오른 인물이나 사건을 클릭해 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 필요한 정보를 검색하다가 검색 결과에 관련뉴스가 있으면 이용한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 다른 이용자의 반응이 좋은 (많이 본 뉴스, 댓글이 많은 뉴스 등) 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 내가 미리 설정한 뉴스(마이뉴스, 구독뉴스 등)를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 이메일 뉴스레터로 오는 뉴스를 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

9. 귀하께서는 다음 항목들에 얼마나 동의하십니까? [변인명: 뉴스 인지적 처리 정도]

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않은 편이다	보통이다	그런 편이다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 많이 생각해야 하는 뉴스를 좋아하지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 깊게 생각해야 하는 뉴스를 피하려고 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 생각하지 않아도 되는 뉴스보다 사고력을 필요로 하는 뉴스를 더 선호한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 간단한 뉴스보다 복잡한 뉴스를 더 선호한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 나는 특정한 뉴스나 이슈에 대해서 장시간 깊게 생각하는 일이 만족스럽지 않다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

10. 귀하께서는 평소 뉴스를 이용하실 때 다음의 각 행동을 어느 정도 하십니까? [변인명: 비판적 뉴스 읽기 행위]

	전혀 하지 않는다	거의 하지 않는다	가끔 한다	대체로 그렇게 한다	매번 그렇게 한다
1. 나에게 도움이 되는 뉴스를 골라서 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 뉴스가 나에게 필요한 내용인지 살펴본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 뉴스의 내용이 사실인지 확인해 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 뉴스를 제공한 언론사를 확인해 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 뉴스 내용 이해를 위해 주변에 물어보거나 추가정보를 찾아본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 특정 사안에 대한 다양한 관점의 뉴스를 찾아본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나와 다른 의견/입장을 가진 언론사의 뉴스도 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

11. 귀하께서는 소셜미디어에서 뉴스를 이용하실 때 다음의 행동들을 얼마나 자주 하십니까? [변인명: 소셜미디어 뉴스 공유 행위]

\* ‘소셜미디어’에는 SNS(페이스북, 카카오톡스토리, 밴드, 트위터 등), 메시징 서비스(카카오톡, 라인, 왓츠앱 등), 블로그 등이 포함됩니다.

나는 소셜미디어에서...	전혀 하지 않 음	주1회 미만	주1~2회	주 3~6 회	매일 1 회 이상
1. 뉴스를 보다가 다른 사람들이 관심을 가질 만한 내용이 있으면 내 소셜미디어 계정에서 링크를 공유한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 다른 사람들이 소셜미디어에 올린 뉴스링크를 다시 공유한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 뉴스링크를 공유할 때 뉴스 내용에 대한 내 생각과 의견을 함께 올린다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 사용자들 간에 토론할 만한 논쟁적인 뉴스 관련 정보나 의견을 포스팅한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 소셜미디어에서 뉴스를 공유할 때에 핵심 내용을 해시태그(#)로 표시한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 소셜미디어에 뉴스를 포스팅할 때 해당 뉴스에 관심을 가질 만한 친구를 태그(@)한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 다른 사람이 올린 뉴스에 ‘좋아요’ 등을 통해 반응을 보인다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 다른 사람들이 올린 뉴스 관련 게시물을 읽은 후 댓글을 통해 내 생각이나 의견을 남긴다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 다른 사람의 뉴스 관련 댓글에 답글을 달아 내 생각이나 의견을 남긴다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 다른 사람의 뉴스 관련 댓글에 ‘좋아요’ 등을 통해 반응을 보인다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

12. 귀하께서는 인터넷포털로 뉴스를 이용하실 때 다음의 행동들을 얼마나 자주 하십니까? [변인 명: 인터넷 포털 뉴스 공유 행위]

나는 인터넷포털로 뉴스를 볼 때...	전혀 하지 않 음	주1회 미만	주1~2 회	주 3~6 회	매일 1 회 이상
1. 뉴스를 보다가 다른 사람들이 관심을 가질 만한 내용이 있으면 내 소셜미디어 계정에서 링크를 공유한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 뉴스기사에 '좋아요', '화나요', '후속기사원해요' 등을 통해 반응을 보인다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 댓글을 통해 내 생각이나 의견을 남긴다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 다른 사람의 댓글에 답글로 내 생각이나 의견을 표현한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 다른 사람의 댓글에 '좋아요', '싫어요' 등을 통해 반응을 보인다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 뉴스가 마음에 들면 그 뉴스를 작성한 기자의 뉴스를 계속 받아보기 위해 '구독하기'를 누른다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. '이 기사를 메인으로 추천' 과 같이 투표 기능을 활용해 뉴스를 추천한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 읽은 뉴스의 관련 뉴스로 추천된 기사를 추가로 본다.	①	②	③	④	⑤



13. 귀하는 다음의 미디어 정보를 어느 정도로 '뉴스'라고 생각하십니까? [변인명: 뉴스 인식]

분야/주제별 미디어 정보	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않은 편이다	보통이다	그런 편이다	매우 그렇다
1. 사회 (사건사고, 범죄 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 경제 (경제, 비즈니스, 가계 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 국제 (국제정치, 국제경제 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 남북문제/통일 (북핵문제 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 국내정치 (정부, 정치, 국회 등)	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 지역소식	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 과학기술/IT	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 여론/의견	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 의복/패션	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 쇼핑/상품정보	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 식생활/요리/살림	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 날씨	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. 스포츠	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. 취미/레저/여행	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. 교통	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. 주식/부동산	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. 교육/육아	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. 건강/의학	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. 연예	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. 문화/예술	①	②	③	④	⑤

<인구사회학적 특성>

1. 귀하의 성별은 어떻게 됩니까?

- (1) 남성 (2) 여성

2. 귀하의 거주 지역은 어디입니까?

(1) 서울	(2) 인천	(3) 경기	(4) 부산
(5) 울산	(6) 대구	(7) 경남, 경북	(8) 대전
(9) 충남, 충북	(10) 광주	(11) 전남, 전북	(12) 강원
(13) 제주			

3. 귀하께서는 다음 중 어느 직업군에 속해 계십니까?

1. 농축수산물/광업	
2. 자영/판매업	음식점 주인/종업원 4인 이하 상점 주인
3. 서비스직	미용사, 이발사, 조리사, 음식점, 카페 종사자 등
4. 노무직	단순노무직, 생산, 구두미화원, 퀵서비스
5. 기능직	운전기사, 목수, 자동차정비공, 유리/인쇄/금속 관련 종사자, 생산직 근로자 등
6. 사무직	일반사무원, 영업사원, 기술관리직, 비서, IT관련 종사자, 6급 이하 공무원 등
7. 전문직	교수, 의사, 약사, 변호사, 판/검사, 회계/세무사, 종교/언론/예술 관련 종사자 등
8. 기술전문직	컴퓨터전문가, 기술연구원, 이공계전문가, 건축가, 기사 이상 자격 소지자 등
9. 경영관리직	5인 이상 사업장 경영자, 5급 이상 공무원, 대기업 과장 이상 관리자 등
10. 학생	
11. 전업주부	
12. 기타	적을 것: (                    )

4. 귀하께서는 최종 학력이 어떻게 되십니까?

- (1) 중학교 졸업 이하  
 (2) 고등학교 졸업  
 (3) 대학 재학/대학 졸업  
 (4) 대학원 재학 이상 (수료, 졸업 포함)

5. 귀하 **가정**의 한 달 수입(월 평균 가구 소득)은 대략 어느 정도입니까? (임대소득, 이자소득 등 모든 소득을 포함하여 주십시오.)

- (1) 200만원 미만  
 (2) 200만원 이상~ 400만원 미만  
 (3) 400만원 이상~ 600만원 미만  
 (4) 600만원 이상~ 800만원 미만  
 (5) 800만원 이상~ 1000만원 미만  
 (6) 1000만원 이상

### Appendix 3. Survey Questionnaire (English)

1. What is your age? \_\_\_\_ years old

[Identify 20-29 years old and 50-59years old. Otherwise, screen out]

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1. How often do you access 'news' from the media suggested below? (10 categories)

Category	Never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Three to six times a week	More than once every day
Domestic Portal and Search Engine	①	②	③	④	⑤
International Portal and Search Engine	①	②	③	④	⑤
News Organizations' Online Sites	①	②	③	④	⑤
News Curation Service	①	②	③	④	⑤
Messaging Service	①	②	③	④	⑤
SNS	①	②	③	④	⑤
Blog	①	②	③	④	⑤
Online Cafe and Community	①	②	③	④	⑤
Podcast	①	②	③	④	⑤
Online Video Platform	①	②	③	④	⑤

2. Last week, how many hours a day do you spend on news?

Average Weekday : \_\_\_\_\_ hours \_\_\_\_\_ minutes

Average Weekend : \_\_\_\_\_ hours \_\_\_\_\_ minutes

3. Do you use news because of the following information need ? (8 categories)

Category	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Emergencies and Public Safety	①	②	③	④	⑤
Health	①	②	③	④	⑤
Education	①	②	③	④	⑤
Transportation	①	②	③	④	⑤
Economic Development	①	②	③	④	⑤
Environment and Planning	①	②	③	④	⑤
Civic Information	①	②	③	④	⑤
Political Life	①	②	③	④	⑤

4. When selecting news, do you regard the following criterion to be important?  
(13 categories)

Category	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Brand of News Organization	①	②	③	④	⑤
Popularity of News Organization	①	②	③	④	⑤
Mission of News Organization	①	②	③	④	⑤
Differentiated Contents from other News Organizations	①	②	③	④	⑤
Usefulness of News Content	①	②	③	④	⑤
Amusement of News Content	①	②	③	④	⑤
Credibility of News Reporter	①	②	③	④	⑤
News Recommendation System of News Organization	①	②	③	④	⑤
Pleasant User Environment without Pop-up and Display Ads	①	②	③	④	⑤
Access via Multiple Platforms including Mobile/PC, SNS, and Portal	①	②	③	④	⑤
Possibility of Communication with News Reporter	①	②	③	④	⑤
Usability in News-related Activities including commenting,	①	②	③	④	⑤

recommending, and sharing					
Optimized Readability on Different Devices	①	②	③	④	⑤

5. Do you believe that the following type of news/journalism is important? (5 categories)

Category	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Breaking News	①	②	③	④	⑤
Straight News	①	②	③	④	⑤
Contextual Journalism	①	②	③	④	⑤
Investigative Journalism	①	②	③	④	⑤
Watchdog Journalism	①	②	③	④	⑤

6. When evaluating news, how often do you ask the following questions? (16 categories)

Category	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Is the story based on the reporters' own original reporting?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Could anything the reporter has written be based on assumption?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Are technical terms explained in digestible form?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Are sources identified?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Is the story transparent about methodology?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Is it clear why this particular statement is being checked?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Are there conflicts of interests related to a certain advertiser?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Are there conflicts of interests related to a certain political group?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Does the story include the 5Ws and 1H (Who, When, Where, What, Why, How)?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Beyond the 5Ws and 1H, does the story provide contextual information (cause, effect, alternatives, etc.)?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Does the story reflect only one side of the issue at hand?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Does the story include various sources?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Does the story seek sources whose voices we seldom hear?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Is the story useful in understanding the issue at hand?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Is the story useful in conversing with other people?	①	②	③	④	⑤
Is the story useful in forming novel opinions?	①	②	③	④	⑤

7. When using social networking services, how often do you use the following strategies to access news? (11 categories)

Through Social Media...	Never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Three to six times a week	More than once every day
I access news by befriending (follow, like, etc.) one or more social media accounts of news organizations.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news by befriending (follow, like, etc.) one or more social media accounts of reporters.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news by befriending (follow, like, etc.) one or more social media accounts of celebrities who often share news on specific topics.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news shared by my social media friend.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news recommended (liked, commented, etc.) by my social media friend.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news recommended by the service itself.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news with the most likes.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news with the most comments	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news that appears on the first screen.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news by searching words or hashtags of my interest.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news accidentally while doing other tasks.	①	②	③	④	⑤



8. When using internet portal sites, how often do you use the following strategies to access news? (11 categories)

Through Portal Sites...	Never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Three to six times a week	More than once every day
I see the news title from the portal site's front page and click it.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I see the news image from the portal site's front page and click it.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I select the news topic of my interest from the portal site's news section and access news within.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I select the news organization of my interest from the portal site's news section and access news within.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I use the search engine to access news of my interest.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I click on a person or an event from the real-time search ranking to access news.	①	②	③	④	⑤
When searching for information, I click on the news that appears in the search results.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I click on news with good user response (most viewed, most commented, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news via my news presets (My News, Subscribed News, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news via newsletters.	①	②	③	④	⑤

9. How much do you agree to the following statements? (5 categories)

Category	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I do not like to have a lot of thinking (reverse-coded).	①	②	③	④	⑤
I try to avoid situations that require thinking in depth about news (reverse-coded).	①	②	③	④	⑤
I prefer news that challenges my thinking abilities rather than news that requires little thought.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I prefer complex to simple news.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Thinking hard and for a long time about something gives me little satisfaction (reverse-coded).	①	②	③	④	⑤

10. How much do the following statements describe you? (7 categories)

Category	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I select news that is helpful for me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I check whether the news meets my needs.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I check whether the news is fact-based.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I check the news provider of the news	①	②	③	④	⑤
I ask others or search for additional information for further understanding.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I look for news with different viewpoints on a specific issue.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I access news from news organizations whose	①	②	③	④	⑤

opinions do not align with my own.					
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11. When using social networking sites, how often do you use the following strategies to share news? (10 categories)

On Social Media...	Never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Three to six times a week	More than once every day
When the news includes contents that others might be interested, I share the link via my social media account.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I re-share the news link that others have shared on social media.	①	②	③	④	⑤
When sharing a news link, I upload my thoughts and opinions together.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I post my opinion or other information related to a debated news that may open a discussion.	①	②	③	④	⑤
When sharing news via social media, I mark the key points by using hashtags(#).	①	②	③	④	⑤
When sharing news via social media, I tag(@) a friend who may be interested in it.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I react to (e.g., 'like') news links shared by others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I leave my thought or opinion by commenting on news-related posts of others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I leave my thought or opinion by replying to news-related comments of others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I react to (e.g., 'like') news-related comments of others.	①	②	③	④	⑤

12. When using Internet portal sites, how often do you use the following strategies to share news? (8 categories)

On Portal Sites...	Never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Three to six times a week	More than once every day
When the news includes contents that others might be interested, I share the link via my social media account.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I react to news articles by pressing 'like,' 'angry,' 'want follow-ups,' etc.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I leave my thought or opinion by commenting	①	②	③	④	⑤
I leave my thought or opinion by replying to news-related comments of others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I react to (e.g., 'like') news-related comments of others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
When I am satisfied with the news article, I press 'subscribe' to receive news written from the same reporter.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I recommend news by using voting functions (e.g., 'upvote')	①	②	③	④	⑤
I further access news recommended based on news use history	①	②	③	④	⑤

13. How much do you regard the following category of information as 'news'?  
(20 categories)

Category	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Social Affairs (Social events, crime reports, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
Economy (Business, finance, markets, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
World (International politics, international economy, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
North Korea/Unification (Inter-Korean affairs, Denuclearization, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
National Politics (Government, congress, elections, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
Local	①	②	③	④	⑤
Technology/Science	①	②	③	④	⑤
Editorials/Opinions	①	②	③	④	⑤
Fashion/Style	①	②	③	④	⑤
Shopping/Product Information	①	②	③	④	⑤
Cooking, Gardening, Home DIY	①	②	③	④	⑤
Weather	①	②	③	④	⑤
Sports	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hobbies/Leisure/Traveling	①	②	③	④	⑤
Traffic	①	②	③	④	⑤
Stock Market/Real Estates	①	②	③	④	⑤
Education/Parenting	①	②	③	④	⑤
Health	①	②	③	④	⑤
Entertainment/Celebrity	①	②	③	④	⑤
Culture/Art	①	②	③	④	⑤

## Demographic Questions

1. Which gender do you identify most with?

- (1) Male      (2) Female

2. Which region of the country do you currently live in?

- (1) Seoul                      (2) Incheon                      (3) Gyeonggi  
(4) Busan  
(5) Ulsan                      (6) Daegu                      (7) Gyeongnam. Gyeongbuk  
(8) Daejeon                      (9) Chungnam, Chungbuk (10) Gwangju  
(11) Jeonnam, Jeonbuk                      (12) Gangwon                      (13) Jeju

3. Which of the following most closely matches your job category?

- (1) Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting  
(2) Self-employed or Sales (Shop owners with less than 4 employees)  
(3) Service worker (Hairdresser, barber, cook, restaurant, cafe worker, etc.)  
(4) Simple manual worker (Shoeshiner, simple laborer, quick service, etc.)  
(5) Technician (Drivers, carpenters, auto mechanics, glass / printing / metal workers, production workers, etc.)  
(6) Office worker (office coordinators, bank clerks, 6<sup>th</sup> grade public official or less)  
(7) Trained Professional (Professors, doctors, pharmacists, lawyers, accountants/tax accountants, religious / media / arts workers, etc.)  
(8) Engineer (Computer experts, technical researchers, science and engineering experts, architects, etc.)  
(9) Management (CEOs of companies with 5 or more employees, higher ranking government officials, management level employees of major companies, etc.)  
(10) Student  
(11) Housemaker  
(12) Other job category : \_\_\_\_\_

4. What is your education level?

- (1) Middle school graduate or less  
(2) High school graduate  
(3) Completed some college/ Bachelor's Degree  
(4) Completed some postgraduate/ Master's degree or more

5. What was your total household income before taxes during the past 12 months?
- (1) Less than 2,000,000 (Won)
  - (2) 2,000,000 to 3,999,999 (Won)
  - (3) 4,000,000 to 5,999,999 (Won)
  - (4) 6,000,000 to 7,999,999 (Won)
  - (5) 8,000,000 to 9,999,999 (Won)
  - (6) More than 10,000,000 (Won)

## 초 록

### 젊은 세대와 기성세대의 뉴스 리터러시 차이

이 연구는 젊은 세대와 기성 세대의 뉴스 리터러시 차이를 분석할 수 있는 토대로서 ‘뉴스 리터러시’ 개념을 제안하고 실증적 검증을 시도하였다. 구체적으로 이 연구는 선행연구를 토대로 뉴스 리터러시 모형을 제시하고, 뉴스 리터러시를 구성하는 세 가지 차원인 지식 구조, 개인적 통제, 그리고 역량과 기술의 차원에서 젊은 세대와 기성 세대가 어떠한 차이를 보이는지 실증적으로 탐색하였다. 연구의 목적을 달성하기 위해 이 연구는 젊은 세대인 20대와 기성 세대인 50대를 포함한 862명의 성인을 대상으로 온라인 설문조사를 실시했고, 이를 분석한 주요 연구 결과는 다음과 같았다. 지식 구조 차원에서 젊은 세대와 기성 세대는 유의미한 차이를 보이지 않았다. 젊은 세대는 전통적인 뉴스 정보에 관한 인식과 뉴스의 중요성에 관한 인식에 있어서 기성 세대와 유의미한 차이를 보이지 않았다. 다만, 젊은 세대는 기성 세대보다 맥락적인 저널리즘과 폭로성 저널리즘에 관해 유의미한 차이로 더 중요하게 여겼다. 개인적 통제감 차원에서 젊은 세대는 기성 세대보다 경제적 기회와 교육과 관련한 정보를 이용하기 위해 뉴스를 이용하는 경향을 더 보였지만, 전반적으로 뉴스 이용 동기에서 유의미한 차이를 보이지 않았다. 마지막으로, 젊은 세대는 기성 세대는 각 뉴



스 이용 단계별로 유의미한 차이를 보였고, 뉴스의 접근 방식, 분석 방식, 평가 방식, 그리고 공유 방식에서 더 다양한 방식과 전략들을 활용하는 것으로 드러났다. 특히, 젊은 세대는 뉴스를 평가할 때 저널리즘 규범뿐 아니라 쾌적한 이용자 환경과 최적화된 화면 구성까지도 중요시 여기는 까다로운 뉴스 이용자인 것이 확인됐다. 즉, 젊은 세대는 기존에 뉴스에 무관심하고 무지한 이용자로서 우려된 바와 달리 오히려 뉴스를 이용할 때 더 다양한 경로로 뉴스를 이용하고 더 다양한 잣대로 뉴스를 평가하였다. 이는 젊은 세대가 기성 세대에 비해 뉴스 리터러시가 낮은 뉴스 이용자가 아니라 기성 세대와 다른 역량으로 구성된 뉴스 리터러시를 가진 뉴스 이용자임을 보여주었다. 이 연구의 결과는 뉴스 리터러시 구성요소를 뉴스 리터러시 모형이라는 하나의 틀로 제시하고, 이 이론틀을 통해 젊은 세대와 기성 세대의 뉴스 리터러시를 실질적으로 비교하였다는 점에서 의의가 있다.

**주요어 :** 세대, 세대 차이, 뉴스 리터러시, 뉴스 이용, 요인 분석, 온라인 설문조사

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