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**NEWS CONSUMPTION OF MAJOR ETHNIC GROUPS AMONG
YOUTH IN NIGERIA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF USES
AND GRATIFICATIONS THEORY**

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**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
2016**

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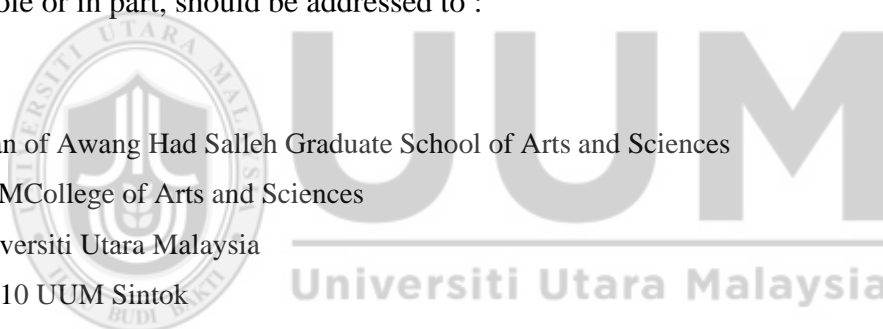
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Abstrak

Kajian lepas telah memberi tumpuan terhadap penggunaan berita dalam kalangan kumpulan inter-etnik dengan perhatian terhadap kumpulan intra-etnik. Malah kajian sebelum ini telah tidak berusaha mengaitkan kepuasan berita dicari dengan kepuasan berita yang diperolehi. Kajian tersebut juga tidak berupaya mengkaji peranan penyederhana penghijrahan etnik terhadap penggunaan berita kumpulan etnik. Kajian ini bertujuan meneroka hubungan antara berita dengan etniksiti sebagai fenomena sosial yang penting. Ini bersandarkan dakwaan bahawa etniksiti mempunyai pengaruh yang kuat kepada personaliti warga Nigeria. Pendekatan kaedah gabungan telah digunakan. Borang soal selidik telah ditadbir terhadap sekumpulan sampel mahasiswa di Nigeria. Temu bual mendalam juga telah dijalankan dalam kalangan ahli National Youth Service Corps (NYSC), Nigeria. Partial Least Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) telah digunakan untuk menganalisis data kuantitatif manakala data kualitatif dianalisis menggunakan perisian NVivo. Hasil kajian menunjukkan terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara kumpulan etnik berhubung kepuasan berita mereka. Penghijrahan etnik secara signifikan menjadi penyederhana hubungan antara kepuasan berita dicari dengan kepuasan berita diperolehi. Data kualitatif turut menunjukkan bahawa terdapat perbezaan berhubung penggunaan media untuk kepuasan berita bersandarkan kumpulan etnik. Menerusi kajian ini, etniksiti sebagai peramal penggunaan berita telah diteroka dengan lebih mendalam dari konteks kepelbagaian intra-etnik khususnya. Ditambah pula dengan penerokaan khusus penghijrahan etnik sebagai penyederhana dalam proses penggunaan berita, kajian ini telah memperluaskan perspektif Teori Kegunaan dan Kepuasan. Secara praktikalnya, Kerajaan Persekutuan Nigeria boleh menggunakan hasil kajian ini untuk perancangan strategik yang lebih realistik dalam pemobilisasian belia Nigeria.

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Katakunci: Berita, kepuasan, etniksiti, penghijrahan, media

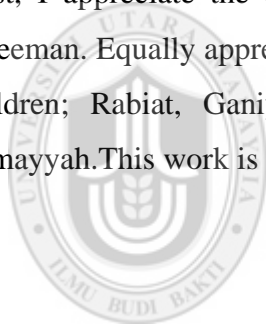
Abstract

Previous studies have focused on news usage among inter ethnic groups with limited attention on intra ethnic groups. Furthermore, these previous studies have not attempted to correlate the news gratifications sought with the news gratifications obtained. These studies have not also attempted to examine a possible moderating role of ethnic migration on the news usage of ethnic groups. The study aims at exploring the relationship between news and ethnicity as important social phenomena. This is against the backdrop of the strong influence that ethnicity has on the personality of Nigerians. Mixed method approach was used. Survey questionnaires were administered on sampled undergraduates in Nigeria. In-depth interviews were also conducted among members of the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC), Nigeria. Partial Least Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyze the quantitative data while qualitative data were analyzed on NVivo software. Findings show a significant difference among the ethnic groups in their news gratifications. Ethnic migration significantly moderates the relationship between news gratifications sought and news gratifications obtained. Our qualitative data show that the ethnic groups differ in several ways on how they use media for news gratifications. Through this study, ethnicity as a predictor of news usage has been further explored from a peculiar context of intra ethnic diversity. Coupled with the novel exploration of ethnic migration as a moderator in the news usage process, this study has expanded the horizon of Uses and Gratifications Theory. Practically, the Federal Government of Nigeria can use the findings of this study to evolve more realistic strategies for effective mobilization of Nigerian youth.

Keywords: News, gratifications, ethnicity, migration, media

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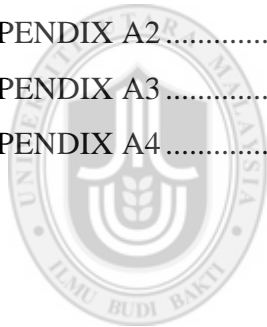
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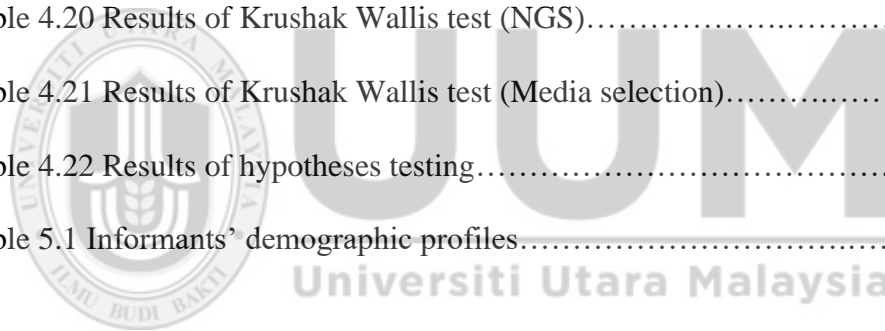
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List of Abbreviations

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BUK	Bayero University Kano
CB-SEM	Covariance Based Structural Equation Modeling
EMN	Ethnic Migration News
GO	Gratifications Obtained
GS	Gratifications Sought
ICT	Information Communication Technology
MGA	Multi-Group Analysis
NGO	News Gratifications Obtained
NGS	News Gratifications Sought
NTCM	News in The Conventional Media
NTOM	News in The Online Media
NYSC	National Youth Service Corp
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UI

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UNN

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the background to the study by situating news consumption phenomenon in Nigeria within a theoretical context to provide a rationale for the study. In many media studies, the word ‘consumption’ has been loosely and broadly used to describe the various patterns of relationship that media users have with media types and contents. However, the word, ‘usage’ has specifically been describing the motivations that drive media users to seek certain media types and contents. Media usage, thus, describes the gratifications sought and the gratifications obtained from the media by media consumers. It is this conception of media usage that creates the notion of active and passive media usage or instrumental and ritualised media usage (Yadamasurren & Erdelez, 2010). This study is adopting this notion of media usage to the mediagenre of news by conceiving news usage (using news to gratify certain needs) as a specific form of news consumption.

One of the most prominent theoretical approaches to the study of media usage is the Uses and Gratifications (U&G) approach. For over 60 years, U&G Theory has been used to assess what motivations people derive from using the media (Thapa, 2002). Many empirical studies have used this approach to explore how and why people consume news (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1981; Althaus and Tewksbury, 2000; Ghorui, 2012). More particularly, U&G theory has been used

to examine the influence of ethnicity on news consumption (Wei, 2008; Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2010).

Ethnicity is a big issue in Nigeria, influencing why Nigerians behave in almost all strata of the Nigerian society. Does ethnicity influence the way Nigerians use news? This study intends to contribute to the effort at empirically understanding the influence of ethnicity on news consumption through a uses and gratifications approach. Given the strong influence that ethnicity has on Nigerians, and consistent with findings of previous studies, it is expected that the needs of Nigerians for seeking news in the media will be influenced by their ethnic differences. From a relatively global empirical perspective, therefore, this study is aimed at employing the U&G approach to explain possible differences in the news consumption behaviours of intra-national ethnic groups.

1.2 Background to the Study

News is one of the basic components of human interaction in any society. Social interaction and the entire public affairs mostly derive their orientation from the circulation of news because news is a form of knowledge which people seek for practical and psychological purposes (Hamilton, 2004). News consumption has become a cognitive, emotional, attitudinal and behavioural social phenomenon (McCombs, Holber, Kioussis & Wanta, 2011) since it (news) has a cultural value serving as a source of norms, attitude and knowledge to successive generation of individuals in various societies (Gillespie, 1995; Johnson-Cartee, 2005). Moreover,

news is one of the factors that help to shape different ideologies, identities and experiences (Cotter, 2010; Gandy, 1998; Hall, Antem & Cakim, 1999), making news more indispensable in the modern society, where people increasingly depend on it for their daily lives (Johnson-Cartee, 2005). Due to this importance of news in the society, media scholars have been examining news consumption across media types and from different theoretical perspectives (see Livingstone & Markam, 2008; Micheistein & Boczkowski, 2010; Nguyen & Western, 2007)

1.2.1 News Consumption in Nigeria

Empirical studies suggest that Nigerians consume news via both the old and new media. Alese and Owoyemi (2004) studied internet usage in the south-west Nigeria and found that the people used the medium as news source. The Hausa-Fulani people in the north-west Nigeria have found the BBC Hausa service as a news companion (Abubakar, 2011). Among Nigerian students, news consumption seems to be more evident. New media, particularly the internet, are sources of news to both undergraduate and postgraduate students in Nigeria (Ani, 2010; Ozoemelem, 2009). In the days when the new media diffusion was low in Nigeria, there was empirical evidence that news was being consumed in Nigeria via the major traditional media, that is, television, newspapers and radio (Nwuneli, Okoye & Okunna, 1993).

1.2.2 News Consumption in an Ethnic Setting

Even though studies have established that Nigerians consume news, the socio-psychological context of news consumption of Nigerians has rarely gotten serious

attention of media researchers in Nigeria. Yet media consumption, and by extension news consumption, is rooted in socio-psychological domain (Kartz, Blumler & Guventich, 1973) which means that personal and social identities like age, gender and ethnicity influence individual's media consumption (Emenyeau, 1997; Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2010; Ruggero, 2000).

Ethnicity has remained a key component of the social system, playing a dual positive and negative role among communities around the world. In some societies, ethnicity is good with ethnic differences being a 'pleasurable' variety while in some other societies; ethnicity is bad because ethnic differences are a source of perpetual tension and conflict (Kawash, 1997; Ukoha, 2003). Given this major social role of ethnicity, media scholars have been exploring the relationship between ethnicity and news consumption (Albarran & Humphrey, 1993; Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2007, 2010; Wei, 2008).

In the light of the above, a study of news consumption among ethnic groups in Nigeria where ethnicity molds the psyche of the people and largely defines all kinds of mutual relationships (Falola, 2008; Peter, Alemika & Bratton, 2002), becomes necessary. In fact, the seemingly unique nature of Nigerian ethnic landscape makes it imperative to explore the ethnic basis of any social behaviour in Nigeria (Ukoha, 2003).

1.2.3 Nigeria's Ethnic Landscape

In Nigeria, "a seemingly innocuous act as a child defecating in a bush is loaded with ethnic meanings and can *ipsofacto* ignite violence" (Ukoha, 2003 p.116). That anecdote visually presents how big is ethnic issue in Nigeria. In a survey on group identity in Nigeria, Peter et al. (2002) had found that Nigerians proudly flaunt their ethnic identities.

Nigeria is the most diverse country in Africa (John, Mohammed, Pinto & Nkanta, 2007). Different accounts exist on the number of ethnic groups in Nigeria due to variations in criteria for inclusion and exclusion. These different estimates range from the least of 161 to the highest of 619 (Gandonu, 1978; Hansford, 1987). In-between these are other estimates like 248 (Coleman, 1958), 394 (Hoffman, 1974), 62 (Murdock, 1975), 143 (Odetola, 1978) and 374 (Otite, 1990). Some more recent studies cite such figures as 250 and 400 (Salawu, 2010).

However, three of these ethnic groups, the Hausa/Fulani in the North, the Ibo in the East and the Yoruba in the West, are the major ones with the remaining commonly referred to as the minority ethnic groups (Osaghae & Suberu, 2005). These three ethnic groups which are also differentiated by religion, language and life-style, constitute between 60 and 70 per cent of the Nigerian population with the Hausa-Fulani accounting for 30 per cent, the Yoruba about 20 per cent and the Ibo about 18 per cent (Nolte, 2004; Shu'ara, 2010).

Up to 1996, Nigeria had had three broad regional groupings: North, East, and West. Each of these regions reflected each of the three major ethnic groups (Hausa-Fulani/north, Ibo/east and Yoruba/west). However, each of them, by those groupings was not a core ethnic entity as there was still some form of overlap in the religious and ethnic identities of the people in each of these three regions. This was the basis of reshaping Nigeria into six geopolitical zones in 1996: north-east, north-west, north-central, south-east, south-west and south-south (Mbanaso & Konieh, 2010). These arrangements, to a large extent, ease the ethno-religious overlap in the former arrangement. For example the north-west took an identity of core north where majority of the people hold a dual identity of Muslim/Hausa-Fulani. It is probably because of the relatively higher population of Muslims in that zone that some opinions have described the states that form this zone as 'Shariah' (or literally, Islamic) states (Osaghae & Suberu, 2005). In the same vein, the south-east took an identity of the core east with majority as Christians. Although, the south-west took an identity as a core Yoruba setting, there still exists a relatively higher level of religious overlap in the zone. From casual observations, either the Muslim or the Christian group is in a simple majority in the zone. In other words, even though the ethnic identity of south-west is clear, the religious identity is not as clear as in either north-west or south-east. For example, if someone's name is 'Mai Rago', he is most likely to be a Muslim of Hausa/Fulani extraction. In the same vein, if someone bears 'Ogochukwu', he is most likely to be a Christian of Ibo extraction. However, even though a name like 'Segun' clearly reveals a Yoruba identity, the religious identity is foggy

Ethnic consciousness in Nigeria transcends geo-regional boundaries. Although Nigerians mingle across ethnic boundaries socially and economically, they do so with mutual animosity which often explodes like a time bomb. Such explosions of the mutual animosity among the ethnic groups are common such that in just about half of a decade from 1999 to 2004, there were 100 ethnic related conflicts in Nigeria (Elaigwu, 2004), two of which Salawu (2010) narrates thus:

In 1999, an altercation between Yoruba cultists and a Hausa woman in Shagamu town of the (south) West over a religious rite developed into a full blown riot which claimed many lives of Hausa Muslims. And just as the dusts were settling down after a curfew imposed on the town, the reprisal started in the Hausa-Fulani city of Kano in the North (west). In 2000, violence broke out in the northern city of Kaduna (in the north-west) over the introduction of Sharia, the Muslim legal code in which many Ibos lost their lives. And almost like a time bomb, Enugu and other Ibo cities in the (south) Eastern part erupted in violence, leading to the loss of many Hausa Muslims (p.346).

It, thus, becomes obvious that the personality traits of Nigerians are profoundly rooted in ethnicity. This means that Nigeria is sharply ethnically divided with wide cultural gaps among Nigerians. The parallelism in the different set of cultural characteristics of Nigerians is captured in this imagery by Obafemi (cited in Davis & Kalu-Nwivu, 2001). He posits that,

Nigeria is not a nation. It is a mere geographical expression. There are no 'Nigerians' in the same sense as there are 'English' or 'Welsh' or 'French'. The word 'Nigeria' is merely a distinctive appellation to distinguish those who live within the boundaries of Nigeria from those who do not (p.48).

From this point of view, a comparative study of the different social settings in Nigeria is like a comparative study of two different nations. This point is driven home more by the Obafemi:

It is a mistake to designate (the different Nigerian socio-cultural groups) 'tribes'. Each of them is a nation by itself ... There is as much difference between them as there is between Germans, English, Russians, and Turks... The languages differ... Their cultural backgrounds and social outlooks differ widely; and their indigenous political institutions have little in common (Davis & Kalu-Nwivu, 2001, pp. 47-48).

Obafemi, a Yoruba man was not the only Nigerian frontline political figure who held this view about the seeming irreconcilable ethnic differences in Nigeria. The first Nigerian Prime Minister, Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, a Hausa-Fulani man also once asserted in the Nigerian Legislative Council Debates (cited in Akinrinade, 2003) that “since the amalgamation of the Southern and Northern Provinces in 1914, Nigeria has existed as one country only on paper. It is still far from being united... Nigerian unity is only a British intention for the country” (p 208). This notion is also alive in the contemporary Nigeria (Osaghae & Suberu, 2005; Peter et al, 2002; Salawu, 2010).

There exists abundant empirical evidence that there is interplay between the ethnicity-induced personality of Nigerians as painted in the account in the previous pages and the behaviours of Nigerians in many human endeavors including key areas like politics and media (Adebanwi, 2000; Ojo, 2003; Olukoyun, 2004; Ugwuanyi & Odigbo, 2012). In other words, the different ethnic environments under which

Nigerians grow have conferred on their personalities certain central tendencies that have been perceived in differences in social behaviours and perceptions. How does this profound ethnicpersonality of Nigerians reflect in their news consumption behaviour? This is the basis of this study. In other words, this study, ontologically, seeks to explore the extent to which news consumption in Nigeria is a dynamic cultural process and not just a mere activity. And Uses and Gratifications approach appears to be more appropriate for this exploratory task because culture, in which ethnicity is rooted, is a predictor of people's needs and how those needs are gratified (Ruggiero, 2000).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Ethnicity takes different shape in different settings. In some settings, ethnicity can take a simple shape in the form of cultural-linguistic differences while insome other settings, the ethnic shape can be multidimensional with cultural, religious, linguistic, historical, political and geographical differences (Dhoest, Manuel, Brusa,& Lemish, 2012; Kawash, 1997). This may, in a way, explain why ethnicity has become a double-edged sword. In some places, it plays a positive role with ethnic differences being a 'pleasurable variety' while in other places, ethnic differences are a source of perpetual conflict and tension due to irresolvable dissent (Kawash, 1997). Due to this multi- dimensional influence of ethnicity on social relations, ethnic issues have become issues of global concern (Cederman, Wimmer& Min, 2010; Fearon, 2004; Williams, 1994) which indicates that ethnic identity has become a strong predictor of social behaviours.

It is, therefore, not surprising that positive linkage has been found to exist between ethnic identity and media uses and gratifications (Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Ruggiero, 2000; Zohoori, 1988). Within the context of news genre, empirical studies have also established a direct relationship between ethnic identity and news gratifications. In two separate studies, Gerzduci and d'Haenens (2010, 2007) found significant difference in the news consumption motives of ethnically diverse groups in Belgium; Wei (2008) found non-Whites to use the mobile phone for news more than the Whites in the United States; Albarran and Humphrey (1993) had also found significant difference in the TV news gratifications of Blacks and Hispanics in the United States.

However, in almost all of these studies, the influence of ethnicity on news gratifications has been studied among inter-national ethnic groups. Little attention has been given to intra-national ethnic settings. This study will examine the influence of ethnic identity on news usage among three major ethnic groups in Nigeria.

This empirical effort is more desirable given the fact that there is a strong ethnic consciousness among Nigerians. In almost all facets of life, including political relations and media practice, ethnic identity influences the behaviour of Nigerians (Adebanwi, 2001; Olukoyun, 2004; Salawu, 2010). The sharp differences among the ethnic groups reflect in the mutual animosity among them which breeds ethnic

tension that often leads to conflicts and war. For example, Elaigwu (2004) observed that in less than half a decade from 1999 to 2004, there were more than 100 ethnic related conflicts in Nigeria. As at 2010, ethnic related conflicts had claimed three million lives in Nigeria (Salawu, 2010). This tension-soaked ethnic landscape in Nigeria appears to be fundamentally different from the ethnic settings of previous studies that have examined the impact of ethnic identity on news usage. This relatively unique nature of Nigeria's ethnic landscape, therefore, presents a theoretical challenge to the study of news usage in the context of ethnicity. For instance, given the tension and conflict among the ethnic groups in Nigeria, where an ethnic individual resides at a given moment could moderate his/her social behaviour, including news usage.

The assumption above is given more credence by the fact that the sharp divide in ethnic behaviour among the three major ethnic groups in Nigeria (Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba), is complemented by sharp geographical divide among the three ethnic groups (Hausa-Fulani in the north, the Ibo in the east and the Yoruba in the west). In this kind of setting, inter-ethnic movement can upset social behaviours including news consumption. It can, therefore, be assumed that the degree of seeking and obtaining news gratifications or the extent to which news gratifications sought can be obtained may vary according to ethnic locations. This assumption is strengthened by previous studies which found migration to have a relationship with news usage. Christiansen (2004) explored news consumption among migrants in Europe and found that diaspora is a factor in news consumption behaviour. In Shi's (2005)

ethnography, some Chinese migrants to United States express change in their news attitude compared to when they were at home. Similarly, in their study of news gratifications among ethnically diverse groups in Belgium, Gerzduci and d'Haenens (2010) found out that news motives differ significantly between those in their place of origin (Flemish majority) and those in a place outside their place of origin (Turkish and Moroccan minorities). Most of these studies have examined the influence of migration on news usage among inter-national ethnic migrants with little attention on intra-national ethnic migrants. This study examines the relationship between ethnic migration and news usage among the three major ethnic groups in Nigeria. Although, there is empirical evidence that ethnic context underpins news consumption among Nigerians (see Abubakar (2011) where the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group was found to consume BBC news with ethnic disposition), it is rare to find studies in Nigeria that have examined ethnic news consumption across intra-Nigeria ethnic boundaries, particularly through a uses and gratifications approach.

This study will also undertake a comparative analysis of news gratifications sought and news gratifications obtained among the ethnic groups in Nigeria. Most of the studies on ethnicity and media gratifications like Gezduci and d'Haenens, (2010, 2007), Wei, (2008), Rizkalla and Razzouk, (2006) and Albarran and Humphrey, (1993) have focused mainly on the news gratifications sought (GS) by the ethnic groups. The relationship between the gratifications sought (GS) and the gratifications obtained (GO) in the news consumption behaviour of ethnic groups has rarely been empirically explored. Yet, gratifications sought (GS) by media users and

gratifications they eventually obtained (GO) are not mutually inclusive. It is, therefore, not surprising that the needs which media users purposely use the media to fulfill are not always met (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980; Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985). This is why it is desirable not only to treat both GS and GO independently but also to treat both of them in the same model (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980).

This study is focusing on the Nigerian youth because Nigeria is a 'youthful' country (National Youth Policy, 2009; Adebayo, Udegbe & Sunmola. 2006). Interestingly, the Nigerian youth are also ethnic individuals ((Nolte, 2004)). However, because the sample base of this study will be too large if the entire Nigerian youth population is used, the study has decided to use two segments of the Nigerian youth as unit of data collection. The university undergraduate students will be used as quantitative data collection units since college students have been found to be theoretically relevant to the study of news consumption (Diddi & LaRose, 2006) while members of the National Youth Service Corps (N.Y.S.C) will be used as qualitative data collection units.

1.4 Research Questions.

Having established the basis for comparative study of news usage among Nigerian ethnic groups in the preceding pages, this study will address the following questions:

RQ1 Is there a significant difference in the news gratifications sought among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ2 Is there a significant difference among Hausa –Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in the media used for news gratifications?

RQ3 Is there a significant positive relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ4 Is there a significant positive relationship between online media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ5 Is there a significant positive relationship between conventional media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ6 Is there a significant positive relationship between ethnic migration and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ7 Does ethnic migration moderate the relationship between NGS and NGO?

RQ8 How does ethnic identity relate to news usage among Nigerians?

RQ9 How does gender influence news usage among Nigerians?

1.5 Research Objectives

This study is aimed at meeting the following objectives:

1. To assess the difference in the news gratifications of ethnic groups in Nigeria.

This addresses the **RQ1** and **RQ2**.

2. To determine the extent to which the ethnic groups in Nigeria obtain the news gratifications sought. This addresses **RQ3**
3. To assess the media used to obtain news gratifications among ethnic groups in Nigeria (**RQ4 & RQ5**)
4. To assess the effect of ethnic migration on news gratifications in Nigeria. This addresses **RQ6** and **RQ7**.
5. To investigate the role of ethnic identity in the news usage of Nigerians (**RQ8**)
6. To describe the dimensions of gender influence on news usage among Nigerians (**RQ9**)

1.6 Research Hypotheses

H₁ There is a significant difference in the news gratifications sought of the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₂ There is no significant difference among Hausa –Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in the media used for news gratifications.

H₃ There will be a significant positive relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₄ There will be a significant positive relationship between online media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₅ There will be a significant positive relationship between conventional media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₆ Ethnic migration will positively influence news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₇ Ethnic migration will moderate the relationship between NGS and NGO.

1.7 Significance of Study

This study hopes to make significant contribution to Uses and Gratifications theory. The Uses and Gratifications theory posits that media usage is a function of social identity. Ethnicity as a component of the social identity has enjoyed considerable attention in media studies (see Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2007, 2010; Raacke & Bond-Raacke, 2008). Media scholars have also used the uses and gratifications approach to explore how ethnicity influences news consumption (such Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2007; Wei, 2008). In almost all of these studies, the influence of ethnicity on news gratifications has been studied among inter-national ethnic groups with little attention given to intra-national ethnic settings. By exploring the influence of ethnicity in the news usage among ethnic groups in Nigeria, this study hopes to expand the horizon of uses and gratifications theory with respect to social identity as a function of media usage. This empirical effort is more strengthened by the attempt to see how inter-ethnic migration in an intra-national ethnic setting can moderate relationships between variables in ethnic news consumption. Previous studies have neither examined the direct influence of ethnic migration on news usage among

intra-national ethnic groups nor tested the moderating impact of migration on ethnic variables.

This study is also methodologically significant. The study is focusing on the Nigerian youth since they are actively involved in Nigeria's ethnic conflicts (Nolte, 2004) and because Nigeria is a 'youthful' country (Adebayo et al, 2006). However, university undergraduate students sample will be used because college students have been found to be theoretically relevant to the study of news consumption (Diddi&LaRose, 2006). Although use of college students sample is common in news gratifications studies (such Althaus & Tewksbury,2000; Parker & Plank, 2000; Wei, Lo, Xu, Chen & Zhang, 2013), the news usage of undergraduate students has rarely been examined in the context of ethnicity. Moreover, in studies on uses and gratifications, the use of quantitative method has been dominant. The use of mixed method for this study is a contribution to the meeting of methodological challenge in uses and gratification theory.

Practically, the study will be of particular assistance to the Nigerian media organizations in creating appropriate platforms for the various news needs of the Nigerian youth, particularly if the study discovers a significant difference in the news needs and gratifications of Nigerian youth. This relevance becomes more appreciated when viewed against this digital age of media convergence where news is easily customized to different media consumers. Where the study does not discover a significant difference in the news needs and gratifications of the youth, the study

may strengthen the need for the ethnically oriented Nigerian media to reposition themselves for a more robust role in bridging Nigeria through a universal view of Nigerians. Moreover, findings on the correlation of GS and GO may create a basis for a critique of media performance in Nigeria.

The findings of this study may also assist the Federal Government of Nigeria in having a clearer understanding of the pattern of media behaviour of Nigerian youth which could contribute to the formulation and implementation of appropriate communication strategies for effective mobilization of Nigerian youth towards national developmental goals.

1.8 Limitation/Scope

Media uses and gratifications covers four broad areas which are gratifications measure, media exposure, audience activity and media effect (Emenyeonu, 1997; Palmgreen, 1984; Ruggiero, 2000; Slater, 2010). Due to time constraint, this study is addressing only the first area, that is, the gratifications measure.

Besides, this study is not meant as a longitudinal study. In other words, even though there appears to be no recent, contemporary empirical studies on the news consumption behaviour of Nigerian ethnic groups from a uses and gratifications perspectives as the few available ones were conducted in pre-new media diffusion period in Nigeria (Biu, 1971), this study is not a comparative analysis of news usage of Nigerians in new media pre-diffusion and new media diffusion periods in Nigeria.

Rather, it is just an attempt to replicate, in a way, these previous studies within the context of a relatively new technological environment and given new theoretical challenge.

Nigeria is a multi-ethnic country with more than 250 ethnic groups (Salawu, 2010). It will be logistically difficult to include all these ethnic groups in this study, given the relatively large geographical size of Nigeria. Even though the three major ethnic groups that form the sample of this study constitute 70% of the population of Nigeria, findings of this study are not generalizable to the entire population of Nigeria.

1.9 Summary

In chapter one, the background to the study has been provided, and research problem stated. The research questions, objectives and hypotheses have also been stated in this chapter while the theoretical, practical and methodological significance were identified and discussed. The limitation and scope of this study has also been stated in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the concepts of ethnicity, news and situates them within the context of this study. It examines the theoretical perspectives of ethnicity as a concept with respect to its essence and cultural configuration. Changes on the media landscape are examined in the context of Nigeria with a view to localizing the global debate on the impact of the changes on news consumption. The chapter also documents empirical studies on uses and gratifications with respect to news consumption and ethnicity. The evolution and development of uses and gratifications as an approach to studying media use is also traced from the period of media effects research to this era of new media. Studies related to how different media gratify different news needs are also reviewed in this chapter.

2.2 The Nature of News

The word 'news' is a nebulous concept with many definitions. However, each of these definitions often identifies one or two characteristics of news which have coalesced to form what we may call universal nature of news. The entry point to understanding the nature of news is the age-old communication maxim that it is news when man bites dog but not news when dog bites man and newsier when dog shoots man (Dog News Daily, 2009). Anything odd or unusual (which is what this

maxim implies) is more likely to interest us because it is new. In that sense, news is any information that is not only current (Clay, 2008) but that is also of public interest (LaRose, 2010). However, public interest may not connote universal public value. The cultural relativity of public value of news is what is evident in the editorial dilemma of whether to publish or not to publish the picture of the hanging of Saddam Hussein (McMane, 2008) or that of the immolation of a Buddhist monk in 1963 in protest of 'repression' by Roman Catholic-led Vietnamese government against the Buddhists (The World's Famous Photos, 2007).



Figure 2.1. Dog shoots man

Source: Dog News Daily, 2009



Figure 2.2. The burning monk...news taste is cultural
Source: World's famous photo



Figure 2.3. Man bites dog, news oddity
Source: DogDailyNews

In any case, conceiving news as social in this sense of current or public affairs means news should essentially have a mass appeal. Therefore news in the context of this study refers to any current information that is socially relevant. The idea of social relevance means that the information has a mass appeal and impersonal utility. News, therefore, is any current information that is likely to be of interest to the public in such areas as governance, economy and international relations.

In terms of structure, news has a pattern which is usually captured in the mnemonics 5Ws& H (Who, What, Where, When, Why and How) in relation to current public events. This may be why Whitney (1982 in Letts, 1991) described news as “(media) organisational products, born of (structural) routines” (p. 12).

2.3 The Nature of Ethnicity

Ethnicity is shared or common characteristics among a people. These characteristics can be culture, language, religion or even geographical location (Dhoest, Manuel, Brusa & Lemish, 2012; Kawash, 1997; Nolte, 2004). The extent to which a people do not share commonality in those characteristics is what makes a distinction between complex and simple ethnicity. In some nationalities, ethnicity can take a simple shape in the form of cultural-linguistic differences while in some others, the ethnic shape can be multidimensional with cultural, religious, linguistic, historical and political differences (Dhoest et al, 2012). There is a global theoretical debate on ethnicity as a construct. The constructionists hold the view that ethnicity is an

abstract concept which exists only as a belief about its existence. The position of the constructionists is summarized by Abizadeh thus;

Ethnicity is based on mythical beliefs about the genealogical facts, not the genealogical facts themselves. . . The myths themselves can often be based on historically inaccurate beliefs. [Ethnicity] . . . exists as a socially constructed category contingent on beliefs . . . Ethnicity's very existence is dependent on beliefs about its existence (2001, p. 25).

Even the existence of such common shared identity traits in cultural characteristics, language and religion which are often the rallying point of ethnic struggles (Varkuyetan, 2005) exists only as rhetoric of national struggles (Jaspal & Cinnirella, 2012).

From the perspective of the premordialists, ethnic traits among individuals and communities are immutable because they are biological and fixed. Geertz (1963), one of the earliest proponents of the primordial perspective opined that ethnic identity traits are genealogical and not acquired. According to him, the genealogical origin of ethnic identity is what makes it stronger than all other forms of identity in bonding people. That is why, to him, if a nation comprises of people who shared common characteristics, ethnic elements are more determinant of nationhood. The premordialists sometimes buttress their views by citing immutable traditions like festivals, dance, music which they said give a sense of genealogical belonging to even the most humble ethnic member (Nash, 1989). The psychological realities projected in those occasions make ethnic demarcations real (Zagefka, 2009).

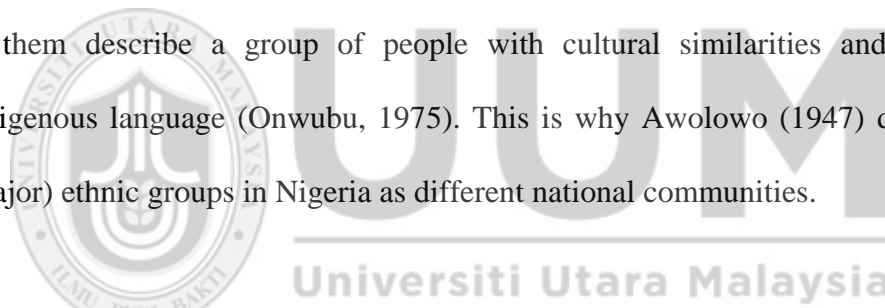
Ethnic configurations evolve through different socio-historical experience which often determines the contextual nature of ethnicity. That explains why the anthropologists recommend that ethnicity should be studied contextually.

Ethnicity is in fact not a single unified social phenomenon but a congeries, a family of related but analytically distinct phenomena...For instance in one circumstance, religion may be the decisive distinction between two ethnic groups...while in another language or history or race or any number of other qualities may serve the same function(Eller , 1999, p. 8).

It must have been due to this contextual nature of ethnicity that sometimes it is seen as being synonymous with religious affiliations. For instance, the nationalist struggle in Pakistan invoked, largely, religious identity of the Pakistanis rooted in common Islamic history (Jaspal & Cinnirella, 2012).

Sociologically, ethnicity exists in mutuality, or to be more precise, in mutual exclusivity. This means that ethnicity is relational such that members of a given ethnic group define their identity in relation to its difference with other's identity. This explains why ethnicity is socially relevant when it is conceptualized in the context of relationship between two or more groups who see themselves as culturally different (Eriksen, 1993). This means that the social relevance of ethnicity lies within the role of 'significant other' (Jaspal & Cinnirela, 2012). And it is the exploration of this inter-group dynamism that can make ethnic studies more interesting (Bra-Tal &Teichman, 2005).

One other interesting area in the ethnic debate is the relationship among ethnicity, race, tribe and nation. In terms of intrinsic characteristics, it may be difficult to differentiate among the four concepts since they all connote shared commonality among a group. It does seem that the whole question about their relationship boils down to that of nomenclature and the epistemological position of who is looking at the concepts. For example while a desire to break away as a separate, formally recognized community by the Welsh in Great Britain or by the Fleming in Belgium will be seen as nationalistic by a typical Western analyst, such a desire by a similar group in Africa could be seen, derogatorily, as tribalistic (Ostheimer, 1973). An ethnic community is synonymous with a national community in the sense that both of them describe a group of people with cultural similarities and a common indigenous language (Onwubu, 1975). This is why Awolowo (1947) described the (major) ethnic groups in Nigeria as different national communities.



Several theories are used to explain various dimensions of ethnicity, most of them from anthropology, sociology and psychology. One of such popular theories is the Identity Process Theory (IPT) and its motivational principles of identity construction. For example, Jaspal and Cinnirela (2012) recently relate ITP's motivational principles of continuity, distinctiveness, self-efficacy and self-esteem to ethnic identity construction through which they were able to generate some 17 testable hypotheses that can be used to explore the relationship between ethnicity and identity construction principles. However, in order to have a comprehensive assessment of interdisciplinary concepts like ethnicity, multi-theoretical approach to

their study is desirable (Absher, 1998; Thapa, 2002). That explains why in his justification for using Uses and Gratifications theory to study recreational information needs among ethnic minority groups in America, Thapa (2002) noted that despite the fact that some social psychological theories can be used to explain certain level of communication in interdisciplinary social behaviour, mass communication theories need to be incorporated into their research.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The Uses and Gratifications theory by Katz, Blumler and Guventich (1974) underpinned this study. Elihu Katz (1959) first articulated the Uses and Gratifications Theory with two basic assumptions: that media consumers play active role in media selection of media and messages and that media users visit the media with certain motives. In other words, the Uses and Gratifications Theory is a fundamental departure from the hypodermic needle theory which states that individuals are passive recipients of media messages. Rather, the Uses and Gratifications Theory postulates that individuals forming the media audiences actively choose and utilize media contents to satisfy their social and psychological needs and obtain personal gratification (Lucena, 2011).

The theory has been useful in explaining communication contexts. Contrary to the hypodermic needle theory, Uses and Gratifications Theory posits that media consumers are active participants in the communication process. According to the theory, the influence of certain contexts makes the media consumer determine and

decide what they consume and where they consume what. Their choice is facilitated by the heterogeneity of media platforms and media contents. Because media consumers approach media and their contents with certain needs which they seek to gratify, the power of the media to exert its influence on the consumers' use of the media has decreased considerably.

Initially, media scholars focused on what the media did to consumers. The emphasis has now shifted to what the consumers do to the media with the realization that certain psychological and sociological factors originate the need to access certain media contents (Katz, Blumler & Guventich, 1973). This discovery constitutes a major antecedent to the theory of media uses and gratifications, although the theory has been going through constant development by communication scholars in their bid to gain deeper understanding of the interaction of human behaviour with the media.

Generally, the theory is used to assess the outcome of using media based on the understanding of motives behind media use and the process of gratifying those motives (Blumer & Katz, 1974). According to Blumer and Katz, (1974) certain social and psychological conditions determine these motives and the process. U & G theory suggests that media users play an active role in choosing and using the media and that they take active part in the whole communication process because they are goal oriented in their media use. Therefore, users seek out a media source that best fulfills

his/her needs with an assumption that alternative choices are available for him/her to satisfy the needs (Honors, 2001).

Interestingly, the value of this theory has not diminished even with the emergence of the new media technologies because the theory has always provided the “‘cutting-edge’ for the theoretical appraisal of any new mass communication medium, including the internet, at their early stage” (Ruggiero, 2000, p1).

2.4.1 Evolution and Development of the Uses and Gratifications Approach

Media uses and gratifications as known and studied today evolved from the media effects research in the 40s. The media effects approach was developed to study the socio-psychological needs of media users and the gratifications expected from those needs, as regards both the media and their contents. However, the approach was characterized by the manipulation of communication conditions through experimental and quasi-experimental method (Ruggiero, 2000). That is why according to Windahl (1981), the difference between the media effects approach and the uses and gratifications approach is that while media effects approach looks at mass communication from the perspective of the communicator, uses and gratification researcher uses the audience as a point of departure. In the 50s and 60s, uses and gratification researchers started identifying and operationalizing psychological and sociological variables in media use. For example, mental ability of children and their relationships with parents and peers were associated with their television viewing (Schramm, Lyle & Parker in Emenyeanu, 1995). The 70s saw

uses and gratifications study move away from just identifying gratifications sought by media users to correlation of gratifications sought with gratifications obtained. Based on the idea of complete discrepancy, gratifications sought and gratifications obtained were seen as two different conceptual entities that need to be treated separately (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980).

One of the basic characteristics of uses and gratifications in the 80s and 90s is that scholars were now seeing mass media use as an integrated communication and social phenomenon. In this period, uses and gratifications scholars were busy modifying existing uses and gratifications studies through replications and extensions towards the integration goal. This period was, therefore characterized by comparative analyses of separate investigations in the uses and gratifications (e.g. empirical comparison of alternative gratifications model in Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985).

The phenomenon of the new media at the turn of the 21st century created a new theoretical challenge for the uses and gratifications studies. The internet in particular was posing more of such challenge with its distinct features of interactivity, demassification and synchronicity. That explains the observation of Ruggero that “as new (media) technologies present people with more and more media choices, motivation and satisfaction become even more crucial components of audience analysis” (2000, p.14).

Even as at late 90s when internet diffusion was still very low in some countries like Nigeria, convergence of old media and digital technologies had been found to be altering the exposure pattern of media consumers (Finn, 1997). The interactive component of the internet which is made stronger by this convergence provides media users with more power and control over their media use. Thus, interactivity, defined by Williams as the “degree to which participants in the communication process have control, and can exchange role in their mutual discourse” (1988, p.10), strengthens the core idea of uses and gratifications that users have control over their media use.

Another feature of the internet which strengthens the idea of media users having control and which, therefore justifies the appropriateness of the uses and gratifications approach to study media use in the digital society is its demassification quality. Because internet communication is like face-to-face interpersonal communication (William, 1988), the exercise of control by the media user becomes even more. The control of users in the media communication is also strengthened by the asynchrony features of the internet because the media user is enabled to stagger his/her usage over time. The Internet allows him/herto receive, save or retrieve messages more conveniently (Chamberlain, 1994).

However, with all these fundamental structural differences compared to the traditional media, the traditional typology in uses and gratifications such as surveillance, entertainment and diversion, interpersonal utility and Para-social

interaction to test people's attitude towards media consumption through such variables as gratifications sought (GS) and gratifications obtained (GO) can still be used with respect to internet (December, 1996; Perse & Dinn, 1998).

2.4.2 Methodological Approaches to the Uses and Gratifications Theory

Media uses and gratifications are all about the media consumers being in control of the communication process. This is because he/she goes into the communication process with certain social and psychological needs which determine where and how he/she gratifies those needs with respect to the media and their contents. This basic tenet of uses and gratifications has evolved several methodological approaches or models in the study of uses and gratifications.

2.4.2.1 Media vs. Content Selection

This approach is all about the benefits people seek from the media. Sometimes, these benefits could be in relation to such content categories as photographs, cartoons, and features or subjects as war, crime, finance etc. Still under this approach, a research can seek to know what benefits the media user seeks with respect to such gratification goal like information/surveillance, escape/entertainment, personal utility, reinforcement or social interaction utility. Several studies have used this approach in this respect (such Berelson, 1955; Blumler & McQuail, 1968; Dimmick, Chen & Li, 2004; Jarvis, Stroud & Gilliland, 2009; Lee & Ma, 2012).

Some scholars have used this approach to explore the pattern of media use. For example when Rubin and Perse (1984) studied the audience activity and television news gratifications, they discovered a difference between ritualized or non-serious media users and instrumental or serious users. While the ritualised users were seen to use the media habitually for purposes like relaxation or time-filling, the instrumental user selects and purposively uses the media for specific goals like excitement or information. The general view of this approach is to determine the gratifications that motivate media users and the media used for gratifying those needs. This study rests more on this methodological approach of U&G. However, instead of looking at the media used to seek gratifications, the study examines how gratifications sought are obtained in the major media platforms (television, radio, newspaper and the internet) by the major ethnic groups in Nigeria. The study is adopting this U & G approach from this perspective given the relatively new U & G approach (see 1.8.2) which seeks to assess usage of specific media outlets based on the media consumer's perceived outcome of media visit, i.e. gratifications obtained (GO).

2.4.2.2 Gratifications Sought (GS) vs. Gratifications Obtained (GO)

A newer dimension of this approach is to correlate the gratifications sought (GS) by media users and the gratifications they eventually obtained (GO). This is based on the notion of absolute discrepancy between gratifications sought and the gratifications obtained which requires that both of them should be given different independent conceptual treatment. In other words, gratifications sought (GS) by media users and gratifications they eventually obtained (GO) are not mutually

inclusive. It is, therefore, not surprising that the needs which media users purposely use the media to fulfill are not always met (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980; Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985). This is why it is desirable not only to treat both GS and GO independently but also to treat both of them in the same model (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980). This empirical challenge has rarely been met in media studies on news usage in ethnic settings. This study is also adopting this methodological approach of U&G by seeking to correlate the news GS and GO among the ethnic groups in Nigeria.

Previous studies have explored the relationship between GS and GO. In their investigation of relationship between gratifications sought (GS) from television news and gratifications obtained (GO) from network evening news programs (Palmgreen et al (1980) found each GS correlated moderately to strongly with its corresponding GO. Similarly, in his examination of the role of gratifications sought (GS) and gratifications obtained (GO) in predicting dependency on network evening news programs and *60 Minutes*. Weiner (1982) found GS to be most strongly correlated to corresponding GO. Dimmick et al (2004) found news in the internet to provide satisfaction to the news consumers. In a more recent study, though not directly related to news, Johnson and Yang (2009) compared the gratifications sought for using twitter with the gratifications obtained after using the medium, A correlated *t* tests showed statistically significant mean differences between gratifications sought and gratifications obtained. Similarly, Barton (2009) found a correlation between gratifications sought for a specific TV show and the gratifications obtained by the

viewers. Much more recent study by Keppler (2014) also found a significant positive relationship between the gratifications sought from and gratifications obtained in Facebook by church members.

2.4.2.3 Factors Affecting Individual Use or Content Selection

This approach examines uses and gratifications through the understanding of factors that affect media usage. Researches in this direction were said to have been inspired by some old studies which found people of lower economic status not to be using media (e.g. Gallup, 1930; Nafzinger, 1930 in Emenyeonu, 1997) which were corroborated by findings of Scrahmm, (1949 also reported in Emenyeonu, 1997) that media use, particularly newspaper readership had a positive association with education, age and economic status.

However, Chaffe and Choe (1981) downplayed the role of education, age and economic status which they described as traditional factors. They added two other groups of factors which they termed transitional and self-imposed factors. The transitional factors are said to arise from the individual's life circle changes such as marital status, parental status and residence while the self-imposed factors are related to the mental disposition of the individual which ranges from apathy to interest in the services of the media. Cobb (1986) added another dimension to the factors influencing media use by discovering what have been described as environmental factors. These factors, which were found to be most influential of newspaper readership among adolescents, include demographic variable of race (ethnicity). This

study is also adopting this methodological approach of U&G by seeking to determine the influence that ethnicity has on news usage among the ethnic groups in Nigeria

2.5 Uses and Gratifications in the Context of News

The fact that all contexts of communication can be approached through the understanding of uses and gratification Rubin & Rubin (1985) points to the intrinsic value of the Uses and Gratifications Theory in identifying communication patterns of any social concept. It is no wonder that over the last 60 years, the theory has been used to study the public's perception of gratifications sought and obtained via engagement in mass communications across a variety of modalities such as television programs, phone usage, and print media (Thapa, 2002).

Several studies have used the approach of uses and gratifications to examine news consumption. Obijiofor and Hanusch (2013) examined the usage of internet for news among undergraduate students in Australia. They found that the internet was the most popular source of news for journalism students and that the respondents made conscious efforts to select the news items based on their needs. Didi and LaRose (2006) also examined the news consumption habits using the approach of uses and gratifications. They found surveillance and escapism gratifications to be the most consistent predictors of news consumption behaviour among the students. While examining the motivations for onsuming news via the YouTube videos, Hanson and Haridakis (2008) found that news in the YouTube videos gratify various needs including information, entertainment and inter-personal communication.

In Nigeria, Hassan, Latiff and Atek (2015) examined Nigerian readers' motivations for reading online version of Nigerian newspapers. They found that the readers were motivated by a number of needs including news currency, quicker accessibility to news and the interactive nature of the online version. Contrastingly, in a survey that examined satisfaction of internet subscribers to online newspapers among cyber cafés users, Okonofua (2012) had found out that print newspapers satisfy the news demands of readers more than the online newspapers. Also, Akpan, Akwaowo and Senam (2013) explored the use of social networking sites among youth in Nigeria. The study found out that one of the reasons the youth visited social networking sites was to access latest information news. Awoleye, Siyanbola and Oladipo (2008) had also examined the level of Internet use by undergraduate students of Obafemi Awolowo University and found information search to be one of the most important needs of their internet usage. In a related study, Omotayo (2006) found out that the search for sport-related information was one of the major reasons given by university students for accessing the internet.

2.6 Ethnicity and Media Usage

Demographic variables like education, age and economic status were identified as major factors influencing media use by studies on uses and gratifications in the 70s (Emenyeonu, 1995). However, Chaffe and Choe (1981) downplayed the role of those demographic variables by adding other factors which they grouped as transitional and self-imposed factors. Included in the transitional factors are marital

status, parental status, residence and all other factors pertaining to individual's life circle changes while those self-imposed factors arise from the individual's personality which includes interest or apathy in contents of the media. However, they still recognized the role of the demographic variables of age, income and education all of which they grouped under traditional factors.. But in 1986 Cobb found 'race' (ethnicity), among other variables which were grouped as environmental factors to be the most influential in media use, particularly newspaper readership, among the young. In any case, uses and gratifications approach to the study of ethnicity has become desirable because "human needs are influenced by culture not only in their formation but (also) in how they are formed" (Ruggiero, 2000, p.27).

Several studies have studied ethnicity using the uses and gratifications approach. Raacke and Bonds-Raacke (2008) examined the uses and gratifications of friend-networking sites among Hispanic, Caucasian, African and Native American college students. Thapa (2002) used the uses and gratifications theory to examine the recreational information needs and search behaviour of minority ethnic groups in America. He observed that Uses and Gratifications Theory had scarcely been used to examine pattern of media use among ethnic groups, noting that theories from social-psychology had dominated the study of communication behaviour in interdisciplinary social behaviours. According to him, theories of Mass Communication should be incorporated into research on interdisciplinary concepts of which ethnicity is one.

2.7 Ethnicity and News Usage

Ethnicity influences news consumption behaviour. Wei (2008) found non- Whites to use the mobile phone for news more than the Whites in the United States; Albarran and Humphrey (1993) had also found significant difference in the TV news gratifications of Blacks and Hispanics in the United State; Gezduci and d’Haenens (2007) found ethnicity one of the strongest determinants of news usage among Turkish nationals in Belgium. Monika (2010) also found out that the disparity between the news consumption behavior of the ethnic minorities in U.K and that of the major ethnic nationals was partly influenced by the routine ethnic news consumption habit that the ethnic minorities transferred to the host community.

2.8 Migration as a Factor in News Usage

Empirical studies have found news consumption to be influenced by migration across cultural boundaries. In his study of news consumption among migrants in Europe, Christainsen (2004) found that diaspora is a factor in news consumption behaviour. The migrants had broader news habit and were critical of local news media. In Shi’s (2005) ethnography, some Chinese migrants to United States express change in their news attitude compared to when they were at home. Similarly, in their study of news gratifications among ethnically diverse groups in Belgium, Gerzduci and d’Haenens (2010) found out that news motives differ significantly between those in their place of origin (Flemish majority) and those in a place outside their place of origin (Turkish and Moroccan minorities). Also, Monika (2010) found some adjustment in the news consumption routines of migrants from EU8 countries

to U.K occasioned by the peculiar media context of the host communities. Kiely (2011) also reported some of the Filipinos who migrated to Montreal stating that their news consumption had been enhanced by migration. For example, one of the interviewees states, “I like to read news about the Philippines. The root cause of why we’re leaving and migrating is because of the politics over there. I feel the need to know what’s going on there” (p 59). In Seo and Moon (2013), news consumption of Korean immigrants to U.S was influenced by acculturation factors. News consumption of some of the immigrants was increased by ‘acculturation stress’.

2.9 Online versus Conventional Media in News Consumption

Media behaviour has followed the changing pattern of human society brought about by development and evolution of technology. At the onset of the 21st century, a technological phenomenon described variously as new media, digital media or information communications technologies began to change the media landscape dramatically. Although changes have been occurring on the media landscape since the last forty years and even farther (Carrey & Elton, 2010), the last one decade has seen dramatic and revolutionary changes brought about by the phenomenon of new media (Rainie, 2010). Broadly defined as new information and communication technologies (ICTs) (Boczkowski & Lievrouw, 2007) internet, mobile phone and multimedia have commonly featured in the lists of what constitute new media in majority of media studies (Brodsky, 2010; Asuni & Farris, 2011; Boczkowski & Lievrouw, 2007; Manovich, 2001; Livingstone, 1999). In some communication studies, the tendency has been to substitute ‘new media’ for ‘online media’ or

'digital media' (Boczkowski & Peer, 2011; Micheistein & Boczkowski, 2010; Nguyen, 2003).

The old conventional mass communication platforms, particularly television, radio and newspaper had remained the major news habitat for centuries. They remained so even up to the onset of the 21st century. This is because as at 1999, the computer/internet was still being likened to the telephone, prompting such assertion that even if every household were to have a personal computer with a modem, internet would never develop a character of mass communication (Morris, 1999). But from the year 2000 to 2010, it became evident that a new information age that would challenge the existing concept and thus extend the conventional boundary of mass communication had evolved. Within the last decade, findings from many media studies have indicated that the new media, particularly the internet and the mobile phone have become major news consumption outlet for both the adults and the young in the society (Westhund, 2007; Nguyen, 2003). In fact, as at 2003, news was coming second from top in the list of online activities in 12 core European countries with 70 per cent reading news relating to business and world affairs (Nguyen, 2003). The traditional mass media seem to have come to terms with this reality as most of them have moved their platforms into these new media in the name of media convergence or 360-degree (Doyle, 2010). With smartphones performing many functions ranging from programming a Digital Video Recorder (DVR) to surfing the internet and posting a status up-date to a social network which by 2010 was boasting of 500 million profiles (Napoli, 2010), the fears of some newspaper and television

executives about the future survival of their traditional news platforms(Ahlers, 2006) can be contextually understood.

This is where the issue now lies at the global discourse of online news consumption. That the new media have become major outlets of news is no more a debate. The debate is what tolls that online movement to news has on the old news platforms. The theoretical factions are between those scholars who opine that the new media have displaced the old platforms as news consumption outlets (Gentzkow, 2007; Gunter, Russell, Witney & Nicholas, 2003; Kaye & Johnson, 2003; Lin, Salwen, Garrison & Driscoll, 2005; Pew Research, 2008) and the other camp comprising of those who believe that the relationship is supplementary and complementary as the old news platforms are still surviving in the news circle (Micheistein & Boczkowski, 2010; Chan & Leung, 2005; Chyi and Larorsa, 2002; Flavian and Gurrea, 2007; Hujanen & Pietikainen, 2004; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000; Livingstone & Markham, 2008; Nguyen & Western, 2007).. The lack of clear pattern on the relationship between the old and new news media as news sources was what prompted Micheistein and Boczkowski (2010) to recommend that in the study of news consumption, there is need for a shift away from the traditional theoretical and methodological approaches which often treat media features and social practices separately. For instance, uses and gratifications approach to the study of news consumption in both the old and the new media can serve as a better theoretical approach in the effort to get a clearer pattern of the relationship between the old and new media as news outlets because media users' goals and interests have more

concern to them than the media attributes (Flanagin & Metzger, 2001). In other words, consumers are disinterested about the medium. Wherever their news needs can be gratified, they go for it. This position is buttressed by Dutta-Bergman's findings that in the United States, those who followed sports news in the new media complement that by also looking for sports news in the old media. On the strength of this finding, Dutta-Bergman concluded that 'the search for news information in a specific content area drives the consumption of specific news types across different media outlets' (2004, p. 55).

2.9.1 Online Media and News Usage

The internet is seen as a medium of multiple mass media which include social media, user-generated media, and web-based media. Empirical studies have used the uses and gratifications approach to examine news consumption in the internet media. Lee and Ma (2012) explored the motivations for using social media for news among university students and found information seeking, socializing and status seeking to be the motivations of the social media users for sharing news. In their own study of why people use the websites for political information, Kaye and Johnson (2003) identified guidance, entertainment/social utility, convenience and information (seeking) as motives. While examining how college students get hooked to news, Diddi and Larose (2006) found internet to be one of the media that surveillance gratification is positively correlated with. In their own study, Hanson and Haridakis (2008) found YouTube users to seek leisure and entertainment gratifications when

they watch comedy news video while they seek information gratification in traditional news video.

2.9.2 Conventional Media and News Usage

Information seeking/surveillance and Para-social gratifications have frequently been associated with conventional television news. In his study of media involvement and local news effects, Perse (1990) found local news to be primarily linked to information seeking and Para-social gratifications. Similarly, in Li (2001), Taiwanese news consumers found TV news to be a good source of surveillance gratifications. In some other studies, local TV news provides a mixture of information and entertainment gratifications to viewers. This is because its news reports on such core issues as politics; crime and disasters are often mixed with “human and local interest stories and newscaster appeal to provide light-hearted respites from hard news” (Bogart, 1980 in Perse, 1990, p20). Diddi and Larose (2006) found television news to positively relate to only escapism gratifications. News in the printed Newspaper is commonly associated with cognitive needs of the readers (Li, 2001; Rubin, 1981). Jarvis, Shroud and Gillard (2009) found information seeking and entertainment gratifications to predict the use of radio for news. The conclusion that could be drawn from the news gratifications derived from the different media is that news gratifications, relative to the media, are not mutually inclusive. They seem to differ only in degrees.

The previous pages have built up to certain assumptions about ethnicity and news consumption in Nigeria. These assumption have been presented under the study's hypotheses in chapter one. The empirical basis of each of these assumptions is discussed in the next pages.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

Using the factors-affecting-individual-use-or-content-selection approach, this study examined the effect of ethnic identity on news use. Specifically, the study explored the influence of ethnic identity on news gratifications sought.

Using the media-function-and-content-choice approach, this study examined how media were used to obtain news gratifications. Specifically, the study explored how news gratifications were obtained in the two broad categories of media, online media and conventional media.

Furthermore, using the GS vs. GO approach, the study examined the relationship between news gratifications sought and news gratifications obtained. This is based on the notion of complete discrepancy that gratifications sought (GS) and gratifications obtained (GO) are different conceptual entities deserving of independent treatment.

Although various typologies of gratifications have been developed, this study adopted the traditional typology of Katz, Guventich and Haas (1973). They grouped

media gratifications into five broad categories and identified the micro gratifications in each category. These categories include cognitive needs (for information, knowledge and understanding of the environment), affective needs (for aesthetic, pleasure and emotional experiences), personal integrative needs (for credibility, confidence, stability and personal status), social integrative needs (for contact with friends, family and the world) and escapist needs (for escape, diversion and tension release). The typologies of the GS are often used to measure GO (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980).

In sum, the study is examining the influence of ethnicity on news gratifications sought (NGS) and the media chosen for news gratifications obtained (NGO) in the gratification process of Nigerians and the extent to which their news motivations are met.

2.11 The Research Model

The study's model which is depicted in Figure 2.4 shows the study's six variables made up of four independent variables (News Gratifications Sought, News in the Online Media, News in the Conventional Media and Ethnic Migration News), one dependent variable (News Gratifications Obtained) and one moderating variable (Ethnic Migration News).

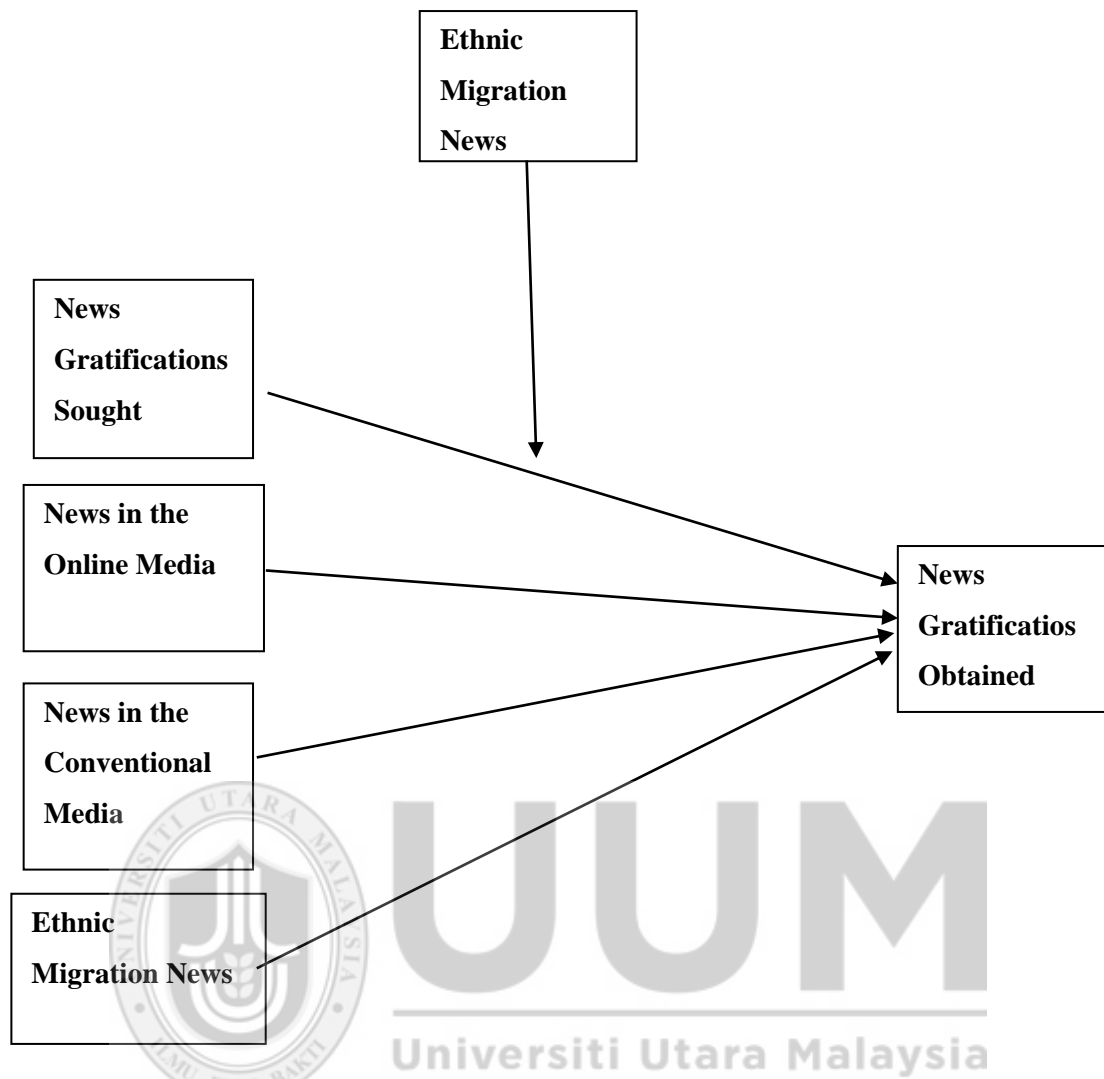


Figure 2.4. The research model

2.12 Discussion of Research Hypotheses

Since empirical studies (such Albarran & Humphrey, 1993; Gezduci & d’Haenens, 2007; Wei, 2008) have found ethnic identity to be positively related to news usage and since ethnic diversity in Nigeria is very sharp and deep, there is a high possibility that there will be a significant difference in news usage among ethnic groups in Nigeria. This is the basis of the study’s first hypothesis:

H₁ There is a significant difference in the news gratifications of Hausa – Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

Since the relatively wide diffusion of online media started at the onset of the 21st century, global theoretical debate has persisted on the relationship between the new media and the conventional traditional media as news outlets. The question is whether the online media have completely displaced the conventional media as news sources or it still remains a matter of one complementing the other. Due to this unclear pattern of relationship, some scholars have suggested a theoretical approach that can address usage of media for news consumption within the context of social practices. This probably explains why some scholars have found the use of uses and gratifications more appropriate because it is the motive that drives media choice for news consumption and not the media types (Dutta-Bergman, 2004). In other words, consumers are disinterested about the medium. Wherever their news needs can be gratified, they go for it. This position is buttressed by Dutta-Bergman's findings that in the United States, those who followed sports news in the new media complement that by also looking for sports news in the old media. The implication of this is the possibility that a particular news gratification can be sought in both the online and the conventional media. This is the basis of the study's second hypothesis:

H₂ There is no significant difference among Hausa –Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in the media used for news gratifications.

Gratifications sought for using the media and the gratifications eventually obtained or perceived to have been obtained by the media consumer are not mutually inclusive which requires that they be given separate treatment in a given

study (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980). Empirical studies have buttressed this conclusion with comparisons of GS and GO sometimes indicating negative correlation between GS and GO (Keppler, 2014; Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980; Rayburn & Palmgreen, 1984). Other studies have, however, found a strong positive correlation between GS and GO (Barton, 2009; Keppler, 2014; Weiner, 1982; Johnson & Yang, 2009). These conflicting findings can justify why it is necessary that both GS and GO be included in any model on gratification measures (Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980).

Although studies that have directly examined the relationship between news gratifications sought and gratifications obtained in Nigeria are hard to find, inference from findings of related studies could indicate a positive relationship. For example, in his analysis of the pattern of media use among Nigeria teachers, Ozor (1991) found most of the teachers using the media for various gratifications always. This inference is strengthened by the fact that when people do not get expected satisfaction from a particular media, they are more likely to change media (Yang, 2009). This is the basis of this study's third hypothesis:

H₃ Gratifications sought (GS) for using news will positively relate with Gratifications obtained (GO) in the news among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Iboethnic groups.

The relationship between different media types and gratifications obtained (GO) has been examined in previous U&G studies. This must have resulted out of the

recommendation of Palmgreen et al (1980) that media selection can constitute a variable of GO. This recommendation must have been made out of the fact that GO is all about perceived outcomes after media visits (Johnson & Yang, 2009). Relationship between online media and GO on the one hand and between conventional media and GO on the other hand has been explored in previous studies. Palmgreen et al (1980) and Weiner (1982) found news gratifications to be obtained in conventional television while Johnson and Yang (2009) found news gratifications to be obtained in twitter, an online medium. These findings lead to our hypotheses four and five:

H₄ There will be a significant positive relationship between online media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₅ There will be a significant positive relationship between conventional media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba ethnic groups in Nigeria.

The sharp divide in ethnic behaviour among the three major ethnic groups in Nigeria (Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba), is complemented by sharp geographical divide among the three ethnic groups (Hausa-Fulani in the north, the Ibo in the east and the Yoruba in the west). In this kind of setting, inter-ethnic movement can upset social behaviours including news consumption. It can, therefore, be assumed that the degree of seeking and obtaining news gratifications or the extent to which news

gratifications sought can be obtained may vary according to ethnic locations. This assumption is strengthened by previous studies which found migration to have a relationship with news usage. Christiansen (2004) explored newsconsumption among migrants in Europe and found that diaspora is a factor in news consumption behaviour. In Shi's (2005) ethnography, some Chinese migrants to United States express change in their news attitude compared to when they were at home. This forms the basis of hypothesis six and seven:

H₆ Ethnic migration will positively influence news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.

H₇ Ethnic migration will moderate the relationship between new NGS and NGO.

2.13 Summary

The chapter has examined previous studies in relation to the study's basic constructs in order to further articulate the theoretical challenge the study is trying to address. How the research hypotheses were derived has also been presented in this chapter. The chapter also discussed the theoretical framework of the study, while the relevant models in the underpinning theory (Uses and Gratifications Theory) were abstracted to form the conceptual framework and the research model. The nature of key concepts in the study like ethnicity and news was also examined.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research method is explained, the instrument justified and the units of data collection identified. The research design is laid out while the sampling technique, sampling frame and the sample size are also described in this chapter. The chapter also contains explanation on the validity and reliability test and data analysis technique the study is going to use. All these areas represent the philosophy of the entire research process which is broadly referred to as research methodology (Ogunbameru, 2004).

3.2 Research Design

A research design is the blue print of the study. It is a detailed description of the procedure for gathering data. It is the study's work plan aimed at ensuring that the "evidence obtained enables us to answer the initial question (s) as unambiguously as possible" (deVaus, 2001 p9). The research design, therefore, means setting out the data collection units and method (sampling and instrument). This study seeks to generalize its findings to a larger population; at the same time, it seeks to confirm those findings through context-based data. This explains why this study is adopting both the positivist and the interpretive approaches by using the qualitative research method as a complement to quantitative method. This is the philosophy of this study's research plan, the components of which are discussed in the next few pages.

3.2.1 Method

This study used a mixed method approach by integrating both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. Design of a mixed method comes in four ways: embedded, triangulation, explanatory and exploratory (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The study used the quantitative method as its primary method. The qualitative method was used as a complement to the quantitative method in order to gain more insight into the phenomenon of ethnic news consumption in Nigeria. The study combined quantitative survey structured interview with semi-structured, conversational interview. The quantitative method will enable the study to generalize its findings to a large portion of Nigerian ethnic population while the qualitative method will ensure a deeper understanding of news consumption in the context of a very big issue in Nigeria, i.e ethnicity.

Quantitative survey has been adopted in many studies of media usage of ethnic groups (such as Biu, 1997; Albarran & Humphrey, 1993; Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2007, 2010; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Thapa, 2002). The extensive usage of survey reflects its relative strength of replicability and objectivity in the comparison of responses of different groups (Newsted, Huff, & Munro, 1988). More so, Baran and Davis (2009) explain that new advanced survey research methods and data analysis techniques have provided more objective ways of measuring audience motives of media use. Much more importantly, quantitative method has been described as more desirable when studying media audience with a view to generalizing the findings of the study to a larger population (Johansson, 2011). Nigeria is a multi-ethnic society

with some 250 ethnic groups (Salawu, 2010), and Nigerians cluster more around these ethnic groups (Peter et al, 2002). Given this situation, it becomes more empirically realistic to study the influence of ethnicity on a given social phenomenon in Nigeria using an approach that can ensure some statistical generalizability. This reason explains why this study chose qualitative method as a dominant approach.

However, ethnicity is a cultural phenomenon and has been treated thus in several empirical studies (Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2010). And in the analysis of complex relationship between 'way of life' (culture) and information seeking, context-sensitive, qualitative data are also desirable (Savolaine, 2005). Therefore in order to understand more the ethnic differences among Nigerians vis-a-vis their news consumption, this study will explore the contexts of the ethnic influence on news consumption among Nigerians. This exploration is just to complement the quantitative data with the qualitative ones with a view to gaining more insight into the phenomenon of ethnic news consumption in Nigeria.

The study examined news consumption phenomenon at a single point in time in Nigeria. This means the study is cross-sectional in design. Nigerians have grappled with ethnic issues for decades. Contemporary events have not shown any change in the ethnic landscape neither is there any indication for a change in the future. For this reason, a cross-sectional design which ensures a quicker analysis of a phenomenon by being studied at a single point in time (Babbie, 2001; De Vaus, 2001; De Vaus, 2002; Frey, Botan & Kreps, 2000; Merrigan & Huston, 2004) is more desirable for

the study of a social phenomenon like news consumption vis-a-vis ethnicity in Nigeria.

3.2.2 Population/Universe of Study

Nigeria, before 1996, was broadly divided into three geographical entities, north, south and west. In 1996, the three geographical entities were sub grouped into six geographical zones: North-West, North-East, North-Central, South-West, South-East and South-South. Each of these zones comprises of smaller geographical units called 'states'. The list of the six geographical zones and the states comprising each of them are shown in Table.3.1 (see also map in Appendix 1A). Out of the six geographical zones, three of them, the north-west, the south-east and the south-west, are the most ethnically homogeneous zones. These three zones comprise of the Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba ethnic groups respectively, all of which constitute about 70% of the total population of Nigeria (Shu'ara, 2010). The remaining three geographical zones, the north central, the north-east and south-south are relatively ethnically heterogeneous. Since one of the main objectives of the study is to examine the influence of ethnicity on news consumption by comparing news consumption of ethnic groups, the ethnic homogeneous nature of north-west, south-east and south-west geographical zones can give a better and clearer comparison, given also the fact that the three ethnic groups constitute about 70% of Nigeria's total population (Nolte, 2004; Shu'ara, 2010).

Table 3.1
The six geographical zones in Nigeria and their corresponding states

SN	Geographical zone	States
1	SOUTH EAST	Anambra, Enugu, Ebonyi, Imo and Abia
2	SOUTH SOUTH	Edo, Delta, Rivers, Bayelsa, Cross-River and Akwa-Ibom
3	SOUTH WEST	Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, Osun, Ondo and Ekiti
4	NORTH CENTRAL	Kwara, Kogi, Plateau, Nassarawa, Benue, Niger and F.C.T
5	NORTH EAST	Taraba, Adamawa, Borno, Yobe, Bauchi and Gombe
6	NORTH WEST	Sokoto, Zamfara, Kebbi, Kaduna, Katsina, Kano and Jigawa

This study focused on the Nigerian youth because Nigeria is a youthful country with the youth constituting about one-third of Nigeria's total population (Adebayo et al, 2006; National Youth Policy, 2009). More so, these youths have been found to be actively involved in Nigerian ethnic issues (Nolte, 2004). In Nigeria, the age range of the youth is from 15-36 years (National Youth Policy, 2009; UNESCO, 2013). However, because the sampling base for this time-bound study would have been too large if it used the entire youth in Nigeria, the study decided to use the Nigerian undergraduate students as the sampling base to reduce the study to a more manageable level. The Nigerian undergraduate students fall within the classification

of youth in Nigeria because going by the 6-3-3-4 educational system in Nigeria, the minimum entry age into university degree education is 18 years. The 6-3-3-4 educational system in Nigeria entails six years of primary education, three years of junior secondary school, three years of senior secondary school and four years of higher education (university or polytechnic).

The study also decided to use the undergraduate students because they have been particularly found to be theoretically relevant to the study of news consumption (Diddi & Larose, 2006). More importantly, one of the objectives of this study makes the Nigerian undergraduates more appropriate sample for this study. This study is exploring, among other things, the influence of cross-cultural migration on news consumption. The Nigerian admission policy provides for a quota system which ensures that all the six geographical zones are represented in all the government universities to ensure educational balance among the zones (Oyedeji, 2011). By this policy, students are made to migrate from their geographical/ethnic origin to another. However, only the federal universities were selected because the financial cost of education is relatively fair in Nigerian federal universities which helps to accommodate all categories of Nigerians unlike state-owned and private universities whose financial cost may be out of reach of either the medium or low income group or both (Ofem & Akinyemi, 2012). So, federal universities provide a better comparative platform across groups of students in Nigeria.

Given the above scenario, the population/universe of this study was the total population of the Hausa-Fulani, the Ibo and the Yoruba undergraduate students in all the federal universities in the north-west, south-east and south-west of Nigeria which the Nigeria's National Bureau of Statistics (2012) put at 309,271. Accessing current and accurate educational data in Nigeria is a national challenge with a triple problem of lack of data, prevalence of obsolete data and politics of data plaguing the sector (Shu'ara, 2010). So, getting current statistics of undergraduate students in Nigeria from the relevant agencies was a big challenge for this study.

3.2.3 Sampling Frame

Respondents were drawn from Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba undergraduate students in three federal universities in the north-west, south-east and south-west geographical zones of Nigeria. The three universities have a total of 24,434 Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo undergraduates which, therefore, forms the study's sampling frame. It is from this sampling frame shown Table3.2 that a stratified sample was drawn for this study.

Table 3.2

The number of undergraduate students in the sampling frame by universities

SN	Universities	No of students	Male	Female
1	Bayero University	6605	4285	2320
2	University of Nigeria	12476	7521	4955
3	University of Ibadan	5353	3450	1903
	Total	24434	15256	9178

3.2.3 Sampling Procedure

In order to reduce the sample base due to cost constraints, a dual-stage cluster sampling procedure was first undertaken. Each of the states that comprise the three geographical zones was made a cluster. Using an alphabetical list of the states comprising each geographical zone as shown in Table 3.3, three state clusters from each of the geographical zones were selected through a systematic random sampling technique. The random selection was done because the states under each of the geographical zones share the same ethnic characteristics. Thus, Kaduna, Kano and Katsina (North West); Abia, Enugu and Imo (South East) and Ondo, Ogun and Oyo (South West) states were selected.

At the second stage, clusters of federal universities were created from each of the sampled state clusters. All federal universities in Nigeria share similar characteristics in terms of student population. Admission into federal universities in Nigeria is

based on a quota system which allows every geographical zone to have a representation in each of the universities (Oyedeji, 2011). However, the student population always heavily tilts towards the ethnic group that is based in the geographical zone where the university is sited. The heavy imbalance in the ethnic composition of students' population in the Nigerian Federal universities seems to be due to the component of the admission policy which cedes a percentage of the admission to the 'catchment area' (surrounding area) of the university (Oyedeji, 2011). Besides, the mutual animosity among the ethnic groups in Nigeria often discourages inter-ethnic migration coupled with poor infrastructural facilities like bad roads that connect ethnic groups in Nigeria.

From the alphabetical list of federal universities in the sampled states in each of the geographical zones as shown in Table 3.4 one federal university was selected through a simple random sampling technique. Bayero University (B.U.K) in the North West, University of Nigeria (U.N.N) in the South East and University of Ibadan (U.I) in the South West were, thus, selected.

Table 3.3

Selected geographical zones and corresponding states both in alphabetical order

	NORTH WEST	SOUTH EAST	SOUTH WEST
1	Jigawa	Abia	Ekiti
2	Kaduna	Anambra	Lagos
3	Kano	Ebonyi	Ogun
4	Katsina	Enugu	Ondo
5	Kebbi	Imo	Osun
6	Sokoto		Oyo
7	Zamfara		



UUM
Universiti Utara Malaysia

To select respondents from the sampled universities, undergraduate students in each university were stratified into the three major ethnic groups (Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba). A proportionate number of respondents based on the study's total sample size were then selected from each stratum.

A proportionate stratified sampling method was also used to select respondents along gender lines based on the sampling frame as shown in Table 3.3

Table 3.4

Federal universities in each sampled states of the three geographical zones

SN	Geog. Zones	Universities
1	North West	Ahmadu Bello University (Kaduna state) Bayero University (Kano state) Federal University of Technology Dutsima (Katsina state) Nigerian Defence Academy (Kaduna state)
2	South East	University of Nigeria (Enugu state) Federal University of Technology Owerri (Imo state)
3	South West	Federal University of Technology Akure (Ondo state) University of Agriculture Abeokuta (Ogun state) University of Ibadan (Oyo state)

Table 3.5

Distribution of the sample frame among the sampled universities and the three ethnic groups

SN	Ethnic groups	BUK	UNN	UI	Total
1	Hausa-Fulani	5284	873	482	6639
2	Ibo	462	9981	589	11032
3	Yoruba	859	1622	4282	6763
	Total	6605	12476	5353	24434

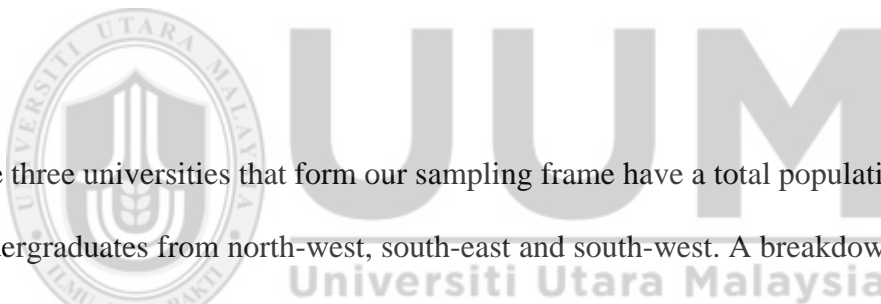
3.2.4 Sample Size

From the study's population of 309,271 undergraduate students, the study drew a sample size of 400. This figure was arrived at through a mathematical formula of determining a sample size based on a study's population (see Israel, 1992). The study set its precision level at 95%.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + n(e)^2}$$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{309,271}{1 + 309,271(0.05)^2} \\ &= 399.99 \end{aligned}$$



The three universities that form our sampling frame have a total population of 24,434 undergraduates from north-west, south-east and south-west. A breakdown shows that 6,605, 12,476 and 5,352 are in Bayero University, University of Nigeria and University of Ibadan respectively. Further statistics according to the ethnic origin of the students shows that in Bayero University, 859 and 462 undergraduate students are from south-west (Yoruba) and south-east (Ibo) respectively while the remaining 5,284 come from the north-west (Hausa-Fulani). In University of Nigeria, 1,622 and 873 of the students are from south-west (Yoruba) and north-west (Hausa-Fulani) respectively with the remaining 9,981 coming from the south-east (Ibo). For University of Ibadan, 589 and 482 are from south-east (Ibo) and north-west (Hausa-Fulani) respectively while the remaining 4,282 are from the south-west (Yoruba).

A proportionate number from the study's sample size of 400 was drawn from each of the three ethnic strata in each of the three universities as respondents. Thus, in Bayero University, eight (08) and fourteen (14) students from south-east and south-west respectively and 86 students from north-west formed the total sample size of 108 in that institution. In University of Nigeria, fourteen (14) and twenty-seven (27) students from north-west and south-west respectively and 163 students from south-east formed the sample size of 12,746. In University of Ibadan, eight (08) and ten (10) students from north-west and south-east and 70 students from south-west formed a total sample size of 88 for University Ibadan (This distribution of the sample size across sampled universities and ethnic groups is presented in table 3.6

Based on the sampling frame as presented in table 3.2, a stratified sample of 70, 123 and 57 male students will be selected from Bayero University, University of Nigeria and University of Ibadan respectively while 38, 81 and 31 female students will be sampled from the three universities also in that order.

The states that constitute each of the geographical zones were mere elements of geographical zone identity. They were not a criterion for selecting respondents in each cluster sample for this study. Therefore, even though the data collection instrument was administered taking cognizance of the different states in each zone as much as possible, the sample was not absolutely state-sensitive. The implication of this is that the zonal identity of a particular student was the major criterion for selection.

Respondents were selected randomly at the gatherings of the students' cultural/state associations such as Indigbo students' union which is a generic name for students from the south-east geographical zone; Oodua students' union for students for Yoruba students who are mainly from the six states that make up the south-west geographical zone and the Arewa students union which is another generic name for the Hausa-Fulani students. The cooperation and assistance of the associations' officials were passionately sought in this respect.

Table 3.6

Distribution of the sample size among the sampled universities and the three ethnic groups

SN	Ethnic groups	Bayero University	University of Nigeria	University of Ibadan	Total
1	Hausa-Fulani	86	14	08	108
2	Ibo	08	163	10	181
3	Yoruba	14	27	70	111
	Total	108	204	88	400

3.2.5 Quantitative Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaire instrument was used for this study. The questionnaire contained mainly close-ended questions. Questionnaire instrument ensures more objective

responses from respondents due to its impersonal nature (Frey, Botan & Kreps, 2000).

The questionnaire is structured into five sections which address all the quantitative research objectives (see Appendix A2). Section A contains items on news gratifications sought in the media; section B contains items that address news gratifications obtained in the media. Sections C & D, respectively, contain items on usage of online and conventional media to obtain news gratifications while Section E contains items that seek to measure influence of ethnic migration on news usage. Section F contains items on the respondents' bio-data. The response items for the constructs on this study's instrument were adapted from (Gezduci & d'Haenens 2010; Johnson & Yang 2009; Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980).

Response items in section A measure the gratifications sought from the news, i.e. the expectations of the respondents from news in the mass media. An example of a response item in this section is 'I seek news in the media because I want to keep up with current issues and events'. Four response items for each of the five construct items in this section were generated from Palmgreen et al (1980), giving a total of twenty items in Section A.

Section B also contains a total of twenty items which were generated from Palmgreen et al. (1980) and Johnson and Yang (2009). The section seeks to address gratifications obtained, one of the study's variables.

Because items for measuring gratifications sought are appropriate for measuring gratifications obtained with the phrase being changed from ‘I use media for/because...’ to ‘media helps me...’ (Dimmick, Chen, & Li. (2004); Johnson & Yang, 2009; Palmgreen et al, 1980), the same items in Section A were used in section B with only the phrase changed from “‘seek news in the media’” to “‘news in the media’” Section B, therefore, also contains twenty items.

Sections C& D of the questionnaire seek to know the extent to which specific media give satisfaction from news. This is in response to the recommendation by Palmgreen et al (1980) that media selection can be used as a variable of gratifications obtained. Section C items seek to know the extent of obtaining news gratifications from the online media while items in section D measure the extent to which news gratifications are obtained in the conventional media. We used the phrase ‘I obtain news gratifications in’ against specific online and conventional media. Section C contains nine items while section D contains 11 items. Items in section E measure ethnic migration needs. Taking a cue from the items measuring ethnic migration in Gezduci and d’Haenens (2010), the twenty items used in section A of this study’s instrument were used in section E. The distribution of all the items in this study’s questionnaire as generated from previous studies is shown in Table 3.7.

A 7-point Likert scale response options were used for sections A, B and E of the questionnaire. These options range from the highest of strongly agree (7) to the lowest of strongly disagree (1) with other five options in between.

In section D, a 5-point Likert scale is used. The scale includes very rarely (1), rarely (2), sometimes (3), often (4) and very often (5). The instrument was self-administered on the respondents.

Items in Palmgreen, Weiner and Rayburn (1980) were adapted for the construct 'news gratifications sought' (NGS). The phrase 'I watch TV' was adjusted to 'I seek news in the media' since our study seeks to determine the gratifications sought in the media generally. The items on news gratifications obtained (NGO) were adapted from Palmgreen, Weiner and Rayburn (1980) in the same manner as done for items for NGS. In other words, the phrase 'CBS news helps me to' was adjusted to the phrase 'news in the media gives me'.

Items on ethnic migration news (EMN) were adapted from the questions about ethnic-cultural dimensions of news consumption in Gezduci & d'Haenens (2010). Instead of the questions pertaining to how respondents perceive themselves as members of a particular ethnic within an inter-national context in Gezduci & d'Haenens (2010), EMN items of this study were adjusted to how respondents see themselves as members of an ethnic group within an intra-national geographical context.

The items under the two constructs, news in the online media (NOM) and news in the conventional media (NCM) were adapted from Ghorui's (2012) items on frequency of use of the online and offline media for news consumption. Instead of the respondents being asked how often the two media types were used for news, the

questions were adjusted to how often are news needs met in both media types. Besides, this study use a five-point Likert scale as against a four-point Likert scale in Ghorui (2012).

Table 3.7

Questionnaire items as generated from previous studies

S/N	Constructs	No of items	Source
1	News Gratifications Sought	20 items	Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn (1980)
2	News Gratifications Obtained	20 items	Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn (1980)
3	Ethnic migration News	20 items	Gezduci & d'Haenens, 92010)
4	News in Online Media	4 items	Ghorui (2012)
5	News in Conventional Media	3 items	Ghorui (2012)

3.2.6 Quantitative Statistical Procedure

Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyze the data of this study. PLS-SEM was chosen mainly because of its non-requirement of normality tests. All the normality tests done for the data of this study show the data are not normal. This is one of the relative advantages of PLS-SEM over the Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2013).

Moreover, our items are relatively large in number, a condition which PLS-SEM can relatively easily address (Hair et al, 2013). PLS-SEM is suitable for both model prediction and development and for both formative and reflective constructs (Hair et al 2013) The PLS algorithm was first used to explore the relationships between the constructs and their item-indicators. This initial procedure produced the reliability and validity results of this study. Thereafter, we used the bootstrapping procedure to test our hypotheses.

3.2.7 Qualitative Data Collection

The study used the unstructured interview to collect qualitative data. The main objective of using a qualitative approach for this study is to support the quantitative data with context-based data on ethnic dimension in the news consumption behaviour of Nigerians which the unstructured interview is best suited for (Doxler, 1970). An interview protocol (see Appendix A3) was used to direct the interviewing process. The interview session sought answers to the study's two qualitative research questions, i.e. RQ8 and RQ9.

3.2.8 Qualitative Informants Selection

The objective of using mixed method for this study is to supplement quantitative data with qualitative data by gaining insight into the phenomenon of ethnic news consumption in Nigeria. Therefore, even though the interviewees were drawn from the Nigerian youth, the descriptive nature of the expected responses informed the need to draw the informants from a more matured segment of the Nigerian youth.

Given this consideration, the study used the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) members as informants. The selection of different samples from different population for the qualitative aspect of this study is based on the fact that:

the logics of probability and purposeful sampling are arguably sufficiently irreconcilable in most cases to preclude using the same subjects for both quantitative and qualitative purposes.... Subjects selected for the purposes of statistical representativeness may not fulfill the informational needs of the study, while participants selected for information purposes do not meet the requirement of statistical representativeness (Sandelwoski, 1995, p.182).

NYSC is a scheme that makes one-year national service mandatory on any university or polytechnic graduate who is not above thirty years of age before seeking jobs in public and organized private sectors in Nigeria. So, even though the NYSC members are relatively more experienced than the undergraduates, they are still within the youth age range of 15-35 years (UNESCO, 2013, National Youth Policy, 2009). Since the main objective of the scheme established in 1973 is to promote reconciliation among the major ethnic groups after the civil war in 1972 (Anambra Corpers.com, 2013), the scheme has ensured that graduates are posted out of their states of origin or ethnic origin for the national service. This nature of the scheme lends the NYSC members to being more appropriate informants in a study comparing ethnic behaviours among Nigerians.

Morse (1994 cited in Sandelwoski, 1995) recommends a minimum of six participants “in phenomenology directed towards discerning the essence of experiences” (p. 182)

Therefore, six (06) NYSC members on equal gender basis from each of the geographical zones were selected for the interview. This makes a total of 18 NYSC members. By the nature of the NYSC scheme, there is more likelihood that in any state of Nigeria, graduates from ethnic groups other than the dominant ethnic group in that state will form the majority of the NYSC members. Therefore, we selected Kaduna state in the north-west for the informants from the south-west and south-east while Oyo state in the south-west was selected for our informants from the north-west. In each of the selected states, the interviewees were picked through a purposive sampling technique. The purposive method was aimed at getting from the population informants that would both be willing and able to supply rich information which is the hallmark of qualitative approach: “in qualitative research, events, incidents and experiences, not people per se, are typically the objects of purposive sampling” (Sandelwoski, 1995, p.180).The researcher met the NYSC members at the one-month orientation camp in each of the two selected states from March to April, 2014. The camp officials’ assistance was sought in the interviewees’ selection process.

3.2.9 Qualitative Data Analysis

The study used a thematic qualitative data analysis technique. Data were transcribed and analyzed on the QSR 10 software. Themes relevant to the two qualitative research questions were identified from the coded data and interpreted. Using a deductive approach, themes were derived from the variables of the underpinning theory which is the Uses and Gratifications Theory. Responses were then coded based on these identified variables. The study used the qualitative data as a

complement to the quantitative data on the influence of ethnic identity on news consumption through an unstructured conversational interview approach. Therefore, Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba individuals were the units of analysis.

3.3 Validity and Reliability

Validity is the degree to which the data collected reflect what a study set out to measure (Rainard, 2001). For over 60 years that Uses and Gratifications approach has been used to study media audience, gratifications constructs have remained almost the same for both the conventional media and the new media (Dominick et al, 2004; Gezduci & d'Haenens, 2010; Kartz, Gurentich & Haas, 1973; Pappacrisis & Rubin 2000; Palmgreen et al, 1980; Ruggiero, 2000). In addition, these constructs have undergone statistical validation by many of these studies making their adoption into any other contexts justifiable (Ghorui, 2012) For example, Pappacrisis and Rubin (2000) had reported good loadings for most of the gratifications constructs that are used in this study (see Table 3.8). In any case, this study's instrument was also pretested among some undergraduate students in Nigeria, the results of which are presented in Table 3.9.

Because we used the PLS-SEM to analyze the quantitative data of this study, the internal consistency reliability was measured through the determination of the composite reliability. PLS-SEM uses composite reliability because instead of looking at the internal consistency of the indicators collectively, it prioritizes each indicator by estimating the internal consistency of each indicator instead of grouping them

together (Hair et al, 2013). Composite reliability is expected to be higher than 0.78, while in exploratory research, the value is expected to range from 0.60 to 0.70.

Convergent validity, which is the degree of overlap among all the indicators of all the constructs, was determined by measuring the level of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) which must be above .50 before it can meet the criterion of convergent validity in PLS-SEM

The discriminant validity, which is the degree of distinctiveness of a construct in measuring a phenomenon, was measured in two ways: (a) by examining the crossloadings and (b) by using the *Fornell-Larcker criterion*. The indicators loadings for a particular construct should be greater than its loadings (cross-loadings) on the other constructs in the same model under consideration. Where any of the cross-loading is greater than the actual construct loading, then discriminant validity is violated for that particular construct. Using *Fornell-Larcker criteri* the square root of AVE of each latent construct is examined and compared with the latent variable correlations of other latent construct.

The square root of AVE should be greater than its correlations with other constructs, otherwise Fornell-Lacker discriminant validity criterion is assumed not met for a reflective measurement models (Hair et al., 2013).

Table 3.8

Reliability results of instrument constructs generated from previous studies

SN	Gratification constructs	Cronbach alpha Pappacharissi & Rubin, (2000)
1	Cognitive	.87
2	Affective	.85
3	Social Interactive	.74
4	Personal Interactive	.93
5	Escapist	.85

Pappacharissi and Rubin, (2000) N= 279)

3.3.1 Pilot Study Report

A pilot study was conducted among some Nigerian undergraduate students in Kaduna state, Nigeria in order to measure the reliability of the study's instrument.

The Cronbach's Alphas of the constructs are presented in Table 3.9

Table 3.9

Results of pilot study among Nigerian undergraduate students in Kaduna State, Nigeria in January, 2014

S/N	Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha
1	News Gratifications Sought (NGS)	Cognitive .609
		Affective .803
		Social Interactive .774
		Personal Interactive .676
		Escapist .768
2	News Gratifications Obtained (NGO)	Cognitive .694
		Affective .836
		Social Interactive .773
		Personal Interactive .711
		Escapist .905
3	News in the Online Media (NOM)	.713
4	News in the Conventional Media (NCM)	.755
5	Ethnic Migration News (EMN)	.912

N= 30

We ensured quality of the qualitative data through member checking, that is a process of cross-checking information with some of the informants to ascertain whether the findings reflect their experiences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

This process resulted in confirmation, amendment, correction or extension of some data as constructed by informants. Moreover, the use of nvivo software could have addressed some issues of data reliability because the software ensures thorough, complete and transparent analysis of qualitative data.

3.4 Operational Definitions

The following terms should be conceived in this study as here defined.

3.4.1 News Consumption

The phrase 'news consumption' has often connoted the process of following, using, seeking or experiencing news in previous studies (Ofcom, 2014; Peters, 2012; Mitchelstein & Boczkowski, 2010). News consumption is conceived in this study as the process of using news.

3.4.2 News Usage

The phrase media usage is sometimes used to mean media use in the theoretical parlance of media uses and gratifications which is all about why and how people actively seek out specific media to satisfy specific needs (Yadamsuren, & Erdelez, 2010). It is in this sense that the phrase 'news usage' is used throughout this study. In other words the phrase is used interchangeably with 'news uses and gratifications' which describes both the gratifications measures (GS and GO) and the media selected for the gratifications. Where there is a need to refer to or describe only one

of them, the phrase ‘news gratifications’ or ‘media used for gratifications’ is respectively used.

3.4.3 News Gratifications Sought

Gratifications sought refer to the needs or motivations that drive media consumption (Ghorui, 2012; Katz, Guventich & Hass, 1973). These motivations of visiting the media are now being distinguished from the perceived outcome of the media visit because the gratifications that are intended may not be obtained (Johnson & Yang, 2009; Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980). So, in this study, news gratifications sought are the motivations that respondents intended when they were seeking news in the media.

3.4.4 News Gratifications Obtained

Based on the notion of absolute discrepancy, motivations intended on media visit (gratifications sought) and the outcome of the media visit (gratifications obtained) are now being treated separately in media studies (Johnson & Yang, 2009; Palmgreen, Weiner & Rayburn, 1980). News gratifications obtained are, therefore, construed in this study as the satisfaction derived after accessing news in the media.

3.4.5 Conventional Media

The conventional media are the offline/traditional news media like television, radio and printed newspaper (see Diddi & LaRose, 2006; Ghorui, 2012; Ha, 2003). This study also refers to conventional media as offline or traditional media. They

specifically refer to radio, television and newspaper in this study. The identity of the conventional media seems to be getting more and more unclear in this age of multi-media platform or media migration with most of the conventional media having migrated to the online platforms (Doyle, 2010). So in this study, the conventional, offline or traditional news media are radio, television and newspaper that are accessed in the old way and not through any of the new media technologies.

3.4.6 Online Media

Although online media are often conceived as new media technologies such as computer, mobile phones and the internet (Asuni & Farris, 2011; Brosky, 2010; Boczkowski & Lievrouw, 2008; Lehdonvirta & Rosanen, 2010; Livingstone, 1999; Manorich, 2001), online media in this study refer to the multiple media in the internet such as social media like Facebook and Twitter, user-generated content media like blogs, YouTube and e-mail and web-based media. Other new media technologies like computer and mobile phones are treated as channels of accessing the internet.

3.4.7 Ethnic Migration News

Generally conceived as transnational movement of cultures or movement of ethnic groups across national borders (Christansen, 2004; Kiely, 2011; Monika, 2010; Seo & Moon, 2013). In this study, ethnic migration is conceived as movement of indigenous ethnic groups across intra-national borders. Specifically, it refers to the movement of Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo individuals across ethnic boundaries in

Nigeria. Therefore, ethnic migration news is the consumption of news by one of the three ethnic groups in the geographical location of either of the two other ethnic groups.

3.4.8 Cognitive Needs

This is one of the typologies of media gratifications. It is measured by assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily to seek information, knowledge or general understanding of the environment (Katz, Guventich & Hass, 1973). In this study, cognitive news needs refer to seeking news for current information whether in the government or on academic matters.

3.4.9 Affective Needs

This is another typology of media gratifications. It is measured by assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily for aesthetic, pleasure and emotional experiences (Katz, Guventich & Hass, 1973). Therefore, affective news needs should be consrued in this study as seeking news for fun, entertainment or just to be happy.

3.4.10 Personal Integrative Needs

This typology of media gratification is measured by assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily for credibility, confidence, stability and personal status (Katz, Guventich & Hass, 1973). In this study, personal integrative news needs refer to seeking news for emparthy of the news presenters or

commentators or because the news consumers want to compare their views with others on news issues.

3.4.11 Social Integrative Needs

Associative integrative needs, media consumers visit the media to enrich their contact with friends, family and the world (Katz, Gurevitch & Hass, 1973). Therefore, social integrative news needs should be considered in this study as seeking news to have something to share with family and friends or something to be able to initiate a conversation.

3.4.12 Escapist Needs

This is another typology of media gratifications. It is measured by assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily for escape, diversion and tension release (Katz, Gurevitch & Hass, 1973). In this study, escapist news needs refer to seeking news to escape from boredom, to forget about problems or just to relax.

3.4.12 Gender

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women (Möller-Leimkühler, 2003). The word 'gender' is often differentiated from the word 'sex' by looking at gender as socially accepted differences between the male and the female based on roles while sex refers to innate, natural or biological differences between the male

and the female (Oakley, 2015). In this study, gender refers to male and female of Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups who are currently enrolled in undergraduate programmes in Nigerian universities.

3.5 Summary

In the chapter three of this study, details on how relevant data were obtained to meet the objectives of the study have been discussed. The chapter has also discussed the suitability of the chosen method and statistical tool. Operational definitions of the study's variables have been provided so that the conceptual definitions of those variables can be seen within the context of the study.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis of the quantitative data. The chapter describes demographic attributes and respondents' profiles and presents the measurement and the structural models. Specifically, the chapter contains the data cleaning processes, analysis of measures of reliability and validity, explanation of the procedures of testing the hypotheses of this study and the presentation of results arising from the hypothesis testing.

4.2 Survey Response

4.2.1 Response Rate of Distribution

A total of 450 questionnaires were administered on undergraduate students of three Nigerian universities: Bayero University, Kano (BUK) University of Nigeria, Nsuka (UNN) and University of Ibadan (UI). Four hundred and seven (407) which represent 90.4% of the 450 administered questionnaires were retrieved. This high retrieval rate must have been due to several reminders sent to the respondents. Particularly, based on the recommendations of Salim Silva, Smith, and Bammer (2002) and Traina, MacLean, Park, and Kahn (2005), several reminders were sent to the respondents through phone calls.

Out of the 407 that were retrieved, 96 were excluded from the analysis due to incomplete data. Incomplete data occur when respondents intentionally or

unintentionally did not provide answers to certain questionnaire questions. This is considered normal in social research. Certain criteria have been set for the management of missing data. Hair et al (2013) suggest that an observation should be removed completely from the analysis where overall omissions in the observation exceed 15%. They also suggest that where answers are omitted for a considerable portion of one of the constructs, the observation should be removed even if the overall omissions in the observation do not exceed 15%. Based on these suggestions of Hair et al (2013), 96 cases were excluded from the analysis. In these excluded cases, either answers were omitted for a considerable portion of one of the constructs or overall omissions in the observation exceeded 15%. Three hundred and fifty-seven (311) which represents 69.1% of the administered questionnaires were, therefore, used for analysis in this study. This response rate is above the threshold of 30% minimum suggested by Sekaran (2003).

Table 4.1

Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Response	Frequency/Rate
No. of distributed questionnaires	450
Returned questionnaires	407
Returned and usable questionnaires	311
Returned and excluded questionnaires	96
Questionnaires not returned	43
Response rate	90.4%
Valid response rate	69.1%

4.2.2 Non-Response Bias Test

We had averted the unit non response bias by adding 50 questionnaires to our sample minimum of 400, making 450. This follows the recommendation of Barclay, Todd, Finlay, Grande, & Wyatt (2002) that the researcher can anticipate non response and avert it by adding to the sample size. Thus the 407 response rates exceeded our minimum sample size of 400. In any case, the non response bias tests were still carried out by this study.

Non-response bias is the bias that results when respondents differ in meaningful ways from non-respondents which might affect the generalizability of the results to the population of the research (Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, & Oppenheim, 2006). Several ways of testing non response bias have been proposed in the literature. In this study, late respondents were used in place of non-respondents as suggested by Churchill and Brown (2004) and Malhotra et al (2006). They argued for the use of late respondents in place of non-respondents in order to estimate the non-response bias rate because they (late respondents) might not have responded if there was no serious follow-up by the researcher.

Questionnaires returned within two weeks after the distribution were treated as early responses while those returned after two weeks were regarded as late responses. Therefore, 252 questionnaires were classified as early responses while 57 were late responses. Results of T-test did not show any significant difference between the early and late responses vis-avis the continuous variables of the study. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Response Bias Test

					Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
	GRP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
EMN	1 Early Response	2	4.774	1.211	4.009	.046
	2 Late Response	57	5.092	1.053		
NGO	1 Early Response	2	5.131	1.187	1.637	.202
	2 Late Response	57	5.394	1.037		
NGS	1 Early Response	2	4.964	1.297	.011	.916
	2 Late Response	57	5.142	1.241		
NTCM	1 Early Response	2	1.772	.693	.905	.342
	2 Late Response	57	1.484	.593		
NTOM	1 Early Response	2	2.304	.822	3.306	.070
	2 Late Response	57	1.940	.652		

4.3 Profile of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are analyzed. These characteristics include age, ethnic identity, gender, income level and university.

4.3.1 Ethnic Identity Profile of Respondents

The Hausa-Fulani accounted for 30.8% of our respondents with a frequency of 96 respondents. There were 132 Ibo which represents 42.4%. The Yoruba accounted for 26.6% with a frequency score of 83. These ethnic profiles are reported in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Ethnic profile of respondents

Ethnic Groups	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
H/Fulani	96	30.8	31.0	31.9
Ibo	132	42.4	42.0	73.0
Yoruba	83	26.6	27.0	100
Total	311	100	100	

4.3.2 Respondents' Age Profile

Table 4.4 shows the age distribution of our respondents. There were 199 (63.9%) respondents in the 18-24 age bracket. Respondents in the 25-30 age group were 90 in number which represents 28.9%. Those above 30 years of age scored 22 (7.1%).

Table 4.4

Age profile of respondents

Age Groups	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
18-24 years	199	63.9	64.0	63.1
25-30 years	90	28.9	29.0	93.0
Above 30 yrs	22	7.1	7.0	100
Total	311	100	100	

4.3.3 Gender Profile of Respondents

There were 214 male and 97 female respondents. This represents 68.8% and 31.1% respectively. The gender statistics is shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Gender profile of respondents

Gender	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Male	214	68.8	69.0	63.1
Female	97	31.1	31.0	100
Total	311	100	100	

4.3.4 Respondents' Income Profile

Table 4.6 reports the income profiles of the respondents which show that the low income group (N10, 000-N200, 000 per month) had the highest score of 208 (66.8%). Those in the middle income group (N200, 000-N500, 000 per month) scored 62 (19.9%) while the high income group (Above N500, 000 per month) had the lowest frequency of 42 (13.5%).

Table 4.6

Income profile of respondents

Income Grps	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Low	208	66.8	67.0	66.8
Middle	62	19.9	20.0	86.0
High	41	13.4	13.0	100
Total	311	100	100	

4.3.5 Respondents' Profile by University

The highest number of 152 (48.8%) respondents were from University of Nigeria while 88(28.2%) of our respondents were from Bayero University. Those from University of Ibadan were 71 (22.8%). The university profile statistics are reported in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Respondents by university

University	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
BUK	88	28.2	28.0	64.0
UNN	152	48.8	49.0	77.0
UI	71	22.8	23.0	100
Total	311	100	100	

4.4 Descriptive Statistics of the Research Constructs (Variables)

The descriptive statistics for the continuous variables are presented in Table 4.8. News gratifications obtained (NGO), which is the dependent variable of this study, had the highest mean score of 109.97 with standard deviation of 18.858.

The mean score of news gratification sought (NGS), one of the independent variables, was 106.65 (SD=14.881). Two other independent variables, usage of news in the conventional media (NTCM) and usage of news in the online media (NTOM) respectively had 20.82 and 19.74 mean scores with standard deviation of 6.200 and 5.502 respectively. The fourth independent variable, usage of news outside ethnic origin, i.e. ethnic migration news (EMN) had a mean score of 101.06 and standard deviation of 17.271.

Table 4.8

Descriptive statistics for the continuous variables

Research Variabbes	Code	No. of Items	Mean	SD.
News Gratificationssought	NGS	20	106.7	14.881
NewsGratifications obtained	NGO	20	110	18.858
EthnicMigration news	EMN	20	101.1	17.271
News in the Online media	NTOM	9	19.7	5.502
News in the Conventional media	NTCM	11	20.8	6.200

4.5 Data Screening

Preparatory to their being used for analysis, empirical data from questionnaires collected have to be cleansed using certain research criteria. These criteria include identifying missing data, outliers, testing for normality and multicollinearity and

linearity. These issues have certain impact on different areas of empirical analysis. For example, lack of normality can affect the relationships of correlation and the significance of result in multivariate analysis. Also, lack of linearity can result in Type I Error or Type II Error. Because of this impact that these preliminary issues have on different areas of analysis, they must be addressed before data analysis (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014).

4.5.1 Missing Values

After removing the 96 cases with incomplete data (see 4.2.1), the remaining 311 cases were entered into SPSS IBM 2.0. To detect out-of-range and empty values from the SPSS data set, a code-book was generated and all the errors were identified and corrected using the SPSS windows. Most of the out-of-range errors arose out of double digiting a one-digit score under each variable. There were a number of places where '77' instead of '7' or '55' instead of '5' were recorded. To be able to see the right value, the questionnaire which corresponded with the case in which a particular error occurred was retrieved and the right value was substituted for the error. Also, five missing values were detected in the original SPSS data set. Four of these missing values were found in the news gratifications obtained (NGO) construct while the remaining one appeared in the ethnic migration news (EMN) construct. The missing values were replaced with median substitutes.

4.5.2 Test of Normality

In parametric analysis, test of normality of data is a basic assumption. Otherwise, there has to be a sort of data transformation (Pallant, 2011). Lack of normality can affect the relationships of correlation and the significance of result in multivariate analysis. This explains why testing of normality becomes an important pre-analysis step (Hair et al, 2014). ‘Normal’ data means the distribution of data is symmetrical. That is, the distribution of scores on the dependent variables produces a bell-shaped curve (Pallant, 2011). In other words, “the greatest frequencies of scores (occur) in the middle with smaller frequencies (occurring) towards the extremes”(Gravetter & Wallnau, 2004, p. 48 in Pallant, 2011).

Several procedures are available for testing data normality. Some of these procedures are visual, others are statistical. Such visual procedures include stem and leaf plots, normal Q-Q plot while the statistical ones include skewness and kurtosis, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests (Doornik & Hansen, 1994). For this study, normality is tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests as well as skewness and kurtosis. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests assess the normality of the distribution of scores. Where the results are not significant ($p > .05$), the distribution of the scores is said to be normal. For the dependent variable of this study (NGO), the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were significant (NGO=.000) which means the distribution of scores on the variable was not normal. Table 4.9 shows the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests.

Table 4.9

Kolmogorov- Smirnov test of normality for all measured variables

Variabe	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
NGO	.090	310	.000	.880	310	.000

Skewness and kurtosis tests were also carried out to measure the normality of data of this study. Skewness is the degree of symmetry of data while kurtosis measures the peakedness of the data. Positive skewness means a clustering of data at the low values, to the left extreme while negative skewness means clustering of data at the high values, meaning the data are skewed to the right. Positive kurtosis indicates the data are clustered in the center with thin tails at the two extremes. A value of 0 for both skewness and kurtosis is an indication that the data are normal (Pallant, 2011). The skewness value of the study's dependent variable(NGO)was $-.637$ while its kurtosis value was $.516$. These skewness and kurtosis values indicate the data are not normal. The results of skewness and kurtosis tests are shown in Table 4.10.

Non normal data poses problem for parametric analysis of statistical significant relationships among variables. That is why such problem needs to be solved before data analysis (Hair et al, 2013). One of the solutions to the problem of data non normality is to transform the data. However, the process of transforming data draws controversy among researchers with some of the researchers believing data transformation is not proper (Pallant, 2011). The other solution is to do data analysis

using non parametric techniques which do not require assumption of data normality. Therefore, instead of doing data analysis using such parametric techniques like Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM), this study chose the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) for its analysis since it does not require normal-distributed data input (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.10

Values of Skewness and Kurtosis of the measured variable

Variable	Skewness	Standard Error	Kurtosis	Standard Error
NGO	-.637	.138	.516	.276

4.5.3 Linearity Assessment

Relationship between each independent variable and dependent variable in a study must be linear and not exponential. If the relationship is not linear, correlation and regression results will under estimate the degree of the relationship between the two variables which can result in either Type I Error or Type II Error. To satisfy the assumption of linearity, the residuals in the scatterplots should have a straightline relationship with the dependent variable. Based on this criterion, the relationship between the dependent variable of this study and the independent variables was linear as results of regression showed a straight line relationship between the dependent variable, that is, news gratifications obtained (NGO) and its independent

variables, i.e news gratifications sought (NGS), usage of news in the online media (NTOM), usage of news in the conventional media (NTCM) and usage of news outside ethnic origin, that is ethnic migration news (EMN).

Moreover, based on the opinion of Hanke and Reitsch (1992) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) opinion that non-linearity can hardly occur if items from existing theory or previous studies are used. Most of this study's items were adapted from previous studies which makes it more unlikely for non-linearity to occur

4.5.4 Detection and Management of Outliers

Outliers are abnormal data points which are either too small or too high. They differ significantly from majority others (Yuan & Zhang, 2008; Cousineau & Chartier, 2010; Aguinis, Gottfredson & Joo, 2013). Outliers need to be detected and treated because of the impact they could have on correlation and regression results. Multivariate outliers were detected using Mahalanobis distance (D^2) as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Two cases (188, 225) stood far away from the critical value of 18.47. So, they were removed which made the data set of this study to be 309.

4.5.5 Assessment of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs where two predictors in a structural model are mutually inclusive. Thus, the two predictors are correlated, yielding redundant information about the dependent variable. Multicollinearity can produce misleading regression

results because the redundant information can boost the standard error. To detect multicollinearity, Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values should be assessed (Pallant, 2011).

Tolerance means the amount of the variance of a predictor that is not explained by the other predictor. Where the tolerance value is 0.20 or lower, there exists multicollinearity. VIF is the amount of increment in the standard error due to the existence of multicollinearity. If VIF is 5.0 or higher, there exists multicollinearity. Where multicollinearity exists using the above Tolerance and VIF thresholds, the researcher should do one of two things: either remove one of the constructs or merge the two constructs (Hair et al, 2011; Hair et al, 2014).

To assess multicollinearity for this study, the regression menu of SPSS IBM 2.0 was used to run linear regression between each pair of predictors and their dependent variable. Thus, the four predictors i.e. news gratifications sought (NGS), usage of news in the online media (NTOM), usage of news in the conventional media (NTCM) and usage of news outside ethnic origin, that is ethnic migration news (EMN) were run against the dependent variable, news gratifications obtained (NGO). Tolerance and VIF results show there is no violation of assumption of multicollinearity. These results are shown in tables 4.11.

Table 4.11

Collinearity Test with NGO as Endogenous Construct

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	Collinearity	
	Coefficients		Coefficients			Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	16.794	4.312		3.895	.000		
¹ NTOM	.113	.102	.041	1.050	.036	.915	1.227
NTCM	.060	.095	.024	.630	.000	.921	1.218
EMN	.330	.042	.360		7.904	.579	1.712
NGS	.518	.047	.504		11.015	.594	1.726

Dependent Variable: NGO. Predictors: (Constant), EMN, NGS, NTOM, NTCM

4.6 Data analysis and Presentation of Findings

4.6.1 Overview of Statistical Methods for Testing Hypotheses

The data of this study were analysed with two statistical softwares: smartPLS 2.0 (Ringle et al., 2005) and SPSS IBM 2.0. SmartPLS 2.0, which uses partial least squares (PLS), was employed for confirmatory factor analysis and testing of hypotheses on regressional and moderating relationships. F-tests were done on SPSS IBM 2.0 to determine whether respondents with different ethnic identities seek different news gratifications and whether they use media to obtain news gratifications differently.

Analysis on PLS-SEM is typically done in two stages: the measurement model and the structural model assessment stages. The measurement model specifies relations between observed indicators (i.e., survey items) and their corresponding latent constructs, whereas the structural model specifies relationships between latent constructs (Chin, 2010). At the measurement model stage, which is always the first stage, the reliability and validity of the measurement is assessed to ensure that the constructs' measures are reliable and valid before assessing the nature of the relationships between the constructs in the structural model at the second stage (Chin, 2010). These two analysis stages in PLS-SEM, which is often described as a two-step process in literature (Hair et al., 2013; Henseler, Ringles & Sinkovics.,2009), is depicted in Figure 4.1.



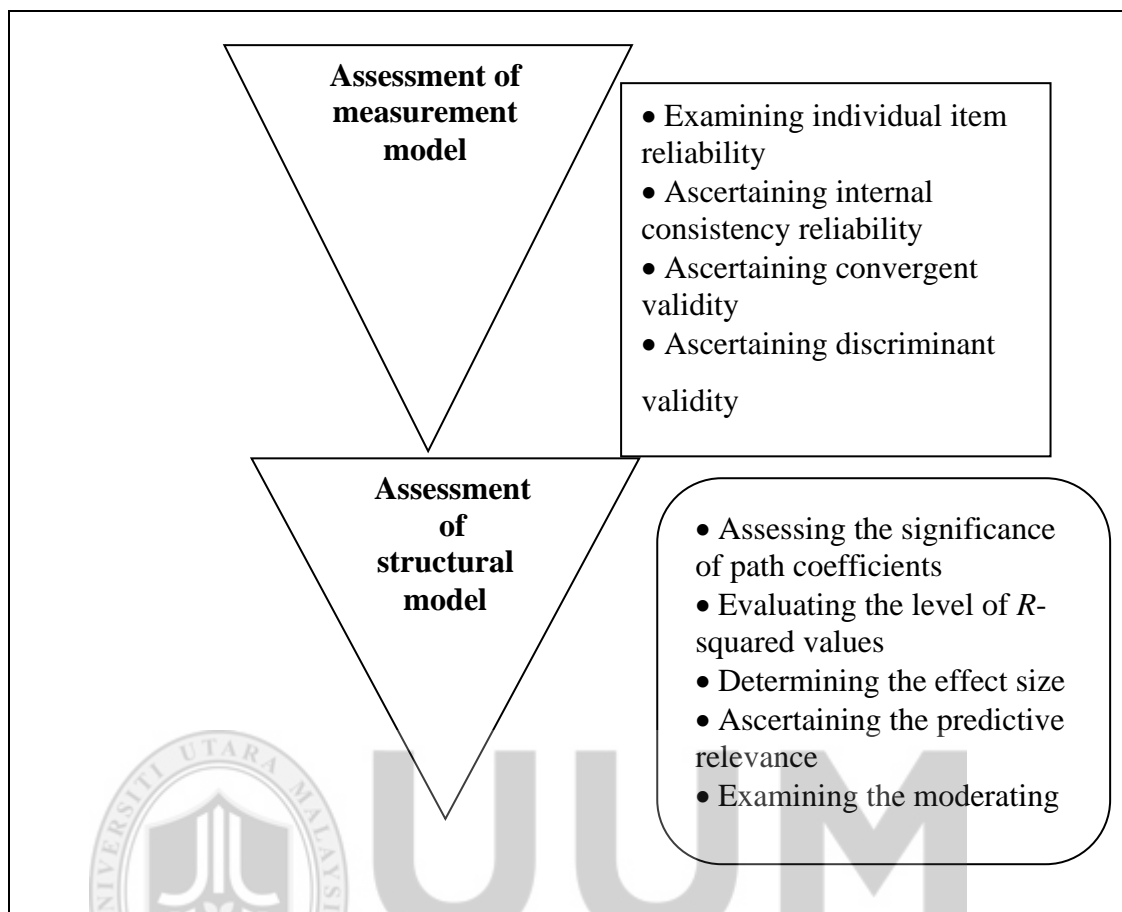


Figure 4.1.A Two-Step Process of PLS Path Model Assessment

Source: Henseler et al., 2009

4.6.2 Evaluating Measurement Model

The assessment of the measurement model in PLS-SEM is a form of confirmatory factor analysis which was performed for this study to examine whether the indicators of each of our five latent variables are salient indicators. The approach allows the assessment of the reliability and validity of our constructs through the examination of the items' loadings using a repeated indicators approach recommended in PLS literature (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder & Van Oppen,

2009). Through this approach, our model was evaluated for internal consistency, convergent and discriminant validity.

4.6.3 Reliability and Validity Assessment

Reliability is the consistency of measurement each time it is used, given the same condition and subjects. In other words, it is the degree of repeatability of measurement. Validity is the extent to which a measurement measures what it is out to measure. Reporting reliability and validity results in PLS-SEM depends on whether the constructs of the study are reflective or formative in nature. Reflective constructs have internal traits that can be observed in the indicators while formative constructs can be observed through the explanation of different external variables:

Constructs such as ‘personality’ [...] are typically viewed as factors underlying that give rise to something that is observed. Their indicators tend to be realized, then as reflective. On the other hand, when constructs are conceived as explanatory combinations of indicators (such as ‘population change’ or ‘marketing mix’) that are determined by a combination of variables, their indicators should be formative” (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982 in Simentto, 2012, p,1)

Reflective construct measures its indicators and a change in the latent variable causes a change in the indicators. On the other hand, formative construct is measured by its indicators. A change in the indicators leads to a change in the latent variable (Hair et al., 2013; Simnetto, 2012; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Chin; 2010)). Based

on all these criteria, all the latent variables in this study (News gratifications sought, news gratifications obtained, ethnic migration news, news in the online media and news in the conventional media) are considered reflective.

4.6.3.1 Internal Consistency Reliability

The internal consistency was examined through composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The use of Cronbach Alpha in measuring the internal consistency of indicators is very common in quantitative research. However, instead of looking at the internal consistency of the indicators severally, Cronbach Alpha measures the internal consistency by grouping the indicators together. PLS-SEM prioritizes each indicator by estimating the internal consistency of each indicator instead of grouping them together. It does this through the use of composite reliability instead of cronbach alpha. Composite reliability takes note of outer loading of every indicator variable using the following formula as suggested by Hair et al (2013)

$$\rho_c = \frac{(\sum_i l_i)^2}{(\sum_i l_i)^2 + \sum_i var(e_i)}$$

Where l_i is the standardized outer loadings of the indicator variable l of a specific construct, e_i represents the measurement error of indicator variable l , and $var(e_i)$ is the variance of the measurement of error defined as $1-l_i^2$.

Composite reliability is expected to be higher than 0.70, while in exploratory research, the value is expected to range from 0.60 to 0.70. Individual indicator reliability (outer loadings) between 0.40 and 0.70 should be removed only if their removal leads to increase above the threshold values of composite reliability and

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011; Hair et al. 2013).

PLS-SEM algorithm tests were performed on the indicators. Lower value indicators were removed until the threshold of composite reliability and AVE were attained for each of the constructs. The indicators that survive and remain in each construct had good outer loadings with more than 0.5. Table 4.12 shows the composite reliability scores for all the constructs which are all in the acceptable range (0.75 to 0.86), indicating acceptable internal consistency reliability



Table 4.12

Item loadings, Internal consistency reliabilities and average variance extracted

Construct	Items	Loadings	CR	AVE	Cronbach Alpha
Ethnic Migration News	EMN.10a	.679	.878	.508	.839
	EMN.10b	.706			
	EMN.2a	.715			
	EMN.2b	.709			
	EMN.5b	.678			
	EMN.6a	.734			
	EMN.6b	.766			
News Gratifications Obtained	NGO18	.734	.875	.503	.832
	NGO19	.555			
	NGO20	.670			
	NGO5	.733			
	NGO6	.716			
	NGO7	.764			
	NGO8	.767			
	NGS19	.582			
News Gratifications Sought	NGS5	.742	.857	.549	.789
	NGS6	.782			
	NGS7	.779			
	NGS8	.796			
	NTCM.10	.845			
News in the conventional media	NTCM.11	.709	.793	.562	.611
	NTCM.6	.686			
News in the online media	NTOM.1	.757	.811	.518	.691
	NTOM.2	.741			
	NTOM.3	.707			
	NTOM.4	.670			

4.6.3.2 Convergent Validity

This shows the degree of overlap among all the indicators of all the constructs. It shows how much of variance or convergence the indicators of a particular construct share with indicators of other constructs. Convergent validity tests whether an indicator measures the construct it is expected to measure. Convergent validity is determined by the level of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) which is the sum of square loadings of indicators associated with a construct divided by the number of indicators. AVE must be above .50 before it can meet the criterion of convergent validity. AVE below the threshold of 0.50 means that the construct cannot averagely explain the variance among its indicators (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013). The AVE of all the five constructs of this study is above the 0.50 threshold, meaning they all met criterion of convergent validity. Table 4.12 shows the AVE scores for the five constructs of this study.

4.6.3.3 Discriminant Validity

This is the degree of distinctiveness of a construct in measuring a phenomenon. When a construct meets the criterion of discriminant validity, it means the construct is distinct in its representation of a phenomenon in comparison with other constructs. Discriminant validity is measured in two ways: (a) by examining the crossloadings and (b) by using the Fornell-Larcker criterion. For cross loading approach, the indicators loadings for a particular construct should be greater than its loadings on the other constructs in the same model under consideration. Where any of the cross-loadings is greater than the actual construct loading, then discriminant validity is

violated for that particular construct. Using Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of AVE of each latent construct is examined and compared with the latent variable correlations of other latent constructs. The square root of AVE should be greater than its correlations with other constructs, otherwise Fornell-Larcker criterion is assumed not to have been met for a reflective measurement model (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2013).

As shown in Table 4.13, the diagonal of the correlation matrix was greater than corresponding off-diagonal elements for each of the five constructs, denoting an acceptable discriminant validity. The cross-loading matrix was also inspected and all measurement items loaded onto their corresponding construct, providing further evidence for discriminant validity. The cross-loading matrix is displayed in Table 4.14. Figure 4.2 is the graphic depiction of the study's measurement model.

Table 4.13

Latent Variable Correlations and the Square root of AVE

Construct	1	2	3	4	5
1) Ethnic Migration News	.713				
2) NGO	.696	.709			
3) NGS	.544	.611	.741		
4) NTCM	-.015	.049	-.011	.750	
5) NTOM	.132	.187	.161	.277	.720

Note: the values in (bold) are the square root of AVE across the diagonal

Table 4.14

Cross Loadings

Items	EMN	NGO	NGS	NTCM	NTOM
EMN.10a	.679	.454	.378	.021	.114
EMN.10b	.706	.444	.318	.063	.151
EMN.2a	.715	.528	.415	.009	.104
EMN.2b	.709	.513	.421	.011	.116
EMN.5b	.678	.458	.394	.015	.098
EMN.6a	.734	.543	.379	-.079	.021
EMN.6b	.766	.519	.402	-.095	.071
NGO18	.541	.734	.372	.039	.116
NGO19	.453	.555	.352	.119	.133
NGO20	.547	.670	.348	.033	.179
NGO5	.443	.733	.488	.022	.058
NGO6	.454	.716	.493	-.002	.130
NGO7	.515	.764	.465	-.013	.209
NGO8	.493	.767	.502	.055	.096
NGS19	.372	.403	.582	.054	.125
NGS5	.429	.490	.742	.001	.036
NGS6	.434	.465	.782	-.081	.182
NGS7	.337	.435	.779	-.037	.166
NGS8	.430	.457	.796	.030	.092
NTCM.10	-.024	.045	.018	.845	.199
NTCM.11	.017	.031	-.065	.709	.271
NTCM.6	-.022	.033	.010	.686	.168
NTOM.1	.122	.145	.145	.167	.757
NTOM.2	.103	.139	.134	.275	.741
NTOM.3	.080	.143	.109	.199	.707
NTOM.4	.070	.104	.061	.149	.670

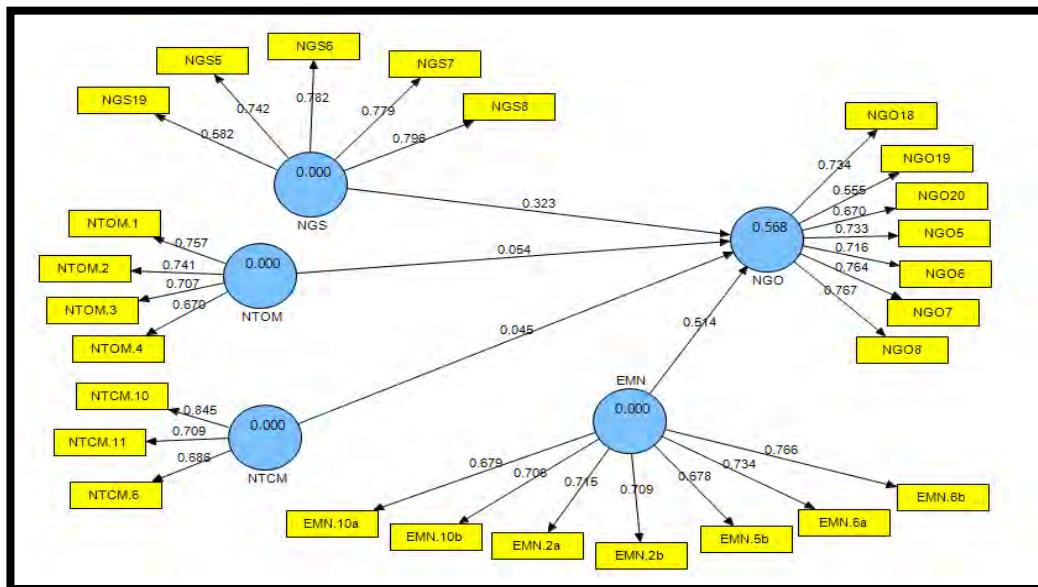


Figure 4.2. Measurement model of the study

4.7 Structural Model Assessment (PLS-SEM)

4.7.1 Overview

Assessment of the study's structural model will now follow. A structural model basically examines the predictive relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables. Through the bootstrapping procedure the extent to which the researcher's hypotheses of relationship of the exogenous and endogenous variables are in consonant with theoretical postulates can be examined (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers & Krafft, 2010; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). The structural model can also be evaluated via the R-square and the Q₂ (predictive relevance) (Geisser, 1975; Stone, 1974) and via the AVE (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Further, Chin (1998) suggests that the change in R₂ (i.e., the effect size or f₂) can also be explored to assess the impact of a particular independent variable on a dependent variable. Although the R₂ and

are still being assessed in PLS models, goodness of fit (GoF) is no longer suitable for PLS model validation because it cannot separate valid models from invalid ones (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013; Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013).

4.7.2 Assessing the Structural Model for Collinearity

The criterion of collinearity in a structural model is the same with that of the measurement model. Tolerance means the amount of the variance of a predictor that is not explained by the other predictor. Where the tolerance value is 0.20 or lower, there is multicollinearity. VIF is the amount of increment in the standard error due to the existence of multicollinearity. If VIF is 5.0 or higher, there exists multicollinearity. Where multicollinearity exists using the above Tolerance and VIF thresholds, the researcher should do one of two things: either remove one of the constructs or merge the two constructs (Hair et al, 2011; Hair et al, 2013). Table 4.15 shows the study did not violate the assumption of collinearity.

Table 4.15

Collinearity Test among exogenous variables

		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
	NGS	0.971	1.030
	NTCM	0.918	1.089
	NTOM	0.895	1.117
a Dependent Variable:	EMN		
		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	NTCM	0.919	1.088
	NTOM	0.903	1.107
Table4.15 continued.	EMN	0.980	1.021
a Dependent Variable:	NGS		
		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	NTOM	0.971	1.029
	EMN	0.709	1.41
	NGS	0.704	1.421
a Dependent Variable:	NTCM		
		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	EMN	0.711	1.406
	NGS	0.711	1.406
	NTCM	1.000	1.000
a Dependent Variable:	NTOM		

4.7.3 Assessment of the Structural Model

4.7.3.1 Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The assessment of the structural model in PLS-SEM should begin by examining the R^2 for each dependent variable (Chin, 1998). According to Henseler, et al. (2009), a moderate level of R^2 (0.33) is acceptable for a small structural model with 1-2

independent variables, whereas a substantial R^2 (0.67) is desired for a larger structural model. Hair et al. (2013) also suggest that endogenous construct with R^2 value of 0.75 should be considered *substantial* in terms of explanatory power, one with value of 0.50 but less than 0.75 is considered to have a *medium* explanatory power, while 0.20 and below 0.50 has a *weak* explanatory power. Although level of acceptable R^2 value varies with research disciplines, generally, the bigger the value of R^2 , the bigger the percentage of explained variance (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010; Götzt, et al, 2010; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013). As shown in table 4.16, the endogenous constructs of this study (NGO) has a medium size ($R^2 = .568$), meaning that it explained about 57% of the total variance of the exogenous constructs.

4.7.3.2 Effect Size (f^2)

Effect Size (f^2) evaluates the contribution of each exogenous constructs to the overall prediction of the endogenous construct of the research model. Effect Size (f^2) is determined by omitting an exogenous construct from the model and re-specifying the structural model to determine the new R^2 . The difference between the R^2 when the exogenous construct of interest is included and the new R^2 when it is omitted shows the impact of the exogenous construct in the prediction of the endogenous construct under investigation. This is repeated for all exogenous constructs in the model to determine their impact. f^2 is calculated as

$$f^2 = \frac{R_{included}^2 - R_{excluded}^2}{1 - R_{included}^2}$$

where $R_{included}^2$ and $R_{excluded}^2$ are the R^2 values of endogenous constructs when a particular exogenous construct is included and removed from the model by

estimating the PLS path model twice. When the values f^2 is 0.02, 0.15, or 0.35, it indicates small, medium, and large effect size of the exogenous construct on the endogenous construct respectively (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Gotz, et al, 2010; Hair et al., 2013).

For this study, the effect size (f^2) for each exogenous path on the R^2 of the endogenous construct (NGO) was evaluated by eliminating one path at a time and then re-estimating the model. The results show that ethnic migration (EMN) has large effect size of .417 while NGS has a medium effect size of .153. Both NTOM and NTCM have small effect size of .007 and .005 respectively. These results are shown in Table 4.16

Table 4.16

Effect Size (f^2)

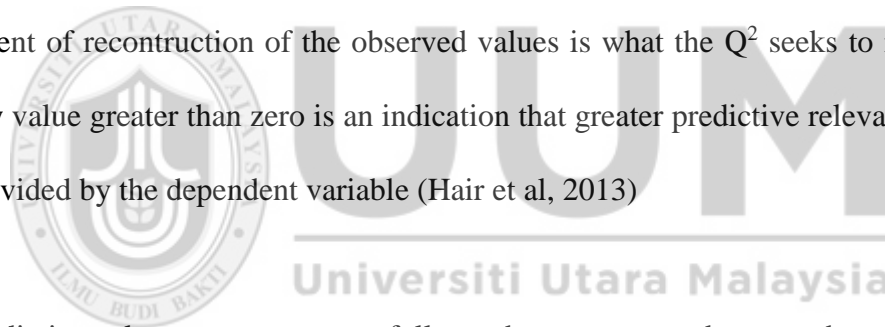
Endogenous	Exogenous	R² Included	R² Excluded	f- squared	Effect size
NGO	NGS	.568	.502	.153	Medium
	NTOM	.568	.565	.007	Small
	NTCM	.568	.566	.005	Small
	EMN	.568	.388	.417	Large

4.7.3.3 Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

Another name for predictive relevance (Q^2) is Stone-Geisser's Q^2 . It (Q^2) measures model's predictive relevance through the use of PLS-SEM Blindfolding window. The blindfolding procedure is a process of cross-validation through an iterative procedure of omitting a part of the data for a particular block of indicators during

parameter estimations and re-estimating the omitted part using the parameters estimated from the remaining data (Chin, 1998). Chin (1998) and Tenenhaus et al. (2005) describe how generalised cross validated measures are calculated after the model is reestimated. They also describe how standard deviations of parameter estimates are calculated after model re-estimation when a data point is omitted.

Two types of Blindfolding procedures of PLS-SEM can be used to obtain the Q^2 value: (a) Cross-validated communality- This approach uses only the measurement model and (b) Cross-validated redundancy- this approach builds on the path model estimation of the structural model of data prediction and is, therefore, recommended for estimating the predictive relevance Q^2 (Hair et al. 2011; Hair et al. 2013). The extent of reconstruction of the observed values is what the Q^2 seeks to measure. So, any value greater than zero is an indication that greater predictive relevance has been provided by the dependent variable (Hair et al, 2013)



Predictive relevance assessment follows the same procedures as that of effect size (f^2). The impact of each exogenous construct's predictive relevance can be measured using q^2 effect size measure which is calculated as follows:

$$q^2 = \frac{Q_{included}^2 - Q_{excluded}^2}{1 - Q_{included}^2}$$

where $Q_{included}^2$ and $Q_{excluded}^2$ are the Q^2 values of endogenous constructs when a particular exogenous construct is included and removed from the model by estimating the PLS path model twice. When the values Q^2 (q^2) is 0.02, 0.15, or 0.35, it indicates *small*, *medium*, and *large* predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013).

The PLS Blindfolding report of cross-validated redundancy indicated that, the dependent variable (NGO) has a predictive relevance Q^2 of .274 which indicates that this study's model has a medium predictive relevance. Results of Q^2 are shown in Table 4.17 below.

Table 4.17

Result of Q^2

Total	SSO	SSE	1-SSE/SSO
NGO	2163	1569.652	0.274

4.7.3.4 Assessment of the Relevance and Significance of the Path Coefficients

Structural path coefficients are assessed through the *Bootstrapping* algorithm of the PLS-SEM with a minimum of 5,000 bootstrap samples being suggested. Through the bootstrap standard error generated by the PLS-SEM, the empirical (critical) t value which is used to determine the significant contribution of each path coefficients to the dependent variables (endogenous construct) under study can be calculated. The critical t value is the significance of a path coefficient linking an independent variable (exogenous construct) to the endogenous construct divided by the standard error i.e.

$$t = \frac{P_{ie}}{S_{ie}}$$

Where P_{ie} = the path coefficient linking an exogenous construct i to endogenous construct e;

S_{ie} = standard error of the path coefficient P_{ie} .

Path coefficients for the constructs (endogenous or exogenous) are analyzed based on the signs (algebraic), magnitude, and significance. The threshold for a critical t values using one-tailed or two-tailed test can be significant at either 10% (1.65), 5% (1.96), or 1% (2.57) (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013).

In order to determine the significance level of the path coefficients in the structural model of this study, the researcher ran the PLS bootstrapping for the structural model relationships using the sample size of $n=310$ (without outliers) and a threshold bootstrap sample size of 5,000 cases ($n=5000$). Results indicated that four structural paths are significant i.e. NGS \rightarrow NGO, Online media \rightarrow NGO, EthnicMig \rightarrow NGO and NGS *EthnicMig \rightarrow NGO, Results of direct relationships are shown in Table 4.18 and Figure 4.3.

Table 4.18

Hypothesis Test (Direct relationship)

Relationship	Beta value	Std. Error	t-value	p-value	Decision
EMN \rightarrow NGO	.514	.045	11.346	.000	Supported
NGS \rightarrow NGO	.323	.052	6.249	.000	Supported
NTCM \rightarrow NGO	.045	.044	1.036	.151	Not supported
NTOM \rightarrow NGO	.054	.034	1.579	.058	Supported

*** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.1$

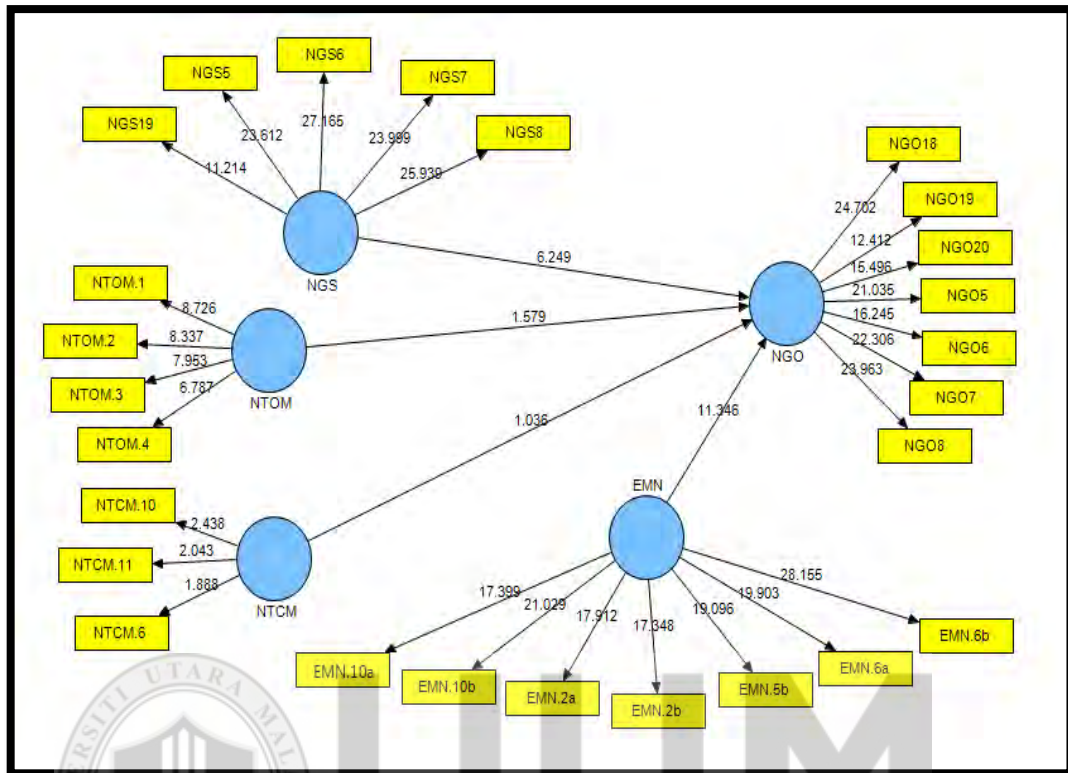


Figure 4.3. Structural model of the study (Direct relationships)

4.7.3.5 Results of Hypothesis Testing .

Hypothesis three (**H₃**) predicted there will be a significant positive relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria. After the bootstrapping procedure (see 4.7.3.4), result showed a significant relationship between NGS and NGO (t-value=.6.249, p-value=.000) which means that hypothesis three (**H₃**) is accepted.

Hypothesis four (**H₄**) also predicted there will be a significant positive relationship between online media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria. After the bootstrapping procedure (see 4.7.3.4), result showed that the relationship between online media and NGO is significant at 10% one-tailed (t-value=.1.579, p-value=.058) which means that hypothesis four (**H₄**) is also accepted

Similarly, hypothesis five (**H₅**) predicted there will be a significant positive relationship between conventional media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria. Results from bootstrapping procedure (see 4.7.3.4) showed that the relationship between conventional media and NGO is not significant at 10% one-tailed (t-value=.1.036, p-value=.151) which means that hypothesis five (**H₅**) is rejected

The study also predicted in hypothesis six (**H₆**) that ethnic migration will positively influence news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria. Results from bootstrapping procedure (see 4.7.3.4) showed that ethnic migration significantly influenced news gratification obtained (NGO) at 10% one-tailed (t-value=.11.346, p-value=.000) which means that hypothesis six (**H₆**) is accepted

4.7.4 Moderating effect

To detect and estimate the moderating effect of ethnic migration on the relationship between NGS and NGO, we used the product indicator approach in PLS-SEM (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Helm, Eggert, & Garnefeld, 2010; Henseler & Chin, 2010). Product indicator approach is usually employed when the moderating variable is continuous (Rigdon, Schumacker, & Wothke, 1998).

To apply the product indicator approach in testing the moderating effect of ethnic migration on the relationship between NGS and NGO, the product terms between the indicators of the latent independent variable (NGS) and the indicators of the latent moderator variable (EMN) were created. The indicators of the interaction term were then used for estimation of the moderating effect in the structural model (Kenny & Judd, 1984). The indicators of the interaction term equal the indicators of the latent exogenous variable multiplied by the indicators of the moderating variable (Hair et al., 2013). Thereafter, PLS algorithm and bootstrapping of 5000 samples were performed.

Results after applying the product indicator approach showed that ethnic migration news has a significant moderating effect on relationship between NGS and NGO at two-tailed (t -value = 3.968; p = .001). Therefore, hypothesis seven (**H₇**) which predicted that ethnic migration news will moderate the relationship between NGS and NGO was supported. The results of the moderating effect are shown in Table 4.19 and Figure 4.4.

Table 4.19

Hypothesis Test (Moderating relationship)

Relationship	Beta value	Std. Error	t value	p value	Decision
NGS * EMN -> NGO p < 0.001	-.114	.041	3.968	.001	Accept

Before the moderating effect was determined, we had determined the direct relationship between NGS and NGO in order not to mistaking the simple effect of that relationship (when it is moderated) with its main effect (when it is not moderated).

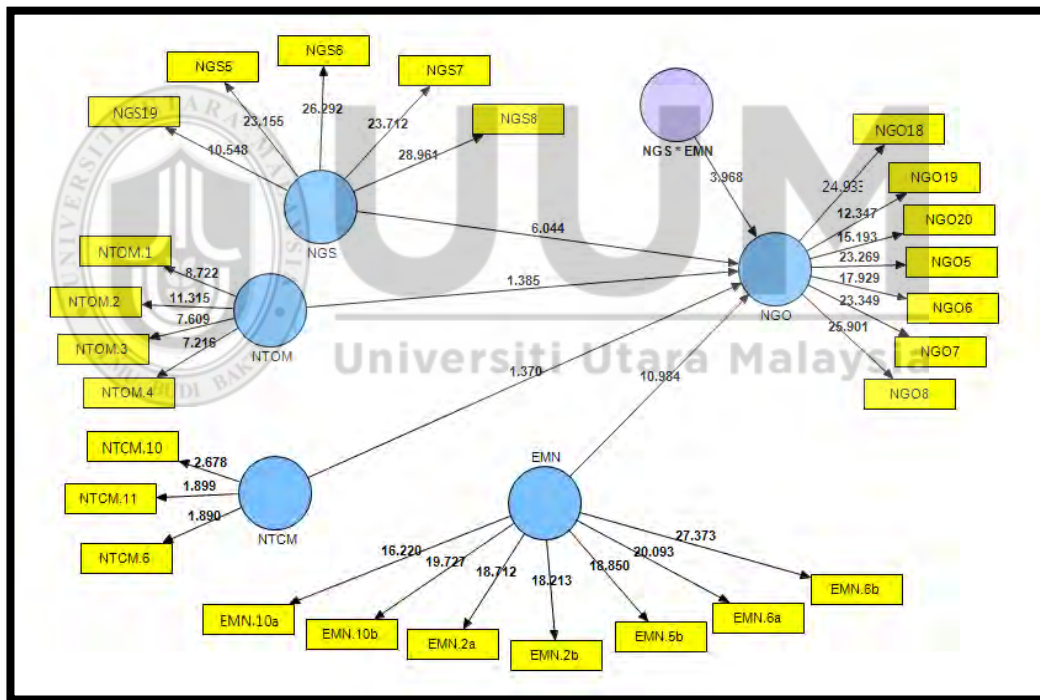


Figure 4.4. Structural model of the study (Moderating effect)

4.7.5 Multi-Group Analysis (MGA)

The three hypotheses on group differences in this study make predictions only on the differences in the mean scores of NGS between gender groups and among ethnic

identities. In PLS-SEM, group comparison procedure is aimed at testing group differences based on path relationships. Such procedural outcome does not make the PLS-SEM MGA procedure suitable for the multi-group analysis of this study

Since some parametric statistical tools in SPSS have their non-parametric alternatives which can be used when the data do not meet assumptions of parametric analysis (Pallant, 2011), the study resulted to the use of Kruskal Wallis H with post-hoc test and Mann-Whitney test which are the non-parametric alternatives of One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and independent t-test respectively. This was done in order to be consistent with the use of non-parametric approach in this study. Kruskal Wallis H with post-hoc test was carried out to compare the means of the Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba ethnic groups on NGS and media selection (NTOM and NTCM) whereas Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the mean rank of the males and females on NGS. The null hypothesis that the mean difference between or among the groups under comparison is not significant can be rejected if the F-test is significant at $p < 0.05$ (Pallant, 2011). The SPSS analysis was done on IBM 2.0 software

4.7.5.1 Results of Multi-Group Analysis

Hypothesis one (H_1) predicted that there will be a significant difference in the news gratifications sought (NGS) of the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria. A Kruskal-Wallis Test (see 4.7.5) showed a statistically significant difference in the news gratifications sought (NGS) among the three ethnic groups

(Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba) with a p-value of 0.026. The Ibo ethnic group has the highest median score ($Md = 170.41$) whereas the median score of the Yoruba ethnic group ($Md = 148.41$) is slightly higher than the median score of the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group ($Md = 139.37$). These results support our hypothesis one (H_1). The results are shown in Table 4.20

Table 4.20

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (NGS)

Chi-square	df	Sig	Ethnic groups	Median
7.331	2	0.26	Hausa-Fulani	139.37
			Ibo	170.41
			Yoruba	148.41



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Hypothesis two (H_2) predicted that there is no significant difference among Hausa – Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in the media used to obtain news gratifications. A Kruskal-Wallis Test (see 4.7.5) showed a statistically non-significant difference in the media used to obtain news gratifications among the three ethnic groups with a p-value of 0.100. The median score of the Hausa-Fulani ($Md = 168.05$) is practically the highest while Ibo ethnic group has a higher score ($Md = 155.19$) than the score of the Yoruba ethnic group ($Md = 139.22$). These results which support our hypothesis seven (H_7) are presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (Media selection)

Chi-square	df	Sig	Ethnic groups	Median
4.601	2	0.100	Hausa-Fulani	168.05
			Ibo	155.19
			Yoruba	139.22

Table 4.22

Results of hypotheses testing (NGS)

H ₁ . There is a significant difference in the news gratifications sought of the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria	Supported
H ₂ There is no significant difference among Hausa –Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in the media used for news gratifications	Supported
H ₃ There will be a significant positive relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria	Supported
H ₄ . There will be a significant positive relationship between online media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.	Supported
H ₅ . There will be a significant positive relationship between conventional media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.	Not supported
H ₆ Ethnic migration will positively influence news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria.	Supported
H ₇ Ethnic migration will moderate the relationship between NGS and NGO	Supported

4.8 Summary

The data of this study were analysed on two softwares: SmartPLS 2.0 software and SPSS IBM 2.0. The analysis resulted in the measurement and structural models of this study. This was preceded by the presentation of the quantitative analysis prerequisites. The path relationships of our variables were analysed on the SmartPLS 2.0 software to test five hypotheses whereas multi-group analyses were done on SPSS IBM 2.0 to test three hypotheses. Seven of the eight hypotheses tested positive.



CHAPTER FIVE

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we present analysis of qualitative data which were sourced from in-depth interview with fourteen members of the National Youth Service Corps (N.Y.S.C) in Nigeria on their news gratifications in the media. The profile of the interviewees, description of identified themes and analysis of the interviewees' responses vis-a-vis the identified themes are presented in this chapter. The qualitative data were organised into themes using NVivo 10 software for a thorough and complete analysis

5.2 Interviewing Process

Our respondents exhibited different attitudes towards the interview. While some readily accepted to be interviewed, others had to be persuaded and motivated before accepting. The latter's attitude is not surprising given the sensitive nature of ethnic issues in Nigeria. Moreover, while some of the interviewees accepted video coverage of the interview session, others accepted only audio coverage. The video and audio interview data were transcribed and imported into the 'internal source window' of the NVivo 10 software for coding.

5.3 Coding Process

Five major themes covering areas of our investigation were identified and coded into the parent nodes of the Nvivo software. Sub-themes were also identified from some

of the main themes and coded into ‘child’ nodes. In order to answer the two qualitative research questions, we ran simple queries of the relevant themes with a view to identifying the differences in the news consumption behaviour of the ethnic groups on the one hand and gender groups on the other hand

5.4 Profiles of Respondents

We had planned to interview eighteen (18) N.Y.S.C members, six from each of the three ethnic groups. However, after all efforts to get these interviewees, we were able to get only fourteen (14) informants. Four (4) informants each were from both the Hausa-Fulani and Yoruba ethnic groups whereas six (6) were from the Ibo ethnic group. Eight (8) of the fourteen informants were males while the females were six (6) in number. These ethnic and gender profiles are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
Informants’ demographic profiles

Informants	Age	Ethnic Identity	Gender
1	26-30	Ibo	Male
2	26-30	Hausa	Male
3	20-25	Ibo	Female
4	20-25	Yoruba	Male
5	26-30	Yoruba	Male
6	26-30	Ibo	Male
7	20-25	Ibo	Female
8	26-30	Hausa	Male
9	26-30	Hausa	Male
10	20-25	Ibo	Female
11	20-25	Ibo	Female
12	20-25	Hausa	Female
13	20-25	Yoruba	Female
14	26-30	Yoruba	Male

5.5 Description of Themes and Analysis of Results

5.5.1 News Gratifications Sought (NGS)

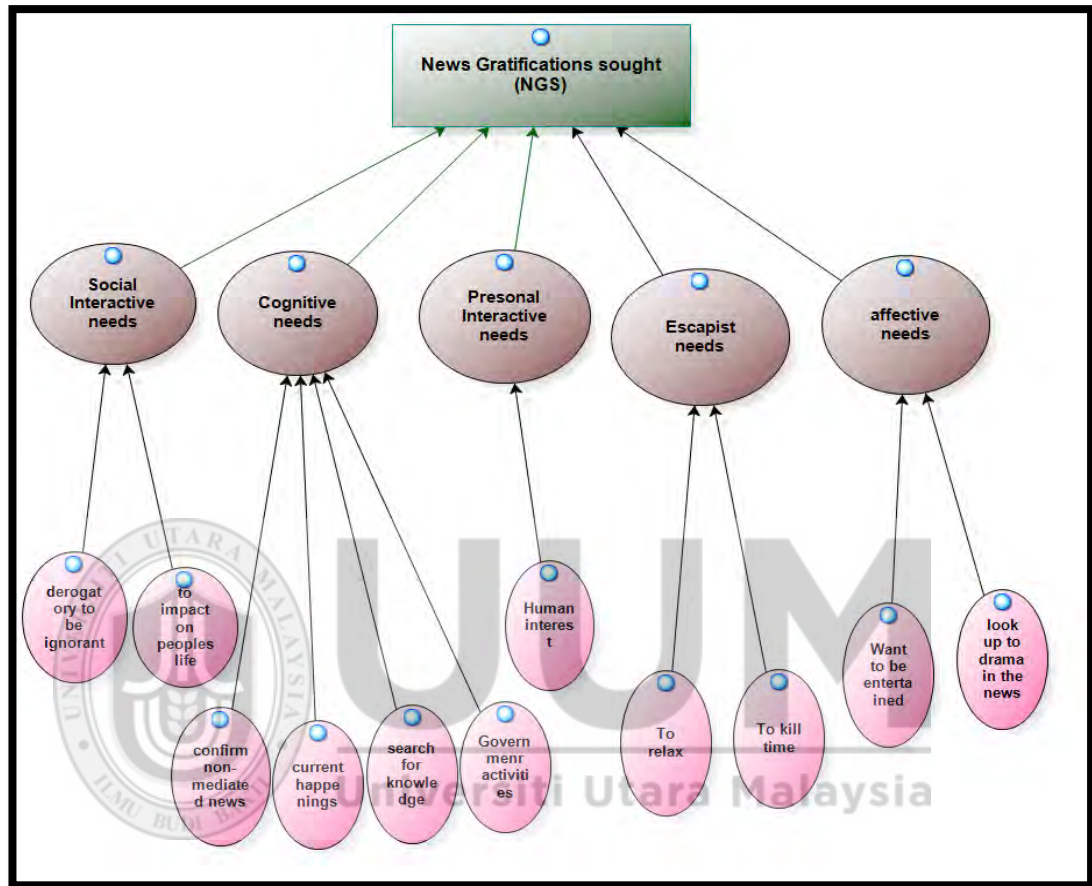


Figure 5.1.NGS with its sub-themes

As shown in figure 5.1, five sub-themes were created under the NGS theme. These sub-themes were based on the Uses and Gratifications(U & G) Theory which postulates that people seek information in the media to satisfy certain personal and social needs such as cognitive needs (for information, knowledge and understanding of the environment), affective needs (for aesthetic, pleasure and emotional experiences), personal integrative needs (for credibility, confidence, stability and personal status), social integrative needs (for contact with friends, family and the

world) and escapist needs (for escape, diversion and tension release) (Katz, Guventich and Haas (1973). Therefore, our informants' responses indicating the use of news for any of these needs were coded accordingly. In each of these sub-themes of NGS, sub-sub-themes were identified from the informants' responses. As shown in figure 5.4, cognitive sub-theme has four sub-sub themes while personal interactive sub-theme has only one sub-theme. Social interactive, escapist and affective sub-themes have two sub-sub-themes each.

5.5.2 Results of NGS

5.5.2.1 Cognitive Needs

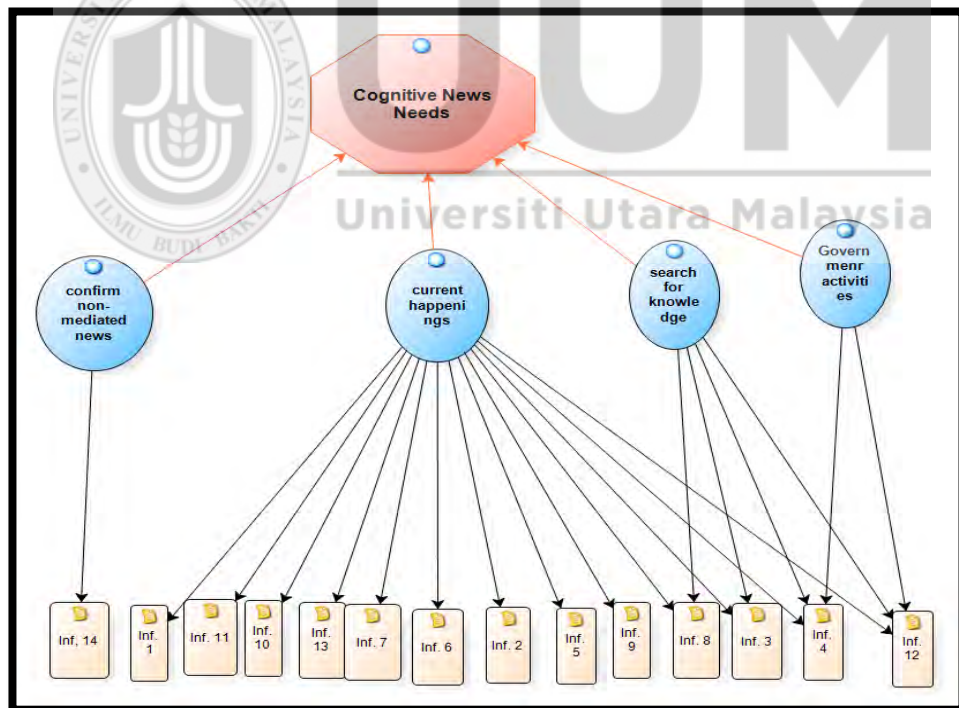


Figure 5.2. Cognitive newsusage

5.5.2.1.1 Seeking News for Surveillance.

Cognitive needs are the dominant expectations of our respondents from news. Most of the interviewees seek news because they want to know about current happenings, e.g. to know about ‘what is happening in my government’ or to know about the ‘unrest’ or ‘insecurity in the country’.

Informant 1 wants to be ‘conscious of situations in the society’ which is the same with informant 10 who wants to ‘know what’s happening around me.’ Informant 11 and informant 12 consume news to “keep updated of current news in their country”. For informant 2, it is not sufficient for him to know about his country; he wants to know “what’s happening in the world and in the country”. Informant 4 is more specific about why he cognitively seeks news: “My own motive for news is to get enlightened; to know what is going on in my environment either in the area of sports, either in the government issue” which informant 5 simply describes as “knowing better about the environment”. One of the reasons informant 9 seeks news is to know about “politics... and the insecurity in the country.”

5.5.2.1.2 Seeking News for Knowledge

Besides, seeking news is also seen as part of learning process. Some of the interviewees seek news for knowledge sake. For example informant 12 seeks news as aid to her intellectual ambition because he wants

To be a researcher in future so it’s high time I get new information so that at certain time I can make certain quotations any time I am doing my work may be when it comes to do with what I have read in my paper.

Seeking news for knowledge is also implied in informant 3's seeking news "to get my facts right." Informant 4 also sometimes goes out for news 'in the area of scholarship.' Informant 8 also sees news seeking as "part of learning process."

5.5.2.1.3 Seeking News to Confirm

The need to confirm non-mediated news also features as a news need among the respondents. Informant 14 rarely visits the media for news because news in the media doesn't seem to make meaning to him. When he does seek news from the media, it is to confirm non-mediated news: "actually I don't have much passion for news...because most of the news are not realistic; so I don't really go out to seek news (but) just to know if what I heard is true, just to confirm."

5.5.2.2 Affective Needs

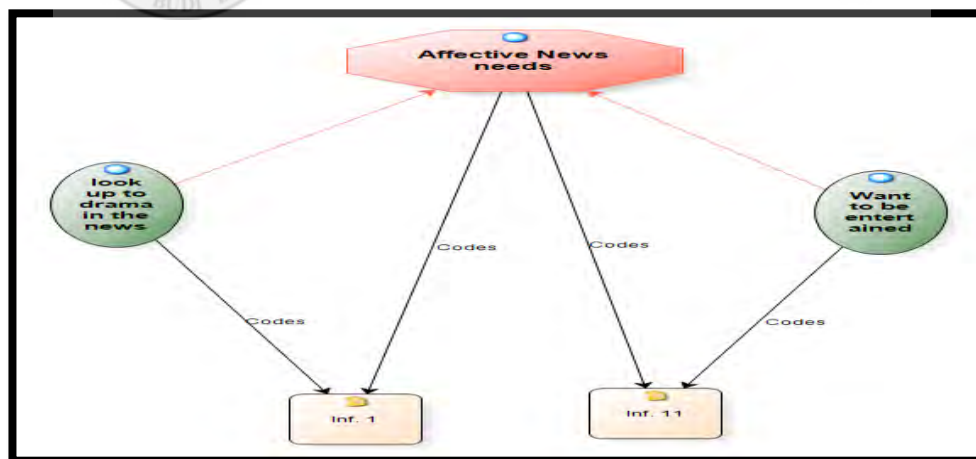


Figure 5.3. Affective news usage

Our informants have different kinds of affective needs which they seek in the news. They see news as a source of fun, entertainment and drama. Informant 11 is directly entertained by some news items in the media, because, to her, “there are some news (items) that are (just) entertaining.” Informant 9 finds fun in sports news as “sometimes I go for news for fun, like sports news I go for it for fun.” The dramatic and narrative presentation of newspaper news makes informant 1 to seek news in the medium sometimes because “through dramatic conversation newspaper gives you the narrative story of what has actually happened.”

5.5.2.3 Social Interactive Needs

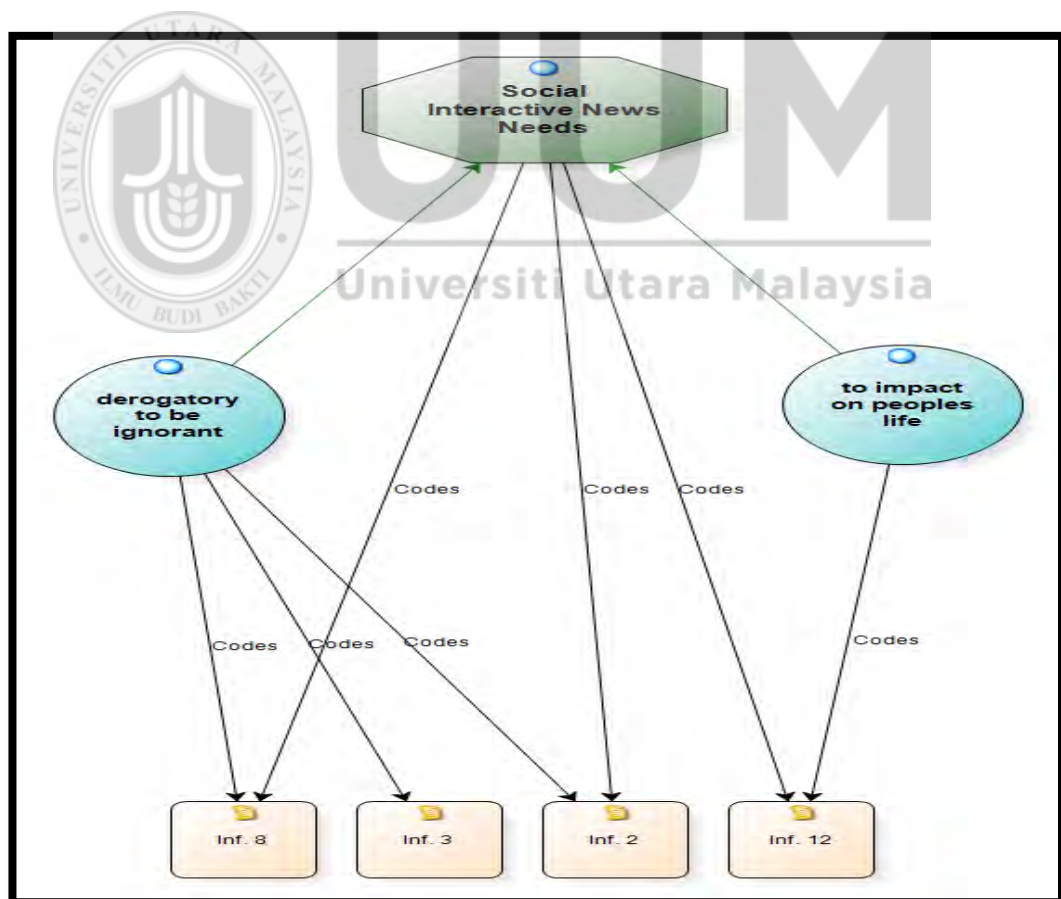


Figure 5.4. Social interactive news usage

Some informants seek news to be able to perform well in social interaction. They seek news to do well in group communication. They also seek news to be able to impact on people's life through supply of useful information which they must have gotten from the news. Informant 12 wants to impact on people's life through news:

I also want to know what is happening to make impact. I just want to know so that if there is a way I can make my own contribution. I want to know what's happening so that I can tell others what's happening... I just want to see how I can make impact in my political and economic aspects of life because I want to touch everybody's life in one way or the other... that is why I go for business and political news; I want to impact in business. Even if I am not venturing into business, I want to offer advice to those people who are going into business.

Informant 3 feels it is derogatory to look uninformed in the midst of people where issues are being discussed:

If I find myself amongst people who are talking about contemporary issues where and when I need to add my own contribution or to say my own views and I find myself not being able to say anything I feel it's quite derogatory for me. It tells that I am not well enlightened to say anything whereas I could actually talk about things that I feel to talk about.

Apart from seeking news as part of learning process, Informant 8 needs news to ensure effective group communication because "when you are with colleagues you hear things and sometimes you also want to make your own contribution." It is this desire to do well in group discussion that also drives Informant 2 to news because in the inter-ethnic group discussion he often has with his colleague, he needs to keep updated of current events to be able to "enlighten them well about happenings, particularly in the country."

5.5.2.4 Personal Interactive Needs

Media contents that evoke human feelings and emotions could be the motivation for some people to consume media contents. In other words, some people like to empathise with others by relating with other people's fortune and misfortune in life. This constitutes the personal interactive needs for media content. Only informant 5 seeks news to share in people's emotions and feelings:

First of all I look for information that has to do with the human interest; anything that affects human beings because it stimulates me a lot because I do normally put myself in their shoes and have sympathy for them and enlighten myself or even pick up some way of life on how to go about my own way of life. Whenever and wherever I browse my first motive is to see human news.



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5.5.2.5 Escapist Needs

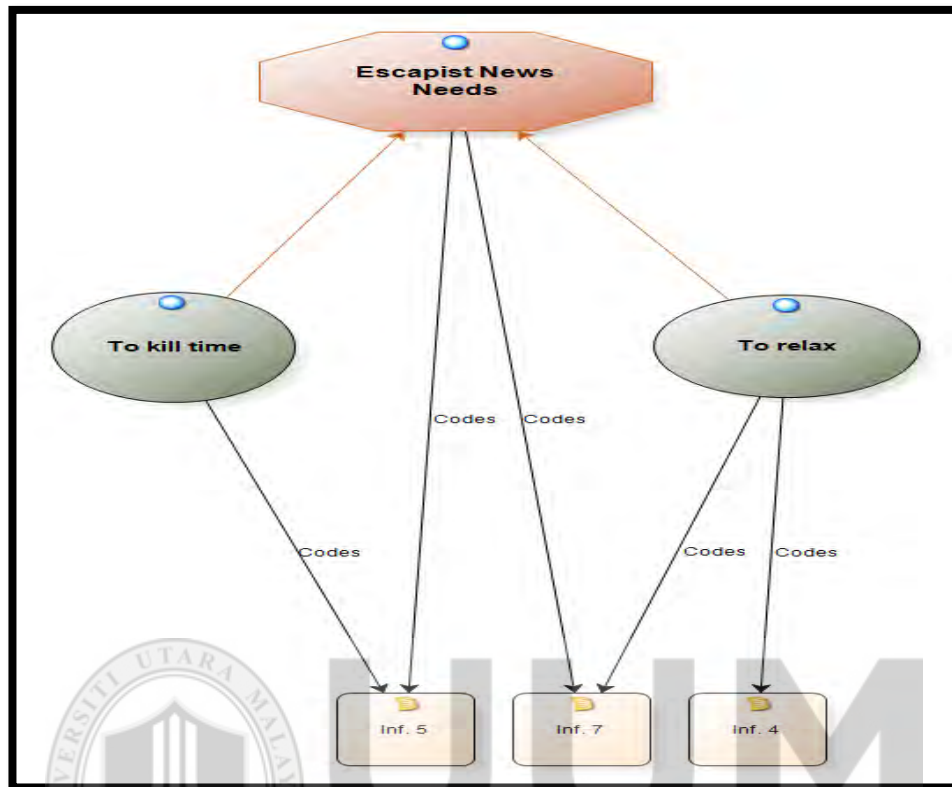


Figure 5.5. Escapist news usage

Some of the informants use news to relax, to kill time and to relieve boredom. Going by the experience of Informant 4, accessing news could be a source of relaxation after a stressful academic exercise as he notes that "during my undergraduate, if I have read to my saturated point, I go out to get news to relax." Informant 7 spends "an average of one hour per day watching news on the television, sometimes when I am just tired" just as Informant 5 does "listen to radio especially when I discover that I am less busy".

5.5.3 News Gratifications Obtained (NGO)

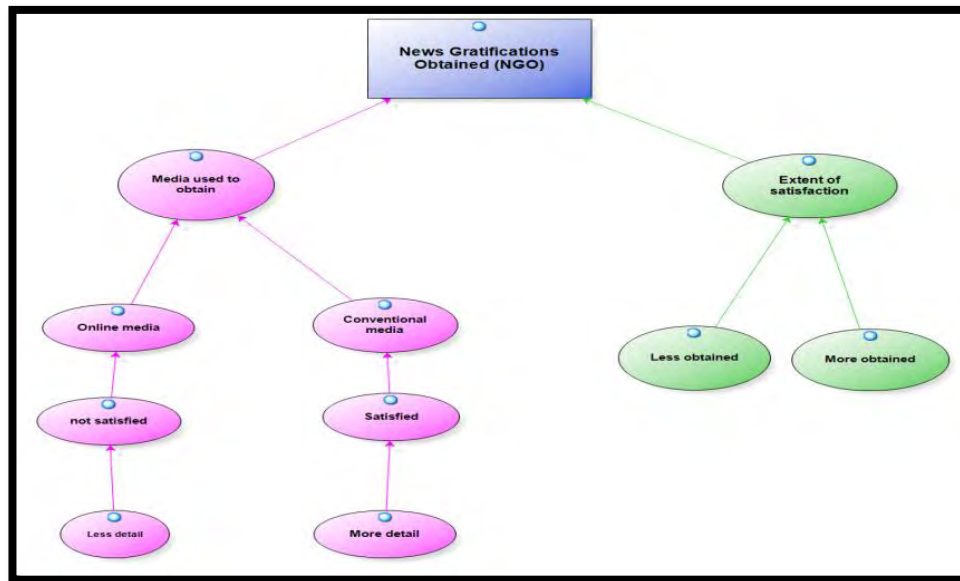


Figure 5.6. NGO and its sub themes

The second major theme is the News Gratifications Obtained (NGO). It is not automatic that the needs that are sought for media content must be obtained. In other words, there is absolute discrepancy between the gratifications sought (GS) and the gratifications obtained (GO) by media consumers (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1979). Previous studies on U&G have sought to know the extent to which gratifications sought in both the online and the conventional media are obtained (Palmgreen et al, 1980; Johnson & Yang, 2009). We sought to know generally the extent to which news gratifications sought by our informants are obtained. The respondents were asked how they do come out of news, and their responses are coded as NGO. We also sought to know the relative strength of each of the two broad categories of media in terms of their meeting the news needs of the informants.

5.5.3.1 Results of NGO

Most of the respondents come out of the news fulfilled. However, some only averagely obtained what they had sought. Fewer informants use conventional media to seek news. However, there is a stronger expression of news gratifications being obtained by those who use conventional media mostly for news. Informant 5 seeks news primarily for personal interactive purpose, that is, human interest news that creates empathy and draws out emotions and feelings for others, The informant uses more of his transistor radio than any other medium

I do listen to radio and the reason behind that is as a result of the incessant epileptic power supply; so I do go for radio because 24/7 even if there is no electricity very easy you can get battery and insert. I do use radio a lot because apart from that power supply, the real news I really want to hear or that I need most comes from my local environment because when I listen to my transistor radio it will give me the news that primarily has to do with my local surrounding. I do incorporate the internet which sometimes I use simultaneously with radio because radio has to do with my listening skill while the other one has to do with my reading skill. I do read and listen to radio sometimes but most importantly I do listen to radio.

And to a large extent, he obtains these gratifications he seeks from the news:

I said earlier that my primary objective wherever I browse any of these media, the first thing that I look up to is any news that affects human; so the moment I read that news I picture that scenario and apply it to my life; if anything happens for instance, may be certain hazards, I study how that thing happened. Though I cannot protect myself but I will like to take caution on how to go about; sometimes what to say, where to say it and how to say it especially in the public, all this I learn from news because it must have affected somebody.

Similarly, the need of informant 9 to confirm from the news media those happenings reported to him by non-mediated sources is met: “to a large extent I obtain what I seek. For instance the insecurity in the north east, you hear a lot of things happening there from people and you confirm them from the media.” The informant also uses more of conventional medium to gratify this news need

I use mostly radio and television. Most of the time on television, I spend like from 9 to 10. I go on NTA news; sometimes I go on CNN, but I love to go on NTA. And I am a sports fan. It was when there is no light like early in the morning that I use to use radio and late hours; so I will go on BBC Hausa service

Informant 1 seems to articulate better this issue of news gratifications sought being obtained when he reasons that from the news, “you get the normal information definitely; information that directs me on what I need to know; sometimes you don’t get what you want; but generally it is O.K., better than not being informed.” Although informant 1 uses both online and conventional media for news, his news needs appear more gratified in the conventional media. He says

if you are sourcing online you might not actually get the complete information. But when you are trying to get the major information on the highlights, then you can actually wait for the conventional media. So the online give me a tip of what has happened which I would pursue further in the newspapers

Informant 8, whose primary purpose of seeking news is to acquire knowledge, “mostly used Radio Nigeria and sometimes online because I keep a sort of Facebook account which keeps me updated.” In order to justify his claim that he obtains his news gratifications of learning through news, he recounts an experience:

There was a time when I read Vanguard newspaper online; so before I don't like to travel to other state; so when I read that news I had a story of one person who travelled and on his travel he learnt a lot of other languages and these languages he learnt helped him a lot because that's what he used to get job because he was employed as an interpreter in an organization and that encourage me to be travelling around the country

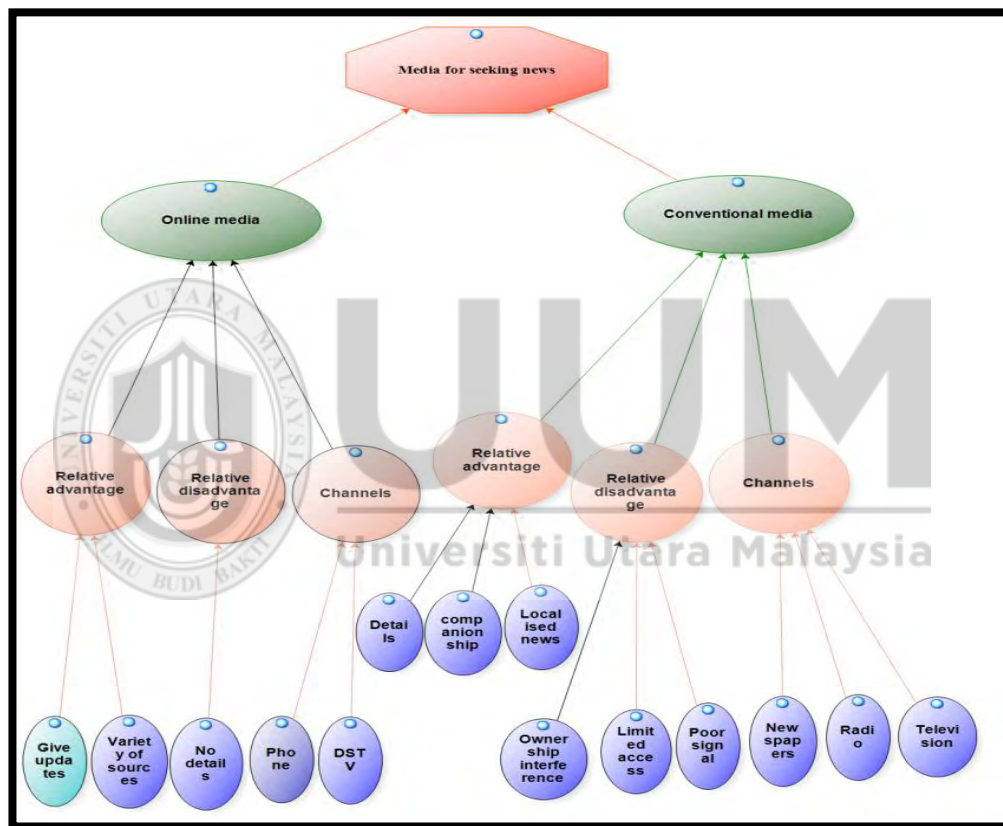


Figure 5.7. Media types and sub themes

Majority of our informants seek news in the online media, mostly through their mobile phones. Among the specific online media used for news, news websites are the dominant sources. However, unlike those who use the conventional media

primarily to seek news, most of the online users who claim to have obtained the news gratifications they seek could not buttress their claim. For example, informant 7 seeks news primarily to know about happenings around her environment. Although the informant casually remarks that “on the average I mostly get what I went out to seek from the news”, the countenance on her face and the tone in her voice seem to suggest more of disappointment with the news. She had alluded to this disappointment while recounting an experience of her media visit for news “there was an instance when Mandela died and I was trying to find out what happened to him and I couldn’t get much needed information.”

It is informant 10 and informant 9 who directly state the relative disadvantage of online media in providing news satisfaction. Informant 10 comes out of online news most of the times with her cognitive news needs ungratified because “most of the time these online media don’t give you most details about that information. So in most cases you come out of the news not well informed.” Whenever Informant 9 also accesses news online, he only imagines the details surrounding the news because details are not just there:

But for online media not much of satisfaction because duration of time they give to news is not enough. They just give you highlights and all that; they don’t give me the information as I want it. I will just imagine how it happens.

Instead of imagining how the details will be, Informant 1 would rather pursue the details in the conventional media:

If you are sourcing online you might not actually get the complete information. But when you are trying to get the major information on the highlights, then you can actually wait for the conventional media. So the online give me a tip of what has happened which I would pursue further in the newspapers

5.5.4 Relative Advantages of Online Media

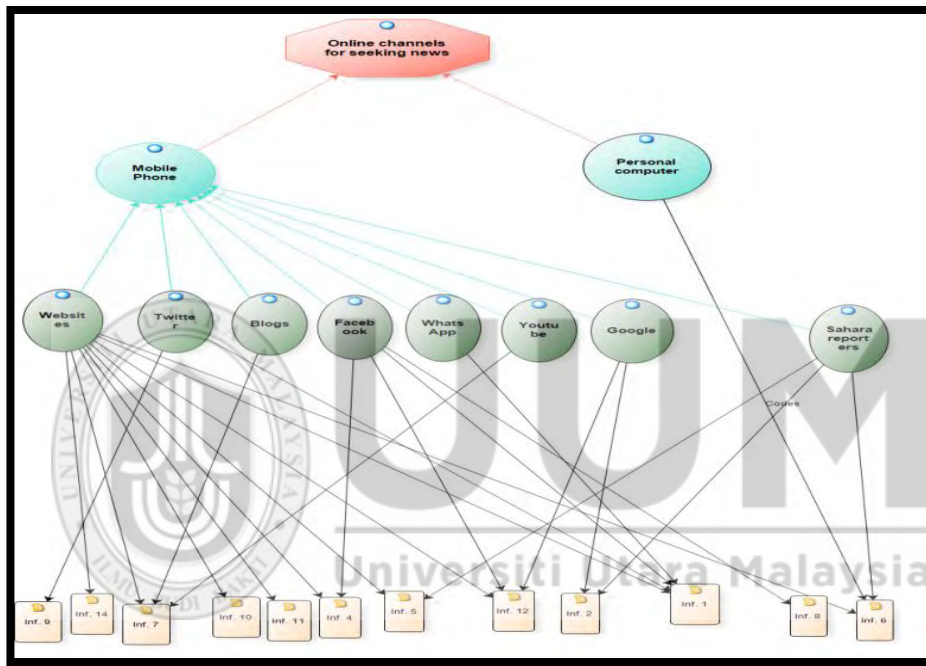


Figure 5.8. Channels used for news

Majority of those who go online for news use the news websites, followed by Facebook. Blogs and YouTube were the least sourced online for news. One of our Informants accesses news through the WhatsApp: “I use Facebook, what Sapp and twitter.” Informant 14 reads newspaper “mostly online” which is the same with Informant 10 who, most of the time reads “soft copy (of newspaper online.” Informant 11 just goes to “websites of news” particularly those of *Vanguard* and *Sun*

newspapers. Informant 6 also uses “*Vanguard* website” while Informant 4 uses, majorly, “Facebook and websites of radio stations” Informant 7 goes to “news websites” But why do these informants prefer to seek news in the online media?

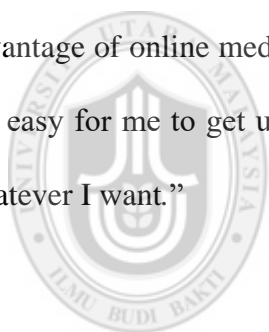
Informant 12 is always online for news “because they keep updating me of current issue (which is why) I don’t want to use Facebook because sometimes when news are like out of date. I don’t want to see that something has happened an hour ago; I want to see them as they are happening.” The updates of news in the online media give informant 1 quick overview of the news he would pursue further in the conventional media: “online is actually faster because it gives me update; it keeps me updated of events happening suddenly which I would pursue further in the newspapers.”

Besides, online media quickly help to fill news vacuum where the conventional media cannot be accessed due to unavailability, linguistic barrier or poor signals. Away from her ethnic home, Informant 13 cannot access news in the conventional television media as she used to at home because of the language barrier and poor signals. So, she had to abandon her urge for television news and concentrate on online news:

They don’t have many TV stations; they have just three; I think they have AIT, DITV, NTA and most of the times the stations are not clear. (Yet} I have more urge for news now that I am here because of the crisis situation (in the country...I (now) concentrate more on online.

Online media also reduce the risk of total news black-out in remote areas where the conventional media cannot be accessed. In her ethnic home, informant 7 feels cut off from the world. So, she could get access to news only through the online media: “where I am at home is very remote; it’s like you are cut off from the world with no information; so I had to be constantly online.”

Informant 3 points to the holistic nature of the online media as a relative advantage since she *can* “still get news from those (conventional) channels on internet because I subscribe to their services online.” It’s the ease-of-use that constitutes the relative advantage of online media to informant 14 as he prefers “to get news online because it’s easy for me to get unlike conventional and I use only search engine. I just type whatever I want.”



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5.5.5 Relative Advantage of Conventional Media

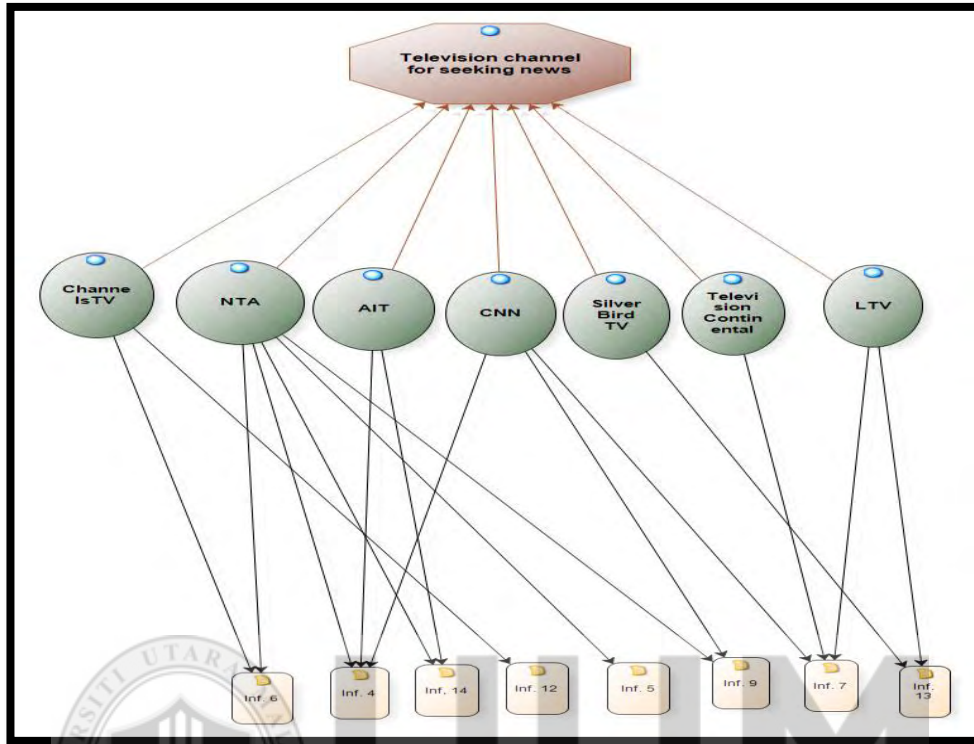


Figure 5.9. TV media used for news

A couple of the informants prefer the conventional media for news. For the television channel, most of the respondents use the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA) for their news offline, followed by Cable News Network (CNN). Channels Television, African Independent Television (AIT) and Lagos State Television (LTV) are used equally.

If news gratifications are less obtained in the online media because the online media do not provide details, it could be inferred that news gratifications will be more obtained in the conventional media because of their advantage of detailed news. This inference is corroborated by informant 1 who says:

If you are sourcing online you might not actually get the complete information. But when you are trying to get the major information on the highlights, then you can actually wait for the conventional media happened sometimes through dramatic conversation newspaper gives you the narrative story of what has actually happened; so the online give me a tip of what has happened which I would pursue further in the newspapers

Similarly, informant 9 spends about the same time sourcing news from both the online and the conventional media. But his news gratifications are more obtained in the conventional media:

To a large extent I obtain what I seek. For instance the insecurity in the north east, you hear a lot of things happening there from people and you confirm them in the media. But for online media not much of satisfaction because duration of time they give to news is not enough. They just give you highlights and all that; they don't give me the information as I want it. I will just imagine how it happens.

The conclusion that news gratifications are more obtained in the conventional media is strengthened by informant 13 who reasons that to a large extent, she obtains news gratifications in her ethnic home where she used more of conventional media than in the ethnic setting she had migrated to. Away from home, she has to concentrate on online media because the conventional media were relatively not available to her:

There (in Lagos) it's not all the time that I used my online (phone) to get news; I listened to radio, TV and newspapers to get news though I still use a bit of online but here in the north I concentrate more on online. (So) Its better over there than here because it's only once in a while that I get newspaper to read here; the one I get is even in my office

The conventional media could also present advantage of proximity which helps to localize news. Informant 5 is passionate about getting news on his transistor radio because

Apart from that power supply, the real news I really want to hear or that I need most comes from my local environment because when I listen to my transistor radio it will give me the news that primarily has to do with my local surrounding.

Informant 6 seems to get a sort of companionship from the newspaper since he “hardly read (s) newspaper except when I am travelling.”

5.5.6 Seeking and Obtaining News Gratifications: Online vs. Conventional Media

The extent to which what is sought in the news is obtained seems to depend on the amount of information in the news. This point can be inferred from the observation of informant 10 that “most of the time (the) online media don’t give you most details about that information. So in most cases you come out of the news not well informed.” Informant 9 also makes similar inference when he notes that “for online media, not much of satisfaction because duration of time they give to news is not enough. They just give you highlights and all that; they don’t give me the information as I want it. I will just imagine how it happens.”

If the above inferences are juxtaposed with the fact those who use conventional media speak, contrastingly, of high satisfaction from conventional media news, it can

be easily concluded that news gratifications are more obtained in conventional media than in the online media. For example, informant 5 and informant 2 obtain their news gratifications respectively in the conventional radio and newspaper. Informant 1 also alludes to this conclusion in his statement that “the online (media) give me a tip of what has happened which I would pursue further in the newspapers.”

But is it just about the media type or about how much time spent on the news? In other words how can we reconcile this conclusion that news gratifications are more obtained in the conventional media with the twin findings also in this study that the respondents use more of online media for news gratifications and that majority of the respondents obtain the gratifications they seek from the news? It can be further explained that since majority of those who access news in the online do it through the websites of the conventional news media, their being exposed to the detail news in those media must have enhanced their chances of obtaining gratifications from the news. In other words, detail or completeness of news is the crucial factor in obtaining gratifications sought from the news and not essentially the media type in the broad categories of online and conventional media.

Findings elsewhere in this qualitative study show that more time is spent on news per day on the conventional media (both offline and online) by our respondents than they spend on online media news *per se*. This could imply that apart from being exposed to details, those who use conventional media for news stay on the news more, probably because they are accessing those details in the news. In other words, the

extent to which gratifications sought in the news are obtained may not only be a function of being exposed to details but also a function of being ready to access those details. Therefore, the issue of obtaining gratifications sought from the news stand in-between the complementary role of the media which should provide details to news and the news consumers who should be ready to access those details.

5.5.7 Ethnic Migration

Social identities have been identified as playing a role in the media gratifications process. Ethnic identity in particular has been found to play some key role in media usage. In the light of this, we sought to see how ethnic identity does influence news usage among our respondents. We created ethnic migration as a major theme to see whether ethnic identity's influence on news usage is psychological or geographical or both. This is given the fact that previous studies have identified migration as influencing news usage.

Respondents were asked if they observe changes in their news gratifications when they move to ethnic locations outside their ethnic origins. Their description of the changes and the reasons for the change are coded under ethnic migration theme. The respondents were asked if they observe changes both in the news gratifications sought (NGS) and in the media they use for news gratifications.

The research objective of knowing the nature of influence ethnic identity has on news usage through ethnic migration informs the research decision to use the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) members as our respondents. The NYSC is a

one-year mandatory national service programme that every Nigerian graduate must undertake before he/she can take up any salaried job, particularly in the public sector in Nigeria (detail information on the NYSC scheme is provided in chapter one of this study). What is more relevant here is that by the design of the NYSC scheme, graduates are posted to ethnic locations outside their ethnic origins for the national service. We sought to know from the respondents *how* the ethnic migration could have influenced their news usage.

We created two sub-themes under this major theme where we coded informants' responses indicating change in news usage due to their movement away from their ethnic origin on the one hand and responses indicating no change in news usage on the other hand. Under the 'change in news usage' sub-sub theme, we coded informants' response indicating the change either in the news needs or in the media used to gratify news needs. A node where the informants' reasons for either change in news usage or no change were coded was also created under each of the sub-sub theme.

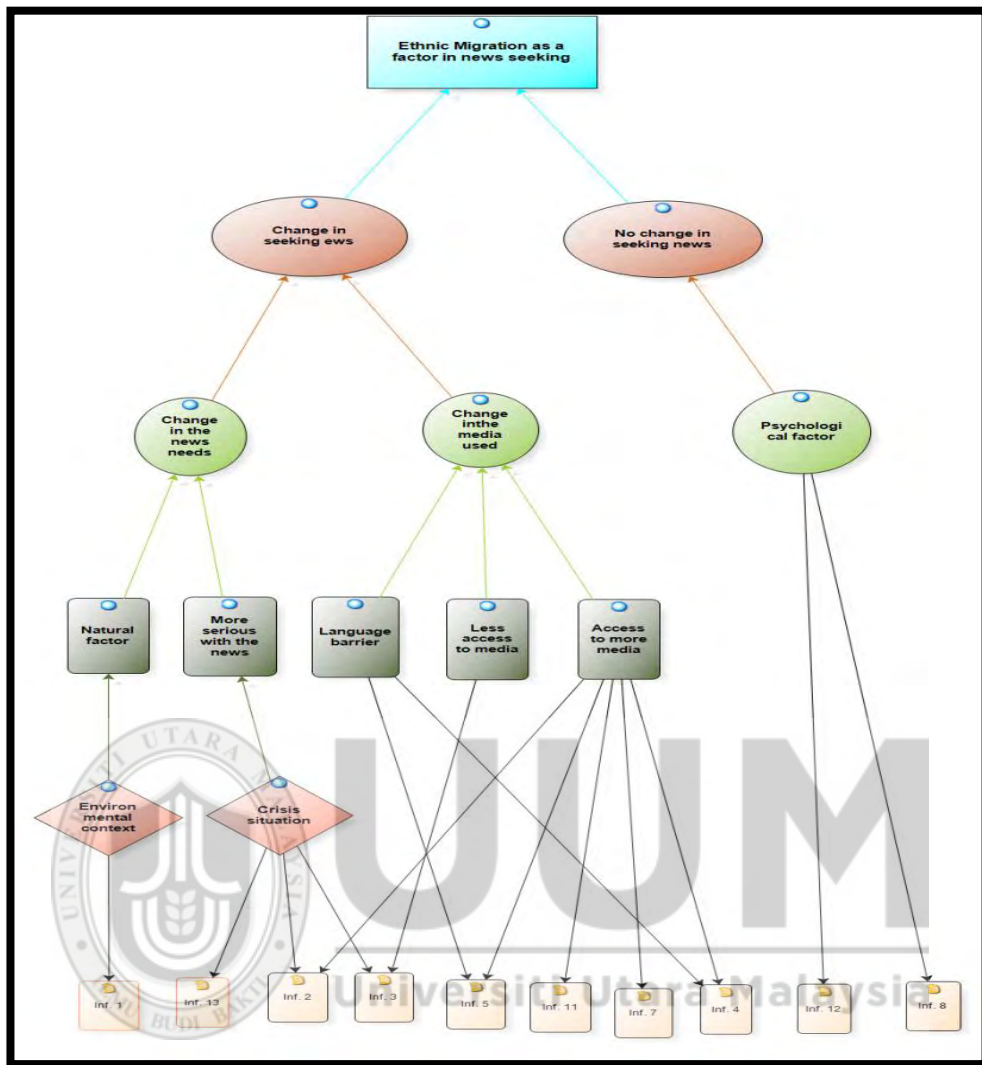


Figure 5.10. Ethnic migration theme and its sub themes

5.5.7.1 Results of Ethnic Migration

Respondents express changes in news usage due to movement to a new ethnic environment. The change cut across news needs and news media. Informant 11 had primarily been using online media for news before migrating but developed interest in newspaper news in the new ethnic environment because

Here I have newspaper in my house; so I just flip through... The amount of time I spend on newspaper depends on the news I am searching for; if it's

something very interesting like a topic I am interested I spend a lot of time, like 30-45 minutes.

Due to some environmental pressure, informant 10 must make sure she is getting her information right in the new ethnic environment; so she has to be more concerned about news:

I was not as concerned for news in Awka (south east) as I am here in Lagos (south west). Here in Lagos, any time I get information I must make sure I was getting the right thing. But I still get most of news through the online.

“Getting the right thing” outside one’s ethnic origin is very important in Nigeria where the issue of ‘unrest’ (Informant 5) or “insecurity” (Informant 9) makes Nigerians to sit on the edge outside their ethnic origin. The influence of environment or where one resides on news usage is more articulated by Informant 1 when he was asked if he noticed changes in his news usage outside his ethnic origin: –

Yes, yes. You know the kind of information you seek for depends on your locality; where you reside as in how developed the environment is and how the environment also helps you to get information across easily. So now that I am not around my ethnic environment, the news I get would center around what is happening around my environment and the way of life of people around you also influences that too; so actually environment changes the kind of news you get around you.

As far as Informant 5 and Informant 4 are concerned, it is the socio-cultural barrier of language that reshapes their news usage, Informant 5 notices:

great change and the only thing that causes the change is the language barrier because most of the stations we have here they speak in Hausa and they are

not communicating with me and so far I cannot derive anything they are passing across I have no business with them; so I have now shifted all my attention to the online.

Similarly, the attitude of Informant 4:

to news has changed due to language barrier; more so I don't know most of their stations here. Online news particularly has been giving me some companionship when I think of missing home. Unlike when I was at home that I used radio and newspaper, here my media has changed to online

In her new environment, there are more media options for informant 7. She now has opportunity to access news more in the conventional media of choice unlike in her country home where there was no choice:

I still use more of online media here but there are options; I just turn on the television. There are so many options down here; so I don't have to depend solely on internet. Overall I still prefer to pick my news from the online media but I still pick some news from the conventional media because there are many options.

For Informant 13, the reverse seems to be the case. She found herself in a new environment where language barrier reduces her options of conventional media despite her higher urge for news; so she now has to concentrate on online media for news:

There (in Lagos) it's not all the time that I used my online (phone) to get news; I listened to radio, TV and newspapers to get news though I still use a bit of online but here in the north I concentrate more on online (because) they don't have many TV stations; they have just three; I think they have AIT, DITV, NTA and most of the times the stations are not clear. (Yet} I have

more urge for news now that I am here because of the crisis situation (in the country).

The gratifications sought from news of informant 2 expanded when he got to a new ethnic environment. Apart from the cognitive need to get updated on current issues, he now added a social interactive need, to perform well in group communication because “here we use to have discussion among ourselves corpors, some of them are from south-south, south-west; so one needs to enlighten them well about happenings, particularly in the country”. In the same way, the cognitive news need to get updated on politics of informant 9 which he was obtaining in the conventional media in his ethnic home shifted to searching for jobs mostly in the online media: “presently as I am here in Ibadan now I go for news in search of jobs because I am using my phone. I go on net, log on to different websites not necessarily to know what is happening but to check on jobs.”

In contrast to all the informants above, informant 8 and informant 12, for some psychological reasons, do not notice any change in their news usage due to their migrating to a different ethnic environment: Informant 12 considers himself “a true Nigerian. Wherever I am, I see myself as a Nigerian. I try to seek news not really because of where I come from.” Similarly, there is no need for the news usage of Informant 8 to change due to her migrating to another ethnic setting because she “is confident that as a Muslim, you need not worry wherever you go.”

From our interviewees' responses, it could be deduced that ethnic migration does

influence news usage. This influence is occasioned by socio-cultural changes in the new environment. In other words, if the socio-cultural factors had not been there, their news usage pattern would have remained as it were in their ethnic origin. As will be seen in the next few pages, there are some ethnic variations in the news usage patterns of the three ethnic groups across almost all the major themes in this work (NGS, NGO, media types). Given this fact that news usage of our respondents changes as they ethnically migrate, we can conclude that the influence of ethnicity on the news usage of our informants is both psychological and geographical. This means that the influence of ethnicity on the news usage of the informants is both by virtue of their *being* ethnic persons and their being in a different ethnic setting.

In sum, news usage is ethnically influenced but such influence can be upset by ethno-geographical factor, arising from inter-ethnic migration

5.5.8 News Strength

We looked at the news strength of our informants from two perspectives: their attitude to news and the volume of news consumed. Two sub-themes, ‘strong news attitude’ and ‘weak news attitude’, were, therefore, created under the main theme ‘news strength’. To further explain strong attitude to news, we created nodes where descriptions of the passion for news are coded. Similar node was created under ‘weak news attitude’ where reasons for the news attitude were coded. To further explain the news strength of our informants; we created another sub-theme described as ‘news volume’. Respondents had been asked how much time they spent on news

per day. Three nodes were created under news volume where responses ranging from 1-2 hours per day to more than 5 hours per day were coded.

5.5.8.1 Results of News Strength

Majority of our informants have strong attitude to news. Some of them consider news to be part of their life. To informant 12, news consumption is a daily routine because “when I wake up every morning I check my phone whenever I seek out for my news I always do that through my phone.” If Informant 11 doesn’t get news in a day, “I don’t feel complete. News is like part of my life every day. So any day I don’t get news I don’t usually feel complete.” In fact, informant 7 will be apprehensive if she doesn’t have opportunity to get news in a day because:

If I don’t get news is like I am not informed; I don’t know what is happening. I feel like may be something is going on and I don’t know about it and I feel like anything can happen because I am not informed

Informant 1 also has strong passion for news, but the passion is more philosophical in nature since “according to my religion, you should be enlightened.” Informant 11 is not ‘going to be o.k because I need news to keep updated.’

On the other hand, Informant 14 doesn’t have strong attitude to news “because most of the news (stories) are not realistic; so I don’t really go out to seek news.” Informant 5 is just apathetic, visiting the media only when it is necessary.

Well, regard to my attitude towards news consumptiiioon, I will say it is partial positive. And what I mean by partial positive is that I don’t have the

100% positive interest to acquire news. I only acquire news when I deem fit and the only situation that can warrant me to look up for news was when I think what I have been expecting is likely to come from the news.

5.5.8.2 News Volume

Most of our informants spend three hours and above on news per day. About one-third are on news 5 hours and above per day. There seems to be a connection between the media type and the amount of time spent on news per day. Informants who stay longer on news spend more of the time on news from the conventional media either directly or from their news sites. Informant 1 stays on online news for only 1 hour per day, but he could be spending another 5 hours per day on conventional news. According to him,

I spend roughly an hour per day (on) Facebook, what Sapp and twitter (but) I get newspapers on daily basis either from the Sun or the Punch; so all round I get information from those media and newspapers; when I get home now I will be on papers and on my phone to know what is happening; so in a day, let's say maximum of six hours.

Although, informant 5 could be online for as much as 7-8 hours sourcing information, he spends unlimited time on his transistor radio sourcing news:

I use internet within the range of 7-8 hours per day because whenever I have that chance I normally do something whether getting news about sports or about happenings in the world, anything. For radio that is unlimited. In fact I cannot even quantify the amount of time.

Informant 12 is on Channels TV online“between 6-7 hours per day because even if I

am walking on the street I try to get news online.”while informant 13 spends ‘5 hours’ per day mostly“on radio, TV and newspapers to get news”. Most part of the 5 hours that informant 4 spends on news per day is on conventional news like “Smart F.M, Radio Kwara (and) websites of newspapers like Vanguard (and) the Nation.”

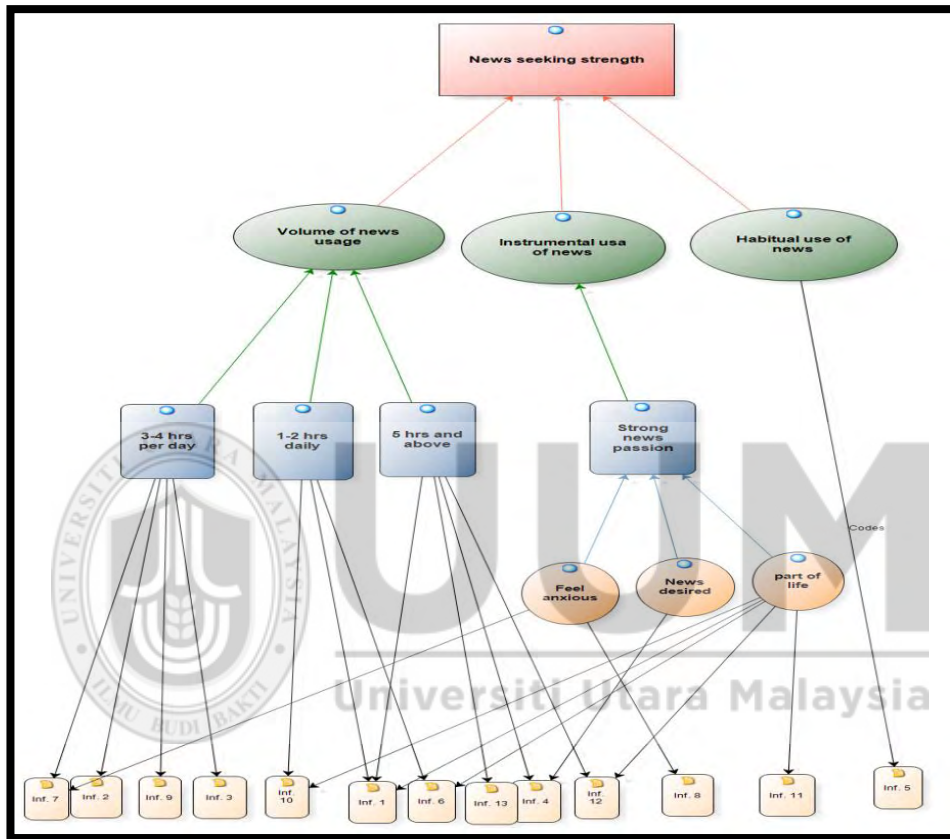


Figure 5.11. News seeking strength

5.6 Comparative Analysis

This qualitative aspect of this research set out to answer two research questions:

- (1) How does ethnic identity relate to news usage among ethnic groups in Nigeria?
- (2) How does gender difference influence news usage?

In order to answer these two questions, we compare the usage of news across the major themes among the three ethnic groups (Hausa-Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba) on the one hand and between male and female respondents on the other..

5.6.1 Difference in Ethnic Identities

5.6.1.1 News Gratifications Sought

Over all, there seems not to be much difference among the three ethnic groups in their news gratifications sought. The Yoruba seek more gratifications from the news than both the Hausa and the Ibo. The Ibo slightly differ from the Hausa with the Ibo having more references. However, since this is a qualitative analysis, we sought for qualitative and more fundamental difference among the three ethnic groups, particularly in the specific news gratifications they seek from the media

5.6.1.1.1 Cognitive Needs

Generally, there is a high cognitive need for news among the three ethnic groups. The cognitive needs include the need for knowledge and need to be current about happenings in Nigeria including government activities. However, the Hausa-Fulani are more inclined to seeking news for knowledge, The words ‘knowledge’, ‘learning’, ‘research’ which run through more of Hausa-Fulani responses connote the seeking of news more for knowledge purposes.

Informant 8 is a Hausa –Fulani who believes that“firstly seeking news is part of learning process.”Informant: 2 is also a Hausa-Fulani who seeks news”because I

want to get more knowledge.”Another Hausa-Fulani, Informant: 12, seeks news as part of a preparation for future academic life because“I want to be a researcher in future so it’s high time I get new information.”

5.6.1.1.2 Affective Needs

There is not much difference among the ethnic groups in their affective needs for news. There is some faint reference to their seeking the news for fun or entertainment or for the news being dramatic by the three ethnic groups. The choice of words, however, slightly differs. The Hausa seeks fun from the news; the Ibo wants to be entertained by the news while the Yoruba seeks human interest news

Informant 9 is a Hausa-Fulani who, essentially, goes“for news to get informed (but) sometimes I go for news for fun, like sports news I go for it for fun.”Expressing her seeking the same affective need from news,Informant 11, an Ibo informant, says she seeks “news both to be entertained and to be informed”since,according to her, “there are some news(items) that are entertaining”. In his own case, Informant 5, a Yoruba,*looks* “for information that has to do with the human interest; anything that affects human beings because it stimulates me a lot.”

5.6.1.1.3 Escapist Needs

The Hausa-Fulani do not have escapist needs for news while the Ibo and the Yoruba seek news either to kill boredom or to relax. The escapist need for news seems to be more prevalent among the Yoruba

Informant 7 is an Ibo who spends “an average of one hour per day watching news on the television, sometimes when I am just tired.” As far as Informant 5, a Yoruba, is concerned: “I do read and listen to radio sometimes but most importantly I do listen to radio especially when I discover that I am less busy.”

After Informant 4, also a Yoruba, must have been exhausted from academic engagement, he goes “out to get news to relax myself.” Informant 14, another Yoruba, also has escapist needs for news as he says that “the only thing that can motivate me to go and listen to news or to go and seek news may be just accidental when I am idle.”

5.6.1.1.4 Social Interactive Needs

The Yoruba do not seek news to have something to share with peers, friends and family unlike Ibo and Hausa-Fulani who seek news so as to get information they could share with others. Informant 3, an Ibo, considers it “derogatory for her to appear ignorant when contemporary issues are being discussed in a group”. So she seeks news so that she can add her own contribution. Social interactive need for news is more prevalent among the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group. Informant 2 seeks news to be able to enlighten his colleagues “well about happenings, particularly in the country.” Informant 8 is also a Hausa-Fulani, who seeks news to be able to do well in communication among colleagues because “when you are with colleagues you hear things and sometimes you also want to make your own contribution.” Informant 12, another Hausa-Fulani, wants “to make impact in politics; I want to impact in

business. Even if I am not venturing into business, I want to offer advice to those people who are going into business.”

5.6.1.2 Media Types

The Hausa prefer to use the conventional media for news while the Ibo prefer the online media. The direction of media usage is not as clear-cut among the Yoruba as in the other two ethnic groups. Informant 9, Informant 8 and Informant 2, all of whom are Hausa, prefer to listen to radio and watch TV news while informant 11, Informant 10, Informant 7, Informant 6 and Informant 3, all of whom are Ibo, prefer the online media.

Informant 7 is “a lover of blog information.” She also goes “to a couple of YouTube channels to get news (in addition to) newspapers review online.” Informant 6 is another Ibo who uses “mostly the internet for this purpose (of getting news). I use Sahara Reporters; once in a while I use Vanguard website. I prefer using my mobile phone.” When informant 3, another Ibo was asked if she gets news from the conventional media, she says

I can still get news from those channels on internet because I subscribe to their services online. When you had to like their pages they send you updates every day; if you follow them on twitter, you get updates from them; I follow Daily Trust; I follow Vangurad; I follow channels tv I follow so many of those news outlets; I really want to be informed.

Informant 11 is another Ibo who prefers online media.

I just used my phone and I checked either Vanguard or the Sun or whichever one I feel like. I just go to websites of news; like Guardian has a website, Punch. For entertaining news I get news from Better Niger. For informative news I just go to Guardian newspaper or Sun or the Punch newspaper

Informant 10 was also asked about getting news from the conventional media. The Ibo informant says “I read printed newspaper but once in a while if I can lay my hand on a copy. But most of the time I read soft copy online. For hard copy, I don’t go for it by myself”

Contrastingly, majority of the Hausa-Fulani informants prefer to get news from the conventional media. As far as getting news is concerned, informant 9, a Hausa-Fulani, uses:

Mostly radio and television. Most of the time on television, I spend like from 9-10. I go on NTA news; sometimes I go on CNN, but I love to go on NTA. And I am a sports fan so I do check. It was when there is no light like early in the morning that I use to use radio and late hours; so I will go on BBC Hausa service

Similarly, informant 8, another Hausa-Fulani, “mostly used Radio Nigeria and sometimes online because I keep a sort of Facebook account which keeps me updated.” Informant 2, also a Hausa-Fulani, has almost the same pattern of media choice for news because he uses “mostly television and the radio news. I also use newspapers and sometimes I use my phone to read Vanguard, Sahara Reporters or Daily Trust. Sometimes, .at international level, I use to browse news on the Aljazeera and Facebook.”

The direction of media choice for news is not as clear-cut among the Yoruba as it is among the Ibo and the Hausa-Fulani. While informant 5 and informant 13 use mostly the conventional media for news, informant 14 and informant 4 prefer the online media. Informant 4 mostly uses

Facebook and websites of radio stations; I have twitter but I don't use much. For radio I have like Smart F.M In Ibadan Radio Kwara in Ilorin; I have websites of newspapers like Vanguard, the Nation where I do get news

In the same vein, informant 14 uses "two media, conventional and also online media but most of the time it is online, but when it gets to evening time, I use conventional media." In his own case, informant 5, also a Yoruba, prefers the conventional radio over other media for news

I do listen to radio and the reason behind that is as a result of the incessant epileptic power supply; so I do go for radio because 24/7 even if there is no electricity very easy you can get battery and insert. I do use radio a lot because apart from that power supply, the real news I really want to hear or that I need most comes from my local environment because when I listen to my transistor radio it will give me the news that primarily has to do with my local surrounding. I do incorporate the internet which sometimes I use simultaneously with radio because radio has to do with my listening skill while the other one has to do with my reading skill. I do read and listen to radio sometimes but most importantly I do listen to radio.

Informant 13, another Yoruba, also prefers conventional media as she "listened to radio, TV and newspapers to get news though I still use a bit of online."

The dominance of conventional media among the Hausa-Fulani is not too surprising given the fact that previous studies have found the use of conventional media, particularly radio, to be dominant among members of the ethnic group. Abubakar (2011) found the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group to consume BBC news with ethnic disposition.

5.6.1.3 Ethnic Difference on NGO

As noted in the previous pages, the extent to which what is sought in the news is obtained seems to depend on the amount of information in the news. For example, informant 10 had observed that “most of the time (the) online media don’t give you most details about that information. So in most cases you come out of the news not well informed.” Informant 9 drew similar conclusion when he notes that for online media, not much of satisfaction because duration of time they give to news is not enough. They just give you highlights and all that; they don’t give me the information as I want it. I will just imagine how it happens.

If the above conclusions are juxtaposed with the fact those who use conventional media speak, contrastingly, of high satisfaction from conventional media news, it can be easily concluded that news gratifications are more obtained in conventional media than in the online media due to the fact that the latter provide detail to news. For example, informant 9 uses more of radio and television for news and says:

To a large extent I obtain what I seek. For instance the insecurity in the north east, you hear a lot of things happening there from people and you confirm them from the media. But for online media not much of satisfaction because

duration of time they give to news is not enough. They just give you highlights and all that; they don't give me the information as I want it. I will just imagine how it happens.

The conclusion that conventional media provide details and that details lead to more satisfaction from the news is buttressed by informant 1 in his statement that the:

If you are sourcing online you might not actually get the complete information. But when you are trying to get the major information on the highlights, then you can actually wait for the conventional media. Usually newspapers give you a better view of what has actually happened sometimes through dramatic conversation gives you the narrative story of what has actually happened; so the online give me a tip of what has happened which I would pursue further in the newspapers.

Using this parameter that obtaining gratifications from the news is a function of being exposed to news details, it can be concluded that the Hausa-Fulani do obtain more gratifications from news than the other two ethnic groups because they use more of conventional media for news, implying they are more exposed to details.

5.6.1.4 Inter-Ethnic Migration

The Hausa-Fulani ethnic group doesn't have much change in their news needs like members of other two ethnic groups. They cite personal, psychological factor for being able to stabilise in their news consumption behaviour despite being away from their ethnic origin. This probably is not unconnected to their nomadic and communal orientation. When informant 12, a Hausa-Fulani, was asked if his news needs changed on her moving to a different ethnic environment, he says "I am a true

Nigerian. Wherever I am, I see myself as a Nigerian. I try to seek news not really because of where I come from.” Informant 8 is another Hausa-Fulani whose news consumption behaviour is not upset by his moving to a different ethnic setting “because I am confident that as a Muslim you need not worry wherever you go,” Informant 9 is also a Hausa-Fulani who doesn’t see much difference in the two ethnic settings, and therefore he says.

There is no need for me to change my news orientation. Of course you are not in the midst of your people that does not mean I should be too conscious of the new environment to the extent that I will be looking for news here and there. What will happen will happen whether I get more news or not. I’m not saying there is no change; for example I seek more news for jobs because I will soon be thrown into the labour market. What I’m saying is that I’m not bothered about any environmental factor.

On the other hand, environmental factors impacted on the news consumption behaviour of the Ibo and the Yoruba. Informant 14 is a Yoruba whose news needs change from escapist to cognitive news. He says he has to be more serious with news in his new environment because “in terms of the lack of security that we are facing in the country, I need to know more about things around me.” In the case of informant 5, also a Yoruba, the environmental factor is the language barrier:

Because most of the stations we have here they speak in Hausa and they are not communicating with me and so far I cannot derive anything they are passing across I have no business with them; so I have now shifted all my attention to the online.

The same language barrier causes the change of news usage of informant 4, another Yoruba:

Well my attitude to news has changed due to language barrier; more so I don't know most of their stations here. Online news particularly has been giving me some companionship when I think of missing home. Unlike when I was at home that I used radio and newspaper, here my media has changed to online.

Environmental factor also exerts pressure on the news consumption behaviour of informant 13 who is also a Yoruba informant because in the new ethnic environment where she finds herself:

They don't have many TV stations; they have just three; I think they have AIT, DITV (Desmims Independent Television), NTA and most of the times the stations are not clear. (Yet} I have more urge for news now that I am here because of the crisis situation (in the country)'

Similarly, there is no stability in the news consumption behaviour of the Ibo after migrating to ethnic settings outside their ethnic origin. Informants also cite environmental factors as being responsible for the change in their news usage. Informant 7, an Ibo, gives a background to why her news usage in her ethnic origin could have been the same as her news usage outside her ethnic origin;

In the east, particularly if you are in your home town it's like you are cut off from the world. Where I am at home is very remote; it's like you are cut off from the world with no information; so I had to be constantly online. My main reason is just to be informed about happenings. There were conventional media quite right like radio local stations but you can't compare what you get on those stations with the media in the south west. You only got what is happening in the state or just about the governor.

Informant 3, another Ibo informant, also experiences instability in her news usage due to migration to another ethnic setting outside her ethnic origin. She also cites environmental factor.

Well back there like I said I consume news because I want to be informed; and then here now, I consume news because I also want to be informed because considering the present security challenges in the country right now, I want to be well informed about things happening; I want to know when there is any form of hiccup in the affairs of the country or when the place is no longer safe.

There is also some difference between the news usage of informant 6, also an Ibo informant, in his ethnic origin and the news usage outside his ethnic origin. But instead of negative environmental factors coming into play, it is positive environmental expectation that is inducing a change in his attitude to news. He says “I wasn’t so serious about news in those days because of academic commitment. I wasn’t even interested (but) I have to know about the opportunity that exists where I am now”

The concern for more cognitive news outside her ethnic origin due to environmental factor is also an indication that the news usage of informant 10, also an Ibo, has changed because “I was not as concerned for news in Awka as I am here in Lagos. Here in Lagos, any time I get information I must make sure I was getting the right thing.” To informant 1, another Ibo, changing news consumption behaviour due to environmental context is natural because, according to him:

The kind of information you seek for depends on your locality; where you reside as in how developed the environment is and how the environment also helps you to get information across easily. So now that I am not around my ethnic environment, the news I get would center around what is happening around my environment and the way of life of people around you also influences that too; so actually environment changes the kind of news you get around you.

5.6.2 Difference in Gender

5.6.2.1 News Gratifications Sought

5.6.2.1.1 Difference in Cognitive News

Both males and females seek news for cognitive purposes but acquiring news for 'knowledge' sake is more prevalent among males than females. Informant 8 is a male respondent who believes that "firstly seeking news is part of learning process. Informant 2 is also a male who seeks news. "because I want to get more knowledge."

5.6.2.1.2 Affective Needs

Both male and female respondents also seek news for affective needs with some difference in the wordings. The female seeks to be entertained while the males look for drama, human interest or fun in the news.

Informant 9 is a male who says "sometimes I go for news for fun, like sports news I go for it for fun." This is similar to informant 5, another male, who looks "for information that has to do with the human interest; anything that affects human

beings because it stimulates me a lot.”Informant 11, a female, seeks news both “to be entertained and to be informed. There are some news (items) that are entertaining.”

5.6.2.1.3 Escapist Needs

Both the male and the female seek news for escapist purposes. Males seem to find escapist gratifications across several media while females seek the escapist needs only through the TV news. Informant 7 is a female who spends “an average of one hour per day watching news on the television, sometimes when I am just tired.” Informant 5, a male, does read and listen to radio sometimes “but most importantly I do listen to radio especially when I discover that I am less busy.” Informant 4 is also a male who says “during my undergraduate, if I have read to my saturated point, I go out to get news to relax myself.” Informant 14, another male, says “the only thing that can motivate me to go and listen to news or to go and seek news may be just accidental when I am idle.”

5.6.3 Media Types

Males tend to prefer conventional media for news while the females are more inclined to online media. Informants 3, 7, 10, 11 and 12 are all females who prefer the online media for news while informants 2, 5, 8, and 9, all of whom are males, use conventional media mostly for news.

Informant 3 is a female who doesn’t see much need for accessing conventional media offline because they can equally be accessed online. According to her

I can still get news from those (conventional) channels on internet because I subscribe to their services online. When you had to like their pages they send

you updates every day; if you follow them on twitter, you get updates from them; I follow Daily Trust; I follow Vanguard; I follow channels tv I follow so many of those news outlets; I really want to be informed.

Informant 11 is another female who prefers:

Online media. I just used my phone and I checked either Vanguard or the Sun or whichever one I feel like. I just go to websites of news; like Guardian has a website, Punch. For entertaining news I get news from Better Niger. For informative news I just go to Guardian newspaper or Sun or the Punch newspaper.

When Informant 10, also a female, was asked about getting news from the conventional media, she says “I read printed newspaper but once in a while if I can lay my hand on a copy. But most of the time I read soft copy online. For hard copy, I don’t go for it by myself.”.

Informant 7 is “a lover of blog information.” She also goes “to a couple of YouTube channels to get news (in addition to) newspapers review online...Over all I still prefer to pick my news from the online media but I still pick some news from the conventional media because there are many options”

Similarly, informant 12, another female, says:

I always go out for online media because even when I am around even no matter how you on the television I don’t bother about that one because I am always on online because they keep updating me of current issues as they come. As they are happening they keep posting them for me; so it keeps me more updated than the offline media because the offline media you have to wait atimes for certain hours before you get updated. But this one on google, on online once it’s happening they give you the feedback with details later

and within 10 to 15 minutes they shoot out their details. So you get news which those waiting for offline never get before. In fact, I go online every 30 minutes to see what's happening.

As for the males, the use of conventional media is dominant. Informant 9 is a female who goes mostly on:

Radio and television. Most of the time on television, I spend like from 9-10. I go on NTA news; sometimes I go on CNN, but I love to go on NTA. And I am a sports fan so I do check. It was when there is no light like early in the morning that I use to use radio and late hours; so I will go on BBC Hausa service.

The media choice of informant 8, also a male, is similar to that of informant 9. He "mostly used Radio Nigeria and sometimes online because I keep a sort of Facebook account which keeps me updated." Informant 2, another male, has almost same pattern of media choice for news because he uses "mostly television and the radio news. I also use newspapers and sometimes I use my phone to read Vanguard, Sahara Reporters or Daily Trust. Sometimes, .at international level, I use to browse news on the Aljazeera and Facebook."

In the case of informant 5, who is also a male, the amount of news he gets from his transistor radio is comparatively unquantifiable: informant 5, also a Yoruba, prefers the conventional radio over other media for news:

I do listen to radio and the reason behind that is as a result of the incessant epileptic power supply; so I do go for radio because 24/7 even if there is no electricity very easy you can get battery and insert. I do use radio a lot

because apart from that power supply, the real news I really want to hear or that I need most comes from my local environment because when I listen to my transistor radio it will give me the news that primarily has to do with my local surrounding. I do incorporate the internet which sometimes I use simultaneously with radio because radio has to do with my listening skill while the other one has to do with my reading skill. I do read and listen to radio sometimes but most importantly I do listen to radio. So I use internet within the range of 7-8 hours per day because whenever I have that chance I normally do something whether getting news about sports or about happenings in the world, anything. For radio that is unlimited. In fact I cannot even quantify the amount of time.

Since higher news satisfaction has been associated with news details which are more provided in the conventional media, it can be concluded that males obtain more of the news gratifications they seek, having been more inclined to seeking news in the conventional media. Informant 1, a male, drives home this conclusion more. He exploits the relative advantage of each of the two media types, online and conventional media. He accesses online media for quick updates while he pursues details further in the conventional media.

Online is actually faster because it gives me update; it keeps me updated of events happening suddenly. But if you are sourcing online you might not actually get the complete information. But when you are trying to get the major information on the highlights, then you can actually wait for the conventional media. Usually newspapers give you a better view of what has actually happened sometimes through dramatic conversation gives you the narrative story of what has actually happened; **so the online give** me a tip of what has happened which I would pursue further in the newspapers.

We also discovered some difference between the males and females with respect to

their perception of news reporting in the media. The females are more critical of the media in this respect.

Informant 3 is a female who dislikes the government media because

You know that the government media houses they tend to broadcast those news items they want the public to know, mostly those that had to do with the very few things that government has done for the people but they won't go in-depth to tell you those lapses of the government. In other words the media houses owned by the government are just designed to praise the government

Informant 7, another female, is also critical of the government-owned radio stations in her ethnic origin because of ownership interference. She says "there were conventional media quite right like radio local stations but you can't compare what you get on those stations with the media in the south west. You only got what is happening in the state or just about the governor"

The issue of censorship puts off informant 12, a female, from not only some conventional media but also some online media:

. I don't like NTA because their news is always censored. I don't like AIT too because AIT news too is also censored. I also like to read Vanguard online. I visit Facebook at times. I rarely get news from these social media because they try to fix their own idea into the news

5.7 Summary

We have analyzed this study's qualitative data around some major and sub-themes which we have sourced from the uses and gratifications theory. General findings were first presented which for-run the comparative analysis that addresses the study's qualitative research questions. We found some psychological and environmental difference among the three major ethnic groups to which our informants belong. We also presented findings on how gender difference influences the news usage of our informants.



CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the study's findings which are presented in chapters four and five. The quantitative research hypotheses and the qualitative research questions are discussed within the context of the findings in the two methods. The outcomes of both data are further discussed within the context of the main objective of the study's mixed method.

6.2 Research Overview

Previous studies have found ethnic identity to influence news usage. These findings are consistent with the postulate of Uses and Gratifications Theory that social identity influences media usage. However, previous studies on the influence of ethnic identity on news usage have focussed attention mainly on inter-national ethnic settings. Few attempts have been made to explore the influence of ethnic identity on news usage among intra-national ethnic groups. Therefore, part of the theoretical gap which this study set out to fill is to explore influence of ethnic identity on news usage of intra-national ethnic groups in Nigeria.

In addition, there has been little theoretical attempt to explore the role of cross-cultural movement on news usage in an intra-national ethnic setting. In other words, how does inter-ethnic migration influence news usage among ethnic groups in Nigeria?

Besides, this study also seeks to explore the relationship between news gratifications sought (GS) and the news gratifications obtained (GO) among ethnic groups in Nigeria. Media scholars have sought to know the relationship between GS and GO by media consumers based on the fact that absolute discrepancy exists between what is sought and what is obtained by media users (Durall, 1982). The relationship between GS and GO has rarely been explored in the empirical studies of news gratifications among ethnic groups.

Ethnic issues are important issues in Nigeria. Nigerians attach themselves to ethnic groupings than to any other forms of association. That explains why ethnicity influences the behaviours of Nigerians in almost all areas of life. Does ethnicity also influence the news usage of Nigerians? This is the practical context within which this study is situated. There are over 250 ethnic groups in Nigeria. But this study is focusing on the three major ones (Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups) because members of these three ethnic groups constitute about 70 per cent of Nigeria's total population

Given the entire theoretical and practical gap identified above, this study seeks answers to the following research questions:

RQ1. Is there a significant difference in the news gratifications sought among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ2 Is there a significant difference among Hausa –Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in the media used for news gratifications?

RQ3 Is there a significant positive relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ4 Is there a significant positive relationship between online media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ5 Is there a significant positive relationship between conventional media and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ6 Is there a significant positive relationship between ethnic migration and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria?

RQ7 Does ethnic migration moderate the relationship between NGS and NGO?

RQ8 How does ethnic identity relate to news usage among Nigerians?

RQ9 How does gender influence news usage among Nigerians?

6.3 Discussion of Hypothesized Relationships

6.3.1 Differences and relationship of media used and news gratifications among Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups

The multi-group analysis (MGA) results show a significant difference in the news gratifications sought (NGS) among the three ethnic groups. This finding tallies with

finding of previous studies. Gerzduci and d'Haenens (2010, 2007) found significance difference in the news motives of ethnically diverse groups in Belgium. Albarran and Humphrey (1993) had also found significant difference in the TV news gratifications of Blacks and Hispanics in the United States.

Our qualitative data give us more understanding about how the ethnic groups differ in news gratifications sought. In their cognitive motive for seeking news, the three ethnic groups exhibited some variance. While the Hausa-Fulani seek news more for 'knowledge', 'learning' or 'research', the Ibo and the Yoruba seek news more for them to 'know about happenings' or to 'be conscious of situations' around them. The seeming more serious attitude to news of the Hausa-Fulani which is evidenced in their using the news for what appears to be a more pragmatic purpose of knowledge', 'learning' or 'research' can also be observed in their not using the news for escapist motive while the Ibo and the Yoruba use news to 'kill time' or 'boredom'.

Perhaps more interesting to note is the fact that social interactive need for news is more prevalent among the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group. This may not be surprising given the fact that the Hausa-Fulanis are relatively more communal than individualistic in nature. In other words, level of social interaction is stronger among them as they are fond of fraternising. This fraternity is evidenced in almost all aspects of life. Politically, a Hausa-Fukani monarch exercises a wider sphere of influence, prompting such description of the Hausa-Fulani as one of the most politically organised ethnic groups unlike the Ibo ethnic group, for instance, which

has a relatively individualistic political culture with an Ibo monarch having a narrow sphere of influence. In social life, the round-the-mat dining culture where members of a household eat from a pool is still evidenced in the contemporary Hausa-Fulani communities even among their elites.

Hypotheses 2, 4 and 5 clearly show that online media are being used more to obtain news gratifications. And since people are not likely to go on using a medium when they do not get expected satisfaction (Johnson & Yang, 2009), it can also be concluded that news gratifications are more sought and more obtained in the online media than in the conventional media. This conclusion is buttressed by the significant positive relationship that has been found to exist between NGS and NGO in this study. All these findings tend to lend credence to the position of media scholars who posit that the online media have displaced the conventional media as news consumption outlets.

However, more understanding of the extent to which online media are used for news is given by our qualitative data. Particularly, our qualitative data provide insight into the interaction between online and conventional media as sources of news satisfaction. The qualitative data show that majority of the informants use online media to seek news gratifications mostly because of the speed of news delivery through updates. However, informants seem to make stronger and more credible expression of satisfaction obtained from news in the conventional media coupled with direct expression of dissatisfaction with the outcomes of using online

media to seek news gratifications by some informants, primarily because news in the online media lacks details. Ostensibly, conventional media give more news satisfaction because they give details. This would mean that though news gratifications are more sought in the online media, news gratifications are more obtained in the conventional media. But the fact that websites of the conventional media are the dominant online medium used to seek news gratifications among our informants could further explain the complementing interaction between the online and conventional media in the whole news consumption process.

The dominant use of news websites for news could indicate that for one reason or the other, the informants prefer the conventional news media but, as indicated in their dominant use of mobile phone to access news, they need the news of those conventional media on-the-go. This may imply that those who prefer to access news online media also get exposed to news details, but they seem not to have the patience to access those details. Therefore, the extent to which news gratifications sought are obtained depends on a complementary role of the media which must supply details to news and that of the news consumers who must be ready to access the news details. Since news details are more associated with the conventional media, and the conventional have also migrated to the online in the contemporary era of media convergence, both the online and conventional media can be said to still be playing complementary role in the news consumption process.

Besides, findings indicate that both the online and conventional media have relative advantages over each other in news consumption. As such, each of them plays a given role in the news gratifications process. The online media are especially good for their speed of delivering news while the conventional media are especially desirable for details.

The issue of complementary media role in news consumption can be further articulated from the study's findings. Even though there is a significant difference among the ethnic groups in their NGS, no significant difference is found among them in their usage of each of the online and conventional media for news. It does mean that the three ethnic groups use the same types of media to gratify different news needs. When this conclusion is juxtaposed with the finding that there is a positive relationship between the NGS and NGO, it could be further concluded that a particular media can give satisfaction to different needs of different users. The general implication of all these findings is that, news consumers are disinterested about the medium. In other words, it is the motive that drives media choice for news consumption and not the media types (Dutta-Bergman, 2004). This conclusion is given a more concrete support by Dutta-Bergman's findings that in the United States, those who followed sports news in the new media complement that by also looking for sports news in the old media. Given all the findings and conclusions above, we will tend to align with the media scholars who opine that online and conventional media are playing complimentary role in news consumption. In other words, the online media have not displaced the traditional, conventional media as sources of news.. This conclusion tallies with previous findings that the relationship

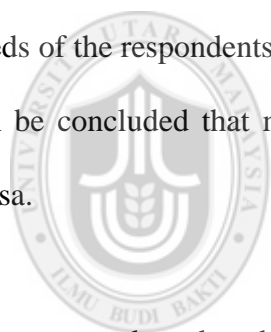
between the online and the conventional media in the news consumption process is still complementary (see Boczkowski & Micheistein, 2010; Chan & Leung, 2005; Chyi & Larorsa, 2002; Flavian & Gurrea, 2007; Hujanen & Pietikainen, 2004; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000; Livingstone & Markham, 2008; Nguyen & Western, 2007).

6.3.2 Relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups in Nigeria

We found a positive significant relationship between the NGS and the NGO. The positive relationship that has been found to exist between NGS and NGO is consistent with findings of previous studies. In their investigation of relationship between gratifications sought (GS) from television news and gratifications obtained (GO) from network evening news programs (Palmgreen et al (1980) found each GS correlated moderately to strongly with its corresponding GO. Similarly, in his examination of the role of gratifications sought (GS) and gratifications obtained (GO) in predicting dependency on network evening news programs and *60 Minutes*, Weiner(1982) found GS to be most strongly correlated to corresponding GO. Dimmick et al (2004) found news in the internet to provide satisfaction to the news consumers. In a more recent study, though not directly related to news, Johnson and Yang (2009) compared the gratifications sought for using twitter with the gratifications obtained after using the medium. A correlated *t* tests showed statistically significant mean differences between gratifications sought and gratifications obtained. Similarly, Barton (2009) found a correlation between

gratifications sought for a specific TV show and the gratifications obtained by the viewers. Much more recent study by Keppler (2014) found a significant positive relationship between the gratifications sought from and gratifications obtained in Facebook by church members.

The respondents were found to differ in NGS based on difference in ethnic identities. Yet they obtain these different gratifications as indicated by the positive relationship between NGS and NGO. Since it is only the online media that are found to significantly relate with NGO in this study, it means that the online media are able to give satisfaction to different news needs. In other words, since the different news needs of the respondents relatively converge in one media category (online media), it can be concluded that news motives inform the choice of the media and not vice versa.



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But as noted under the discussion of hypotheses on media usage above, the interaction of the two broad media categories (online and conventional media) in the news consumption process is more dynamic than the simple, one-way situation that the quantitative data are suggesting. As usual, our qualitative data provide more insight into the quantitative finding on the relationship between NGS and NGO vis-avis media types. The degree of obtaining the news gratifications that are sought among our informants is a function of how much detail that is in the news. And conventional media were believed to have relative advantage of providing these

news details even though such news details can be accessed in the websites (online version) of these conventional media.

6.3.3 Ethnic migration influence on news gratifications obtained (NGO) among the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Ibo ethnic groups

Ethnic migration was found to have a significant positive relationship with NGO. It was also found that ethnic migration has a moderating effect on the relationship between NGS and NGO. These findings are consistent with findings of previous studies that migration plays a significant role in media usage. In his study of news consumption among migrants in Europe, Christainsen (2004) found that diaspora is a factor in news consumption behaviour. The migrants had broader news habit and were critical of local news media. Similarly, Lee and Tse (1994) had found the quality of media usage of HongKong migrants to Canada to be affected by the cultural migration. Media exposure was found to significantly relate to immigrants' acculturation of the new social norms which was found to be a function of the immigrants' original ethnic media behaviours and language ability. In Shi's (2005) ethnography, Chinese migrants to United States express change in media use compared to when they were at home: watching news about home for Josh is almost like 'watching dramas. It would be quite different if you were home and experienced and felt it yourself' (p.63).

Such influence that environment has on news consumption is much expected on the Nigerian ethnic landscape where there is a sharp divide among the major ethnic

groups not only in behaviours and personalities but also in the geographical settings where each of the groups predominantly resides. The North, the East and the West form a delicate geographical triangle connecting the Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba ethnic groups respectively. Each of these three geographies has strict personality not only in terms of such ethnic characteristics like language, religion and culture but also in terms of characteristics of development/underdevelopment, notably in electricity supply. Tele-communications and other infrastructural facilities. Nothing seems to be a common denominator. As such, whenever inter-ethnic migration occurs, these factors severally or collectively do influence the ethnic identity of the migrants somehow. In other words, ethnic identities of Hausa/Fulani, Ibo and Yoruba in Nigeria project sharp ethnic personalities which reflect in difference in behaviours including news consumption. But such difference is often moderated by ethnic migration prompted by the strict personality of ethnic locations.

6.4 Conclusion

This study has enriched the body of literature on news consumption, particularly from the theoretical perspective of uses and gratifications. Ethnicity as a predictor of news usage has been further explored from a peculiar context of intra-national ethnic diversity, an approach that is rare in U&G literature. In the course of making this theoretical contribution, this study filled some methodological gap in the study of media uses and gratifications through the use of a mixed method. Quantitative survey is dominant in the study of ethnic news usage with some qualitative approach dotting these studies of ethnic news consumption from the theoretical perspective of

U&G. Combination of both paradigms to study ethnic news consumption is rare in U&G literature.

Perhaps, more novel as a contribution to U & G theory is the examination of migration as a moderating variable in ethnic news usage. We examined the moderating influence only on the relationship between news gratifications sought (NGS) and news gratifications obtained (NGO). Further studies on ethnic news usage can test such moderating role of migration on other path relationships in the U&G model.

Studies on ethnic news usage have rarely examined the correlation between news gratifications sought and news gratifications obtained. This study has found a significant positive relationship between the two, which also becomes a basis for further studies. Perhaps more theoretically challenging is our finding on the relationship between each of the two major categories of media (online and conventional media) and the news gratification obtained. Previous studies have seemingly scratched the issue on the surface by examining just the media structure in relation to news satisfaction. This is expected given the dominance of use of quantitative method in past studies on news gratifications. Through our use of mixed method, comparison between the extent to which news gratification sought in the online media are obtained and the extent to which news gratifications sought in the conventional media are obtained produces a clearer, balanced picture of the relationship between media and news satisfaction. Our findings indicate an overlap

of the two media categories in terms of news satisfaction. Further studies on uses and gratifications can produce clearer understanding of news issues with mixed method approach.

6.5 Theoretical Implications of Study

This study set out to explore and understand the news consumption of the major ethnic groups in Nigeria through a uses and gratifications theoretical approach. Both quantitative and qualitative findings of this study show that ethnic differences among Nigerians predict their news consumption. Therefore, in the context of this study, the postulate of Uses and Gratifications Theory that social identities predict how people use the media has been given further empirical validation.

In addition, the finding of this study that significant positive relationship exists between news gratifications sought and news gratifications obtained has further enriched the methodological approach of Uses and Gratifications Theory that there is absolute discrepancy between media gratifications sought by consumers and the media gratifications they eventually obtained. The need for the gratifications sought and gratifications obtained to be addressed separately in media gratifications study as postulated by the Uses and Gratifications theory has been further justified.

6.6 Recommendations

Studies of news usage in ethnic settings need to adopt more of qualitative approach. Indepth interview, particularly, can help to capture the true relationship between and

among variables of news consumption among ethnic groups. For example, the issue of media types and contents being variables of gratifications obtained in news consumption needs to be qualitatively explored further to be able to determine more realistically whether it is the media types or contents or both that determine satisfaction from news. Is NGO a function of more of attention to news (details or contents) or more of prominence of news (form or exposure). Besides, the issue of ethnic migration moderating gender influence on news usage can also be adequately investigated through this approach.

Tied to the recommendation above is the need for more qualitative studies on news gratifications with a view to identifying more gratifications for news that are not presently captured in the traditional typologies of media gratifications. One of our respondents doesn't really go out to seek news because 'most of the news are not realistic. And when he was asked what does sometimes bring him to news, he said just "to confirm if what I have heard from (non-mediated sources) is true." This means that the need to reinforce non-mediated news may be a potential form of news gratification in either the online or conventional media or both.

Ethnic identity has been found by this study not be an absolute predictor of news usage with ethnic migration having a moderating influence. Further studies of ethnic news consumption can explore more moderating variables.

One of our respondents uses WhatsApp for news gratifications. Studies on how WhatsApp is used for news consumption are rare. Like other online media whose

usage for news consumption has been explored in previous studies, further studies can explore how WhatsApp is used for news consumption.

Our qualitative data indicate that public TV stations in Nigeria are more prone to ownership interference. Empirical studies can explore *how* public media can be made more independent in Nigeria. This could serve as a basis for evolving a more robust government policy that will promote professionalism in the public broadcasting sector in particular and in the Nigerian media industry in general.



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