CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research was concerned with the concepts, theories, and related theses indicated by the outline below:

1. Graduate Students of Kasetsart University

    1.1 Graduate Students Organization

    1.2 GSO.Journal: Graduate Students Organizational Journal

2. Mass Communication

    2.1 Mass media

        2.1.1 Printed Media

            - Newspaper
            - Book
            - Magazine
            - Journal

3. Relevant Concepts and Theories

    3.1 Concepts and theories of media Exposure

        3.1.1 Uses and gratification theory

        3.1.2 Concept of Audience Analysis

3.2 Satisfactions

3.3 Information concepts and Theories

3.3.1 Information Need

3.3.2 Information Seeking

4. Relevant Researches

Graduate Students of Kasetsart University

Graduate Students of Kasetsart University can be considered as an important human resource in Thailand. They are expected to actively seek information to develop themselves and their society, as well.

While studying in the university, they have to be updated with the information about education news, activities, announcements from graduate school, research articles, among others. These are of primary importance to students' lives.

1. Graduate Student Organization is the representative of the Kasetsart University Graduate Students pursuing graduate studies in KU's Graduate School. They plan the activities to develop, serve and facilitate the studies of Kasetsart graduate students.

2. Graduate Student Organizational (GSO) Journal has been published by the Graduate Students Organization for almost a year to provide graduate students with news and important information about activities and services of the Graduate Students Organization, knowledge in form of articles, and some regulations of Graduate School that KU Graduate Students should know.

Mass Communication

Mass Communication is the term used to describe the academic study of various means by which individuals and entities relay information to large segments of the population all at once through mass media.

In the United States, many university journalism departments evolved into schools or colleges of mass communication or "journalism and mass communication," as reflected in the names of two major academic organizations. In addition to studying practical skills of jouralism, public relations or advertising, students also may major in "mass communication" or "mass communication research." The latter is often the title given to doctoral studies in such schools, whether the focus of the student's research is journalism practice, history, law or media effects. Departmental structures within such colleges may separate research and instruction in professional or technical aspects of newspaper and magazine publishing, radio, television, and film. Mass communication research includes media institutions and processes, such as diffusion of information, and media effects, such as persuasion or manipulation of public opinion.

With the Internet's increased role in delivering news and information, mass communication studies-and media organizations-have increasingly focused on the convergence of publishing, broadcasting and digital communication.

The Interactive Media sequence in the Mass Communication major helps students discover the many facets of how computer and web design have significantly changed the international landscape.

Students interested in visual design elements, computer layout and similar areas often find careers in web design, computer message design consulting, digital photography layout and similar areas.

Significant course-work in this sequence includes: Communication Technologies and Impacts, Graphic Communication, Photography, Non-Broadcast Television, Media Ethics, and Media Regulations.

1. Mass media are a term used to denote, as a class, that section of the media specifically conceived and designed to reach a very large audience (typically at least as large as the whole population of a nation state). It was coined in the 1920s with the advent of nationwide radio networks and of mass-circulation newspapers and magazines. The mass-media audience has been viewed by some commentators as forming a mass society with special characteristics, notably atomization or lack of social connections, which render it especially susceptible to the influence of modern mass-media techniques such as advertising and propaganda. It is also gaining popularity in the blogosphere when referring to the mainstream media.

Purposes of Mass Media

Mass media purposes for this follows;

1. Advocacy, both for business and social concerns. This can include advertising, marketing, propaganda, public relations, and political communication.

2. Enrichment and education, such as literature

3. Entertainment, traditionally through performances of acting, music, and sports, along with light reading; since the late 20th century also through video and computer games.

4. Journalism

5. Public service announcements

Forms of Mass Media

Electronic media and print media including as follows;

1. Broadcasting, in the narrow sense, for radio and television

2. Various types of discs or tape. In the 20th century, these were mainly used for music. Video and computer uses followed.

3. Film, most often used for entertainment, but also for documentaries.

4. Internet, which has many uses and presents both opportunities and challenges. Blogs are unique to the Internet.

5. Publishing, in the narrow sense, meaning on paper, mainly via books, magazines, and newspapers.

Toward the end of the 20th century, the advent of the World Wide Web marked the first era in which any individual could have a means of exposure on a scale comparable to that of mass media. For the first time, anyone with a web site can address a global audience, although serving to high levels of web traffic is still relatively expensive. It is possible that the rise of peer-to-peer technologies may have begun the process of making the cost of bandwidth manageable. Although a vast amount of information, imagery, and commentary (i.e. "content") has been made available, it is often difficult to determine the authenticity and reliability of information contained in (in many cases, self-published) web pages. The invention of the Internet has also allowed breaking news stories to reach around the globe within minutes. This rapid growth of instantaneous, decentralized communication is often deemed likely to change mass media and its relationship to society.

1.1 Printed Media is an industrial Process for production of text and images, typically with ink on paper using a printing press. It is an essential part of publishing and transaction printing.

Printing was first conceived and developed in China. Primitive *Woodblock printing* was already in use by the 6th century. The oldest surviving book printed using the more sophisticated block printing dates from 868 AD (The *Diamond Sutra* of AD 868, a Buddhist scripture). The movable type printer was invented by Pi Sheng in 1040. The movable type metal printing press was invented in Korea between 1234 and 1241. By the 12th and 13th century many Arabic and Chinese libraries contained tens of thousands of printed books.

There is little direct evidence, but it is highly probable that Chinese printing technology diffused into Europe through trade links that went through India and on through the Arabic world. Johann Gutenberg, of the German city of Mainz, developed European printing technology in 1440. Johann Fust and Peter Schöffer experimented with him at Mainz. Basing the design of his machine on a wine press, Gutenberg developed the use of raised and movable type, and from the start used oil-based inks.

This development of the printing press revolutionized the spread of knowledge: a printing press was built in Venice in 1469, and the city had 417 printers by 1500. In 1476, a printing press was developed in England by William Caxton; in 1539, the Italian Juan Pablos set up an imported press in Mexico City, Mexico. Stephen Day built the first printing press in North America at Massachusetts Bay in 1628, and helped establish the Cambridge Press.

In *Prints and Visual Communication*, William Ivins offers the following concise history of a series of rapid innovations in image and type printing at the end of the eighteenth century:

At the end of the eighteenth century there were several remarkable innovations in the graphic techniques and those that were utilized to make their materials. Bewick developed the

method of using engraving tools on the end of the wood. Senefelder discovered lithography. Blake made relief etchings. Early in the nineteenth century Stanhope, George E. Clymer, Koenig and others introduced new kinds of type presses, which for strength surpassed anything that had previously been known.

Books and newspapers are usually printed today using the technique of offset printing. Other common printing techniques include relief print, (which is principally used for catalogues), screen printing, rotogravure, and digital-based inkjet and laser printing. The largest commercial and industrial printer in the world is Montréal, Quebec-based Quebecor World.

Publishing is the activity of putting information into the public arena. Traditionally, the term refers to the distribution of printed works such as books and newspapers. With the advent of digital information systems and the Internet, the scope of publishing has expanded to include websites, blogs, and other forms of new media. As a business, publishing includes the development, marketing, production, and distribution of news and non-fiction magazines and books, literary works, musical works, software, and so on.

This article is concerned with the production of books, magazines, and other literary material (whether in printed or electronic formats). The publication of software is covered in software publishing. Publication is also important as a legal concept; (1) as the process of giving formal notice to the world of a significant intention, for example, to marry or enter bankruptcy, and; (2) as the essential precondition of being able to claim defamation; that is, the alleged libel must have been published.

The Process of Publishing

Publishing involves the following process:

1. Author/agent submission Publishers spend a significant proportion of their time buying or commissioning content. At a small press, it is possible to survive by relying entirely on

commissioned material but, as activity increases, the need for content may outstrip the publisher's established circle of authors, so the door is open for others to submit material for consideration. The majority of unsolicited submissions come from previously unpublished authors. Such manuscripts must go through the slush pile, which acquisitions editors sift through to identify manuscripts of sufficient quality or revenue potential to be referred to the editorial staff. Authors who are represented by a literary agent are more likely to succeed with major publishers. Publishers thrive only when they are able to produce and sell books that match the needs of the target readers.

2. Acceptance/negotiation Once a work is accepted; the commissioning editors negotiate the purchase of intellectual property (IP) rights and agree royalty rates.

3. The authors of traditional printed materials sell exclusive territorial IP rights that match the list of states in which distribution is proposed (i.e. the rights match the legal systems under which copyright protections can be enforced). In the case of books, the publisher must also agree on the intended formats of publication-mass market paperback, trade paperback and hardback are the most common options.

3.1. The situation is slightly more complex if electronic formatting is to be used. Where distribution is to be by CD-R or other physical media, there is no reason to treat this form differently from a hard-copy format and a territorial copyright is an acceptable approach. But the possibility of internet download without the ability to restrict physical distribution within national boundaries presents legal problems that are usually solved by selling language/translation rights rather than territorial rights. Thus, internet access across the European Union is relatively open because of the laws forbidding discrimination based on nationality, but the fact of publication in, say, French, limits the target market to those who read French.

3.2. Having agreed on the scope of the publication and the formats, the parties must then agree royalty rates, i.e. the percentage of the gross retail price that will be paid to the author. This is a difficult risk management exercise because the publisher must estimate the

potential sales in each market and balance projected revenue against production costs.

4. Editorial stage once the immediate commercial decisions are taken and the technical legal issues resolved, the author may be asked to improve the quality of the work through rewrite(s) or the in-house staff will edit the work. Almost all publishers operate a house style, and staff will copy edit to ensure that the work matches the style and grammatical requirements of each market.

5. Pre-press When a final text is agreed, the next phases are design (i.e. artwork is commissioned, layout is confirmed, etc.) and preparing the work for printing (i.e. typesetting, dust jacket composition, specification of paper quality, binding method and casing, and proofreading). The activities of typesetting, page layout, the production of negatives, plates from the negatives and, for hardbacks, the preparation of brasses for the spine legend and imprint are now all computerised. The final act before sending the work to the printer is to output the PostScript files. If the target is electronic distribution, the final files are saved as PDF files or other formats appropriate to the target operating systems of the hardware used for reading.

1.1.1 Newspaper is a publication containing news and information and advertising, usually printed on low-cost paper called newsprint. It may be general or special interest, most often published daily or weekly. The first printed newspaper was published in 1605.

The newspaper industry survived competition from 20th-century technologies, especially radio and television, but 21st-century developments on the Internet are posing major threats.

General-interest newspapers are usually journals of current news. Those can include political events, crime, business, sports, and opinions (either editorials, columns, or political cartoons). Many also include weather news and forecasts. Newspapers use photographs to illustrate stories; use editorial cartoonists, usually to illustrate writing that is

opinion, rather than news; and also often include comic strips and other entertainment, such as crosswords and horoscopes.

A daily newspaper is issued every day, often with the exception of Sundays and some national holidays. Saturday, and where they exist Sunday, editions of daily newspapers tend to be large, include more specialized sections, and cost more.

Weekly newspapers are also common and tend to be smaller and less prestigious than daily papers. However, those Sunday newspapers that do not have weekday editions are not considered to be weekly newspapers, and are generally equivalent in size and prestige to daily newspapers.

Most nations have at least one newspaper that circulates throughout the whole country: a national newspaper, as contrasted with a local newspaper serving a city or region. In the United States and Canada, there are few truly national newspapers, with the notable exceptions of USA Today in the United States and The Globe and Mail and The National Post in Canada. Large metropolitan newspapers with expanded distribution networks such as The New York Times, The Washington Post, and The Toronto Star can fill the role of de facto national newspapers.

The owner of the newspaper, or person in charge, is the publisher. The person responsible for content is the editor, editor in chief, or executive editor.

Newspapers have been developed around very narrow topic areas, such as news for merchants in a specific industry, fans of particular sports, fans of the arts or of specific artists, and participants in the same sorts of activities or lifestyles.

Most modern newspapers are in one of three sizes:

1) Broadsheets: 600mm by 380mm (23½ by 15 inches), generally associated with more intellectual newspapers, although a trend towards 'compact' newspapers is changing this.

2) Tabloids: half the size of broadsheets at 380mm by 300mm (15 by 11¾ inches), and often perceived as sensationalist in contrast to broadsheets.

3) Berliner or midi: 470mm by 315mm (18½ by 12¼ inches) used by European papers such as *Le Monde* in France, *La Stampa* in Italy or, from 12 September 2005, *The Guardian* in the United Kingdom.

Newspapers are usually printed on inexpensive, off-white paper known as newsprint. Since the 1980s, the newspaper industry has largely moved away from lower-quality letterpress printing to higher-quality, four-color process, offset printing. In addition, desktop computers, word processing software, graphics software, digital cameras and digital prepress and typesetting technologies have revolutionized the newspaper production process. These technologies have enabled newspaper to make publish color photographs and graphics, as well as innovative layouts and better design.

To help their titles stand out on newsstands, some newspapers are printed on coloured newsprint. For example, the *Financial Times* is printed on a distinctive salmon pink paper, the Italian sports newspaper *La Gazzetta dello Sport* is printed on pink paper, while *L'quipe* (formerly *L'Auto*) is printed on yellow paper. Both the latter promoted major cycling races and their newsprint colours were reflected in the colours of the jerseys used to denote the race leader; thus, the leader in the Giro d'Italia wears a pink jersey, while the Tour de France leader wears a yellow jersey, or maillot jaune.

Since newspapers began as a journal (record of current events), the profession involved in the making of newspapers began to be called journalism. Much emphasis has been placed upon the accuracy and fairness of the journalist.

In the yellow journalism era of the 19th century, many newspapers in the United States relied on sensational stories that were meant to anger or excite the public, rather than to inform. The more restrained style of reporting that relies on fact checking and accuracy regained popularity around World War II.

Criticism of journalism is varied and sometimes vehement. Credibility is questioned because of anonymous sources; errors in facts, spelling, and grammar; real or perceived bias; and scandals involving plagiarism and fabrication.

In the past newspapers have often been owned by so-called press barons, and were used either as a rich man's toy, or used as a political tool. More recently in the United States, a greater number of newspapers (and all of the largest ones) are being run by large media corporations such as Gannett (the largest in the United States) Cox, The Tribune Company, etc. Many industry watchers have concerns that the growing need for profit growth natural to corporations will have a negative impact on the overall quality of journalism.

Even though the opinions of the owners are often relegated to the editorial section, and the opinions of the readers are in the op-ed ("opposite the editorial page") and letters to the editors sections of the paper, newspapers have been used for political purposes by insinuating some kind of bias outside of the editorial section and into straight news. For example, The New York Times is often criticised for a leftist slant to its stories, or, by others, for supporting the American political establishment in nearly all cases, whereas The Wall Street Journal has a history of emphasising the position of the right.

Some ways newspapers have tried to improve their credibility are: appointing ombudsmen, developing ethics policies and training, using more stringent corrections policies, communicating their processes and rationale with readers, and asking sources to review articles after publication. Many larger newspapers are now using more aggressive random fact-checking to further improve the chances that false information will be found before it is printed. (The Basic of Journalism, 1997)

The future of newspapers is cloudy, with overall readership slowly declining in most developed countries due to increasing competition from television and the Internet. The 57th annual World Newspaper Congress, held in Istanbul in June 2004, reported circulation increases in only 35 of 208 countries studied. Most of the increase came in developing countries, notably China.

A report at the gathering indicated that China tops total newspaper circulation, with more than 85 million copies of papers sold every day, followed by India with 72 million-China and India are the two most populous countries in the world-followed by Japan with 70 million and the United States with 55 million. The report said circulation declined by an average of 2.2 percent across 13 of the 15 countries that made up the European Union before May 1. The biggest declines were in Ireland, down 7.8 percent; Britain, down 4.7 percent; and Portugal, where numbers fell by 4.0 percent. One growth area is the distribution of free newspapers, which are not reflected in the above circulation data. Led by the Metro chain of newspapers, they grew 16 percent in 2003.

Another growth area is high-quality tabloids, particularly in the UK, where several of the major broadsheets are experimenting with the format (see Broadsheet#Switch to smaller sizes). Smaller and easier to hold than broadsheets, but presenting serious journalism rather than traditional tabloid fodder, they appear to have drawn some younger readers who are otherwise abandoning newspapers.

Newspapers also face increased competition from the Internet for classified ads, especially for jobs, real estate, and cars, which have long been a key source of revenue.

1.1.2 Book is a collection of leaves of paper, parchment or other material, bound together along one edge within covers. A book is also a literary work or a main division of such a work. A book produced in electronic format is known as an e-book.

In library and information science, a book is called a monograph to distinguish it from serial publications such as magazines, journals or newspapers.

Publishers may produce low-cost, pre-proof editions known as galleys for promotional purposes, such as generating reviews in advance of publication. Galleys are usually made as cheaply as possible, since they are not intended for sale.

A lover of books is usually referred to as a bibliophile, a bibliophilist, or a philobiblist, or, more informally, a bookworm.

A book may be studied by students in the form of a book report. It may also be covered by a professional writer as a book review to introduce a new book.

The oral account (word of mouth, tradition, hearsay) is the oldest carrier of messages and stories. When writing systems were invented in ancient civilizations, clay tablets or parchment scrolls were used as, for example, in the library of Alexandria.

Scrolls were later phased out in favor of the codex, a bound book with pages and a spine, the form of most books today. The codex was invented in the first few centuries A.D. or earlier. Some have said that Julius Caesar invented the first codex during the Gallic Wars. He would issue scrolls folded up accordion style and use the "pages" as reference points.

Before the invention and adoption of the printing press, almost all books were copied by hand, which made books comparatively expensive and rare. During the early Middle Ages, when only churches, universities, and rich noblemen could typically afford books, they were often chained to a bookshelf or a desk to prevent theft. The first books used parchment or vellum (calf skin) for the pages, which was later replaced with paper.

In the mid 15th century books began to be produced by block printing in Western Europe (the technique had been known in the East centuries earlier). In block printing, a relief image of an entire page was carved out of wood. It could then be inked and used to reproduce many copies of that page. Creating an entire book, however, was a painstaking process, requiring a hand-carved block for each page. Also, the wood blocks were not terribly durable and could easily wear out or crack.

The oldest dated book printed by the method of block printing is The Diamond Sutra. There is a wood block printed copy in the British Library which, although not the earliest example of block printing, is the earliest example which bears an actual date. It was found in 1907 by the archaeologist Sir Marc Aurel Stein in a walled-up cave near Dunhuang, in northwest China. The colophon, at the inner end, reads: Reverently [caused to be] made for universal free distribution by Wang Jie on behalf of his two parents on the 13th of the 4th moon of the 9th year of Xiantong.

The Chinese inventor Pi Sheng made moveable type of earthenware circa 1045, but we have no surviving examples of his printing. He embedded the characters, face up, in a shallow tray lined with warm wax. He laid a board across them and pressed it down until all the characters were at exactly the same level. When the wax cooled he used his letter tray to print whole pages.

It was not until Johann Gutenberg popularized the printing press with metal moveable type in the 15th century that books started to be affordable and widely available. This upset the status quo, leading to remarks such as "The printing press will allow books to get into the hands of people who have no business reading books." It is estimated that in Europe about 1,000 various books were created per year before the invention of the printing press.

With the rise of printing in the fifteenth century, books were published in limited numbers and were quite valuable. The need to protect these precious commodities was evident. One of the earliest references to the use of bookmarks was in 1584 when the Queen's

Printer, Christopher Barker, presented Queen Elizabeth I with a fringed silk bookmark. Common bookmarks in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were narrow silk ribbons bound into the book at the top of the spine and extended below the lower edge of the page. The first detachable bookmarks began appearing in the 1850's and were made from silk or embroidered fabrics. Not until the 1880's, did paper and other materials become more common.

The following centuries were spent on improving both the printing press and the conditions for freedom of the press through the gradual relaxation of restrictive censorship laws. See also intellectual property, public domain, copyright. In mid-20th century, Europe book production has risen to over 200,000 titles per year.

Depending of book's purpose or type (i.e. Encyclopedia , Dictionary, Textbook, Monograph) structure could vary, but some common (traditional) structural parts of the book usually are:

1. Book cover (hard or soft, fancy-looking, with illustration)
2. Title page (shows title and author, often with small illustration)
3. Metrics page
4. (sometimes - dedication page)
5. Table of contents
6. Preface
7. Text of contents of that book
8. Index (publishing)
9. Back cover (hard or soft, fancy-looking, with illustration)

Maintaining a library used to be the privilege of princes, the wealthy, monasteries and other religious institutions, and universities. The growth of a public library system in the United States started in the late 19th century and was much helped by donations from Andrew Carnegie. This reflected classes in a society: The poor or the middle class had to

share most books through a public library or by other means while the rich could afford to have a private library built into their homes.

The advent of paperback books in the 20th century led to an explosion of popular publishing. Paperback books made owning books affordable for many people. Paperback books often included works from genres that had previously been published mostly in pulp magazines. As a result of the low cost of such books and the spread of bookstores filled with them (in addition to the creation of a smaller market of extremely cheap used paperbacks) owning a private library ceased to be a status symbol for the rich.

While a small collection of books, or one to be used by a small number of people, can be stored in any way convenient to the owners, a large or public collection requires a catalogue and some means of consulting it. Often codes or other marks have to be added to the books to speed the process of relating them to the catalogue and their correct shelf position. Where these identify a volume uniquely, they are referred to as "call numbers". In large libraries this call number is usually based on a Library classification system. The call number is placed inside the book and on the spine of the book, normally a short distance before the bottom, in accordance with institutional or national standards such as ANSI/NISO Z39.41 - 1997. This short (7 pages) standard also establishes the correct way to place information (such as the title or the name of the author) on book spines and on "shelvable" book-like objects such as containers for DVDs, video tapes and software. (Dervin, et al, 1972)

In library and booksellers' catalogues, it is common to include an abbreviation such as "Crown 8vo" to indicate the paper size from which the book is made. When rows of books are lined on a bookshelf, bookends are sometimes needed to keep them from slanting.

1.1.3 Magazine is a periodical publication containing a variety of articles, generally financed by advertising and/or purchase by readers.

Magazines are typically published weekly, biweekly, monthly, bimonthly or quarterly, with a date on the cover that is in advance of the date it is actually published. They are often printed in color on coated paper, and are bound with a soft cover.

Magazines fall into two broad categories: consumer magazines and business magazines. In practice, magazines are a subset of periodicals, distinct from those periodicals produced by scientific, artistic, academic or special interest publishers which are subscription-only, more expensive, narrowly limited in circulation, and often have little or no advertising.

Consumer magazines are aimed at the public and are usually available through retail outlets. They range from general-interest titles such as *Time*, *Esquire* and *Cosmopolitan*, which appeal to a broad spectrum of readers, to highly specialist titles covering particular hobbies, leisure pursuits or other interests. Among the hundreds or thousands of topics covered by specialist magazines are, for example, computer games, fishing, particular marques of automobile, particular kinds of music, and particular political interests.

While most of these magazines are available in the whole of the country in which they are published, some are specific to a local area, and a relatively small number are available internationally-often through localised editions so that, for example, the copy of *Maxim* bought in the USA does not contain the exact same articles as the edition on sale in the UK. Some, such as *TV Guide* are even tailored for local markets within a country. Most make the bulk of their money from advertising, and earn a smaller amount from the purchase price paid by readers; a few are free.

A subset of the consumer magazine is the customer magazine, a publication similar in format and style to a consumer magazine but issued by an organisation such as a club, a retailer or an airline to communicate with its customers. Such magazines are usually free to the reader; the quantity of advertising that they carry varies greatly; and their circulations

range from very small to very large-in some countries customer magazines are among the highest-circulation of all magazines.

The other broad category of magazine is the business magazine, sometimes called a *trade magazine* or *B2B (business-to-business) magazine*. These publications carry news and other information relevant to a particular profession or industry. Some are sold through retail outlets, and indeed some of the most general such as *Forbes* and *Business Week* are in many respects similar to the current-affairs-oriented consumer magazines.

However, many business magazines are available only, or predominantly, on subscription. In some cases these subscriptions are available to any person prepared to pay; in others, free subscriptions are available to readers who meet a set of criteria established by the publisher. This practice, known as *controlled circulation*, is intended to guarantee to advertisers that the readership is relevant to their needs. Very often the two models, of paid-for subscriptions and controlled circulation, are mixed. Advertising is also an important source of revenue for business magazines.

Although similar to a magazine in some respects, an academic periodical featuring scholarly articles written in a more specialist register is usually called an "academic journal". Such publications typically carry little or no advertising.

Periodical is the word usually used to describe magazines, journals, newspapers, newsletters, and anything else that is published in regular intervals for an indefinite period of time, but serial is sometimes used, especially in library and information science.

Many weekend newspapers incorporate magazine supplements, such as Parade and LIFE in its most recent incarnation, both in the USA, and the Sunday Times Magazine in the UK.

The Gentleman's Magazine, first published in 1731, is considered to be the first general-interest magazine. The oldest magazine still in print is The Scots Magazine, which was first published in 1739, though multiple changes in ownership and gaps in publication totaling over 90 years weaken that claim.

The most widely distributed magazine in the world is The Watchtower Announcing Jehovah's Kingdom (founded in 1879). Its worldwide circulation including all editions comprises 26.5 million copies.

1.1.4 Journal

Sundaram (1996) said Journal (through French from late Latin *diurnalis*, daily) is a daily record of events or business. A private journal is usually an elaborated diary. When applied to a newspaper or other periodical the word is strictly used of one published each day; but any publication issued at stated intervals, such as a magazine or the record of the transactions of a learned society (a scientific or other academic journal), is commonly called a journal. "Journal", then, is sometimes used as a synonym for "magazine". The word "journalist" for one whose business is writing for the public press has been in use since the end of the 17th century.

"Journal" is particularly applied to the record, day by day, of the business and proceedings of a public body. The journals of the British houses of parliament contain an official record of the business transacted day by day in either house. The record does not take note of speeches, though some of the earlier volumes contain references to them. The journals are a lengthened account written from the "votes and proceedings" (in the House of Lords called "minutes of the proceedings"), made day by day by the assistant clerks, and printed on the responsibility of the clerk to the house, after submission to the "subcommittee on the journals." In the Commons the journal is passed by the Speaker before publication. The journals of the British House of Commons begin in the first year of the reign of Edward VI (1547), and are complete, except for a short interval under Elizabeth I. Those of the House of Lords date from the first year

of Henry VIII. (1509). Before that date the proceedings in parliament were entered in the rolls of parliament, which extend from 1278 to 1503. The journals of the Lords are "records" in the judicial sense, those of the Commons are not.

There have many definitions of Journal which appeared on the internet media;

- diary: a daily written record of (usually personal) experiences and observations / a periodical dedicated to a particular subject; "he reads the medical journals" / daybook: a ledger in which transactions have been recorded as they occurred / a record book as a physical object / the part of the axle contained by a bearing (wordnet.princeton.edu/perl/webwn)

- A journal (through French from late Latin diurnalis, daily) is a daily record of events or business. A private journal is usually an elaborated diary. When applied to a newspaper or other periodical the word is strictly used of one published each day; but any publication issued at stated intervals, such as a magazine or the record of the transactions of a learned society (a scientific or other academic journal), is commonly called a journal. (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Journal)

- * In publishing, the term journal means a scientific journal or literary periodical devoted to a specific subject (such as a literary journal) (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Journal_(disambiguation))

- a periodical publication in which researchers report the results of their work to their peer community; compare with magazine. Articles are reviewed by an editorial board of scholars in the field prior to acceptance for publication (see also refereed journal), and generally include an abstract and numerous citations to previous work. The writing style in journals is formal rather than engaging, and journals generally have little or no advertising or glossy, catchy graphics and illustrations. (www.amberton.edu/VL_terms.htm) .

- A publication which has scholarly information, usually written by professors, researchers, or experts in a subject area., and not intended for the general public. See magazine. (www.lib.umich.edu/science/instruction/glossary.html)

- A type of periodical, often issued by a society or institution, containing news, proceedings, transactions and articles about work carried out in a particular discipline. Intended for a scholarly audience. These are often refereed (see below) by a committee of peer reviewers. (www.lib.uconn.edu/using/tutorials/instruction/glossary.htm)

- The official publication that records the legislative proceedings of each chamber, including record vote information. The journal of each house is printed daily in pamphlet form and subsequently compiled and indexed for publication in bound volumes after the conclusion of a regular or special session of the legislature. (www.capitol.state.tx.us/tlo/resources/glossary.htm)

- A publication that contains scholarly articles written either by professors, researchers, or experts in a subject area. An abstract and a bibliography often appear with each article. (www.lib.auburn.edu/bi/glossary.html)

- Periodical, especially one containing scholarly articles and/or disseminating current information of research and development in a particular subject field. (lib.sdstate.edu/salonen/terminol.htm)

- A magazine published by an institution or professional society. It is more scholarly than a magazine found at a local newsstand or drug store. (www.njcu.edu/Guarini/Instructions/ILTutorial/Glossary.htm)

- A periodical collection of articles or other material such as reports, proceedings, or transactions issued by a society, an organization, or an institution. (www.mercy.edu/libraries/libraryvocabularySGN904.htm)

- A publication issued in successive parts, intended to be continued indefinitely. Typically, a periodical contains a collection of articles by different authors, often in a particular subject area. Journals are also known as Periodicals and Serials. (www.utas.edu.au/library/etutor/main/webzglos.htm)

- A scholarly publication containing information written by experts on current research in a given field. (Finding Scholarly Journals) (www.maag.ysu.edu/help/def.html)

- The edited record of all the proceedings on the floors of both houses, published after each legislative session. (www.leg.state.or.us/glossary.html)

- A periodical which is usually considered more scholarly than a popular magazine. Journal articles usually contain footnotes and/or bibliographic references. (www.asu.edu/lib/help/liblingo.htm)

- A periodical on a specialized topic. Journals are often published by a professional association, society, foundation, or institute. A Refereed journal is one in which the process to determine if an article will be accepted for publication is done by the writer's professional colleagues, or peers (also known as the peer review process). Sometimes refereed journals are also called Scholarly journals. See also Magazine or Refereed journal. (library.rcc.edu/glossaryoflibraryterms.htm)

- A periodical issued by an institution, corporation or learned society, containing current news and reports of activities and work in a particular field. a) Juried or Refereed-A periodical or other serial in which the manuscripts are evaluated by at least one subject specialist in addition to the editor before being accepted for publication. (www.elms.edu/departments/library/AcademicReferenceResources/GlossaryLibTerms.htm)

- A periodical devoted to disseminating current research and information about developments within a specific field of scholarly inquiry, usually published quarterly or

bimonthly, and bound into annual volumes paginated continuously within each volume. Most journal articles are longer than five pages and include a bibliography or list of works cited at the end. (www.msvu.ca/library/glossary.asp)

- A periodical that is scholarly or academic in content and purpose. Examples: Journal of Architectural Education or American Anthropologist. Compare with magazine. (www.wit.edu/library/Orientation/glossary.html)

- A monthly or quarterly publication containing scholarly articles written by professors, researchers, and other experts in their field. More scholarly than a magazine. (www.bu.edu/library/instruction/gloss.html)

- The term "journal" is used, in business, for a book in which an account of transactions is kept previous to a transfer to the ledger. (www.turbocashuk.com/Accounting-Terms.html)

- A periodical containing scholarly articles on a particular subject, such as many professional publications; or a synonym for newspaper and often used as part of a newspaper's title. (library.queensu.ca/webisi/survivalguide/glossary.html)

- A periodical on a single topic published by an academic or association press. It will contain original research. A journal is more scholarly than a magazine you would buy in a grocery store or a newsstand. Journal articles are signed by the author(s) and include a bibliography. (www.library.okstate.edu/infolit/glossary.htm)

Steven et al. (1998) gave the importance and role of journal as follows;

The importance of journal

1. Published periodically

2. Mechanical reproduction
3. Access to the publication
4. Various content
5. Continuity of organization

The roles of the journal

1. To inform
2. To influence
3. To entertain
4. To motivate or to alert
5. To interpret
6. To educate
7. To lead
8. To persuade
9) To provide a forum

Gagnon (2000) presented the way to design a journal as booklet as this follow;

Principles of Journal Design

This page explains how to prepare a 5.5 x 8.5 in or a 7 x 8.5 in booklet using a standard word processor and printer.

A Journal is essentially like a pile of leaflets. To prepare a booklet, you need to use paper twice the size of the booklet. Pages also need to be in multiple of four.

However, the main difficulty is that pages need to be paired like this:

1. Front cover-Rear cover
2. Inside Front Cover–Inside rear cover
3. Page 1–Last page of text
4. Page 2–Penultimate page of text

Some software products allow automatic creation of booklets. Amongst these are WordPerfect Suite 8 or 2000 and desktop publishing softwares like PageMaker, FrameMaker and QuarkXpress.

With these products, you just need to use the "Booklet" function. But if you use Word, WordPerfect 5 or 6 or any other software, you will like this method. And besides, the "Make Booklet" function of many programmes is known to be buggy especially with a huge document and many illustrations.

If you have in your hands a booklet you like, measure its margins and write them in the appropriate boxes.

Write the decided settings for top**,** bottom and outside. However, compute the value for the inside margin with this formula: [desired value]+[width of the booklet]

Choose the position of headers and footers.

There is an extra difficulty: numbering needs to start with the first inside page rather than with the cover. Two techniques may be used:

- create a document for the cover and another one for the inside contents, using techniques described above;

- include everything in the same document file, as explained here.

1. Write the text normally, as described in the above section. Write the cover page, then the inside front cover (copyright), then the inside stuff. Use page breaks to jump from the outside cover to the inside one..

2. Place the cursor immediately before the first letter of the inside text, and insert a Section break *between* the text of the inside cover and the main text (i.e. text of the booklet itself). In Word, select Insert –> Break, and the button Section break**.** A double line with "Section break" will appear.

3. Place the cursor anywhere in the main text (in the first line, for example). Select File –> Page setup or double-click on the ruler. Select the the Setup tab (the fourth one). Make sure settings apply to this section only. Select Section Starts with –> Odd Page**,** and decide whether or not you want different odd and even headers and footers, or a different first page.

4. Place the cursor at the end of the document and insert one or two empty pages (if needed). These will be the inside back cover and the back cover. Place the cursor at the very beginning of the inside back cover and insert a section break. The document now has three sections: the first one is for the front cover and the inside front cover, the second one is for the main text and the third one is for the inside back cover and the back cover.

5. Place again the cursor in the main document and define headers.
In Word, select View –> Header and Footer. Depending on the page you are, you will define the first page header, the even page header or the odd page header. In the special header menu bar, the third icon opens a dialogue box where you define the page number format (arabic or roman numbers). In the lower left corner, select Page numbering starts at 1.

6. Before you print, make sure the 1st and last section (both covers) have exactly 2 pages each, and that the number of pages in section 2 is a multiple of four.

To use this technique, the word processing software must be able to print odd and even pages separately and should be able to print pages in reverse order (ex.: Word 5 and above).

1. Print even pages in ascending order. In Word, select Print even pages, then press on Options and make sure that Print in reverse order is NOT checked.

2. Place the printed sheets back in the printer feed tray, exactly the way they were before the first printing.

3a. If your printer prints on the upper face of paper, print odd pages in descending order. In Word, select Print odd pages, then press on Options and make sure that Print in reverse order IS checked.

3b. If your printer prints on the lower face of paper, print odd pages in ascending order. In Word, select Print odd pages, then press on Options and make sure that Print in reverse order is NOT checked.

4. Sort the pages in numerical order (1-16, 2-15, 3-14...) For example, if the final document has 16 pages, you will have pages numbered 1 to 8.

5. Print using the 2-sided option on a photocopier that allows landscape printing. If your photocopier only does portrait-type 2-sided printing, you will need to place upside down even pages of your original.

This method shall be used when the word processing software cannot print odd and even pages separately nor print pages in reverse order.

1. Print the entire document. You will get a bunch of sheets alternatively printed on the left-hand and right-hand side.

2a. If your printer prints on the upper face of paper, sort the sheets in reverse order (the sheet that was in the bottom should be on top of the pile, etc.); then place the stack in the feed tray *exactly* the way it was before the first printing pass.

2b. If your printer prings on the lower face of paper, place the stack in the feed tray *exactly* the way it was before the first printing.

3. Print again the entire document. You will get two ready-to-photocopy original documents.

4. Sort pages and place them in ascending numerical order. Place the second copy of each sheet on a second pile. For a 16-page document, you will get two sets of 8 sheet numbered sorted in ascending order (1-16; 2-15; 3-14, etc.).

5. Print using the 2-sided option on a photocopier that allows landscape printing. If your photocopier only does portrait-type 2-sided printing, you will need to place upside down even pages of your original

Relevant Concepts and Theories

1. Concept and Theory of Media Exposure

In receiving information from mass media, individuals will not receive all information that comes trough them, but they will choose only some parts that they think are beneficial towards them to satisfy their needs from which media they select. Therefore, the selective process of the audience was developed, according to the Uses and Gratification Theory mentioned earlier. It can be explained by the basic idea that depending on individuals' needs, the audiences will receive information or utilize media trough selective processes which consist of three stages as follows (Chirasophon, 1992):

1. Selective Exposure or Selective Attention

Depending on the individuals' needs and interests, the audience will utilize media or select to receive information from many sources in order to search for the information that relates to their attitudes, interests and opinions. If the information is in conflict with their attitudes or opinions, they will feel unsatisfied and confused.

2. Selective Perception and Interpretation

After the first stage, once individuals receive information from whatever source, they will choose to perceive and interpret the information according to their own experiences. They will perceive and interpret the information, which they understand according to their attitudes, experiences, beliefs, needs, and their own motives.

3. Selective Retention

After individuals choose to perceive and interpret information, they tend to remember only the information that goes along with their interests, needs, attitudes and beliefs. Meanwhile they forget information that is different or doses not go along with the interest, needs, attitudes and beliefs.

As for the reason why individuals choose to follow their interests or direct their attention to receiving information from the media, there are some studies that have been concluded by several researchers as follows:

Atkin (1973) had developed a study called "Information Seeking" to conclude that individuals will seek information because they want to satisfy their needs – receiving information and entertainment. They can collect information to help reduce their uncertainties, which can be categorized as follows:

1. Extrinsic Uncertainty

Individuals will need to receive information about things surrounding them as they feel that they do not have adequate information and want to know more about those things. The more important information, the more audiences need to receive it.

2. Intrinsic Uncertainty

Individuals will need to receive information that is related to their interests. When the audiences are interested in something, they will feel that their existing information in insufficient. Hence, they have to seek more information by seeking other sources.

Atkin (1973) concluded that individuals utilize the media in order to receive information and use the information to fulfill their needs which are:

1. Cognitive need

Receivers utilize the media as they want to receive information and gain more knowledge and better understanding about things surrounding them.

2. Affective need

Receivers utilize the media in order to have emotional satisfactions or experiences.

3. Integrative need

Receivers utilize the media as they want to be confident, confirmed and trusted by others.

4. Escape need

Receivers utilize the media as they want to escape from the real situations sometime.

McComb and Becker (1979) gave opinions that individuals utilize the media in order to receive information to satisfy their needs which can be divided into categories as follows:

1. Surveillance

Individuals keep track of and notice the movement or events from the media in order to be updated and to know what is important.

2. Decision

Individual utilize the media in order to be able to form opinions regarding the surrounding situations and make decisions in their daily lives.

3. Discussion

Individuals utilize the media in order to receive information that they can bring into conversation with others.

4. Participation

Individuals utilize the media in order to be aware and participate in event that occur in society and surrounding things.

5. Reinforcement

Individuals use the information received from the media to reinforce or support want they already made decisions about.

6. Entertainment

Individuals utilize the media for relaxation.

Blumler (1985) concluded that due to media exposure, individuals want to fulfill their needs and have gratification as follows:

1. Diversion

Receivers utilize the media for the relaxation.

2. Personal Relation

Receivers utilize the media in order to receive information and bring it into the conversations with others.

3. Personal Identity

Receivers utilize the media in order to support their opinions and beliefs.

4. Surveillance

Receivers utilize the media in order to be up to date and know about things surrounding them.

1.1 Uses and Gratifications Theory.

The basic assumption of the Uses and Gratifications Theory is that audience members more or less actively seek the content that seems to be the most gratifying. The degree of perceived gratification depends on the needs (and interests) of the individual Blumler (1985). The more individuals perceive that the content is need – fulfilling, the greater the chance that they will choose it. Based on a presentation of the approach by Blumler et al. (1974), the model is shown in the following figure.

It is noteworthy that the most uses and gratification models exclude the sender element of the mass communication process. Typically the start with the factors that contribute to the selection of media content by audience members (Orrawan, 1990).

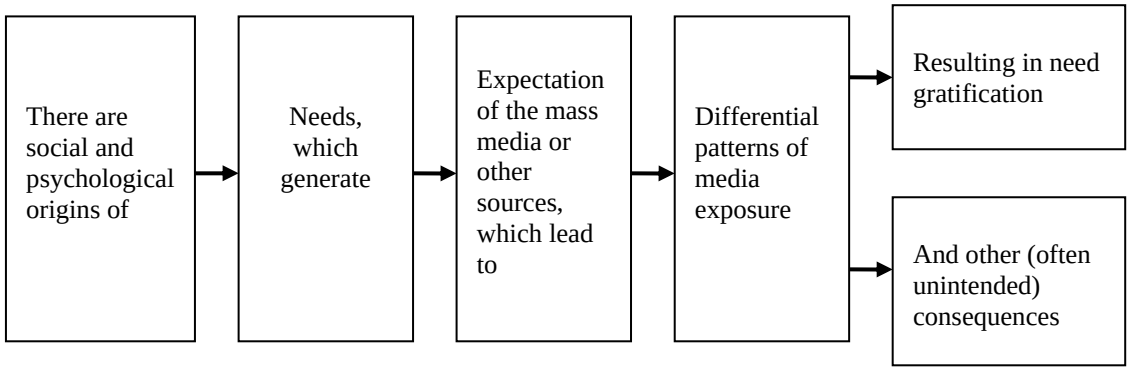


Figure 1A model of the Uses and Gratification approach

Source: Blumler et al. (1974)

Windahl, et al. (1992) also mentioned about the elements of the uses and gratifications model as following:

Gratification

Receivers are guided by their perception of what may be the outcome of consuming a certain message. Ideally the act of receiving should be gratifying. The gratification, the need-fulfillment, may be immediate or delayed.

Due to the Uses and Gratification theory and the concept of mass media exposure mentioned earlier, there is the conclusion that because of the receivers' different needs, they will determine what information they need to receive and which media they should select to receive the information to serve their needs. Consequently, they will behave seeking information by going through a selective process in order to receive the chosen information to satisfy their needs and for their gratification. Therefore these mentioned theories and concepts are related to this research which aims to study the types and characteristics of information that the graduate students need to receive from the Graduate Students Organization Journal.

1.2 Audience Analysis

Nilan (1986) had told it's important to determine which of the four categories just discussed the potential readers of your document belong to, but that's not the end of it. Audiences, regardless of category, must also be analyzed in terms of characteristics such as the following:

1. Background-knowledge, experience; One of your most important concerns is just how much knowledge, experience, or training you can expect in your readers. If you expect some of your readers to lack certain background, do you automatically supply it in your document? Consider an example: imagine you're writing a guide to using a software product that runs under Microsoft Windows. How much can you expect your readers to know about Windows? If some are likely to know little about Windows, should you provide that information? If you say no, then you run the risk of customers' getting frustrated with your product. If you say yes to adding background information on Windows, you increase your work effort and add to the page count of the document (and thus to the cost). Obviously, there's no easy answer to this question--part of the answer may involve just how small a segment of the audience needs that background information.

2. Needs and interests: To plan your document, you need to know what your audience is going to expect from that document. Imagine how readers will want to use your document; what will they demand from it. For example, imagine you are writing a manual on how to use a new microwave oven--what are your readers going to expect to find in it? Imagine you're under contract to write a background report on global warming for a national real estate

association--what do they want to read about; and, equally important, what do they *not* want to read about?

3. Other demographic characteristics: And of course there are many other characteristics about your readers that *might* have an influence on how you should design and write your document--for example, age groups, type of residence, area of residence, sex, political preferences, and so on.

Pullman (2002) said "Audience analysis emphasizes the diversity of responses to a given popular culture artifact by examining as directly as possible how given audiences actually understand and use popular culture texts. Three kinds of research make up most audience research: 1) broad surveys and opinion polls (like the famous Nielsen TV ratings, but also those done by advertisers and by academic researchers) that cover a representative sample of many consumers; 2) small, representative focus groups brought in to react to and discuss a pop culture text; and 3) in-depth ethnographic participant observation of a given audience, in which, for example, a researcher actually lives with and observes the TV viewing habits of a household over a substantial period of time, or travels on the road with a rock band. Each approach has strengths and weaknesses, and sometimes more than one approach is used as a check on the others."

Audience analysis can get complicated by at least two other factors: mixed audience types for one document, wide variability within audience, and unknown audiences.

Laskowski (1996) said "It is critical that your preparation efforts include some amount of audience analysis. The more you know and understand about your audience and their needs, the better you can prepare your speech to assure that you meet their needs. Speech preparation should use what I like to call the 9 P's, "**P**rior **P**roper **P**reparation **P**revents **P**oor **P**erformance of the **P**erson **P**utting on the **P**resentation".

Nothing will relax you more than to know you have properly prepared. The stage fright or speech anxiety felt by many speakers is due to not knowing enough about the speaking environment or the audience. The more you know about your speaking environment and your audience, the more relaxed you will be when delivering your speech. Many speakers, however,

often overlook the need to include any kind of audience analysis as part of their speech preparation. Proper audience analysis will assure that you give the right speech to the right audience. Most professional speakers send their clients a multi-page questionnaire in order to gather enough information about them and the speaking event to properly customize their speeches. Using the word "A-U-D-I-E-N-C-E" as an acronym, I have defined some general audience analysis categories that these surveys should include.

Analysis - Who are they? How many will be there?

Understanding - What is their knowledge of the subject?

Demographics - What is their age, sex, educational background?

Interest - Why are they there? Who asked them to be there?

Environment - Where will I stand? Can they all see & hear me?

Needs - What are their needs? What are your needs as the speaker?

Customized - What specific needs do you need to address?

Expectations - What do they expect to learn or hear from you?”

Laflen (2001) gave the way to analyze the audience as this follow;

Who is my audience and what will they expect?

It is important to consider your audience before you begin and while you write your research report so that your report will adequately communicate your research and its significance to your readers. For instance, if you don't consider your readers' needs, you might use language that they don't understand or you might explain the background of your work in too much or too little detail. It is best to think of the audience for your research report as peers in your immediate

discipline or in a discipline closely related to your subject. This is true even when you write a report for a class that will be graded by an instructor rather than read by other researchers.

If you are writing a research report for a teacher, the greatest challenge you face in writing your report is to write as though the professor is not your only reader. Imagine a broader audience of your peers and colleagues who will not be grading your work. If you visualize an audience of people with a similar background who are interested in your subject, but who do not know as much about it as you do, you will likely make writing your report easier than if you visualize your audience as a group of experts or someone uninterested in your subject. Keep in mind that your goal should be to write in such a way that someone skilled in the art could reproduce your work precisely.

It can help to know why your readers will be motivated to read your research report. Although they might read for a variety of reasons, in general they will read :

- to learn about research related to their particular research interests
- to keep abreast of research in the discipline in general
- to keep current with research related to their teaching interests
- to keep informed about the scientific literature in related disciplines.(Wilkinson 10).

It is also best to assume that your readers will be very busy people and will want information to be presented to them clearly and concisely. This does not mean that you don't need to be accurate or thorough, but it does suggest that you should put information where readers will expect to find it, and it places great emphasis on the abstract of your report. While readers from your own discipline and area of research might read your report closely and all the way through, many other readers will read only the title and abstract. This helps them to keep abreast of research but does not take up a great deal of their time.

Once you have an idea of who your audience is and why they might read your report, you can more easily imagine what their needs as readers are and how you might meet these needs. You should try to think about your research from the perspective of your audience, and ask what you would like to see in your report if you were reading about your particular research for the first time. Thinking about your audience before you write your report can help you to determine the level of detail you need to include in your report and how to organize information.

The following prewriting activity can help you to think about your audience. Take out a piece of paper and write down the answers to these questions, or copy and paste them into a text editor.

- Describe your audience. What is their position? Why will they read your report?

- What does your audience already know about this topic?

- What information will be new to your reader?

- What is the most important thing for your reader to understand from your report?

- List terms and/or procedures that are important to your research but that your audience may not be familiar with. Include terms that you are using in a new or unique way.

- Thoroughly report analytical data supporting your conclusions.

You might return to the issue of your audience after your report is written to determine whether you have met your readers' basic needs. Considering the first draft of your report from your audience's perspective can reveal areas that need revision to you and can lead to your second draft. Some questions you can ask about your report after it is written to determine whether it has met your readers' basic needs are:

- Is my main point easy to identify early in the report?

- Have I carefully described the procedures used?

- Have I defined unfamiliar or technical terms and clearly explained new concepts?

- Have I provided a context for the research or is more background information needed?

- Have I used tables and figures to represent data? Are these easy to read?

- Have I summarized my findings?

- Have I written clearly?

- Have I stayed on topic throughout the report?

These are some of the basic needs and expectations that your readers will have. You may be able to think of others. What else do you expect when you read a report? What things do you hope would not be a part of a report you were reading? You can use these questions as the basis for revision of your research report after you have a first draft. The easiest way to understand what readers will expect is to become a reader yourself if you aren't already one. It will be helpful for you to read a variety of reports to determine the features you particularly like and don't like before writing your own report.

Hart (2001) presented "Prescriptive" Audience Analysis: Moving Beyond the Purely Descriptive as this follows;

Editing and writing both require an understanding of our audience, because without that knowledge, we can't shape our words to help them easily grasp difficult concepts. To understand our audience, we do what all writers and editors do, whether consciously or unconsciously: We create an image of our audience that guides our choice of words, images, and metaphors. This image is variously known as a "stereotype" (e.g., Schriver 1997) or a "persona" (e.g., Graham 2001). Keeping that image in mind as we work helps us satisfy the reader's needs, but if we're not

careful, it can also cause us to waste valuable time collecting information that doesn't really help us communicate.

Instead, as technical writers, we should take a *prescriptive approach* to audience analysis, which focuses on what we should write about, rather than on how we can write in terms the audience understands. This approach emphasizes that clear, effective writing will communicate with any audience, whatever their characteristics. It also emphasizes starting with the problem the audience is trying to solve, rather than starting by analyzing audience characteristics.

This article begins by identifying some key terminology and distinctions, and then describes the prescriptive approach and its applications for technical writers. In particular, you'll see the following:

- Differences between stereotypes and personas
- Differences between descriptive and prescriptive information
- Types of audience analyses
- A prescriptive approach to audience analysis
- Advice for applying the prescriptive approach in the documents we produce

Types of Audiences

Most websites have a target audience, meaning the group of people most likely to visit the site. This group may be quite diverse, but they are united by certain common features that can be ascertained. In order to properly analyze your target audience, you will have to determine the purpose of your site and the type of people who will likely to be attracted to your site. How would you describe the potential knowledge, backgrounds, interests, and needs of that target audience?

While most sites have a target audience, there's often a hidden audience for sites--an audience that is not targeted by the site, but who visits it nonetheless. What kinds of people might be hidden audiences for your site? How might you figure out who those audiences are?

Look at the following three texts and answer the following questions two questions about them.

1. Who seems to be the intended or target audience for this text? Is that audience directly addressed? If so, how? If not, how do you know who the target audience is? Can you effectively describe that audience?

2. What are some possible hidden audiences for this text? How do you know what those hidden audiences might be?

Types of Audience Analysis

It's helpful to understand the main types of audience analysis currently in use, because each can prove useful as part of an integrated (prescriptive plus descriptive) approach to audience analysis. Schriver (1997) described three main types:

- *Classifiers* identify the types of audience characteristics or features that might be important, develop an audience profile made of several "classes" based on these characteristics, and use that profile as a target in designing documentation.

- *Intuitions* pretend to be audience members, take on their roles, and pay close attention to their reactions and experiences in performing those roles. Understanding these reactions and experiences provides strong clues to what they should write, and how.

- *Listeners* investigate actual audience members, identify that audience's feelings about a situation (e.g., performing a task) and the skills they bring to that situation, then test their assumptions by producing trial solutions for the audience to review.

Although the three approaches are often considered separate and distinct--following the regrettable human tendency to treat a single useful and elegant solution as universally applicable--Schriver notes that we can use different approaches at different times. In fact, I'd go one step further and suggest that we can obtain the best results by using elements of all three approaches at different stages of an audience analysis. For example:

Begin with an "intuitive" approach: Adopt the roles of several audience members (take on their personas) and imagine what their needs might be; for example, some users may manage a network while others only use the network. This step begins to identify the tasks users face and the problems they encounter in performing these tasks.

Continue with a classification approach: Classifiers often go beyond standard descriptive information to include psychographic factors such as knowledge when they define classes within an audience (e.g., beginners and experts). These classes build on the problems identified by the intuitive approach by revealing whether we require multiple solutions to a problem (e.g., one for beginners, another for experts).

Conclude with a "listening" approach: Incorrect assumptions lead to designs that seem suitable but that don't actually work as well as we hope. Direct feedback from our audience identifies where we must improve our image of the audience, and in particular, which needs we failed to satisfy.

Refining designs through iteration (repetition of the steps) is an important way to develop effective documentation. Thus, the "listening" step isn't so much a true conclusion as it is a resting point before we start over again. The feedback obtained by listening tells us whether we must create new personas or refine existing ones and whether different classes of reader require different solutions. Having come up with a new design, we finish again (for the moment) by once again testing the resulting documentation with real users. Through iteration, we develop progressively better personas that reveal what users want to do with our product, how they want to do it, and how we can help them do it.

This approach resembles usability testing of software and hardware interfaces, but focuses on the usability of documentation (its success in creating understanding for the reader) rather than that of the product. This approach is also similar to how programmers develop "use cases" (e.g., Ham 1998), but use cases typically focus more on the design of software architectures than on user-interface issues. I won't explore the relationships between audience analysis, usability testing, and use cases any further, other than to note that the parallels between these activities suggest the potential of using insights from one [insert: field] to improve the practice of the others.

A Prescriptive Approach to Audience Analysis

Thomson and Philips (1995) said “audience analyses” gain considerable power when they start out with a clear focus on the details of the tasks that the audience performs. Once you identify solutions to the specific problems that users encounter (prescriptive analysis), you can subsequently collect data that suggests the best way to communicate those solutions (descriptive analysis). For example, adopting the persona of someone who must change a flat tire reveals that this role requires considerable strength; identifying the importance of strength in this task suggests that our documentation should provide solutions for readers who aren't strong enough to remove a wheel using only the provided wrench. One such solution might be the suggestion that readers purchase strength aids (e.g., a metal pipe that fits over the end of a wrench and increases the user's leverage). Of course, we might also suggest that the manufacturer provide a better wrench in the first place.

An analysis that begins with a prescriptive approach and concludes with a descriptive approach could follow four simple steps:

1. Perform a quick and simplistic audience analysis (an "environmental" or "contextual" assessment) to identify the environment or context in which the task is performed.

2. Identify the particular problems or communications challenges faced by someone working in that context (i.e., establish a persona for the product's user that prescribes what we must write about).

3. Perform an audience analysis focused on those challenges to determine which audience members or classes of members will encounter those problems, and why (i.e., collect descriptive information that tells us how to write).

4. Identify potential solutions to the problems, implement them, and test them to confirm that we've actually solved the reader's problems.

An example illustrates how this approach actually works in practice. Writers commonly believe that our audience uses online help only reluctantly, and respond by spending considerable time improving the quality of our help systems. A help system may certainly be badly written or badly designed, so efforts to improve our help design and creation skills remain important, yet improving help files sometimes targets the wrong problem. Speaking at STC's 48th annual conference, one speaker confirmed what I've found in my own work by reporting four reasons why our audience may not use online help. Two are relevant to my example:

- Many users don't know that the help system exists.

- Those who do know about the help system often don't know how to use it.

This demonstrates how adopting a persona ("I've encountered a problem and want to learn how to solve it") can lead to an important solution: By taking on the user's role, we discover we must first decide where to seek help (for online help, we must know that such things exist), then must figure out how to use it. Without adopting the role of a user of the help system, we might simply assume that our audience knows that help exists and understands how to use it. A prescriptive approach to this situation could proceed as follows:

1. Context: Users encounter a problem and must find and use our online help to solve it.

2. Problem: If we are creating effective help systems, some factors other than the quality of our help must be preventing the audience from using those systems.

3. Audience analysis: Users of a help system must adopt the role of someone who looks for help, then learns how to use it once they find it. Not all users can succeed; some don't know online help is available and others don't know how to use it.

4. Preliminary solution: Teach users how to use the online help, then test whether this encourages them to use it.

That's elegant in theory, but does it work? This approach led me to include a section on how to use online help in the user manuals for the past two products I've documented. Moreover, I persuaded our trainer to incorporate a brief lesson on using the help system during his training sessions. The results have been excellent thus far, since our clients now use our software without requiring extensive technical support--a good thing, since we don't have any full-time support staff. Moreover, we've received favorable feedback on the usefulness of our help systems.

It's likely that over time, our audience will become familiar with online help or the technology itself will improve sufficiently that this training will no longer be necessary. Ongoing contact with our audience will reveal when we no longer have to include these explanations in our manuals or perform this training.

It's easy to come up with additional examples. For example, one of the most common stereotypes we invoke is that of the "new user" versus the "expert." In fact, for most product features, both classes of user have identical needs: They use the same mouse, the same menu, and the same dialog box to accomplish a given task. This suggests that stereotyping users based on their expertise fails to attack the most important problem; adopting a persona based on the user's role ("any user must accomplish this task by following the same basic steps") lets us explain clearly and effectively how to do the task, irrespective of the user's expertise.

Although that approach produces useful documentation, it doesn't produce the best documentation possible. If we have time to conduct a descriptive analysis, we'll probably discover

that expert users want shortcuts or more detailed information than new users want, need, or can use. We can use this knowledge to improve our documentation by incorporating a list of shortcuts and more detailed reference material in our documentation. What's important to note is that even if we don't obtain this descriptive information, and only concentrate on writing clear instructions for all possibilities, we've produced good documentation. The examples I've presented show how purely descriptive audience analysis remains useful, but primarily as a second step in a more focused "prescriptive" analysis that first identifies the problems.

Don't use this approach unchanged in every situation; doing so turns it into a formulaic solution that eventually stops reflecting audience needs. The approach must always be subject to a reality check in the form of re-evaluating the personas you've created and revising them when they're no longer valid. Audiences change over time, and your analysis needs will change in response. Once you characterize an audience thoroughly, you may only need to focus on aspects of the approach that confirm the validity of the personas you've created. For example, if you're documenting a mature product with a stable audience, the listener's feedback-based analysis may become the most important means of confirming that your information continues to meet audience needs.

However, developers tend to add new features or change how existing features work, and when that happens, you'll need to determine whether this changes the roles users adopt and the consequences of those changes for the documentation. When your Marketing department introduces that same product to a new market, you should repeat the entire analysis to determine whether the new users adopt new personas; the existing information should continue to meet the needs of existing audiences. Both cases suggest a slightly different approach than for the stable product and audience.

Develop specific questions which fit into each of these eight categories and ask the client or audience to tell you what they want. Essentially, ask them what they need and give it to them.

The material that you gathered by using invention strategies and the information that you establish about your audience will lead you closer to a thesis statement, the overall point that you are going to make about the topic.

The more you know about your audience, the more successful your essay. Writer and reader are like the pitcher and catcher in a baseball game. Learn to "direct" the ball (the essay) toward the target reader who is most likely to "catch" your ideas! Here are some questions about audience to get you started:

1. Briefly describe the characteristics of your target audience:
   - age
   - gender
   - educational background
   - nationality
   - political orientation
   - religious affiliation
   - marital status
   - socio-economic standing

2. Why would the audience be interested in the topic?

3. What, if any, built-in attitudes or prejudices (biases) might the audience have about your topic. Do you plan to change their attitudes?

4. How do you think the audience already feels (thinks) about your topic? What do they already know about the topic? Would they be able to identify with the topic? Have they had experiences with it?

5. What questions might the audience raise about the topic? What disagreements would you and the audience most likely have?

6. What do you want the audience to learn from your experience with the topic? What could they learn from your essay that they did not already know?

Sample Audience Analysis Checklist

Demographics

Is the audience weighted toward a particular age? Children ____ Teens ____ Young Adults ____
Adults ____ Seniors ____ Mixed ____

Is the audience more one gender than the other? _____

If so, why? _____

Does the audience comprise a particular cultural group or is it diverse? _____

_____

Is the audience from a particular geographic area? _____

Social Commonalties

Work the audience members have in common: _____

Clubs/social groups the audience members have in common: _____

Education experiences the audience members have in common: _____

Other commonalties: _____

Audience Characteristics Related to the Speech

Interest in the topic: Low ____ High ____ Neutral ____ Mixed ____ Unknown ____

Prior knowledge of the topic: Great ____ Little ____ Some ____ Mixed ____ Unknown ____

Attitude toward the topic: Receptive ____ Antagonistic ____ Neutral ____ Mixed ____ Unknown ____

Other comments or information about the audience:

Figure 2 Sample Audience Analysis Checklist

Source: American Society for Information Science (1991)

2. Satisfactions

Thomson and Philips (1995) gave the definitions of Satisfactions as follows;

1. the contentment you feel when you have done something right; "the chef tasted the sauce with great satisfaction"

2. gratification: state of being gratified; great satisfaction; "dull repetitious work gives no gratification"; "to my immense gratification he arrived on time"

3. atonement: compensation for a wrong; "we were unable to get satisfaction from the local store"

4. act of fulfilling a desire or need or appetite; "the satisfaction of their demand for better services"

The study conducted by Steven M. Bachrach, et al. on the development of the Internet as a means for mass communication, affords scientists an opportunity to re-evaluate the way they communicate scientific results. The computer is no longer just a way for preparing a conventional print article but is an electronic publication medium in its own right. This article discussed how their journal publication, the Internet Journal of Chemistry, was designed to take advantage of the new technologies available in this electronic medium. The development of the concept of an electronic journal, the decision on the scope and coverage of the journal, the financial logistics, and how the journal will be implemented were thoroughly presented and explained. Woven within were their perspectives on how the technologies may be utilized and how this new medium compares with traditional print publication.

3. Information concepts and theories

Information has the concepts and theories as follows;

3.1 Information need

Information is a term with many meanings depending on context, but is as a rule closely related to such concepts as meaning, knowledge, instruction, communication, representation, and mental stimulus.

Although many people speak of the advent of the "information age," the "information society," and information technologies, and even though information science and computer science are often in the spotlight, the word "information" is often used without careful consideration of the various meanings it has come to acquire. (Brown, 1991)

Often **information** is viewed as a type of input to an organism or designed device. Inputs are of two kinds. Some inputs are important to the function of the organism (for example, food) or device (energy) by themselves. In his book *Sensory Ecology,* Dusenbery called these causal inputs. Other inputs (information) are important only because they are associated with causal inputs and can be used to predict the occurrence of a causal input at a later time (and perhaps another place). Some information is important because of association with other information but eventually there must be a connection to a causal input. In practice, information is usually carried by weak stimuli that must be detected by specialized sensory systems and amplified by energy inputs before they can be functional to the organism or device. For example, light is often a causal input to plants but provides information to animals. The colored light reflected from a flower is too weak to do much photosynthetic work but the visual system of the bee detects it and the bee's nervous system uses the information to guide the bee to the flower, where the bee often finds nectar or pollen, which are causal inputs, serving a nutritional function.

The most important meanings of *information* are identified in the following sections roughly in order of narrowest to broadest. (Dervin, et al. 1986)

Information is a message, something to be communicated from the sender to the receiver. If information is viewed merely as a message, it does not have to be accurate. It may be a truth or a lie, or just a sound of a kiss. Strangely it may even be a disruptive noise used to inhibit the flow of communication and create misunderstanding. This model assumes a sender and a receiver, and does not attach any significance to the idea that information is something that can be extracted from an environment, e.g., through observation or measurement. Information in this sense is simply any message the sender chooses to create. (Gould, et al. 1989)

The view of information as a message came into prominence with the publication in 1948 of an influential paper by Claude Shannon, "A Mathematical Theory of Communication." This paper provides the foundations of information theory and endows the word *information* not only with a technical meaning but also a measure. If the sending device is equally likely to send any one of a set of N messages, then the preferred measure of "the information produced when one message is chosen from the set" is the base two logarithm of N. In this paper, Shannon continues:

The choice of a logarithmic base corresponds to the choice of a unit for measuring information. If the base 2 is used the resulting units may be called binary digits, or more briefly bits, a word suggested by J. W. Tukey. A device with two stable positions, such as a relay or a flip-flop circuit, can store one bit of information. N such devices can store N bits ... Bell System Technical Journal.

A complementary way of measuring information is provided by Algorithmic information theory. In brief, this measures the information content of a list of symbols based on how predictable they are, or more specifically how easy it is to generate the list. The sequence below would have a very low algorithmic information measurement since it is a very predictable pattern, and as the pattern continues the measurement would not change. Shannon information would give the same information measurement for each symbol, since they are statistically random, and each new symbol would increase the measurement.

3.2 Information seeking

So where does information seeking come into this general context of integrated layers? First of all, let us consider information seeking with respect to all the information that comes to a human being during a lifetime, not just in those moments when a person actively seeks information. (Marchonini, 1995)

We, along with other mammals, are capable of learning a great deal during our lifetimes. We have very large, general-purpose brains, and so can adapt to a great range of environmental conditions and social arrangements. We have some general mental structures, as with the language example above, which enable us to learn various types of things, but the specifics of what we learn come with our experiences. We, also like most mammals, learn particularly much from family or clan. These are emotionally intense relationships--because our very survival depends on their succor--and so family learning makes a great impression. We are a very social species and draw much learning and experience from such social interactions. For most people, most of the time, information-related behavior consists of absorbing and using the learning and information that comes our way during the course of our daily lives.

Looking at us as a species that exists physically, biologically, socially, emotionally, and spiritually, it is not unreasonable to guess that we absorb perhaps 80 percent of all our knowledge through simply being aware, being conscious and sentient in our social context and physical environment.

With that as a foundation, let us consider Figure 2, "Modes of Information Seeking" , "Directed" and "Undirected" refer, respectively, to whether an individual seeks particular information that can be specified to some degree, or is more or less randomly exposing themselves to information. "Active" and "Passive" refer, respectively, to whether the individual does anything actively to acquire information, or is passively available to absorb information, but does not seek it out. (Bulletin, 1999)

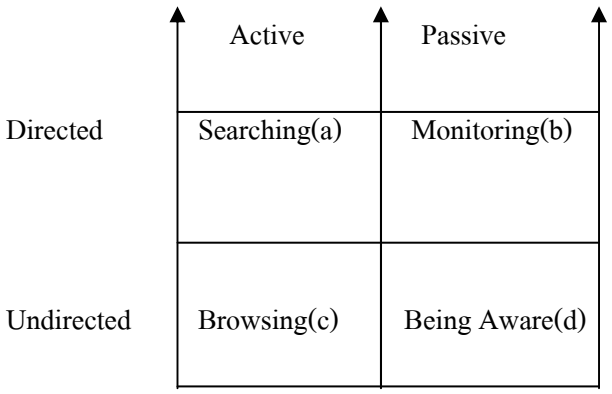


Figure 3 Models of Information Seeking
Source : Atkin (1973)

Awareness. An enormous part of all we know and learn surely comes to us through passive undirected behavior, or simply being aware (cell “d” of Figure 3).

The work of Virginia Walter, a colleague at UCLA, is illustrative of the value of the above perspective. The few studies of children’s information seeking had mostly concentrated on instances where children seek information or books to read in libraries. But Walter saw that children had much larger needs—that even a two-year-old really has enormous information

needs. She talked with people who work a lot with children, as children often cannot articulate their needs themselves, to discover what things children need to know at what ages.

It is one thing to think of children's information needs as the questions they ask about dinosaurs when they go to the library. It is quite another to see the full array of learning that must occur for a child to emerge successfully into adulthood. In a dysfunctional family, with parents on drugs, for example, there may be no one to tell the child to look both ways when crossing the street—something as simple as that. The children of thieves think thievery is natural, it is what people do. That comes from simply soaking up what is in their environment, especially from the emotionally meaningful people around them.

Relevant Researches

Related researches and studies that have been used in this research study are as follows:

Wijakkhana (1990) examined the exposure, use and gratification of mass media of students from universities in Bangkok. The research study showed that the students frequently read daily newspapers, but they mostly read the topics and news, presented on the first pages of newspapers, as well as information that interests them. They also believed in some of the newspapers' content. The study also found out that the students expose themselves to television to relax with their family members.

Jiraphinnusorn (1996) studied information-seeking behavior through mass media and Internet. The study found out that the main reason for seeking information from the media and internet was for the audience to acquire personal knowledge. The types of information sought from the media were entertainment and news. Cinema, radio and television were the most popular media used for information seeking on entertainment. News seeking was through printed media. Internet was used for acquiring information on education/research science/technology and entertainment. The World Wide Web, electronic mail for two-way communication and downloading software for work were the main purposes of using the internet.

Thomson and Philips (1995) studied Expectations as Determinants of Patient Satisfaction: Concepts, Theory and Evidence. And they found the apparent lack of conceptual agreement and the inconsistency in the approach to understanding expectations prompted this analysis of the literature in the field of patient satisfaction. A review of 18 journals over the last few years, as well as a number of relevant books, provided the evidence for the state of the current theory. An attempt has been made to distil the main definitions in use, to illustrate practical models of the relationship between expectations and satisfaction, to identify the influential personal and social variables, and to consider the special nature of health care. Some of the empirical methods and findings are then presented, with conclusions made about how the theory of expectations may be developed to assist in understanding patient satisfaction.

Sreechoochart (2004) studied the satisfaction of audience Groups towards the Radio Program "Perd Lok Suesarn": Case Study for Audience Group of Kasetsart University Broadcasting Station. Results of the hypothesis test concluded that the field of study, occupation, income, and behavior in listening to the program showed correlation with the level of satisfaction.

Aimaugsorn (2004) studied Satisfaction in Reenlistment of Active Duty Privates of the Royal Thai Army's Rapid Deployment Forces 3rd Infantry Battalion 31st Infantry Regiment King's Guard. Results of the study indicated that privates of Royal Thai Army's Rapid Development Forces 3rd infantry battalion 31st Infantry Regiment King's Guard have high level of satisfaction in being reenlisted unit, but there was no difference when compared with birth place, age, marital status, and family obligation. Advice of their close relatives and experience from serving as privates have positive correlation with satisfaction in being reenlisted.

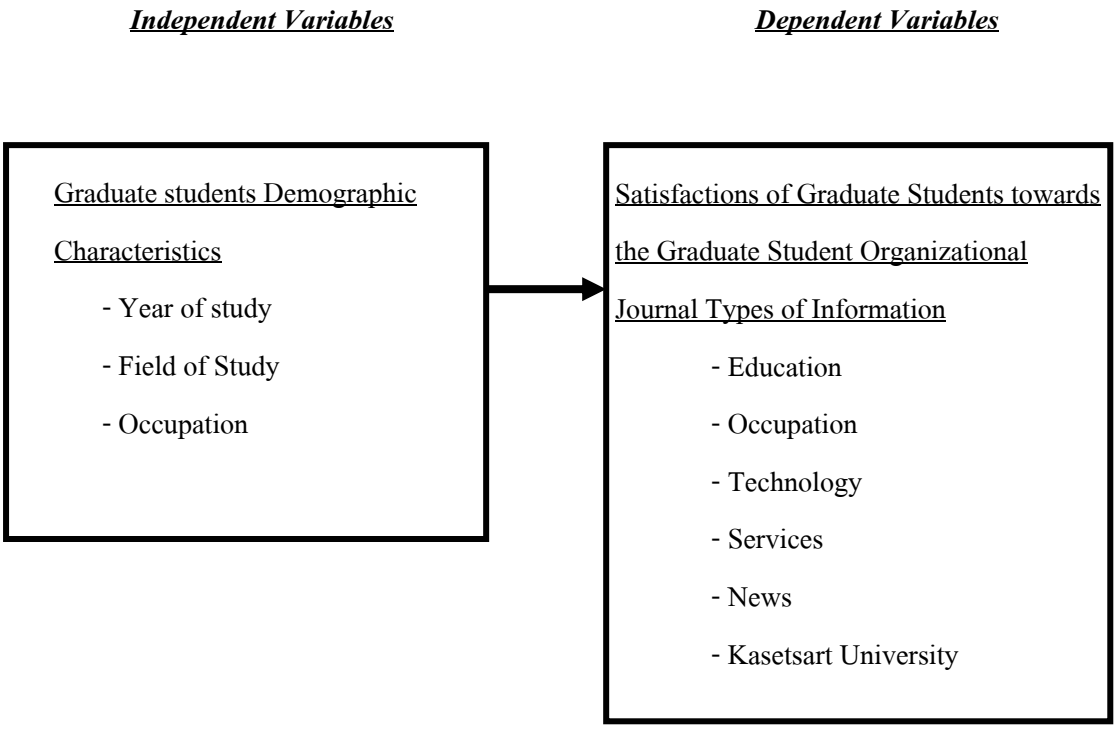
Peethong (2001) studied the Satisfaction of Internet User towards Data Base Searching of the Orchids Information from www.seesiam.com. He found out that a) the internet users had high level of satisfaction in the concept aspect (accuracy, attraction and credibility); b) the internet users had a high level of satisfaction in the design and formation aspect (front-page design in terms of easy-to-read fonts, interesting headlines and use of colors, the inside pages in terms of

use of colors, type of fonts, beautiful animations and banners, and sizes of fonts; c) the internet users had a high level of satisfaction in the accessibility aspect (satisfaction in data loading); and d) the internet users had a high level of satisfaction in the usefulness aspect (satisfaction with the knowledgeable and information provided in the website and rapidness in receiving news and information).

From the relevant researches presented, the researcher recognized the need of being exposed to a variety of information, as these have their corresponding impact and significant to specific groups of audiences. Moreover, results of the related researches implied the importance and power of the World Wide Web, since nowadays, it is considered as the medium which is most accessible to most groups of audiences.

Results of the test of relationships among variables also shed light on which variable the researcher should focus on in this study. Field of study and occupation proved to be more significant in affecting the satisfaction of certain groups of audiences compared to the other variables like birth place, age, marital status, and family obligation.

Conceptual Framework



Hypothesis

Based on the above conceptual framework, the hypotheses were set as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between the graduate students' year of study and their satisfaction towards the types of information in the Graduate Students Organizational Journal.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between the graduate students' field of study and their satisfaction towards the types of information in the Graduate Students Organizational Journal.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between the graduate students' occupation and their satisfaction towards the types of information in the Graduate Students Organizational Journal.