The Impact of the Internet on Saudi Students' Use of Television

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ABSTRACT

The Impact of the Internet on Saudi Students' Use of Television

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This study examines the media habits of young people in Saudi Arabia, in particular their use of the Internet and television, and how use of the Internet impacts upon other activities. Using a combination of methods (focus groups, survey and time diaries) this thesis examines the rate of Internet adoption, the different uses of the Internet that are driving its penetration among the population, and the motives of media users in relation to the adoption and use of the Internet compared with television. The study also includes pertinent information regarding the notion of how the use of new media might be seen to be taking over the use of other types of media, whereby a new medium may replace traditional media if the time for media consumption is limited and if the new medium is regarded as more appealing than traditional media.

The study has produced results on three main areas: Firstly, in respect of the interaction between the Internet usage behaviour and television viewing patterns, the study has demonstrated that there is a negative association between both mediums in relation to some activities. In other words, the uses of the Internet for social and entertainment functions displaced TV viewing. However, the relationship between the Internet and TV use is more complex scenario because of the multiple applications offered by the Internet.

Secondly, with regard to the use of the Internet and television in a social context, television has become a central part of social life within the household where television represents a main source for family time, particularly in Ramadan while the Internet is a solitary activity where it is used in more private spaces.

Thirdly, the key findings concern the gender differences of media use, and factors that might explain gender differences. The study found that Saudi females are less likely to engage in certain online activities such as social networking. Furthermore, Saudi females were also more likely to have their Internet access monitored and circumscribed by family members, with parents controlling the location and the amount of time spent using the Internet.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The mass media plays a vital role in individuals' lives, having the capability to effect the delivery of text, sound, and visual images. Traditional media, such as television, has affected people's everyday lives and routines, influencing the content and times that audiences watch and listen (Mittal & Mittal, 2013). These characteristic features of traditional media have been challenged by the Internet, which is changing the media habits of audiences, particularly young people.

In the Arab world, the media landscape has witnessed great development in the last two decades. The emergence of satellite television and the penetration of the Internet have brought about new realities in the region's changing media landscape. Moreover, the Internet is quickly spreading and becoming increasingly prevalent in Saudi Arabia (Simsim, 2010), where young people in particular are using the Internet for news and entertainment and to communicate with family, friends and other social contacts. However, the emergence of the Internet has changed the nature of the relationship between the media and their audiences. These changes have implications for the way people choose and consume media, particularly young people who are attracted by the easy means of communication, entertainment and information provision offered by the Internet (Al-Qahtani, 2011).

The media landscape in Saudi Arabia is witnessing the spread of media technology, especially the Internet, in competition with traditional media. This phenomenon is an extension of the global media situation where the Internet continues to compete for a larger share of media

audience. With the popular availability of technology in the region and the growth of Internet infrastructure in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, media technology and the Internet have developed technically and artistically. The Internet is distinguished from traditional media by its ability to adapt to censorship techniques and social and political constraints in Saudi society, taking into the account the nature of users such as young people who are characterized by diverse patterns of media use (Al-Zoman, 2012).

There is, however, a lack of data concerning on how the rapidly growing popularity of the Internet has changed the way people use traditional media. This study is designed to shed new light on these matters. It explores the use of the Internet in Saudi Arabia and the nature of the relationship between the Internet and television.

The study attempts to understand the nature of the use of television and the Internet and to identify the online activities in which young Saudi people engage. It also examines the extent to which the Internet has emerged as a source of gratification formerly satisfied by other sources, such as television or other media.

1.2 Research Rationale

The Internet today has become particularly important in Saudi Arabia, due to its accelerating spread and intensity of use, especially by young people, both males and females, with varied motives and purposes (Al-Ghamdi, 2012). The Internet is increasingly regarded as a key method of obtaining information and entertainment, an important source of news, and a platform for daily interaction and information exchange between individuals and institutions. The trend towards increased reliance on computers and the Internet is one of the highest when compared with other developing countries (Alghaith et al., 2010). It is estimated that Internet usage will keep on growing rapidly in Saudi Arabia (CITC, 2010; Simsim, 2011). Indeed, there are many

factors that can speed up the growth of Internet usage in this context. One reason for this growth is that 60% of the Saudi population is comprised of young adults who are adapting to new technologies far quicker than expected (CITC, 2010). However, despite people in Saudi Arabia having had access to Internet services since 1997, there is no accurate information about the extent of use, number of users, types of usage patterns, and the kinds of information and communication activities carried out by Internet users in Saudi Arabia.

This study examines the Internet habits of undergraduate students. Those aged 16 to 25 have been shown to be the heaviest users of new media (Sait et al., 2003; Simsim, 2011), and they comprise one of the segments of society that is fastest in the adoption of new technologies and the first to use a variety of modern technology platforms. In general, young adults and university students are the primary Internet users in Saudi Arabia (Al-Zoamn, 2012). Therefore, studying university students' use of the Internet is crucial since findings from this study can be linked and compared to those undertaken already in different regions of the world.

For a conservative country like Saudi Arabia, the effect of the Internet on the lives of its people is controversial because of the open nature of this medium. Evidence has emerged indicating that the introduction of this new medium in Saudi society has had important consequences in changing people's behaviour (Al-Amry, 2009) and changing traditional media consumption, preferences and perceptions (Al-Ghamdi, 2012). The Internet is a unique medium that offers a set of benefits that differ from those offered by traditional mass media (Krishnatray et al., 2009). Therefore, this introduction of a new medium might lead to sharper competition between new and old media. The rapid growth of new media in Saudi Arabia has provoked questions about whether new media pose a serious challenge to traditional media (Al-Farm, 2002). However, television has also undergone significant changes in the Middle East – not least

with the arrival of satellite TV and the emergence of pan-Arab TV news channels. These have caused tension because national governments have no editorial control over them and this means that their people could be exposed to ideas that challenge government policies and actions. In Saudi context, the Internet achieved popularity and acceptance because of the need to have free information flow as the mainstream media is perceived to be controlled by the government.

Moreover, the ways in which people conceive the relationship between existing and new media are pivotal to debates surrounding media convergence. Given that people in Saudi contexts are living in an era of 'media convergence', distinctions between television and new media sources are becoming increasingly breaking down. Thus, the present study intends to contribute to a better understanding of the reality of conflict and integration between traditional media and Internet use.

Previous research has shown there has been widespread adoption of the Internet in Saudi Arabia. However, there also exists a lack of clarity concerning the nature of use and ambiguity regarding the future of television. This emphasises the need to understand the impact of Internet use on other media, particularly among young people (Al-Saud, 2005). Thus, this research is primarily concerned with examining relationships between the use of television and the use of the Internet. One of the issues this research seeks to understand is whether there are any signs that the established television viewing practices of people in Saudi Arabia is being replaced by Internet use.

Though the Internet has been available since 1997 in Saudi Arabia, there is a paucity of research that explicitly explores the social use of the medium. Despite aspiring to be a modern country in many respects, Saudi Arabia still has one of the most traditional societies in the world and has shown a significant amount of concern about the expansion and use of new technologies

(Al-Qahtani, 2011). Life in Saudi Arabia is governed by religious beliefs, rules and traditions which are the main factors behind gender inequality, that is, the unequal evaluation of the roles of females and males. Saudi Arabia imposes more restrictions on women's mobility and public activity than any other Arab society, due to the implementation of Islamic principles (Alsaleh, 2009). These religious and cultural factors affect media technology use among Saudi people, with gender inequality being associated with media use. Al-Otibi (2010) refers to "the importance of cognitive and cultural resources" when addressing "the inequality of Internet usage in Saudi Arabia between different personal and positional categorical pairs, such as gender, education and labour position" (Al-Otibi, p.65). Thus, this study affords an opportunity to examine whether there are differences of significance between men and women in their use of the Internet and their use of television. It is also investigates whether that the genders used the online world in similar or different ways and have their respective patterns of adoption of the online world reflect something about the relative rights and freedoms within Saudi society.

Moreover, the Internet might pose a further threat that is compounded with the arrival of satellite TV and especially to Arab governments in respect of ideas given to women. It has opened up opportunities for interpersonal communication as well as exposure to information and entertainment content that may not be available through offline media where Saudi women might discover a new social empowerment through the Internet. Therefore, this study also seeks to explore the use of the Internet been controlled in the way other social activities are controlled in respect of women and men resulting in traditional gender differences characterising online behaviours of each gender

1.3 Research Objectives

The most important objectives of this study can be summarized as follows:

1- To examine the nature of the Internet and TV use , in particular among young well-educated adults in Saudi Arabia.

2- To analyse the relationships that exist between the use of the Internet and television among young highly educated Saudis.

3- To examine the role of gender in shaping or determining television and Internet use.

4- To examine media motives and domestic conditions of media use as factors shaping the use of the Internet and television.

1.4 Research Questions

The current research has examined the nature of the television and Internet consumption habits of university students in Saudi Arabia. Its focus is on understanding the individual motives that underpin the use of media and the use of the Internet more especially, in particular whether the emergence of the Internet has taken students away from other media. In order to achieve the aims of the research, a number of specific questions are addressed in this study. These research questions are divided into four main areas.

This study investigates the interaction between Internet use and TV use, which in turn requires examining the nature of TV viewing and the Internet consumption. Previous studies suggest that recent years have seen a fundamental shift in how individuals are choosing to use and consume their media, particularly among young people (Robert et al., 1999; Brasel & Gips, 2011). Therefore, the first set of questions relates to the nature of the Internet and television consumption habits, including the frequency of use, time of use, and reasons of use:

RQ1.1.Does the amount of the Internet use by young highly educated Saudis displaces their television viewing?

RQ1.2. Does the type of Internet use influence television viewing?

RQ1.3. Does gender affects the relationship between Internet use and television viewing?

Literature on the impact of Internet use demonstrates that the appearance of the Internet and traditional media has changed media topography, showing different relationships between new and traditional media such as co-existence, spontaneous convergence and collision, and competition and evolution (Ho & Lee, 2012). Thus, the second set of questions relates to the relationships that exist between the use of the Internet and television among young well-educated Saudis:

RQ2.1. Does the greater use of the Internet in general result in less use of television?

RQ2.2. How often do young Saudis go online to watch live streamed television programmes?

RQ2.3. How often do young Saudis go online to watch catch-up television services?

Literature concerning media technology in the home indicates that parents play a key role in shaping how young people use media in the household (Barkin et al, 2006). Therefore, the third set of questions relates to the circumstances under which television and the Internet is used:

RQ3.1. How is Internet and television use shaped by family restrictions?

RQ3.2. How does online behaviour fit into the social lives of young Saudi people?

RQ3.3. What kinds of family restrictions do young Saudi people face regarding television and Internet use?

RQ3.4. Do family restrictions differ between females and males?

1.5 Thesis Outline

This thesis comprises two main parts, which are divided into nine chapters. The first part is divided into five chapters: the background and introduction form the first chapter, providing an overview of the thesis and its organisation. It presents a rationalisation of the study, its importance, and its objectives. It also presents the statement of the research problem.

Chapter Two presents a review of previous studies of media use among young people and the relationship between Internet and TV consumption, by focusing on gender differences in media use. This chapter also discusses the use of media among young people in the domestic sphere and how family shapes their media use.

Chapter Three is a review of existing literature on the mass media in the Arab world and particularly in Saudi Arabia. This chapter introduces the background of the mass media in Saudi Arabia. The history and development of Saudi media is briefly discussed, including details about radio, television and the Internet. It also looks at variances in the use of old and new media by demographics. The key factors here are gender and age.

Chapter Four reviews the literature on adoption of innovation, displacement theory, uses and gratification theory, and the domestication of technology; these provide the theoretical framework of the current study. The study discusses the rational use of each theory and the integration of the three theories.

Chapter Five describes the research methodology and fieldwork approaches. Data were obtained through the use of three methods: focus group interviews, a self-completion questionnaire, and time diaries. This chapter provides details about the reasons for choosing these methods, the design of the methods, and the qualitative and statistical analysis of the research.

The second part of this thesis is divided into four chapters. Chapter Six presents the main qualitative and quantitative findings of the study. It discusses the patterns of television and Internet use among young Saudis.

Chapter Seven presents findings concerning the relationship between the use of television and the Internet. It explores the effect that Internet use may have on television viewing among Saudi young people. It also examines the possibility of one medium (television) being displaced by another medium (the Internet) by exploring the relationship between the motives for media use and the impact of the Internet on other activities.

Chapter Eight presents findings concerning how television and the Internet fit into the family life of Saudi young people, in order to understand how students consume television and the Internet in a social context. This chapter also discusses different restrictions that shape Saudi young people's engagement with television and the Internet.

Chapter Nine provides general discussion and the conclusion of the study. The limitations of the study are considered and suggestions made regarding areas for further investigation.

CHAPTER TWO

THE INTERNET AND TELEVISION CONSUMPTION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews existing literature on young people's patterns of media use, and the use of the Internet versus traditional media. Most of these studies relating primarily to the Western media context and are situated within the fields of media studies and sociology.

The main research question concerns the relationship between Internet use and TV viewing. This in turn means examining the nature of TV viewing and Internet consumption in order to observe relationships between the two media. Therefore, this chapter starts with reviewing other research related to the consumption of television and the Internet, and the relationship between TV and the Internet. In addition, since this study is concerned principally with attempting to understand the relationships between the Internet use and TV viewing among Saudi males and females, and given the nature of Saudi society, gender is considered a significant factor in this context. It will therefore be relevant to focus on prior research into gender differences within TV viewing and Internet use.

The use of media amongst young people has become a regular part of domestic routine, and the home is where most young people experience media technologies and develop their usage habits. Media in the home not only provides the necessary access to technologies but also allows for parents, in particular, having an impact on how young people perceive and use the media. Furthermore, the integration of such media into social settings is also having a major influence on social interaction between family members. This study focuses on the use of media among young people in the domestic sphere. Therefore, the final section of this chapter will

review the body of literature concerning the use of media in the social and physical environment referred to as the domestic sphere.

2.2 The Nature, Use and Consumption Patterns of Television

Young people are often among the early adopters of different media, with young people mixing and balancing their use of the wide range of media available to them today (Robert et al., 1999). The nature of young people's media use has attracted considerable public and academic interest for many decades. Despite the growing body of research on this topic, significant questions remain about young people's patterns of media use in a constantly evolving media environment.

The media environment of young people has changed in several ways, each of which has affected the kinds of information available and/or how the younger generations interpret that information and integrate it into their daily lives. In the late 1950s and 1960s researchers examined media use including television, radio and records, print (newspapers, magazines, books), and movies. By the 1980s, however, the media landscape seemed quite different. It now included broadcast, cable and satellite television, remote control TV, the VCR, a growing number of books and magazines aimed specifically at young people, numerous audio media (e.g., radio, stereo systems, portable radios, tape and CD players), video games and the personal computer (see Roberts & Foehr,2004). Television viewing by young people has received a great deal of attention (see e.g. Murray, 1980). According to a study conducted in the late 1970s, young people viewed an average of 147 minutes television per day, 65% of which was done in the presence of another family member (Lawrence, Tasker, Daly, Orhiel, & Wozniak, 1986). This figure has doubled over recent decades (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010). Recent figures showed that young people aged between 8 and 18, spent 7 hours a day watching TV (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2010). However, in some Asian countries such as Pakistan the proportion of

TV viewing was less, with young people spending 3-4 hours daily watching television (Zia, 2007).

Recent studies on young people's usage of the media have discovered that television viewing has continued its dominant position as the main form of leisure activity for today's young people. Although the introduction of computers and the Internet has radically transformed home access to media entertainment, television continues to persuade young people to devote substantial portions of their time to its programming (Beentjes, d'Haenens, van der Voort, & Koolstra, 1999; Johnson-Smaragdi, d'Haenens, Krotz, & Hasebrink, 1998, p.497; Roberts, 2000).

Furthermore, gender roles are prevalent in media use, often determining differing media use among women and men (Espinosa, 2010). Previous studies have shown a distinction between males' and females' TV viewing, suggesting that males are more likely to be purposeful and goal-directed in their television viewing. They plan what they will watch (Nathanson et al., 1997; Morley, 1986, 1988) and acquire the remote control (Walker & Bellamy, 1991). On the other hand, females are more likely to view television as a social context for spending time with others so that television viewing is a secondary activity around which interpersonal or emotional goals are sought (Morley, 1988). Most of the female audience perceives television as emotional, educational, relaxing, informative, and for escapism. Thus, men use television as a tool to achieve personal goals (e.g., acquire information, increase arousal), but women use television to satisfy relational needs (Redfern, n.d).

Television viewing is perceived differently by different genders (Redfern, n.d). According to Redfern, television program preferences depend heavily on gender differences. For instance, male audiences are generally associated with factual entertainment, sports and culture

shows, whilst females are generally associated with chat shows, TV or talent shows, soap operas and game/panel/quiz shows. Eggermont (2006) states that boys tend to watch more action series, whereas girls spend more time watching soaps and local drama series.

2.3 The Nature Use and Consumption Patterns of the Internet Use

The advance and development of information communication technologies over the past 20 years has undoubtedly resulted in fundamental changes to daily life. These technologies, in particular the advent of the Internet, have presented new communication opportunities for people of all ages to engage with new media technology. In recent years use of the Internet has spread from being predominantly among younger generations to people of all ages. However, despite this increase in the number and proportion of older Internet users, expectations concerning the age groups of people using the Internet are still negatively associated with age (Nie, 2001; Nie, Stepanikova, Pals, Zheng, & He, 2005; Zhixian, 2008). According to Hargittai & Hinnant (2008) the age group most commonly associated with using the Internet is between 18 and 24, with 86.7% of people in this age group active online in 2003. In 2004 they reported that this age group represented 77% of the total number of people that went online and in 2006 this figure had increased to 88% of the same age group; a higher percentage than for any other age group (Fox, 2004; Madden, 2006). A new Pew Internet Project reveals that 93% of young adults aged between the ages of 18 and 29 go online. These figures suggest that predictions about generational differences are on target regarding the diffusion of basic Internet use. Young adults are much more likely than their older counterparts to be online.

The Internet presents a fantastic world of opportunities for young people, filled with both good and bad consequences. Considerable attention and concern are now focused on how young consumers use the Internet because they are seen as the ‘digital generation’ at the vanguard of

new skills and technologies, yet also vulnerable and at risk (Livingstone, 2003). The fast development and increasing penetration of the Internet in the lives of the younger generation is now well established (Gross, 2004). It is very important to know what exactly young people are doing when they are online, what activities they are engaged in and what motivates them to use the Internet. It is essential also to know how the younger generation use traditional and current media technologies and what the role of mass mediated messages means to the young people of today. Therefore, researchers (Livingstone, 2002; McMillan & Morrison, 2006; Oksman & Turtiainen, 2004; Valdez, 2003) have been particularly interested in looking at Internet usage among young people.

Since college students are considered young people a number of research studies of Internet use have investigated college student samples. For example, Jones and Madden (2002) argued that university students during a typical day spent roughly as much time using the Internet as other Internet users. However, they tended to spend a good deal of that time in online communications. In addition, 74% of college students spent four or more hours per week online, with 19% spending more time using the Internet for social activities than time spent devoted to studying (Jones & Madden, 2002).

There are a variety of public places where the public can access the Internet; these include libraries, Internet cafes, and various public 'hotspots' where Internet connections are available via Wi-Fi. Young people can access the Internet in schools and universities and most have online access at home as well. Previous studies (Kelly, 2007; Safdar et al., 2010) found that the most common location to access the Internet was at home, followed by school or university and then at either a friend's or relative's home. The studies have found that young people aged between 20 and 29 tend to favour school and home equally as the most common access points.

However, in some developing countries Internet cafes are very popular, mainly because most homes are not connected to the Internet due to the high costs of owning a computer. Although the number of home Internet connections is rising, accessing the Internet from cafes is still popular among the young (Osang, 2012). Others studies indicate that Internet café is not the common location to access the Internet among young people. For example, in Africa Batane (2013) found that the majority of young people mostly accessed the Internet in their respective schools through the library and computer labs. Only 2% had access at their homes and they rarely visited other places such as Internet cafes for access, and they only did that when schools were closed.

The emergence of the Internet was associated with concerns about what young people do with media. The Internet has been considered a popular tool among young people for downloading music or getting information about movies, books and other leisure activities (Rainie & Kohut, 2000). Young people often use the Internet to send emails, to listen to music, to chat with friends and play games, with entertainment and communication online activities comprising around 75% of young people's Internet time (Batane, 2013; Dunne, Lawlor & Rowley, 2010; Shanahan & Elliott, 2009).

The main areas of Internet use by young people can be classified into two major categories: the Internet as a channel of entertainment and fun, and the Internet as a source of information for schoolwork. The Internet was the preferred media choice for information-driven activities (see Forgas & Nerge, 2004; Chan & Fan, 2007). The Pew Internet and American Life Project conducted a survey in 2005 on 'teens and technology'. The study revealed that teenagers' use of the Internet has intensified and broadened as they log on more often and do more things

when they are online. Some of their Internet activities include playing games, online shopping, researching news and obtaining information on health issues.

Sending and receiving e-mail is the most common Internet activity among young people. 'Instant messaging' is also a frequent activity among many online users (Nie & Erbring, 2000; UCLA Center for Communication Policy, 2001). Internet research by the Pew Research Center (2001) showed that about 20% of teens used instant messaging as a way of contacting friends. According to a survey carried out by the Pew Research Center's Internet & American Life Project, younger users aged between 12 and 28 have adopted online applications that help them communicate effectively, that are creative and that also have social uses. Macmillan & Morrison (2006) also argued that young people use the Internet to maintain contact with friends and family and to build stronger ties with communities that also exist offline.

Furthermore, there are numerous debates on the link between gender and Internet usage. Many researchers are aware of gender inequality in Internet usage. Nowadays, however, females are being exposed to different media technologies and have increased their online activity since Internet access has become widely available for them. The gap in Internet usage between males and females is labelled as gender-related digital divide and it has been the subject of many scholarly debates. According to Cullen (2001) the digital divide has become a convenient metaphor to describe the perceived disadvantages of those who either are unable or do not choose to make use of these technologies in their daily life.

Studies of gender and the Internet also note different usage patterns in terms of frequency of Internet use. Researchers indicate that an increase in usage among males is particularly marked during the weekend. Along with other factors, time spent online is an important variable when measuring Internet use, with males using the Internet more frequently and for longer hours

and females more tending to fall in the category of moderate users (Winker, 2005). Munusamy & Ismail (2009) found that Malaysian females face greater limitations and time constraints than males on accessing the Internet, due to family commitments.

Gender differences in Internet usage and online behaviour have attracted considerable interests (Hupfer & Detlor, 2006). Liu & Huang (2008) studied male/female differences in web search materials by focusing on the online reading environment, showing that there is a significant difference between genders with female readers having stronger preference than males for paper as a reading medium. Meanwhile, male readers gain a greater sense of satisfaction from online reading. Thus the study reported that there are some significant differences between male and female behaviour in the online reading environment. Hupfer & Detlor (2006) and Garbarino & Strahilevitz (2004) found further apparent gender differences in web searching, with women more interested in e-mail, chat, and government information, while men tend to focus on information about investments, purchasing and personal interests. Recent study (Munusamy & Ismail, 2009) has shown that both genders have equal access to Internet, but that differences are noticed in terms of usage patterns. Access is similar for both genders, probably because both males and females have high exposure to technology through their educational experience.

2.4 Relationships between the Use of the Internet and the Use of Television

Media usage, alone and in groups, has become habitual in the everyday lives of young people around the world (Roberts and Foehr, 2008). For example, media plays a highly significant part of contemporary young people's lives in Malaysia (Baboo et al., 2013). Young people combine various forms of media usage but tend to use each separate medium for a short period of time (Rožukalne, 2012). One of the aims of the current study is to investigate how university students

use the Internet in comparison to their use of other forms of mass media, such as television. It is therefore essential to carry out a review of the literature relating to Internet use and traditional media use and how users use traditional media in the presence of new media.

The success and popularity associated with online media such as the Internet has inspired research into the degree of competition that the Internet poses to other forms of media. There are a number of studies focusing on the use of the Internet in comparison to other media. Recently, a growing amount of research has considered the impact of computer-mediated communications on older media, with particular interest in whether the Internet is taking audiences from newspapers, radio and television. Since the introduction of the Internet as a medium for ordinary people in the early 1990s, researchers have been interested in the effect of the Internet on traditional media (Finholt, & Sproull, 1990; James, Wotring, & Forrest, 1995; Robinson, Barth, & Kohut, 1997). According to Ho & Lee (2012) the appearance of the Internet alongside traditional media has changed the media topography, showing different relationships between the new and traditional media such as co-existence, spontaneous convergence and collision, and competition and evolution. However, different studies provide conflicting reports concerning how the Internet has an impact on existing media. Previous research on the impact of new media on traditional media has produced mixed and sometimes contradictory results on how traditional media are affected by new forms. Certain past research has suggested that some users of older media shift to a new medium when it is introduced, a phenomenon known as media displacement (this perspective will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4), while other studies found that new media operates as more of a complement to traditional media.

Numerous studies have explored displacement effects in relation to established media including radio (Lazarsfeld, 1940), television (Rubenstein et al., 1973; Williams, 1986), and the

Internet (Althaus and Tewksbury, 2000; Finholt and Sproull, 1990; James et al., 1995; Kayany and Yelsma, 2000; Kaye and Johnson, 2002, 2003; Lin, 2001; Robinson et al., 1997; Tewksbury and Althaus, 2000; Xiang & Sarvary, 2007; Livingstone & Markham, 2008). Researchers have presented findings that the relationship between new and traditional media is a competitive or more/less relationship (Nguyen & Western, 2006). In other words, the more people use the Internet, the less they use traditional media. Hence, the Internet is replacing traditional media in individuals' lives. These findings suggest that due to the Internet individuals spend less time watching TV. The amount of time available for media use is limited for most audiences. Therefore, it is quite logical to assume that the hours spent on a new medium would reduce or displace the time consumed by existing media (James et al, 1995; Kaynay & Yelsma 2000), using telephones (James et al, 1995; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000), reading newspapers (Kayany, 2000), reading books (James et al, 1995), writing letters (James et al, 1995), and/or participating in interpersonal conversation (Kraut et. al, 1998).

Research from both an academic and industry perspective finds that the time spent using the Internet has affected the amount of time that most individuals spend watching the television. In 2002, the Pew Internet & American Life Project conducted a survey by Reinter, who interviewed 1,501 Americans previously consulted in March 2000, to explore how people's Internet use changed over the course of a year and to analyse the amount of time spent using the Internet. The results found that the use of email and the Internet had changed the amount of time they spent watching TV. Almost one third (31%) of the respondents reported that the Internet had reduced the time they spend watching television. Further, Horrigan and Rainie (2002) investigated the impact of broadband use on the time spent on daily routine activities. The Pew Internet & American Life Project survey also included variables examining the impact of

broadband on an individual's use of time. This survey found that the use of broadband reduced the time spent watching television and increased the amount of time spent 'working from home', with Internet users spending less time in the work place, less time reading newspapers and less time shopping.

Other studies applied a time diary method to examine the impact of new media on conventional media (see Gershuny, 2002; Pronovost, 2002; Ferguson & Perse, 2000; Ishii, 2004; Mannell et al, 2005; Vandewater & Lee, 2009). Given that the availability of time that can be devoted to such things as using mass media and enjoying leisure activities is limited by the 24-hour day, the introduction of a new medium such as the Internet will necessarily decrease the time spent with existing media or activities. For example, Pronovost (2002) found that those who use the Internet daily worked less, slept less and had more free time, but instead of using their free time for more television viewing, they used it for IT purposes. In general, on a long-term basis, Internet users worked more, slept only a little less, had less free time and watched less TV.

Most of the research investigating whether or not the Internet is taking time away from traditional media has focused on television, since television and the Internet share many similar functions including entertainment, passing time and relaxation. People are increasingly browsing the Internet at the same time as they are watching television in order to broaden their knowledge or to keep abreast with what is on television (Kaye and Johnson, 2003). In addition, scholars have argued that the Internet obtains power to supersede older media by merging the specialised functions previously attributed to newspapers, radio, telephones, books and television. This line of research compares the motivations of television and Internet users, since the Internet has changed and now possesses many functions that are similar to television (Zheng et al., 2008). It concludes that the Internet will replace television if users use both media for similar purposes.

Other previous studies suggest that the Internet has not been a serious competitor to traditional media (see Cai, 2005; Thorson et al., 2005; Diddi & LaRose, 2006; Cauwenberge, d'Haenens, & Hans Beentjes, 2010). These studies seem to suggest that there is a more-more relationship, instead of more-less, between new media and long-established media uses (Su & Fleming, 2008). For example, as individuals' use of new media for information purposes increases, so too does their use of other traditional media to access information. Likewise, the more they use new media for entertainment, the more they use traditional media for entertainment. Such studies indicate that the replacement or displacement of traditional media by the Internet does not happen in reality. The Pew research survey in 1999 found that traditional media use, such as newspapers or television, actually increases as people go online. According to the survey, 41% of those who go online state that they turn to the Internet to get more information on stories first seen in the traditional media.

Althaus & Tewksbury (2000) argue that browsing the Web among college students is associated with an increase in reading newspapers, although they did not find any significant connection between Web browsing and television news viewing. Stempel III, Hargrove & Bernt (2000) also report that Internet users are more likely to be newspaper readers and radio news listeners. In their study they found no significant difference between Internet users and non-users in terms of viewing local and network television programs. Other research studies (Atkin, Jeffres, & Neuendorf, 1998; Robinson, Barth, & Kohut, 1997) also present similar results, suggesting that owners of home computers are more likely than non-owners to read print media such as traditional newspapers.

Based on previous discussions, the literature review shows somewhat mixed evidence about the relationship between Internet use and traditional media use. A common theory is that

both television viewing and newspaper reading have declined since the Internet was introduced (Kraut et.al., 1998; Haythornthwaite & Wellman, 2002; Nie & Erbring, 2000). However, it may be premature to conclude that Internet usage has caused the decline in television viewing. Hence, this study attempts to explore whether the increase of Internet use among Saudi students has had any effect on their use of traditional media, particularly TV.

Based on the literature surveyed above, it seems that in order to understand how young people fit new media such the Internet into their lives, it is necessary to examine how and with whom young people use different media in the domestic sphere. Thus, the next section discusses studies about media use in the family context.

2.5 The Use of the Internet and Television in the Family Setting

As discussed previously, different media are commonly used by young people and have been integrated into their daily lives. Young people's engagement with media devices in the domestic setting varies greatly, as do the decisions they make regarding when, where, and how these devices are utilised. This invites the question as to how the young organise their homes for media consumption, and to find an answer it is necessary to review the existing literature concerning the social and physical environment in which such media use occurs. This is referred to as the domestic sphere, although the present research does not use the same approach as that used in many previous studies. Most of the available literature regarding the use of technology in the home has applied 'domestication theory' (explained in more detail in chapter four). Previous research suggests that this theory helps to explain how technologies, in particular media and computing technologies, become part of our everyday lives (Haddon, 2006). These qualitative studies (ethnographic, observation, and in-depth interviews) looked at media practices in the home environment.

Today's domestic environments contain a multitude of media goods, which are often spread throughout the house and used by various inhabitants (Van Rompaey & Roe, 2001; Livingstone, 2002). Since the entry of television in the 1950s, many scholars have been interested in examining the role of media within people's home lives. In the 1980s audience research carried out by researchers such as Lull (1980), Hobson (1980) & Morley (1986) focused on the household and considered this a social environment in which different media play important roles in everyday life. By the 1990s studies on families turned to focus on the introduction and impact of old mass media and new information and communication technologies in the home environment (Livingston 1992; Livingston & Bovil 1999; Seiter 1999; Buckingham 2000). These studies focused on relationships between household members, the types of household activities undertaken, the ways in which new media are utilised in the home and the competing interpretations and uses they are put to.

The domestication of television among young people has received prolonged attention from key scholars (including Livingstone, 1999; Livingstone, 2002; Roberts, 2000; Marshall, Gorely, & Biddle, 2006; Livingstone, 2007; Adriaens, 2012). Studies of young people's media usage have affirmed that "television viewing maintains its dominant position in today's youth's leisure time'' (Eggermont, 2006: 742). However, most of these studies have focused on how television acts as a cultural space in which family closeness and sociability are performed, arguing that TV has a crucial role in routine contact between friends and family members (Livingstone 2002; Author et al 2011a & 2011b).

Since time and space in the domestic context are intimately involved with the consumption of media technologies it was necessary to understand the location of the television within the households. It is clear that television is embedded in the sociability of daily life, often

supporting a variety of daily activities including homework, family time and mealtimes (Livingstone, 2002). Past studies have expressed concern about the location of the television and it is relationship to media consumption, particularly among young people. For many years the television has been placed in a central location in the living room and has acted as a central gathering point for all family members. This phase of the television being embedded in the living room goes back to the 1950s when the living room was often the only room in the house that was heated. The television performed a key role in bringing families together and started to function as a new central point in the households. This also affected the physical placement of furniture and interior design of the room with regards to where the TV was placed. In most Western households, the presence of a television in the living room, along with other TV related technologies such as VCR and DVD players, has become as natural as the comfortable seats that surround family members (Speigel, 1992). During this family time the television acts as the device for gathering the family together in shared experiences, shared interests, pleasures and conflicts (Harper, 2011).

However, nowadays many families are in a position to own more than one TV set which means that many young people have a TV in their bedroom (Comstock & Scharrer, 2012). This will undoubtedly have an effect on the television viewing habits of young people in the home. Livingstone (2007) argues that there has been a shift in media use from an era best characterised as "family television" to one of individualised media lifestyles. In the case of children and young people, this had generated a 'bedroom culture'. In addition, television is now available on a number of different platforms, including the Internet via computers, iPods, cell phones and similar devices (Rideout et al., 2010). The result has been a clear trend towards greater viewing alone.

Literature concerning media technology in the home is often framed around how it has become domesticated, and also addressing how technology shapes and becomes a part of one's gender identity. Gender refers to the social construction of masculinity and femininity and how women and men may relate to stereotypical images of gender identity (such as men being technologically competent; Rommes, 2002).

Previous studies argue that gender is a key determinant in studying television viewing in family contexts (Morley 1988; Mackay & Ivey 2004). Therefore, academic audience researchers have been interested in understanding gender differences in media use in the domestic sphere. However, there has been no consensus about the effect of gender in relation of television viewing. Studies such as (Roe, 2000) and Adriaens (2012) revealed that there are gender differences related to television consumption where boys watch TV more frequently than girls, with their preferred programme choice being comedies and animation whereas girls prefer to watch reality TV (Adriaens, 2012). Eggermont (2006) argued that traditional gender distinctions can be observed within TV viewing choices, where girls preferred 'soap series' and boys preferred action films.

These differences in viewing styles reflect females' role in households, as household chores and family maintenance are often part of the rhythm of females' television viewing. Earlier studies (e.g. Morley, 1988) revealed that females are more likely to view television in a social context. According to Morley, women tend to spend viewing time with others, during which television viewing is a secondary activity through which interpersonal or emotional goals are sought. On the other hand, males tend to use television as a device to enhance personal goals, such as gaining information. Similarly, Adriaens et al (1997) found that 'social-viewing' is

more common amongst female young people whereas male young people will more commonly undertake solitary viewing.

Studies have revealed that there are also gender differences in relation to media multitasking, in that girls tend to multitask more than boys (Foehr, 2006; Roberts and Foehr, 2008). Family members may coordinate or combine household activities such as doing the ironing while watching television (Church, 2010). Although simultaneous television viewing and using other media may not always take place, TV is highly likely to be shared with a variety of non-media activities such as eating. Watching TV is most often combined with listening to music, reading, video gaming and emailing (Andriaens, 2011).

With the use of media technologies often embedded in domestic routines, it is not only television that is dominantly present in almost every household. Digital and new media technologies such as "video games, computer games, the Internet and email" (Aarsand 2007:235) are now an essential part of the everyday lives of young people in the western world. According to literature on household computers, which had been newly introduced into the domestic sphere back in the 1980s, when many fewer home computers existed these were mainly used for word processing, home working and computer gaming (Venkatesh 1996; Frohlich & Kraut 2002; Lally 2002). During the 1990s computer usage changed and computers were adapted to fit the requirements of the household, becoming more integrated into the home. Education, family communication, family leisure and travel, shopping and domestic finances became common themes for home computer use (Venkatesh 1996). This demonstrates not only the changing and evolving use of home computers and the Internet (Meszaros 2002), but also the ways in which home life shapes how computers are used, becoming more integrated and domesticated (Kennedy, 2011).

As with television, the home use of computers and the Internet depends not only on the functionality of available services. It is also affected in a very practical way by how the computer itself is located, managed and shared between family members (Frohlich & Kraut, 2003). Early research into personal computers revealed that where people put the computer, either in a private home office or a shared area, significantly influences who uses it and when it is used (Frohlich & Kraut 2002; Haddon & Skinner 1991; Aro & Peteri 2003).

As discussed previously, there has been a shift from family television viewing to a more personalised media lifestyle which has resulted in a 'bedroom culture'. In respect of online activities there has also been a shift in the balance between communal family life and the private lives of young people. Internet use among young people is becoming more personal and socially exclusive, and as a result the younger generation is spending less time with their family members (Bovill & Livingstone 2001). McGrath (2012, P: 37) noted that "the location of digital technologies within the household plays an inherent role in the social interaction between household members". Thus, Internet use is deemed a solitary activity that can potentially isolate family members from one another (McGrath, 2012).

The experience of using the Internet in the home varies in the younger generation according to age, socio-economic status, geography, gender and culture. Therefore, academic audience researchers have been interested in understanding the relationship between gender and technology in a social context, and in particular the domestic context (McQuillan, 2009). Past studies (Whitley 1997; Tsai & Lin, 2004; Livingstone & Helsper, 2005) were interested in examining gender and new technology use among young people, and the outcomes of these studies revealed a mixed picture. Earlier studies argued that males used the Internet more often and for a longer time than females (Clemente, 1998; Kraut et al., 1998; Bimber, 1988). However,

more recent researchers (e.g. Schumacher & Morahan-Martin, 2001 Hunley et al., 2005; Tsai & Lin, 2004) reported that the gap between the sexes in the amount of time spent using the Internet has narrowed, with females now more experienced in using the Internet than previously and more content relating to women's interests having become available.

Although some literature suggests that the gender gap in computer use is narrowing, there continues to be a difference between the sexes' respective online activities and the content that this is accessed (Clemente, 1998). Findings from marketing reports and academic research support the idea that seeking information and playing games are the most common online activities for young people. Hunley et al. (2005) reported that girls' computer use was mainly for homework, and boys' computer use was mainly for games. Reviewing the available literature on media use in the family context, this study was able to explore the nature of media use in the household and how different media appeal differently to young people. This then raised the question of how young people select from the various forms of media available in the home.

Parents play a key role in shaping how their children use media in the home (Barkin et al, 2006), and questions about how parents regulate media use in the domestic space have long been studied by various media researchers (Buckingham 1993; Pasquier 2001; Valkenburg et al. 1999; Warren 2001; Livingstone 2002; Livingstone & Helsper, 2008). Research on the regulation of media use continued throughout the 1990s when increasing emphasis was placed on parents' responsibility for media use in the home (Livingstone 2002). Studies have distinguished different types of parental mediation, factors that predict mediation and its potential effects. These previous studies have been predominantly paid attention to parental mediation of young people's television use, including parents watching television alongside their children and managing the

overall amount of time spent watching television or the particular programs viewed (Austin, 1993; Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000).

Previous research into parental mediation (e.g., Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, & Marseille, 1999; Austin, 1993; Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000; Padilla-Walker and Coyne, 2010; Park, 2011) has defined three distinct strategies: restrictive mediation, co-viewing, and instructive mediation. According to Nathanson and Yang (2005, p: 1), restrictive mediation involves "setting rules on youth's television consumption" regarding the amount and times of viewing and the type of content. Co-viewing refers to "the simple act of watching television with their children" without discussion about its content or use. Instructive or active mediation consists of discussing television content during and after viewing.

Gender is another factor that has been found to determine or affect the level of parental mediation. According to Carlson, Grossbart, & Tripp (1990), Buckingham (1993), Pasquier (2001), Valkenburg et al. (1999) and Warren (2001), mothers mediate their children's activities more than fathers, "perhaps because they are more often present in the home, and also because domestic regulation is commonly perceived as part of the maternal role." (Livingstone, 2007:14). In addition, in general parents use greater levels of mediation for younger children and girls than for older children or for boys (Weaver and Barbour 1992; Nikken, 2004; Nikken & Jansz, 2006; Mendoza, 2009).

With the introduction of new media within the home several studies have documented the extent of parental concerns about new media and discussed the mediation strategies they used to guide their children's use. For example, the impact of videogames, Internet content or the time their children spend online (Eastin, Greenberg & Hofshire, 2006; Livingstone & Helsper, 2008; Nikken & Jansz, 2006; Van den Eijnden, Spijkerman, Vermulst, Van Rooij & Engels, 2010;

Rideout, Foehr & Roberts, 2010; Livingstone, Haddon, Görzig, Olafsson, 2009; Ofcom, 2011) are particular areas of concern for parents.

Parents encounter several challenges when regulating young people's media use. These include the proliferation of media devices in households, especially in children's bedrooms, and the growing complexity of media and communication technologies. Particularly in respect of new media, lack of technical expertise may hinder the application of parental mediation at home (Facer, Furlong, Furlong, & Sutherland, 2003; Livingstone & Bober, 2006). Young people increasingly have televisions and computers in their bedrooms making their media consumption more personal and private. The privacy of this media location makes mediation problematic for parents who find it increasingly difficult to monitor their children's TV consumption and Internet use (Lenhart, Rainie, &Lewis 2001; Livingstone 2002; Livingstone & Bovill 2001). During these studies the question was raised as to whether parents use similar mediation strategies to monitor their children's Internet use as those developed for television (Livingstone & Helsper, 2008).

A number of studies examining parental mediation of the Internet indicate that traditional parental mediation styles are also applicable to Internet use (Kirwil, 2009; Lee & Chae, 2007; Lewin et al., 2008; Warren & Bluma, 2002), arguing that parents apply familiar types of restrictive and active mediation to online activities and that some parents are also engaged in co-using the Internet with their children. However, further research (Livingstone & Helsper, 2008) identified four types of parental mediation that differed from those distinguished on the basis of television-based research, namely: active co-use, interaction restrictions, technical restrictions, and monitoring. Livingstone & Helsper (2008) noted that these mediation approaches share some features with those previously identified for television viewing, while also indicating certain differences as a result of new strategies used by parents to meet the new challenges brought by

the Internet. Active co-use includes instructive interactions and sharing the experience of using the Internet by sitting next to the child (social co-use). Technical restrictions can include the installation of various filters and monitoring software on the computer, whilst other monitoring strategies involved parents checking the websites children visited by searching through the history (Kirwil, 2009).

Previous reviews have predicted that the types of parental mediation applied will have a different impact on how much young people watch television or use the Internet. The present study therefore addresses how parental regulation shapes media use in households, focusing on television, computers and the Internet. It also discusses how families frame their rules and values in relation to how the young people of Saudi Arabia access and use the Internet.

With the increased use of the Internet, concern over its social influence has grown. The interactive nature of new media technologies provides new opportunities for communication, information, entertainment and problem-solving (Anderson & Hanson 2009) which may affect various offline activities. Literature on the impact of the Internet on social activities frequently focuses on its impact on interpersonal communication, including communication with family and friends, suggesting that online media has disrupted communication between family members (Mesch, 2003; Kraut et al., 2006). The HomeNet study conducted by Kraut et al. (1998) used longitudinal data to examine the relationships between Internet use, social involvement and psychological consequences, finding that an increased use of the Internet was associated with a decline in family communication and the size of the user's social circle, as well as increases in loneliness and depression.

Using the Internet on a daily basis has affected the quality of many of the younger generation's relationships with parents and friends. Media scholars have explored different

potential explanations for this phenomenon where parents identify increased Internet use as creating distance within the family, leading to a decrease in family cohesiveness (see Mesch, 2003).

Nie et al. (2004) conducted a study based on family time diaries, and argued that Internet use is negatively associated with family time. Nie and his associates found negative relationships between Internet use at home and time spent with family, with friends, watching TV and sleeping. However, other studies found that the Internet has a positive relationship on social activities (Kiesler, 2002; Lee, 2009; Amichai-Hamburger & Hayat, 2011). These scholars have strongly suggested that the Internet might improve the scope of knowledge, generate new relationships and broaden the canvas of social engagements and ties among youngsters (Bimber 1997; Jones 1995). Users include new media in their social lives, and instead of displacing social activities there are positive relationships between time spent with new media and activities involving friends (Endestad et al., 2011). Lee (2009) noted that although the amount of time spent online has been associated with a decrease in the levels of communication and time spent with parents, time spent with friends was considered as being not replaced by online activities. Young people who already had strong social relationships formed from an early age were more likely to use online communication, which in turn resulted in more coherent friendships both in and out of the classroom.

Other scholars found a significant variance in the overall time allocation of Internet users and non-users (deHaan & Huysmans 2002, Fu, Wang & Qiu 2002). Considering different perspectives, the Internet can function as both a ‘time displacer’ and a ‘time enhancer’ (Robinson, Kestnbaum, Neustadtl & Alvarez, 2002). For example, while Internet users saw a reduction in time spent on certain activities, they conversely spend more time on others, such as

reading, when compared with non-users. Heavy Internet users spent more time alone during the diary day than non-Internet users, even when compared to people of the same social and demographic background. Although they spent less time with family and friends, many heavy Internet users participated in online activities involving social interaction, such as email or chatting with others (Veenhof, 2006).

2.6 Summary

This chapter has looked at a number of areas of empirical literature relevant to the study, starting with media use among young people. It is evident from the literature that the Internet activities of young people differ from those of the public in general. In fact, college students spend more time on-line than other Internet users. Although previous studies of young peoples' Internet use have produced relatively consistent findings with regard to usage patterns, they have left several important gaps in our knowledge. For instance, various studies report the average amount of time young people spend with the Internet, but these averages differ widely.

Moreover, media surrounds young people in the home, while gender plays a significant role in television consumption and Internet use in the domestic space. These differences in media use are reflected in females' role in the household, since household tasks and family care are often part of the rhythm of females' media use, particularly television viewing.

Nowadays media use among young people has increasingly turned into a solitary activity and there has been a recent historical shift from the model of the family utilising media in the living room to media scattered throughout the home, particularly in the bedroom (Livingston, 2010). Previous studies have been interested in understanding the role of parents in guiding and controlling children's media use. An analysis of the studies undertaken on this topic reveals that they invariably focus on the strategies that parents use to regulate media use in the home. In

addition, the study has reviewed literature related to what motivates young people to use the Internet and analysed the aspirations and goals that young people can expect to obtain from new media. The significance of the Internet functions in the context of the current review can be found in its potential to describe as a media that consumers might prefer to turn to.

Previous research on how university students use the Internet in comparison to other means of mass communication produced mixed findings, which can be attributed to several factors. Firstly, these studies did not seem to pay attention to the long-term changes that new media such as the Internet would bring to traditional media usage patterns. Some scholars claimed that the "novelty effect" of new technology reduces with the integration of existing and new technologies, followed by a "new equilibrium position" of media use emerging. Secondly, the functions of communication technologies, especially the Internet, have dramatically changed as people have assimilated these new technologies further into their daily lives. Due to changes in the media environment, the various media themselves also need to change in order to meet changing needs (Perse & Courtright, 1993). Thus, the Internet has expanded its functions from merely sending and receiving messages to providing entertainment, establishing social networks (Kim, 2007), information retrieval, information output and a variety of conversational capabilities (Flanagan and Metzger, 2001).

Having reviewed literature about Internet and TV use among young people in Western media context in this chapter, next chapter will turn to examine the use of both media in Saudi context.

CHAPTER THREE

MASS MEDIA IN THE ARAB REGION AND SAUDI ARABIA

3.1 Introduction

Mass media is recognised as playing an increasingly prominent role in the daily lives of individuals in countries all over the world, including the Arab nations (Rugh, 2004:4). However, since the Arab society is ruled by religion, culture and tradition in all daily activities, the use of mass media in this region might be somewhat different from that in the rest of the world. The mass media in the Arab world has undergone significant and radical changes because of the greater access to various sources of media (Hafez, 2001). Therefore, Arab audiences have become less predictable, more fragmented and more variable in their engagement with different types of media.

This chapter reviews major mass media research works carried out in the Arab world up to the present day. These works reflect not only a visible cultural influence in framing media issues, but in determining how they are methodologically approached. These studies have focused mainly on two main areas: traditional media such as print media and television; and new media such as the Internet. However, although mass media academic research has been carried out in the Arab world during the past two decades, the majority of these works has been descriptive, historical or empirically-oriented, seeking to test in the main, a range of Western theories and hypotheses in Arab settings (Ayish, 1998).

Saudi Arabia is one of the Arab countries in which new media might compete strongly with traditional media. Despite the fact that traditional forms of media have become more flexible and are able to activate the concept of interactive media, the new media was designed to

attract more users and create more interaction (Al-Husseny, 2011). For this reason, an introduction to the specific context of media in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia is essential in informing the empirical work conducted in this study. Initially, this chapter provides a general introduction to the media in the Arab world. Throughout this chapter, an attempt has been made to engage with the current literature relating to television and the Internet, with specific reference to the nature and limitations of this research.

3.2 Mass Media in the Arab World

Mass media can be viewed as a reflection of the cultural, political and social environment of a society. Therefore, it can be argued that studying media in the Middle East may be a way of better understanding the nature of the Arab world (Rugh, 2004). The mass media in the Arab world and the Middle East has undergone profound change since the beginning of the 1990s (Al-Jenaibi, 2008). The introduction and spread of new technologies such as satellite television and the Internet have changed the nature of the Arab public sphere and extended media spaces beyond the local, regional and national realm (Hafez & Paletz, 2001).

The arrival of both electronic and print media into the Middle East first occurred in those countries with a colonial history (Al-Rumaihi, 2002). For example, the introduction of these forms of media into the Arabia Peninsula differed greatly from the way print media and radio arrived in North Africa, Iraq and the Levant (Syria, the Lebanon, Palestine and Jordan). The colonial powers (Britain in Palestine, Egypt and Iraq; France in Syria, Lebanon and North Africa) encouraged interest in printing in order to enable more effective communication, between their own forces as well as the governed populations (Boyd, 1988) whereas in the Arabian Peninsula Islam dominated people daily life, where the introduction of mass media was accompanied by some resistance.

All eighteen Arab countries publish newspapers and magazines. The first Arabic newspaper, written by and for an Arab readership, seems to have been the Journal al-Iraq, first published in 1816, in both Arabic and Turkish. After this, two more Arab newspapers were started in Cairo in the 1820s; Algeria followed in 1847, Beirut in 1858, Tunis in 1861, Damascus in 1865, Libya in 1866, Casablanca in 1889, Khartoum in 1899 and Mecca in 1908 (Rugh, 2004).

Although a small number of Arab countries had their own radio stations before World War II, the first actual Arab radio broadcasting aired in the 1920s. Most Arab states had their own radio broadcasting systems in place soon after this, but the first Arab country to formally inaugurate its radio transmissions was Oman, in 1970. Radio was established as a powerful medium from the beginning and even today it remains a popular source of information, being used by a sizeable percentage of the population across almost all Arab countries. This can be explained by a number of factors: the relatively high level of illiteracy in many Arab countries; the relatively low cost of radio; and perhaps most importantly ability to overcome infrastructural obstacles, such as the need to transmit over great distances with a lack of electrical power sources or poor distribution networks.

The broadcasting of Arab television began in the late 1950s, with limited provision being offered by the new transmitters established in the capital cities of Iraq and Lebanon. Thirteen more Arab nations began to broadcast television three years later, in 1960. It was not until 1975, however, when North Yemen launched its own television station, that all Arab countries had their own, independent television provision (http://www.answers.com/topic/radio-and-television-arab-countries).

Prior to this time, Arab audiences had already started to watch foreign television stations. For example, the French speaking populations in the North African countries of Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria were able to watch French television stations. Meanwhile, Arab countries which were situated near major US military bases, such as Libya near the Wheelus base, were exposed to television broadcast by the US armed forces. Some of the Arab people in the eastern province of Saudi Arabia were also able to watch American TV programmes, which were transmitted by the local services for the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO). By the time the third generation of the Arab Satellite communication Organisation (ARABSAT) system had been launched in the mid-1980s,

> "…almost all Arab government television broadcasters had gone international. The Arab broadcasting scene has also seen the proliferation of commercial television services transmitting their satellite TV programmes from inside the Arab world as well as from outside" (Ayish, 1998, p: 15).

This growth continued, with Arab audiences having access to around sixty satellite television Arabic channels by the end of 1997 (Ayish, 1998). The development of satellite systems and telecommunication technologies provided movement to a direct broadcast satellite revolution in the Arab world (Boyd, 1999) where Arab audiences were capable to watch and follow what was going on in the other regions across the world.

3.3 Traditional Media Use in the Arab World

Despite the seismic changes in Arab mass media demonstrated by the previous discussion, comparatively little academic published research has been conducted into the effects that electronic media has had on the populations of the Arab world. This can at least partially be attributed to the following reasons:

> "Arab television broadcasters get little or no formal scientific feedback from the audience. It is not the practice of these broadcasters to undertake either studies providing information about programme preferences or research exploring the uses of television among viewers. Most reliable data came from surveys commissioned by manufacturers wanting information about consumers' brand preferences" (Boyd, 1982: 47).

Traditional media research in the Arab region mainly focusing on the patterns consumption of television and satellites TV. A series of empirical studies have examined television consumption habits in the Arab world (e.g. Abdel Rahman, 1998; Karam, 2007; Harmon, 2008; Al-Hasan, 2008; Al-Dabubi and Aamar, 2010). These works provided significant findings about TV consumption habits among Arab audiences, describing how people watch television in the households and why they watch it. Although most of these studies have attempted to explore the motives of television use, however, it neglected examine the factors that may influence people TV viewing and the relationship between people' consumption of TV and these factors.

The developmental changes satellite broadcasting in the Arab world has shifted Arab scholars' attention to examine the use of satellite TV. Most of studies about audiences for the electronic media in the Arab region were master and doctoral theses at Western universities. One of the first of these studies was completed by Fatah (1989), who argued that new Arab satellite broadcasting technology was instrumental in the exchange of TV productions in the Arab region. A number of studies have looked at the role played by electronic media in providing cultural awareness and reinforcing social norms, for example (Boyd, 1999; Bataineh, 2001; Ayish, 2002; Al-Qarni, 2004). On the other hand, a related area of investigation pertains to the habits and preferences of Arab audiences with regards to satellite TV (Abdel Rahmn, 1998; Al-Shaqsi, 2000; Al-Asfar, 2002; Mohammed, 2002; Al-Eid, 2006; Rizkallah and Razzouk, 2006; Jamal and Melkote, 2008; Elareshi, 2012). These works have focused on satellite TV consumption

habits of young people, providing significant data about some of the factors that might underpin the news consumption habits of those young people.

In the context of the discussions above, it should be noted that the majority of existing studies have used surveys to gather quantitative data for analysis. This might because this methodology is sufficiently known in the Arab academic field, and it is the most popular theory that has been used by Arab scholars. Although uses and gratification theory has been criticized in the West, most of Arab media research relied on it to examine the use of different media. Most of Arab studies depend upon the 'uses and gratification' approach for the measurement and discussion of audience motivation for consuming satellite TV, as well as for identifying the ways in which television seeks to fulfill the needs of its audience.

The evolution that has been observed in the mass media in Arab world has been particularly characterised by the introduction of the new forms of media, the most important of which is the Internet. Therefore, the arrival and the development of the Internet and related services in the Arab region will be discussed in detail in the following section.

3.4 The Internet in the Arab World

Given the rapid development of the countries in the Middle East, particularly with their economies being in transition, there has been a considerable push towards the construction and improvement of the communications infrastructures. Since 1995 when it was first meaningfully adopted in Arab countries, the Internet has become an invaluable tool for growth and development (Al-Rawabdeh, 2009). Observation of the global media consumption trends clearly highlights the growing importance of the Middle East in the technological and media realm. This region has witnessed profound changes in terms of its media consumption, with the volume and nature of its use changing dramatically during periods of change, such as the Arab Spring in

2011. Given that this region includes a number of most rapidly developing nations in the world, it is important to provide an overview of this transforming media consumption landscape, as this has a bearing on the later discussion in this section. This section is concerned with conducting a review of prior research into the development of the Internet, with particularly reference to its application and its impact in the countries of the Middle East.

The Internet has witnessed a massive surge in popularity across the whole Middle East over the past decade. During this time, the medium has gone from a luxury to service to a necessity, for families and individuals, as much as businesses and professionals (Houissa, 2000). The Middle East shows the highest Internet user growth rate in the last few years, with the number of users spiking from 5,284,800 in 2000 to 23,811,620 by the middle of 2012 (Speedtest.net, 2012; Internet World Statistics, 2012). Overall Internet usage figures place the population of Saudi Arabia as the heaviest users, with the fastest home broadband connections, highest number of active domains and the second highest level of mobile internet usage.

On the other hand, due to Arab societies traditional nature which less open politically and culturally, the Internet regarded as necessity in the Arab region. In contrast to traditional media the Internet open public sphere providing wide range of freedoms (Rinnawi, 2011). For example, the Internet provides an opportunity to engage in conversation, discussions, and debates about issues that could not do through traditional media. The rapid spread of the Internet across the Middle East has led to diverse expectations about its possible impact on traditional Arab society. It has been argued, for example, that "the Internet can possibly contribute to the empowerment of traditionally marginalised actors, especially in the social, political and religious domains" (Sokol and Sisler, 2010:3). The Internet has become a vital public forum for Arab users, enabling free

communication and the unfettered discussion of ideas irrespective of local social, economic and political issues.

Taking into consideration the growing access to and ownership of media and new technology in Arab countries, and the increasing popularity of Internet in the region, one can asked who the main users of the Internet in the Arab world. Internet use is increasingly more prevalent among younger age groups within the Arab world, especially the 20 to 30 year old age group (Abdulla, 2007, p. 50). Past studies have shown that the young people represent the largest proportion of the Internet users and these group of users ages between 15- 35 (Sabbagh et al., 2012). Similar to young people in other parts of the world, young Arabs are avid users of mobile telephones and text-messaging, the Internet, satellite television (Kraidy, 2008). Therefore, Arab scholars were interested in understanding how Arab young people use the Internet and what the most commonly used online activities among young Arabs are.

Similar to Western societies, Internet usage habit is a way of life for young, educated Arabs (Khalid, 2007). In the Arab world, the Internet is used for many reasons besides having access to news and gaining information. Several studies have shared common concerns in investigating the reasons and motives of the Internet usage (Mansour, 2004, Abdullah, 2007, Ayyad, 2011; Sabbagh et al., 2012). Media studies are still attempting to understand and explain the reasons behind using the Internet among Young people in the Arab world. However, these studies have explored why people use the Internet, but have not examined the functions that the Internet offers that might make young people use it at the expense of other media. The reasons for using the Internet can be broadly grouped into five main activities: searching, emailing, chatting, entertainment and online discussions (Abdullah, 2007; Shen & Shakir, 2012). Sabbagh et al. (2012) found that entertainment reason for using the Internet are popular across the Middle

East where more than 40 percent of users watch short videos online for entertainment at least once a day, and often more frequently.

However, Ayyad (2011) argued that young people use the television and radio to gratify their need for entertainment, while the Internet fulfils their educational, psychological and social needs. Communication activities and social needs are one of the most important reasons for using the Internet in the Arab region particularly among young people. Studies showed that the Internet meet the communication needs of Arab young people specially those who feel lonely where the Internet help them to maintain relationship with family and friends and expanding their social networks (Al-Majali, 2007; Shaheen, 2010).

As the Internet becomes increasingly ubiquitous in everyday Arab social life, with the potential to inform and radically change behaviour, scholars have been keen to investigate its social impact (Taiea, 2000; Sari, 2008; Almajali, 2007; Al-Hemsi, 2012; Anser, 2012). The majority of the claims made about the social impact of the Internet have been based on evidence from surveys and other quantitative methodologies that seek to compare the responses of Internet users and non-users in terms of specific social outcomes, including community participation, communication with family, and psychological health. In general, these studies have found that while the Internet has created new channels of communication, particularly in the form of online conversation, the general impact on social life and social interaction is broadly negative.

This social use of the Internet in the Arab world significantly increased and much attention has been paid to the way young people use the social media after Arab spring. Therefore, next section sheds the light on the use of social network in the Arab region.

3.4.1 Online Social Networking in the Arab World

Online social networking is growing at an exponential rate across the Middle East. Social networking sites like Facebook have grown particularly rapidly across the region, being used in the main by young people, although not exclusively. It seems likely that these social networking platforms will play an increasingly important role in organizing and co-ordinating the social and civil movements throughout the Arab world, especially among the youth, where the market penetration is highest. Young people between the ages of 15 and 29 have comprised approximately 70% of all Facebook users in Middle East since April 2011 (Arab Social Media Reports, 2011). Meanwhile, the number of Arab Facebook users almost tripled in number over 2 years (June 2010-June 2012), increasing from 16 million users to 45 million users (Dubai School of Government, 2012). The relevance of transcends recognition of informal social networking. For example, these tools were used for political dialogue and the building of democracy across the Middle East during the Arab Spring uprisings of 2011. A new report from the Pew Research Centre suggests that social media users in Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon and Tunisia are still making extensive use of these media for political discussion nearly two years later. This is twice the rate of their Western counterparts.

A growing body of literature has focused upon issues like motives, gender, and the privacy of using social networking in the Arab context. Arab users have been shown to rely heavily upon online social networks to search for information and to share news (AlKindi & Alhashmi, 2012). However, "despite the importance of online social networks, there is relatively little theory-driven empirical research available to address this new type of communication and interaction phenomena especially in the Middle East" (Aljasir et al., 2013: 80).

Social networking services are changing the ways in which people use and engage with the Internet and with each other in the Arab world (Radi, 2003; Nomar, 2011). Previous studies indicated that young people in the Arab world form a large proportion of users on social media networks. Young people, particularly, are quick to use the new technology in ways that increasingly shape the boundaries between online and offline activities (Mortada, 2012). Facebook is among the most popular social networking sites in Arab region followed by Twitter. Therefore, most of the Arab studies were conducted on the use of Facebook.

Studies about the use of Facebook in the Arab context were mostly academic studies, which are mainly thesis or dissertations, and have focused on the motives of using the Facebook among young people (Khedir, 2009; Al- Masry, 2011; Eaid & AL-Ashy, 2011; Hasan, 2013; Askool, 2013) and the privacy of using the Facebook (Fauad, 2009; Mohamed, 2010; Aljasir et al, 2013). However, after the Arab spring the attentions of Arab scholars have been shifted to examine the relationship between the use of Facebook and the political change (e.g. Eltantawy & Wiest, 2011).

Previous studies indicated that young people use the Facebook virtually every day for periods of more than 3 hours (Eaid & AL-Ashy, 2011; Hasan, 2013). With regards to the reasons for using Facebook, past studies revealed that young people mainly use it for social connections, entertainment and shared identities. Furthermore, the creation of personal profiles on networking sites such as Facebook allows people to locate others who share similar characteristics enabling both social aims and psychological needs to be fulfilled (Shen and Khalifa, 2009; Fauad, 2009).

The issue of privacy with regards to social networking has been extensively studied in the Arab context (e.g. Fauad, 2009; Mohamed, 2010; Aljasir et al, 2013). The extent of networking on

Facebook raises a number of issues that relate to personal privacy with regards to the protection of personal information about users, their friends and activities undertaken (Fauad, 2009). These issues exist on three levels: the privacy of applications; ensuring privacy against members; and guaranteeing that there is sufficient protection against the economic ambitions of the website itself, such as through advertising (Fauad, 2009). These issues are extremely important and relevant within the Arab context (Mohamed, 2010). While users in these countries have shown a willingness to quickly adopt and utilise new technologies, they generally take a strong stance when these technologies could threaten their privacy. This is particularly important for females in Arab countries, due to the cultural strictures placed upon them. However, in this particular study, the sample was only drawn from the UAE and Egypt, and therefore the results cannot be generalized for the wider Arab context (Mohamed, 2010).

A significant proportion of the research literature has also focused on the examination of gender differences in the use of social networks, due to the prominent gender segregation issues in most Arab countries (Shen and Khalifa, 2009; Albert, 2009; Fauad, 2009; Mohamed, 2010; Al-Ghamdi, 2010; Najadat ,2012). Despite equal access to Facebook, research has shown a wide range of potential online goals that users might have, with significant behavioural differences being observed in terms of age or gender. Facebook has been shown to play a more important role in the lives of female users than their male counterparts. While the use of social media among males is consistent with its basic function, namely social networking with existing friends, these sites satisfy diverse roles for female users, including the provision of an important antidote to the restrictions often placed on their physical social lives (Shen and Khalifa, 2009).

Given the situation of this project within the Saudi Arabia, a brief overview has been provided of the history and nature of the media in the kingdom, in order to contextualise the

latter discussion. Therefore, the next part of this chapter addresses the development of mass media in Saudi Arabia, examining the way in which it is used in this context.

3.5 Mass Media in Saudi Arabia

Since this study examines the use of television and the Internet in Saudi Arabia, it was also necessary to review the development of the mass media in Saudi context. This section explores the development of the media structure in Saudi Arabia such as TV, Press, Radio and the Internet.

One of the primary goals of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, since its unification in 1932, has been to implement continual and comprehensive social, cultural and economic development. One aspect of this process is illustrated in the transformation of the media sector through the refinement of its human and material potential. As with all nations, the Saudi mass media system is intimately rooted in its own, particular history. Therefore, the next sections of this paper will provide a critical examination of the development of Saudi Arabia through two key media sectors: namely, the broadcasting industry, with particular reference to television, and the Internet.

3.5.1 Saudi Print Media

The beginning of the Saudi press originated in 1908, with the first Hejazi newspapers (Shobaili, 1971). The Al-Hejaz newspaper, the first formal print medium was established during the reign of the Turks (Ottomans). A small number of other newspapers had appeared by the beginning of World War II, including Sawt al Hejaz, Madinah al Manawarah and the official government journal, Umm al Qura. A lack of funding during the war saw almost all of these being closed, with the exception of Umm al Qura. The publication of these papers resumed in Jeddah, in the

late 1940s. Madinah was published under the same title, while Sawt al Hejaz was renamed as Bilad al Sa'udiyah.

Growing popularity in press activity in Saudi Arabia resulted in a growing awareness about the preferences of readers. Economics, social issues and sports have been shown to be particularly popular, which led to the adoption of specialized supplements in many Saudi newspapers. In addition, the form of these media has been shaped by innovations in technical and design options (Ministry of Information, 1999). These industry developments have resulted in massive growth in newspaper circulation. Furthermore, the Saudi press industry has experienced wide scale administrative, editing and production improvements due to the law of press establishments. A number of press establishments were created after the issuance of the law of press establishments.

3.5.2 Saudi Radio

The first references to the use of radio in the kingdom referred to reports of radio receiver sets in the homes of the wealthiest citizens. These were used to listen to stations from neighbouring Arab countries and to international radio stations (Bait-Almal, 2000). The formal establishment of Saudi radio took place in 1948, under the decree of King Abdulaziz, with World War II having laid foundations for acceptance of radio broadcast technology. The first local broadcasting station was therefore established in 1949, heralding a new era of mass communication media. There are currently three major radio programs: the first is from Riyadh station, the second from Jeddah station, and the third is devoted mainly to religious programs (Kareem, 1982).

Modern Saudi Arabia has thirty-one FM, forty-three AM and two short-wave broadcast stations, delivering programmes in forty-three languages. There are thought to be 6.25 million

radios across the kingdom. All of the available stations have one state-owned service (Saudi Arabian Broadcasting Service) and one privately owned radio service (Saudi ARAMCO FM Radio), with a private service offered to the employees of the Saudi Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO) (Ministry of Information, 1999).

3.5.3 Saudi Television Broadcasting

Saudi Television is one of the media systems of Saudi Information. This area of media communications is controlled by an Assistant Ministerial Deputy that operates within and is directly responsible to the overall structure of the Ministry of Information. All related activities are presided over by a Ministerial Deputy for Television Affairs.

Having already passed through an era of political instability, Saudi society was psychologically ready for the acceptance of the introduction of television in 1965 (Gazzaz, 2006). Nevertheless, the launch of television occurred during a time of developmental and transformational change in politics, society and economics. Media scholars have provided a number of insights into this governmental initiative. From the political perspective, this move suggests the recognition of the potential power that television can exert in key state development roles, such as manipulating public opinion, fostering national unity, and counter-balancing the propaganda of other, hostile Arab nations (Ministry of Information, 2003). In addition, television provides a means of ensuring that the population is informed about national progress in technological and economic sectors, which the government believed would benefit society as a whole. This had also been a goal for many educated Saudis, despite their fundamental conservatism. It was also believed that television would provide 'innocent entertainment' for the population that would at least partially compensate for the national prohibition of cinemas (Ministry of Information, 2003). Saudi television is following a balance programming policy. Its

devote 17% of it time to news and news programs, 31% for entertainment, 15% for religious programs, 18% sport, children and family 13%, and educational programs 6%. (Ministry of Information 1999, P. 191).

In the early 1990s the introduction of satellite TV constituted milestone in communication technologies, and challenge for conservative society like Saudi Arabia. Despite the high pressure from the Islamic conservative group that the government should impose some regulation on the Direct –To-Home Satellite (DHS), the dishes fill the roofs of building and houses on Saudi Arabia.

3.5.4 The Internet in Saudi Arabia

The Arab region was first connected to the Internet during the early 1990s. The first Arab country to provide an Internet connection was Tunisia and then Kuwait, both of which became connected in 1991. Shortly after, many other Arab countries began their own Internet services, with states including Egypt, Turkey, Jordan and the United Arab Emirates connecting between 1993 and 1994. The last countries in the Arab region to establish Internet services were Syria and Saudi Arabia, which occurred in the late 1990s (Wheeler, 2006). Despite being comparatively late in granting access to the Internet for its public, scholars have recognised the rapid progress that Saudi Arabia has subsequently made in this sector. This section presents a review of this development within the context of the overall study.

The government institutions of Saudi Arabia first connected to the Internet in 1994. However, it was not until 1997 that King Fahd granted official approval for wide scale introduction of these services. The qualification of ISPs (Internet Service Providers) was finally announced in December 1998, by King Abdulaziz City for Science and Technology (KACST). KACST controls and oversees the provision of Internet services to Saudi Arabia, in conjunction

with both the Ministry of Communications and the Ministry of Finance. These services are connected to three different international providers, which are situated in the USA, Canada and France (Al-Rasheed, 2001).

Permission was granted for private Internet Service Providers (ISPs) to start offering their services in November 1998. Approval was initially granted for approximately forty of these companies. At the beginning of the next year, in January 1999, the public of Saudi Arabia were granted permission to access the Internet through these local service providers. This access was not unlimited, however, as systems had been implemented to prevent or at least limit access to undesirable data online. In Saudi Arabia, the Internet services are now broadly stratified into three main levels: ISPs; the National Backbone, which is the Saudi Telecom Company (STC); and the International Link, which is operated by the Internet Service Unit (ISU). This means that access to Internet services requires potential users to subscribe through licensed commercial ISPs (Al-Qarni, 2004). This is true for all individuals, companies, organisations or government agencies, other than universities.

There are a number of viable explanations for the delay in permitting public Internet access. Perhaps most importantly, modifications were required to ensure that the national telecommunication infrastructure was able to manage the increased Internet load. In addition, the authorities wanted to implement control mechanisms in an attempt to safeguard against the misuse of the Internet, in order to ensure that the Islamic beliefs and values of Saudi society were upheld (Al-Qarni, 2004).

Using the Internet in Saudi Arabia requires the majority of the population to make a long distance call. This considerably increases the cost of internet access, making it unavailable for some of the population. This has been the focus of debate in the kingdom, as has occurred with

the adoption of all new communications technologies (including radio, television and satellite). Recognition of the problem led the government to grant open access for the public to the medium via digital subscriber lines (DSL) in 2002 (Sait et al., 2003). In addition, the ISU has proposed a number of measures to improve Internet provision in Saudi Arabia. For example, it has been suggested that ISPs be allowed to use a one-way satellite connection in order to address relatively slow connection speeds. However, this proposal is complicated by a technical problem related to controlling the information using the "Push" technique. Another solution has been implemented by the STC, which increased the number of available modem ports, thereby enabling a greater number of simultaneous Internet users (Al-Hajery, 2004).

In late 2005 the government announced that the Electronet Company would start providing broadband connections through electric lines by mid 2006. In August 2010 all forms of internet and mobile-phone access are available in the country, including WiMax broadband, third-generation (3G) mobile networks, internet via satellite, and HSPA technologies. Broadband and mobile-phone services are provided by the three largest telecommunications companies in the Middle East—Saudi Telecom Company (Saudi Arabia), Etisalat (United Arab Emirates), and Zain (Kuwait). WiMax broadband, a technology that allows users to access the Internet from any location using USB modems, is widely used in Saudi Arabia.

3.6 Patterns Use of Media among Saudi Young People

Research on young people's use of media has a long history in the West. However, there is still dearth of studies about media use among Saudi young people. Particularly regarding the use of media in the domestic sphere and how young people make use of and respond to media in an environment where new media and the Internet are almost omnipresent, but are constantly changing. This section focus on the media consumption habits of young people in Saudi Arabia.

3.6.1 Traditional Media Use among Saudi Young People

Nowadays Saudi young people are becoming the primary users of media because of the opportunities of using different media in their daily lives. Saudi young people divided their time among many mediated activities such as social networking, viewing video, watching TV, exchanging Instant Messages, listening to music, playing games, and searching information. Television remains a significant medium among Saudi young people, the average daily use of television among those Saudi young people around the world with access ranges from between 1.5 hours to more than four hours. The main motivation for watching TV among Saudi youths is to seek information and news. They watch mostly television to satisfy knowledge and information needs. The prominence of television in young people's daily lives makes it one of their major information sources about the world around them (Al-Husseny, 2010). However, Al-Sharhan (2009) argued that many of young people don't watch television set for news because they believe that news on TV are long and make people bored.

A few elite and wealthy Saudis introduced satellite channels in Saudi Arabia in the 1980s. The new communication technologies during the 1990s made it possible for a large number of Saudis to switch to different kinds of direct broadcasting satellite channels, using low cost equipment to receive hundreds of uncensored television programmes. The advent of satellite broadcasting in Saudi Arabia has attracted Saudi young people with films and music programmes. Young people in Saudi Arabia are now able to switch to different kinds of direct broadcasting satellite (DBS) channels using low cost equipment to receive hundreds of uncensored television programmes. Asbar study (2011) reported that 52.7% of young people watch satellite channels every day. Al- Gahtani (2004: 14) "young Saudi adults are assumed to watch satellite channels quite extensively because of their fascination with this new medium and

with cultures different to that in Saudi Arabia". The most motivation of satellite channels viewing among Saudi youths is to get better technologies, and to seek information (Al-Amoud, 1990; Alrashi, 2010). Young people mainly watch satellite channels because of the availability of speed, instant coverage of events, and excitement and factors attract attention there.

There is a body of literature that addresses some of the issues concerning satellite audiences in Saudi Arabia (Bait Al-Mal, 1993; Al-Makty, 1995; Al- Gahtani, 2004; Marghalani, 2011). However, there is still a dearth of qualitative and quantitative studies about the satellite TV channel viewing habits of the Saudi community, in spite of the existence of strong concerns about the influence of such habits on Saudi culture (Marghalani, 2011).

It has been noticed that much of the research that investigated mass media in Saudi Arabia, particularly television (Abuzinada, 1988; Al-Amoudi, 1990; Al-Attibi, 1986; Al-Heezan, 1993; Al-Oofy, 1990; Merdad, 1993; Najai, 1982), have utilised the uses and gratification approach to gain a better understanding of Saudi media users' motives for viewing satellite channels. Marghalani (2011) emphasised that "the uses and gratifications model depicts the audience as the primary element in understanding the mass communication process" where this theory "presents a coherent explanation of how audiences actively use the media to gratify their own needs and motives" (Marghalani, 2011, p: 3). Studies applied uses and gratification, have indicated that Saudis use traditional television for the same kinds of gratifications identified in studies in other countries (for example, Abdel Rahman, 1998): surveillance, diversion, relaxation, companionship, to pass the time, social utility, etc. Two studies of VCR usage (Abuzinada, 1988; Al-Oofy, 1990) identified motives very similar to those studies for traditional television.

These studies of television usage mention two particular uses of terrestrial and satellite television by young people. One group of studies (Najai, 1982; Al-Attibi, 1986; Bait Al-Mal, 1992; Al-Gahtani, 2004) indicates that media usage in general and TV use in particular by young people in Saudi Arabia was stimulated by the desire to gain information about the society and culture, to gain relaxation, to learn about religion, and to feel more integrated into society. The same range of factors was also found in a second group of studies (Abuzinada, 1988; Al-Heezan, 1993; Al-Oofy, 1990; Marghalani, 1997) that investigated the use of TV and satellite by Saudi audiences in general. The latter authors found that there were six gratification factors that characterised the satellite television watching of Saudi audiences. The surveillance factor came out on top, followed by the availability/variety quality factor. The intercultural factor came third, while censorship and religious factors came in fourth and fifth place, respectively.

It can clearly be seen that uses and gratifications approach was the theoretical perspective has also so far dominated audiences' research in Saudi Arabia. These studies were limited by the fact that they used samples of high school students, college students or university professors (see Naji, 1989). Additionally, most of these Saudi uses and gratifications media studies obtained data via self-report questionnaires, which did not yield in-depth answers that gave respondents the opportunity to explain in depth the reasons for their viewing habits. Likewise, where in-depth questions as to how and why Saudi people used the media were used, they were not answered completely or in a systematic way (see Al-Oofy, 1990; Al-Makty, 1995).

After television viewing, listening to the radio is the next most popular activity among young people. Despite the proliferation of new media and new technology, some of young people still prefer to listen to the radio. Most young people tune in to the radio primarily for

music and entertainment. However Radio is confined to a minor role, passively used in the car (Al-Ghamdi, 2009).

3.6.2 The Internet Use among Saudi Young People

Recent years have seen a rapid increase in computer and Internet use, not only in homes, but also in the workplace, schools and other locations (Al-Hajery, 2004). Young people aged 16 to 25 years are most likely to use the Internet in Saudi Arabia and the majority of Saudi Internet users are college and high school graduates, since people at these two educational levels occupy the largest proportion of the Saudi population (Sait et al., 2003). Also, Simsim (2010) emphasised that the Internet in Saudi Arabia is spreading more among males than females and among young individuals than older ones. This pattern is consistent with Western countries. However, in more advanced nations, the generation divide in terms of general Internet use has become eroded over time, although more complex uses of the Internet still tend to be adopted most of all by young people in the first instance (Wensheng, 2001).

Several studies have shared common concerns in investigating Internet use among Saudi young, especially the motives of using the Internet (Sait et al, 2003; Simsim, 2010; Taie, 2000; Alharthi, 2004). Although there has been a tremendous amount of speculation about how and why young people use the Internet, little research has systematically examined the implications of the unique uses that individuals make of the Internet in the Saudi context. Most of these studies were quantitative research obtained data via self-report questionnaires.

Previous studies identified usage patterns in terms of the amount of time spent and purposes for using the Internet among Saudi young people. Simsim (2010) found that the majority of Saudi young people use the Internet on a daily basis in the late evening with 6:00 pm to midnight being the peak time for accessing the Internet. Furthermore, although home is the

common place to access the Internet among young people, Saudi males frequently access the Internet, approximately once a week, in Internet cafés (Al-Nufaie, 2003; Al-Hajery, 2003; Dowedy & Al-Amry, 2008).

With regards to the most common reasons for using the Internet, Simsim (2010) argued that the Saudi young are using the Internet more frequently for chatting and entertainment than the older users, whereas, Sait et al. (2003) identify communication, interaction and information as the three broad categories of reasons why young people use the Internet. According to Mohammed study (2011), Saudis interact with the Internet in a very large network, they show the greatest growth in rate of use, and their young people are mostly involved in social networking for the purpose of dialogue and emotional support, to highlight themselves and exchange views, and to make friends and communicate with others.

To date, researchers have only linked motivation for accessing the Internet with certain uses and the gratifications gained from these uses remain unclear, especially within the context of factors that have produced the access divide. For example, Taie (2000), and Alharthi (2004) investigated Internet users' motivations. Those studies argued that the gratifications received serve as motivators for specific Internet activities. Studies show that information seeking, amusement, surveillance, personal relationships, identity, establishing status and acquisition are the most recurrent gratification factors. However, most of these researchers have applied survey techniques for data collection. Thus, the findings have limitations, since relying on this method might make it difficult to gather information that is rich in depth and detail. This issue raises questions that need to be answered: How do patterns of Internet use relate to specific gratifications obtained from these uses? Do the patterns of Internet use change within subgroups as defined by age, gender and income status?

Previous researches in the Saudi context have attempted to understand how the use of the Internet relates to other media use, investigating the gratification and functions of Internet usage. For example, Al-Saud (2005) and Al-Farm (2002) found some support for their contention that young people employ the Internet to satisfy the same needs that they bring to their consumption of other media. They argue that users use the Internet to gratify the same needs, i.e. reading news online is just as fulfilling as reading newspapers. Al-Saud (2005) found that Saudi students were motivated to use the Internet to read the news as they found the Internet to be an important news source. As a result, the amount of time they spent reading conventional newspapers had decreased.

Previous studies identified two main obstacles to Internet usage: technological and cultural barriers. With regard to technological barriers, according to Al-Kahtani et al. (2006), the most significant technological obstacles preventing people from using the Internet more are connectivity issues such as slow and dropped connections. It is widely reported that the Internet service in Saudi Arabia is expensive and slow; all Saudi Internet traffic is routed through a single server in Riyadh that is equipped with web filtering technology. Such service problems may discourage or at least limit effective use of the Internet, particularly with busy signals, dropped connections, slow downloads and high fees. Moreover, Saudi Arabia Internet filtering is considered as one of the most extensive between the Arab countries. Therefore, Internet censorship was one of the most important barriers of accessing the Internet among Saudi young people. Internet content is censored in accordance with the "religious, cultural, legal, and traditional norms of Saudi society" (Al-Kahtani et al, 2006).

The expansion of the new technologies such as the Internet in Saudi Arabia and the gap between young and old people and between males and females with effective access to the

Internet has raised concerns about equitable access in under-served social sectors in what is known as the digital divide. This represents the divide between those with access to the Internet and those without. The issue of the digital divide is well documented in the West. For example, Norris (2001) has carried out considerable research on this issue. This divide between age groups has diminished over time for general Internet functions. Specialised and advanced functions still attract younger users in the West. In the Saudi context, Al-Otibi (2010) found significant inequalities in Internet usage due to levels of education.

3.7 Gender and Media Use in Saudi Arabia

Islam as a religion and the unique cultural history of Saudi society, which is blessed with conservative rules and regulations, might be the main factors influencing gender inequality of media use in the Saudi context. Therefore, questions about gender differences of media use in Saudi Arabia have long been studied by several Saudi researchers. These studies attempted to explore the differences between females and males in respect of general media consumption.

Scholars have argued that there are gender differences in television viewing among Saudi young people. Females are more likely to watch television than males which reflect the culture and gender roles in Saudi Arabia where females are expected to spend more time at home while males have more freedom to go outside the home (Al-Heizan, 2010). However, some researchers (e.g., Shareify, 2007) have argued that differences between men and women in relation of television viewing are insignificant but these differences clearly occur in their use of other media. Males are more likely than females to listening to radio, and read newspapers while females are more likely to use the mobile phones and read magazines than are males. These conflicts in the results of past studies indicate that the gender differences in using particular

media might be influenced by some factors such as socio culture and socio economic factors that influence perceptions and behaviours.

Furthermore, there is substantial, coherent literature on the use of the Internet among young people and students (Al-Jabri, 1996; Shaheen, 2001; Al-Saud, 2005; Oshan, 2007; Oshan and Khudir, 2008; Alshankity & Alshawi, 2008). However, due to the nature of the Saudi culture, a wider discussion on gender differences in the use of the Internet has emerged. These discussions are concerned with the effect and attitudes of Saudi males and females who use the Internet (Al-Hajery, 2003; Al-Dobaiyyn, 2003; Oshan, 2007; Oshan and Khudir, 2008), arguing that Saudi females went online less frequently and spent less time on the Internet than males. These works have mainly focused on the differences between male and female Internet usage and explored the specific motives of both sexes. However, the gender differences in using the Internet in the social context in Saudi have not been researched adequately in past studies.

Previous studies about the gender issues in Internet usage have been conducted via the questionnaire method, with the exception of Oshan (2007), who applied a mixed method (questionnaire and focus group). The latter approach was designed to enrich the study, giving differences in philosophical views and obtain more views from the variations in substantive theoretical ideas and in practical goals. Most of these previous studies have been based on quantitative research which outlines the need for qualitative studies about Internet use in the Saudi context.

The gender issue regarding Internet use in Saudi Arabia has been studied primarily by information science scholars (Oshan, 2007; Oshan and Khudir, 2008; Al-Heizan, 2010; Mohammed, 2011) who placed an emphasis on investigating cultural and gender factors associated with and influencing female university students' attitudes towards using the Internet.

These studies raised the issue of sex segregation in Saudi Arabia as a possible factor which might influence the attitudes towards the Internet and affect online behaviours. Oshan and Khudir (2008) stated that voluntary use of the Internet and single-sex education in Saudi Arabia were two factors which shaped students' behavioural intentions to use the Internet. There are significant differences between males and females in embracing new technology which could also indicate why males dominate Internet use (Al-Heizan, 2010). Since its emergence, males have consistently maintained a greater presence than women on the Internet, with the gap between them widening due to factors relating to the differences in social traditions between males and females. This is true especially of the freedom to use technology in general, and family concerns about technology damaging females more than males (Mohammed, 2011). Cultural barriers such as lack of time, lack of confidence, family restrictions and security concerns are related to female users more than male users. Oshan (2007) emphasises that the Internet is relatively new in Saudi Arabia and is known to be an insecure environment. Thus, some Saudi parents are reluctant to allow their children to use it.

Other writers who have studied gender differences in Internet use have tried to explore the motivations and barriers influencing Internet usage (Shaheen, 2001; Al-Dobaiyyn, 2003; Goblan, 2003). These studies revealed that using the Internet to increase knowledge and for general information were the main motivation for Internet use, followed by checking email. Also, they identified some difficulties that respondents encounter when using the Internet, such as slow Internet connectivity and language barriers.

3.8 The Internet versus Traditional Media in Saudi Arabia

Although the impact of the Internet on other forms of mass communication, particularly television, is a significant area that has been explored extensively by previous studies and has

been a subject of debate between academics and media professionals in western countries, little research in Saudi Arabia has been concerned with investigating this issue (Al-Farm, 2002; Al-Saud, 2005; Sait et al., 2007). Western research literature about the impact of the Internet on traditional media such as television assumed that the new medium is used for the same purposes as an older medium. The new medium is seen as a functional alternative to the older medium (Gunter, 2010; Ha & Fang, 2012) which operates more effectively than the existing medium meaning that audiences were more likely to choose the new medium over the old (Gunter, 2010). However, results of Western studies were contradictory. Some studies support the theory that the Internet may displace the old media (see Gershuny, 2002; Pronovost, 2002; Ferguson and Perse, 2000; Ishii, 2004; Lee & Leung, 2004; Mannell, Zuzanek & Aronson, 2005; Vandewater & Lee, 2009) while past studies suggested that the Internet was not a serious competitor (see Cai, 2005; Diddi & LaRose, 2006; Cauwenberge, d'Haenens, & Hans Beentjes, 2010).

In the Saudi context, Al-Saud (2005) pointed out that the empirical literature which looks at the effect of the Internet when compared with the use of other mass communication media in Saudi Arabia is minimal and much of that literature stems from studies into using new technology. Although this research provides a good context it means that there is a gap in the literature that examines the implication of the emergent behaviour for the way Saudi young people use other media and allocate time to other activities.

Sait et al. (2007) suggested that Saudi people tend to reduce their time spent watching television because of daily Internet access and other activities such as "reading books, magazines and newspapers", as well as sleeping. Sait et al. (2007) argued that there are two possible reasons why Internet users spend less time on other activities. Firstly, the availability of many services through the Internet such as books, magazines and newspapers which are constantly updated and

also access to television channels that provides streaming audio and video online. Moreover, the Internet has taken over almost all aspects of television use from news and information to entertainment, hence "television has had the maximum setback" (p14). Moreover, people who spend a great deal of time on the Internet may lose sleep as a result of excessive Internet use. This is indicated by their using the Internet instead of sleeping. However, another possible reason for this might be due to slow connectivity during working hours. Moreover, people would prefer to go online after office hours, during the evening and at night. Subsequently, the time spent on alternative extracurricular activities will be reduced, it could affect the amount of time spent socializing with family and friends and they could potentially lose out on sleep.

Drawing on the uses and gratifications theory, the studies of Al-Farm (2002) and Al-Saud (2005) explored the influences of using the Internet on other forms of mass communication. The authors argued that the uses and gratification approach is the most important model for understanding how people use the media to gratify their needs and to examine the nature of audience involvement and gratification obtained from using new media. Both of these studies were quantitative research projects and utilised the questionnaire method to collect data. Al-Saud (2005) based his study on a sample of about 320 students from Saudi universities (eight in total), with about forty participants from each university. However, this sample represented only a small percentage of the total population of students in all Saudi universities and thus restricted the ability of Al-Saud's study to give a comprehensive picture.

The findings of both studies suggest that concur that the Internet is an important source of news, information and entertainment and as such has an impact on other forms of mass communication. However, Al-farm (2002) concluded that using the Internet has created a negative effect on print media due to the amount of time spent reading newspapers being

reduced, but it did not affect the time spent watching television or listening to the radio. He argues that the Internet will not displace television; instead there will be a process of integration between new media and traditional media. In other words, people can read newspapers, listen to the radio and watch TV via the Internet.

Al-Farm (2002) also raised the question as to whether people use the Internet at the expense of other forms of mass communication because they considered it a novelty to use this new form of technology. This author argued that the novelty of the Internet may have the potential to prevent people from consuming other forms of mass communication and may raise new problems with regards to measuring the displacement effect. This may be the reason why previous studies have employed the uses and gratification approach rather than the displacement approach to investigate the impact of the Internet on traditional media.

This body of literature is relevant to the current study, as it shows the potential impact of Internet use as an empirical basis to examine the issue of the media habits of youths in Saudi Arabia and in particular their use of the Internet and of television.

3.9 Media Use in the Social Context among Saudi Young People

Although young people's engagement with media devices in the domestic sphere varies greatly, so far there is a dearth of studies which examines the format and extent of media use socially in the Saudi context. It would seem that very little research has been undertaken to establish how Saudi young people use media within the family setting as most of the previous studies have been focused on the how Saudi's young people's Internet use has affected their family relationships. These previous studies agreed that there is no doubt that the Internet provides immense opportunities for social development by easily connecting individuals with family and friends, or bringing together people who share the same interests. However, other effects of the

Internet can be clearly seen. The Internet has entered into people's social routines and has had a dramatic impact. It has altered the way in which people communicate with one another, affected family life, social circles, personal habits, face-to-face contact and has affected learning and studying styles and traditions.

Alotaibi (2006) also examine the nature of the social impact of the Internet use among Saudi young people. Alotaibi considers the Internet as "acting as a time enhancer", which means that using the Internet creates a more productive use of one's time. Alotaibi's results showed an increase in the value of the Internet for enhancing communications such as emailing and social networking, and respondents indicated that using the Internet maximised time efficiency, enhancing activities related to studying by providing access to a wide range of information, as well as giving access to up-to-date news and events. Also, the Internet has enhanced students' relationships with friends, and there was a definite positive association between the intensity of Internet use and the improvement of communications with family in Saudi Arabia. Alotaibi's (2006) findings concur with similar findings from Western studies. For instance, Robison et al. (2002.p. 14) suggested that "Internet use seems to function both as a time displacer (one in which people do give up other activities to accommodate it) and as a time enhancer (one in which people do not seem forced to give up other activities to accommodate it)".

Although the regulation of media consumption, particularly within domestic settings, and the role of family positions and gendering of relationships has been an important focus of inquiry for audience researchers in the Western context (Nikken & Jansz, 2003; Lee & Chae, 2007; Livingston & Helsper, 2008; Nikken & Jansz, 2011; Park, 2011), very few Saudi studies have examined the restrictions of television viewing among young people (Al-Oofy and McDaniel, 1992). These studies suggested that television regulations reflect an unambiguous focus on

gender issues which lies at the heart of the Saudi social order. For example, Al-Oofy and McDaniel (1992) argued that females used VCRs in a manner that appeared to reinforce traditional gender roles.

Young people's television viewing is governed by parents' regulations where families limit the time that the Saudi young are permitted to watch it. However, parental control of TV viewing has been found to be stricter for females than males (Al-Oofy and McDaniel, 1992). Nevertheless, as Internet connectivity increased across Saudi Arabia, most of the previous studies focused on examining Internet usage by faculty, and students provided an insight into the usage patterns and difficulties users may face. The literature shows variations in the approaches to Internet usage issues. Some studies have a more focused scope, either by examining barriers that constrain efficient consumption of the Internet (Al-Asmari, 2005; Al-Dobaiyyn, 2005; Al-Fulih, 2002; Al-Khabra, 2003; Alshawi & Al-Wabil, 2008) or by investigating problems that Saudi females experience in their adoption and use of the Internet (Goblan, 2003; Al-Kahtani et al, 2006; Oshan, 2007; Al-Wehaibi et al., 2008).

3.10 Summary

Of the many overwhelming changes throughout the Middle East during the last several decades, the development of mass media has been one of the most fundamental and pervasive in its effects on Arab audiences. Although there has been a significant growth in the studies of mass media in the Middle East during this period, scholars and writers focus on why people watch television and what gratifications they gain from it.

From reviewing the previous literature in the Arab world and in Saudi Arabia in particular, it can be seen that most of the studies have been conducted on young people from different viewpoints, since young people are the fastest segments of society to adopt innovations

in the Arab region. Young people are seen as particularly vulnerable to the influence of new media. Although the Internet is becoming more popular among young people in Saudi Arabia, there is still no evidence of the nature and intention of that adoption. Furthermore, gender was the main factor that affects the use of television and Internet use among the young people of Saudi. However, this difference clearly appears in the use of the Internet, where males use the Internet more than females, reflecting the nature and culture of Saudi society that imposes restrictions on women in a number of ways, including their use of the Internet.

Research in the Saudi context has focused on a wide range of audiences. The framework of the majority of the literature that investigated mass media in Saudi Arabia, particularly television, was the uses and gratification model, which is suited to researching the motivation of audiences. Moreover, most of this research was quantitative in nature and relied on surveys. Examining consumer behaviours solely via respondents' self-reports runs the risk of measurement errors caused by memory lapses or a failure on the part of respondents to produce accurate cognitive maps of their routine behaviour patterns.

Although the development of the Internet has offered a challenge to television, little attention has been paid by previous studies to answering the following questions: What does the shift from television to the Internet mean for our understanding of Saudi television audiences? How has the relationship between television and daily life been altered as a result of the emergence of new media?. The existing literature helps to provide a context from which my research questions and design are drawn. The literature suggests that there are gaps in research that examines the implications of the emergent behaviour for the way Saudi young people use media and allocate time to other activities.

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORETICAL FRAME WORK

4.1 Introduction

This chapter concentrates on the adoption of innovation, displacement, uses and gratification, and domestication of technology as theoretical frameworks. As mentioned in Chapter One the main objectives of the current study are: to understand the spread in penetration of the Internet; to understand the patterns use of TV and the Internet; to examine the extent to which the Internet might displace the use of other media; to understand the role of individual motives in the use of the Internet and other media and in the context of the possible displacement of one medium by another and finally to examine use of the Internet alongside that of other media in the domestic and family context. Although there is a challenge of drawing together multiple theoretical perspectives where each theory has its own concepts and critiques, this study combines the adoption of innovation, displacement, uses and gratification, and domestication of technology to understand the adoption of the Internet among Saudi young people and what the effect of this adoption is on television viewing. These theories also explain how and why media are consumed and address the issue of building habits or routines of media consumption.

The study is concerned with attempting to understand the penetration of the Internet among Saudi young people, and to understand the way the Internet and TV are used. In this context, the present study is conceptualized around the diffusion of innovations theory to clarify the process predict behaviour and attitudes towards the Internet. The changing structure of diffusion that has been seen with new media because of its interactive and social characteristics is also beneficial in explaining future use.

This adoption and penetration of Internet use might affect their TV viewing, therefore this study draw upon displacement theory in respect of its theoretical foundations. This theory reviewed because the core objective of this study is to find out whether the Internet use is displacing other media particularly television viewing. Moreover, Past research that integrated the functionality of media with displacement effects (Dimmick, Kline, & Stafford, 2000; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000) highlighted that displacement may occur when a new medium provides greater gratifications and is considered more functionally desirable than the old media (Lee, 2006). The Internet has a number of unique functions and characteristics that set it apart from established media. Thus, the last decade has witnessed the irresistible rise of the Internet and it is becoming increasingly obvious that it is steadily encroaching into the area acquires by the traditional media. The significance of examining the whether the Internet use is displacing other media particularly television viewing stems from the fact that media landscape in Saudi Arabia witnessed many changes in relation to new technology particularly the Internet, which may surpass on traditional media. This study also attempts to examine to what extent the Internet has emerged as a source of gratification in areas that used to be dominated by other sources, such as television or other media. The Internet may has a number of unique functions and characteristics that set it apart from established media. Therefore, drawn from the uses and gratifications approach is an important supplement to this theoretical basis.

Additionally, in order to understand everyday life technology as the object being adopted and how the Internet and TV use fit into Saudi young people family life, , this study is drawn from the domestication of technology theory to provide contextual information about households and individuals to better appreciate the process whereby people come into possession of a new technology, for whatever reason, and where they subject the technology to social processes in

order to integrate the technology into their lives, and into the moral economy of the household. Furthermore, gender is likely to be an important factor in Saudi context with regards to Internet and TV use. Therefore, family settings might be significant as well in that they will determine media behaviour patterns for each gender.

4.2 Diffusion of Innovations Theory

The concept of diffusion of innovations usually refers to the spread of ideas and technology from one society to another or from a focus or institution within a society to other parts of that society. The diffusion of innovations model provides clarification for when and how a new idea, practice, or technique is accepted, rejected or revaluated over time in a given society (Rogers, 1995).

Diffusion is defined as the communication process by which a new idea or new product is accepted by the market, while the rate of diffusion is defined as the speed that the new idea spreads from one consumer to the next. Adoption, similar to diffusion, also deals with the psychological decision making processes of the individual, rather than those of an aggregate market. One popular definition of innovativeness is that it measures the degree to which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting an innovation than other members of a system (Rogers, 1995).

Rogers (2003) established Diffusion of Innovation Theory to explain the process of diffusion of an innovation in a social system with including factors that influence individuals' perception about innovation. Diffusion of innovation theory is grounded in four main elements (Rogers, 1995):

Innovation: Rogers (2003) states that "An innovation is an idea, practice, or project that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption" (p. 12). He had previously proposed five characteristics of innovation (1995):

- Relative advantage – the extent to which the innovation is perceived to have significant advantages over current alternatives.
- Compatibility – the degree to which the innovation is seen as being consistent with past practices, current values and existing needs.
- Complexity – the extent to which the innovation can readily be understood and easily implemented.
- Trialability – new ideas that can be tried out at low costs before wholesale adoption are more likely to be taken up.
- Observability – the degree to which the use and benefits of the innovation are visible to others, and therefore act as a further stimulus to uptake by others.

Diffusion of innovation describes how a technology or information is adopted by users. Rogers (1983) developed a model of the innovation and diffusion process which has become widely established in the marketing literature. He showed that a diffusion process in a social system follows an S-Curve in which the adoption of a technology takes off gradually, followed by a dramatic increase as a large number of people adopt it, conforming to a bell-shaped Gaussian curve where the number of new adopters rises until halfway the S-curve after which their numbers decrease. Rogers then used the varying rates of adoption of between 10 and 25 per cent of users to distinguish different phases in the diffusion process, allowing practitioners to assess such things as the life of a new product or service and the application of the correct set of marketing activities at the appropriate time (Gunter et al, 2009).

Why and how the digital divide occurs can be understood in terms of the theory of diffusion of innovations, as advanced by Rogers (1995). Citing the examples of different innovation's diffusion, Rogers suggests that most innovations have an S-shaped rate of adoption.

Adopter categories include: innovators. Innovators are the first members of a group to adopt a new innovation. Each adopter's willingness and ability to adopt an innovation would depend on their awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption; early adopters. They are the social leaders, popular and educated, but they are less cosmopolite and less able to deal with uncertainty than are innovators; early majority. They are likely to adopt an innovation just before the average person, and they are deliberate and have many informal social contacts; late majority. They tend to require peer-pressure to adopt new behaviours and they are skeptical about new behaviours; and laggards. Laggards are also suspicious of innovations and take a great deal of time to adopt a new innovation. They tend not to believe that technology can enhance productivity and are likely to block new technology purchases. The digital divide opens up, so Roger's theory suggests, because different kinds of people have different propensities to adopt an innovation.

4.2.1 Diffusion of Innovation Studies

A number of studies have used Rogers' theory as their theoretical framework to understand the adoption of new information and communication technologies such as video cassette recorders (VCRs) and cable television (Atkin, 1993; Collins et al., 1983; LaRose & Atkin,1988b); electronic mail (Hunter & Allen, 1992); interactive television (Leung & Wei, 1998); cellular phones (Leung & Wei, 1999); digital cable (Kang, 2002); and high-definition television (Dupagne, 1999; Dupagne & Agostino, 1991).

Using Rogers' diffusion theory, Anderson et al. (1998) employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods in studying the attitudes, skills, and behaviours of the faculty members related to their IT use at a large Canadian research university. Based on Roger's (1995) two major adopter categories, they defined the faculty members as "earlier adopters" and

"mainstream faculty" and provided strategies for reducing the gap between these two groups. Although mainstream faculty used information technologies for research and professional communication applications, their adoption of these applications in teaching was very low. To increase their adoption of computer technologies for instructional purposes, the incentives, training programs, and barriers should be taken into account in comprehensive adoption strategies.

Recent diffusion of innovations research has focused on technological advances such as a using diffusion of innovation to assimilate new technologies into business and marketing programs (Alexander, McCorkle & Reardon, 2001). Their study highlighted "opinion leaders in the guise of technology champions"(p.13) and showed that the use of opinion leaders is important to the success of diffusing technological advances among higher education faculty. Alexander, McCorkle, and Reardon (2001) suggested that recent diffusion of innovations research has focused on technological advances such as a review about using diffusion of innovation to assimilate new technologies into business and marketing programs (Alexander, McCorkle & Reardon, 2001).

Sarrina (2003) employed Rogers' diffusion of innovation to investigate the factors that influence the adoption of electronic newspapers in Taiwan. A telephone survey was used to collect data from 1,006 participants; 311 (31%) were adopters, 431 (43%) were likely adopters, and the remaining 263 (26%) were non-adopters. Four factors were identified as being significant: technology ownership, innovativeness, demographic composition, and mass media use.

4.2.2 Criticisms of Diffusion of Innovation

Diffusion of innovation makes certain simplifying assumptions about the complex reality it studies. Rogers (1995) identified four main criticisms:

The pro-innovation bias, Rogers (1995) defines the pro-innovation as "the implication in diffusion research that an innovation should be diffused and adopted by all members of a social system, that it should be diffused more rapidly, and that the innovation should be neither re-invented nor rejected". The bias leads to ignorance of innovations, discontinuance of innovations, to overlook re-invention, and to fail to study anti-diffusion programs designed to prevent the diffusion of ''bad'' innovations (Rogers, 2003).

Another criticism of diffusion research is the individual-blame bias, which is the tendency for diffusion research to side with change agencies that promote innovations rather than with the individuals who are potential adopters. It is often leads to definition of success factors of innovation that focus on the success or failure of the individual within the system rather than as indications of success or failure of the system (Rogers, 1995).

The recall problem, Diffusion inquiry differs from most other social science research by the fact that the time variable is not ignored (Rogers, 1995). Recall problem in diffusion research is evident most often when time studies such as surveys request information over time periods which have passed, making recall difficult (Rogers, 1995).

4.3 Displacement Theory

A large number of empirical studies have been concerned whether the appearance of new media displaces or replaces the old media (e.g., Dimmick, Chen, & Li, 2004; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000; Kim, 2008; Nie & Hillygus, 2002; Xiang & Sarvary, 2007). Since the present study attempts to

examine the nature of the displacement effects of the Internet use among Saudi young people it is drawn from displacement theory to understand whether the amount of the Internet consumption which has increased can displace or replace other media use particularly TV.

4.3.1 The Background to Displacement

The manner in which the introduction of a new medium affects older forms of media has long been a subject of study. Baran & Davis (2008) argued that the appearance of new media appear might lead to threaten existing media industries, forcing large scale and often very rapid restructuring. In order to survive, "older forms of media are forced into severe competition with each other and with companies that use the new media to deliver content to consumers". This process is called “displacement” (Baran & Davis, 2008, p. 48). Therefore, this section seeks to provide a comprehensive introduction to the concept of 'Displacement' in order to present theoretical grounding of the present study.

Past research has found that some consumers of the older media move to a new medium when it is introduced, a phenomenon of “media displacement” (Jeong & Li, 2003). Displacement has attracted the attention of media researchers over many years; the aim has generally been to examine the ability of new media to replace traditional media (Lee & Leung, 2004). The main purpose of previous research on media displacement was to observe and explain changes in simple time spent on a specific medium after a new alternative had emerged. Kayany and Yelsma (2000) reported that when people went online, television viewing experienced the most time displacement, followed by telephone use and newspaper reading.

Whenever a new means of communication arises, there are concerns about its displacement effects on existing media. There have been waves of inquiry about the impact of media displacement whenever a new medium has been successfully introduced (Lin & Salwen, 2006).

The debate about media displacement dates back to communication studies in the 1940s. When radio was new, the concern was that radio would someday replace newspapers as the dominant means of communication. Later, television was analysed under a similar focus due to its potential to replace radio as the most popular broadcast medium. Lazarsfeld (1940) studied the impact of radio on print media in response to concern that broadcasting would mean the end of print media, and concluded that radio had not impaired the reading habits of the population.

In the late 1940s and 1950s, media displacement research grew rapidly with the rise and proliferation of television. For example, Belson (1961) examined the influence of television on the circulation of many newspapers and magazines. This also occurred, for example, with cable TV in the late 1970s. Kaplan (1978) investigated the impact of cable services on the subscribers' use of competing media, by interviewing adult residents of household selected at random from the cables' company subscription list. He found that cable had the largest impact on local network television, radio news, and theatre attendance.

This line of inquiry was continued for every new technology--television (Williams, 1986; Belson, 1961; Mendelsohn, 1964), cable television (Kaplan, 1978; Sparkes, 1983), VCR (Harvey & Rothe, 1985; Henke & Donohue, 1989) and lately computer mediated communication (Finholt & Sproull, 1990; James, Wotring, & Forrest, 1995; Robinson, Barth, & Kohut, 1997).

With the emergence of computers in the mid-1980s came another round of investigations, such as those into computer-based communication technology such as the work by Finholt and Sproull (1990), who examined the effect of electronic group mail on group behaviour in organisations. With the introduction of the Internet from the mid-1990s there have been numerous studies have explored the potential influence of the Internet on other media. Lin (1999) examined the relations between perceived television use and online access motives

among those who were not subscribed to a commercial online service, how such relations influenced the likelihood of online-service adoption. Lin found that user motives between TV exposure and potential online-service access are weakly correlated, as TV-use motives are largely insignificant predictors for potential online-service adoption.

Subsequently, with computer-mediated communication (CMC) further research has investigated whether CMC displaces existing media, such as the work by Kayany & Yelsma (2000) which examined online media in the socio-technical context of existing media and whether online media has displaced some of its functions. The results of this study showed that functional displacement may be occurring in which television is being gradually displaced by online media.

Dutta-Bergman (2004) studied the relationship between online media and traditional media in the area of news content. The author applies niche theory to build hypotheses for media consumption by area of information content. Dutta-Bergman states that use of news content in traditional and new media reflects complementarity in media consumption between new and traditional media, which was demonstrated in the area of sports, politics, business and finance, science and health, entertainment, international and local news.

In terms of the effects new media have on people's use of time, Valkenburg and Peter (2007) conducted an online survey among 1,210 Dutch teenagers between 10 and 17 years of age to examine the validity of two opposing explanatory hypotheses on the effect of online communication on well-being: the displacement hypothesis and the stimulation hypothesis. Displacement hypothesis assumes a negative effect from online communication on time spent with existing friends, whereas the stimulation hypothesis predicts a positive relationship between these two variables. They suggested that Internet communication is positively related to the time

spent with friends and the quality of existing adolescent friendships, and, via this route, to their well-being.

Research on media displacement theory has produced mixed and sometimes contradictory results on the displacement of traditional media by new forms, leading to three different schools of thought (Kayany and Yelsma, 2000).

One school of thought has described an asymmetrical relationship (increase-decrease) in regard to consumer use between the new and existing media. In other words, people usually have a limited amount of time to spend on the media, thus this paradigm states that it is logical to assume that the hours spent on a new medium as a result of new features would reduce or displace the time people will spend on existing media. Simply, the expectation was an increase-decrease relationship between the new and old media when the displacement effects occurred (Kayany and Yelsma, 2000). For instance, Lee and Kuo (2002) conducted studies on the displacement effect of the internet on media use amongst children and revealed that an increase in online media time reduced the time spent in television viewing. A second school of thought supported a complementary relationship (increase-increase), which is exactly the opposite of the prediction of the displacement concept. Robinson et al. (1997) highlighted that there are evidence of a "symbiotic or supplement relationship" (p.77) between CMC and print media as each of them reinforce the use of the other media.

A third school on the impact of media displacement focuses on functional displacement. “It is not simply a matter of one medium reducing the overall amount of time people spend with a second medium” (Gunter, 2010, P: 18). This displacement underpinning by whether the two media cater the similar functions for people. When a new media takes its share from the existing media this is called the functional equivalence of media. For example, cable television took its

market share from broadcast television because they fulfilled the same functions of relaxation and entertainment (Kaplan, 1978). On the other hand, Ferguson and Perse (2000) point out that the internet was found to be a functional alternative to television for entertainment, passing time, relaxation, social interaction, and information.

Focus on these three schools of displacement, we notice that this displacement effect involved time and functional displacement which will be discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

However, it worth to noting that since there is no Arab work applied the displacement theory except a study by Elareshi (2011), no Arab media research has attempted to measure the impact of the Internet on mass communication from the displacement perspective, as the majority of the studies found so far have examined the use of the Internet from the uses and gratifications theory. A possible explanation is that this theory might be uncirculated in the Arab academic field, as the uses and gratifications theory which is commonly used among researchers in the Arab world to examine the similar subject. Therefore, most of the literature review that the present study depends on was developed in the Western context.

This lack of displacement studies in the Arab region means that cultural differences between the Arab world/Saudi Arabia and Western world might not undermine the usefulness of displacement theory. However, in terms of time displacement it can be argued that the scenario of time displacement in the two cultural setting might be almost the same. This because people in both region have a limited time budget available to consuming media each day and if new medium emerge they will use it, this could mean that they reduce the time they devote to another medium. In regards to functional displacement where the decision to alteration from an old medium to a new medium is also driven by judgments made about the gratifications associated

by different media, there could be cultural differences based on differences in the functionality of specific media.

4.3.2 Time and Functional Displacement

The notion of media displacement may reflect several dimensions of media use, such as time, functions, contexts, motivation, and gratification (Leung et al., 2009). The major focus of the displacement effects of emerging media studies usually involve time and functional displacement. The former assumes that the amount of time people devote to various activities is limited, thus the introduction of a new medium leads to a reallocation of the time spent on other activities (Kim, 2007). The latter approach argues that a new technology will most likely reduce the time used for those media that have functions similar to those of the new medium (Perse & Dunn, 1998).

The study is concerned principally with attempting to understand the time displacement, where a new medium such the Internet arrives and commands a certain amount of Saudi student's time. This time has to come from somewhere and this might mean that they spend less time doing other things such as TV viewing, including using other media. Also, investigate the functional displacement, where a new medium such the Internet caters to the same gratifications as an older medium such as television, but does so more attractively. In this context, it was relevant to examine prior research on time and functional displacement and trace different articulations of both concepts.

4.3.2.1 Time Displacement

The focus of displacement theory is the amount of time individuals spend on various media types (Dutta-Bergman, 2004), and so the concept of time displacement means that the amount of time

available for the consumption of different types of media is limited (Liu & Hsu, 2008). The basic concept of time displacement assumes a zero-sum relationship for the amount of time invested in various activities (Kayany & Yelsma, 2000). The 'zero sum' feature of time is 'the cornerstone of displacement studies' (Robinson and Godbey, 1999: 15) and determines that time spent with any new activity has to be appropriated from existing activities. Based on the time displacement assumption, when a new media activity is introduced into our lives, we can expect a corresponding reduction in the time spent with other media activities and/or non-media tasks because the amount of time available for the consumption of various types of media is limited.

Researchers are typically concerned with whether a new medium will cut into time spent with other activities, especially in terms of traditional media usage (Kim, 2007). This concern stems from the observation that time spent on various activities, such as the use of media, and leisure, and socialising with friends or family, is limited within the 24 hours of a person's daily life cycle. Similarly, the current study concerns with the time Saudi students spend with different media and whether the time they spend with new medium will cut into time spent with other traditional media particularly television.

This concern about time displacement began after the wide advent of television in the late 1940s. In general, studies of the displacement effects of television agree that it significantly decreased the time spent listening to the radio, reading comic books, and attending movie theaters (Brown, Cramond, & Wilde, 1974; Coffin, 1955; Himmelweit, Oppenheim, & Vince, 1958; Maccoby, 1951; Schramm, Lyle, & Parker, 1961; Weiss, 1969). Almost all the major media at the time: movies, radio, books, magazines, and newspapers were affected. Non-media activities were also affected by television (e.g., Maccoby, 1951).

With the introduction of television as ordinary households, radio listening time was greatly reduced. Weiss (1968) found that the introduction of television into people's schedules reduced the amount of time they spent with most other media. Similarly, Robinson (1981) reported that the more time people spent on watching television the less time they will spent with other media, such as radio, and other activities, such as social visiting.

The growth of the home videocassette recorder (VCR) in the late 1980s led to further studies on the impact of technological enhancements on other existing media in order to identify whether the VCR displaced television viewing. Vanden (1999) conducted investigations into the effect of VCR use and patterns of time shifting. The study sought to answer whether VCR use reduced TV viewing, in other words whether its time shifting capability lead to time reduction in TV viewing. Vanden interviewed 909 respondents to measure the effect of VCR on television viewing behavior and found that there was no evidence that VCR use coincided with watching less television. However, the use of VCR leads to time filling and diversification, and heavy users of the VCR are also heavier viewers of television.

The advent and flourishing of the computer and the Internet has lead scholars to explore the impact of computer use on other traditional media, and how the computer affects time spent on other activities. Computer usage at home was found to be decreasing the time spent watching television (Rogers, 1985; Vitalari, Venkatesh, & Gronhaug, 1985). Entering the Internet age, more and more studies reported decline of television viewing time in computer-equipped homes (James, Wotring, & Forrest, 1995; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000; Kaye, 1998; Nie, 2001; Nie & Erbring, 2000; Perse & Dunn, 1998; Pew Internet Research, 2002).

When a new media activity is introduced into our lives, we can expect a corresponding reduction in the time spent with other media activities and/or non-media tasks because the

amount of time available for the consumption of various types of media is limited. The basic model of time displacement assumes a zero-sum relationship for the amount of time invested in various activities (Kayany & Yelsma, 2000; Lee & Kuo, 2000). Vitalari et al. (1985) have demonstrated the impact of personal computers upon the time allocation of various routine activities and have also considered the implications of this action. The authors gave the respondents a list of ten activities and asked them to compared the time spent on these before they had a computer in their homes, then how the time spent for the listed activities had changed. They found changes in the time allocation of ten activities, such as TV viewing, sleeping, hobbies, and leisure time with the family, due to home computer adoption.

Time displacement by the Internet can occur in different ways with different media. Previous studies were divided between supporters and opponents of the displacement theory. Some studies support the time displacement effect show decreases in existing media usage, especially television viewing. (see e.g., Robinson, 2002; Pronovost, 2002; Nie & Hillygus, 2002; Kayany & Yelsma ,2000; Mannell, Zuzanek & Aronson, 2005; Ha & Ling, 2011).

However, displacement (or reduction in time spent) is not the only possible outcome of the advent of the new media, but merely one possible outcome (Stempel, Hargrove & Bernt, 2000). In a sense, the introduction of the new medium such as the Internet has led to a reduction in time spent on existing media, a claim that was supported in some research, as noted above. However, the evidence also shows that the use of the Internet has resulted in no change or even complementation, or an increase in time spent in the use of other media. For example, Cai (2005) reported that there is a positive relationship between computer use and establish media use in people normal daily routines.

Some studies reject the zero-sum hypothesis, claiming that there is a complementary relationship between new and traditional media. Livingstone (2002) highlighted that the time spent with various media is positively rather than negatively correlated. Illustrating this, Lee and Kuo (2002) found that rise in Internet use was accompanied with reduced television viewing, but is leads to an increase in newspaper reading, radio listening, and socialising with friends. Instead of displacement, they suggested that newspaper and radio use were benefiting from Internet use (Lee & Kuo, 2002). They explained that this may be because of the characteristics and uses of newspapers and radio, which make them more resistant to displacement. Because of the characteristic of radio, it is imaginable that people go online while listening to radio. Also, the Internet use stimulates curiosity and other motivations that lead people to read newspapers and listen to radio more. Hence, we are likely to observe a positive relationship between Internet and radio use.

Althaus and Tewksbury (2000) and Bromley and Bowles (1995) also asserts that even when computer skills and Internet access become more widespread in the general population, use of the World Wide Web as a news source seems unlikely to substantially reduce the use of traditional news media, because people often go online to follow up on news they originally received from traditional sources (Tewksbury, 2002). It seems that the displacement effect does not automatically occur when a new medium enters a media environment alongside other established media. One reason why simple time displacement does not invariably occur is tied to the functions that different media might provide to audiences (Ha & Fang, 2012; Jeong & Li, 2003).

Based on the literature review of displacement effect, previous time displacement studies produced contradictory findings for several reasons. First, new technology such as the Internet is

a rapidly changing medium, and it is hard to precisely predict what functions it will take on in the future, as can be seen in the evolution in computers in just ten or fifteen years. Second, the measures of time displacement used in the above studies may have also contributed to the mixed findings: some studies were collected the data on time displacement by using one simple survey question, such as: 'Has using the Internet changed the amount of time you spend watching television? Increased, unchanged, decreased' (e.g. Nie and Erbring, 2000). Using such measures might have a lack of precision because it is entirely rely on respondents' own judgments, which may not be accurate in some cases. In this context, the current study will examine whether time Saudi students spent on the Internet come at the expense of other mass communication, specifically television.

4.3.2.2 Functional Displacement

According to a functional displacement hypothesis, one technology will displace another to the extent that the new medium can be used for similar functions as the traditional media, while offering new opportunities or reduced costs. For instance, television displaced radio as the preferred source for story-based entertainment and the evening newspaper as the source for news by growing the earlier technologies with animation (Kraut et al, 2006).

Scholars have used the displacement of radio by television as an example of functional equivalence (Himmelweit at el., 1958). Before the introduction of television, radio provided public comradeship, useful information, reduced feelings of loneliness or boredom. (Mendelson, 1964). However, with the introduction of television people came to perceive it not only as a functional alternative to radio but also as a better alternative since it was better able to satisfy most of their needs.

The first proposition of functional displacement was made by Himmelweit and her colleagues (1958) based on the results of their television studies. They pointed out that if a new medium is perceived as being capable to equally or more effectively satisfy the same needs fulfilled by the traditional media, it will, at least to some extent, displace the old media. They found that television displaced radio listening, movie attendance and comic reading because they all had a similar function. In addition, the finding by Kaplan (1978) showed that cable television reduced local network television viewing and theatre attendance.

Research on the functional relationship between the Internet and television has consistently indicated people's perceptions of the Internet as an entertainment medium. Perse & Dunn (1998) noted that computer connectivity seemed to fill similar needs to television such as entertainment and escape. Also, greater home computer connectivity was associated with using computer as a medium to pass time (p. 451). Previous studies (Ferguson & Perse, 2000; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000) found that both television and the Internet have been regarded as a means of communication for entertainment and news (Kim, 2007), thus the Internet usage could theoretically displace television viewing in a functional sense. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between the importance of television and online media for news and concluded that functional displacement of television by online media as a source of news might be ongoing. They added that using television as an entertainment medium has been affected by the intensity use of online media as a source of entertainment.

In the early stage of computer adoption, the Internet was considered as unrelated to mass communication functions or relevant only to information needs because its service was limited to e-mail or electronic bulletin boards. For example, Flanagin and Metzger (2001), noting Perse & Courtright (1993)'s concept of 'normative images', specified three functions of the Internet

(information retrieval, information giving, conversation capabilities) and investigated functional similarities of communication technologies. Their findings illustrated that information retrieval and information giving functions were used in similar ways as mass media (newspaper, television, book, and magazine), while Internet-conversation function was similar to mediated interpersonal communication (telephone, electronic-mail). Robinson & DeHaan (2006) also asserted that, "according to a functional displacement hypothesis, one technology displaces another to the extent that the new technology can be used for similar functions as the old, while offering new opportunities or reduced costs". Therefore, there is a possibility that the Internet could displace television, as it is a source of both entertainment and news, and information can be obtained according to individual's requirements and schedules (Kraut et al, 2006).

Based on the previous discussion, the functional displacement is not limited to assumption that heavy Internet use will lead to reductions in TV viewing, it is describes that if functional displacement occur then the purposes of using the Internet should determine what other media will be displaced (Kraut *et al*., 2004). Since literature review in Saudi context indicates that young people use the Internet for entertainment purposes. Reasonably, by applying the functional displacement in the present study we should anticipate seeing greater reductions in TV viewing among Saudi students who use the Internet for news and entertainment purposes than among those who use it for other purposes.

4.3.3 Criticism of Displacement Theory

Although displacement theory has been commonly used in examining the impact of new media on traditional media, it presents several conceptual problems. Robinson et al. (1997) asserted that media displacement theory was insufficient to explain the influence of the Internet on traditional media. They claimed that the Internet can be identical to household appliances as they use

automobiles and household appliances, such as washing machines and dishwashers, people can concurrently read a newspaper and use a computer. In this way, the computer may play the role of 'activity (media) enhancement' rather than displacement (Robinson et al., 1997, p. 80).

Moreover, displacement hypothesis does not consider multitasking activities which are a common consequence of the arrival of new technologies where people can engage with different media at the same time. For example, the Internet would not displace radio use because they have different functions. Users can 'read news online while they are listening to the radio' (Ha & Fang, 2012, p. 185).

Media displacement research paid insufficient attention to long-term changes new media would bring to traditional media use (Nguyen & Western, 2006). In particular, mass media fluctuated from one decade to another and decade-long increases in disposable income were associated with either decline or rapid increase in using media. Some scholars argued that applying ideas of displacement has some problems since the integration of old media into new media is inevitable and the process of their integration has been facilitated through various forms. Also, rather than the Internet displace traditional media, old media may become the content of a new medium, so too the mediums that are made possible by old media can be viewed in a new way. For example, some newspapers are now selling their information through their own websites and value-added mobile phone services. In addition, TV is going to transform and become part of the Internet is technically obvious.

Furthermore, "the new media has significant functional equivalence with traditional media such as print media and television, and is therefore taking some of this market" (Adoni and Nossek, 2001, pp. 76-81). Consequently, the competition between new and old media will happen. However, old media might react to this competition rather than displacement by new media. This reaction from traditional media because of understanding that this new media is now

part of the landscape and needs to be embraced which lead to the so-called 'convergence' of media. Therefore, the legitimate and the usefulness of displacement theory in the era of media convergence seems, in practice, rather difficult to conclude. The Internet ability to converge various functions of traditional media would totally change the relationship between the Internet and traditional media. However, although the increase in online content, the proliferation of social media, and the convergence between satellite TV and the Internet in Arab/Saudi context now affect the use of media behaviour, the ability of the Internet to keep pace with increasing demand and changing usage may recurring concern about the negative impact of the new media on traditional media. As have been described in Chapter three that the Internet in Saudi Arabia is spreading more among young individuals than older ones, and young people always trace the development of this new media. Therefore, displacement effects may continue to occur for the future use of Internet associated with the future use of new applications of new media.

Audiences choose between using television or the Internet by evaluating each medium gratification opportunities when determining which one better satisfies particular needs. When a The Internet serves goals and needs better compared to how television do, this medium could be seen as a functional alternative with possibility of replacement or displacement effect as the Internet takes over some or all of the gratification opportunities, which had previously belonged to television. Thus, the next section reviews the literature in relation to uses and gratification theory.

4.4 Uses and Gratification Theory

The uses and gratifications theory noted that the audience attempts to fulfil certain psychological needs in media choice and these gratifications sought motivates the use of media. (Ruggiero,

2000). The purpose of this study is to understand Saudi young adult motives that underpin the use of the media and the use of the Internet more especially.

Considerations of functional displacement mean that we need to examine literature on people's motivations for using media since at the individual level functional displacement recognises individual patterns of media use depend on individual needs and motivations. Therefore, uses and gratifications literature is relevant here. Scholars have argued that uses and gratification provides insight into an explanation for the functional displacement effect (Ferguson & Perse, 2000). U&G central assumption is "audience activity"; meaning that audiences are active communicators with self-aware needs, who are motivated to choose media content instead of experiencing incidental or passive media exposure (James et al., 2004).

The uses and gratification approach arose originally in the 1940s when researchers became interested in why people engaged in various forms of media behaviour, such as radio listening or newspaper reading. The approach developed in communications research to study the various forms of satisfaction that attract and hold audiences to different kinds of media and the types of content that satisfy their social and psychological needs. McQuail (2000) noted that the first development of uses and gratifications research was by Lazarsfeld, Stanton and Herzog, who studied radio listeners and their attraction to different radio programs, seeking classify the responses of audience members into meaningful categories (Ruggiero, 2000). Berelson (1949) examined the motivations of conventional media use, such as radio. Berelson tried to find out what people do with the media. The author argued that "the newspaper is missed because it serves as a source of security in a disturbing world, and finally, because reading of the newspaper has become a ceremonial or ritualistic act for many people" (p. 129).

The uses and gratifications approach was first formally outlined by Katz (1959). He suggests that communication research should explore the question of "What do people do with the media?" which brought new attention to the concept of audience activity. From that point on, the uses and gratifications approach brought an "active audience" concept to communication research for the first time. This approach proposes that media consumption is an outcome of a rational and self-aware audience. The audiences know their needs and the ways in which they are best satisfied by media among competing sources (Lee, 2004).

The uses and gratifications approach was developed further in the 1970s and 1980s, when scholars sought to gather information regarding the "motivations" or "motives" of the audiences that used the media and what satisfaction they gained from them. These two concepts were loosely defined into "gratifications sought", which are the various expectation-based motivations for both media and non-media use behaviours, and "gratifications obtained," which are the "perceived personal outcomes" of these behaviours respectively (Rubin, Sypher, & Palmgreen, 1994, p. 173).

Palmgreen and Rayburn (1985) proposed a model of the motivations (i.e. gratifications sought (GS) and gratifications obtained (GO). They concluded that, audience motivated by certain need, then they recognize to seek out certain gratification from a particular media forms, media content, or program and it results in their gratifications obtained from the object; therefore, users construct certain belief or evaluation on the media form they choose, and accordingly guide their next media use behaviour. This means that audiences are rational agents capable of selecting media content that best meets their needs and desires.

Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch (1974, cited in Rubin) highlight the principal objectives of uses and gratification inquiry: a) to explain how people use media to gratify their needs; b) to

understand motives for media behaviour; and c) to identify functions or consequences that follow from needs, motives, and behaviour (Rubin, 2002). They described the uses and gratifications approach as being concerned with "1) the social and psychological origins of 2) needs, which generate 3) expectations of 4) the mass media or other sources, which lead to 5) differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in 6) need gratifications and 7) other consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones" (Blumler & Katz, 1974, p. 20).

The framework of uses and gratifications rests on five assumptions of uses and gratifications (Rubin, 2009; Scherer, 2010). The first assumption is that the audience is active. At the time of the introduction of this theory, this indicated a shift audience position from one in which the audience passively consumed whatever media were put in front of them. The second assumption refers to that media use is goal oriented. People do not sit in front of the television simply because it is there; they are motivated to watch television to accomplish some goal. The third assumption affirms that media use fulfils specific needs. The main goal of media users is to satisfy one or more of these needs. The fourth assumption states that people have enough self awareness know and express their reason for using the media. This means that people can articulate their motivation for using a medium. The final assumption is that gratifications are relative to the attributes, content, and contexts of the medium. This means that not all media fulfil needs equally.

A number of uses and gratifications studies were conducted on the area of television in the 1970s and 1980s. These studies identified four or five dominant motivations or gratifications that audiences sought from television. The gratifications that come from watching television include diversion, personal relationship, personal identity or individual psychology, and surveillance. For example, Palmgreen and Rayburn (1979) studied viewers' exposure to public

television and concluded that the U&G approach served well as a complement to other determinant factors such as media availability, work schedules, and social constraints. The researchers identified seven gratifications associated with public television: relaxing, learning about things, communication utility, forgetting, passing time, companionship and entertainment. In support of this, Rubin (1983) explored five common motives for overall television use including habitual passing of time, information, entertainment, companionship, and escape.

During the last two decades the theory has been applied to explain the use wide range of new communication technology since the expansion of new media have offers more media choices and motivation, increase the opportunities for applying uses and gratifications theory (Chen, 2011). Previous new media studies have discovered uses and gratification in relation to new technology such as the Internet (Charney & Greenberg, 2001; Ferguson & Perse, 2000; Kang & Aktin, 1999; Kaye, 1998; Lin, 2002). The emergence of the Internet has provided another outlet for people to use and seek gratification through media. Since the internet requires a higher level of interactivity from its users in comparison with other traditional media (Ruggiero 2000) and an active audience is the core concept of this theory, the uses and gratifications theory is appropriate for studying the Internet as a whole and for examining specific types of websites (Kaye & Johnson, 2001)

Determining who the users of the Internet are, and what those users do with the Internet, is the core of the application of uses and gratifications to the Internet (Clavio, 2008). As Klapper (1963) argued, the underlying concept of uses and gratifications theory is what people do with the mass media. Kaye & Johnson (2004) argued that the uses and gratifications approach seems ideally suited to studying the Internet. While individuals can passively allow television content to wash over them, online technologies such as e-mail, bulletin boards and chat rooms are

interactive applications that require audience members to be active users. Therefore, many previous studies have examined psychological and behavioural aspects of Internet users to identify a set of common underlying dimensions for Internet usage motivations (Lin, 1996; LaRose, Mastro, & Eastin 2001; Lin 1999b; Roy, 2008; Jere & Davis, 2011)

The studies relating to the Internet have demonstrated a wide range of uses and gratifications factors. For example, Lin (1996) noted that the emergence of the personal computer, and the manner in which the personal computer has been utilized by individuals, has been linked to a wide variety of need fulfilments commonly cited in uses and gratifications research. Lin's listed examples of these gratifications included, "social identity, interpersonal communication, parasocial interaction, companionship, escape, entertainment, and surveillance" (p. 559).

Some researchers have attempt to examine what consequences users' Internet gratification motives have on the continued use of traditional media by comparing Internet gratification motives with various print media. For example, Flavián and Guerra (2006) investigated the main motives for online rather than traditional print newspaper consumption and found a positive relationship between users' need for updated news and online news readership. In contrast, entertainment, habit and relaxation motives were closely associated with reading the print newspapers (Flavián & Guerra 2006).

Furthermore, the uses and gratifications theory has suggested that an important first phase to understanding whether the Internet can displace television use is to see whether the Internet is a functional alternative to television viewing. In order for the Internet to be a functional alternative to television, its use should be undertaken for similar reasons (Ferguson & Perse, 2000). Research has consistently found that television is used mainly for relaxing entertainment,

followed by needs to pass time and for information (e.g., Rubin, 1981 a, 1984). Indeed, studies that have examined motives for using the Web find that like television, the Web tends to satisfy entertainment, escape and social interaction needs (Charney and Greenberg, 2001; Eighmey, 1997; Ferguson and Perse, 2000; Kang and Atkin, 1999; Kaye, 1998; Korgaonkar and Wolin, 1999; Papacharissi and Rubin, 2000). Entertainment is only modestly endorsed by respondents; passing time and relaxation are rarely mentioned. However, while television and the Internet, then, may gratify similar needs because they are structurally similar. In general, the Internet offers satisfaction with more needs than any traditional media source (Kaye and Medoff, 2001; Choi & Haque, 2002; Dimmick, Chen, & Li, 2004). Possible reasons for that are: First, the interactive nature of the Internet is such that users are actively shape it to adequate their needs. Second, many activities achieved by using traditional media can also be achieved by using the Internet, such as watching television shows or accessing news (Scherer, 2010).

The previous discussion of uses and gratifications literature and examine media motivations indicate that using the same media content may gratify different needs for different individual means that different people can use the medium for very different purposes and needs. Moreover, basic needs, social situation, and the people's background, such as experience, interests, and education, may affect individual's ideas about what they want from media and which media is the best to fulfil their goals and needs. Subsequently, needs for choosing and consuming media are divergent from culture to culture. The reasons for doing so may differ depending on individual social and cultural milieu. Therefore, the needs for using television or the Internet in the present study might be different from the needs in the West literature.

As I mentioned earlier the introduction of a new medium, such as the Internet, have not been considered within combined the context of displacement theory and uses and gratification

theory in the Arab world. Previous literatures in the context of the Arab media environment have applied uses and gratification mainly in three aspects: understanding television broadcasting consumption habits, the Internet use, and the Internet usage vs traditional media usage (as have been discussed in Chapter three).

4.4.1 Functional displacement and uses and gratifications

The media displacement hypothesis predicts that any new medium will take its share from existing media in the case that it is able to provide better content, technical benefits and cost efficiency. In other words, a displacement mechanism may occur when a new medium provides gratifications and is considered more functionally desirable than the old media (Gunter, 2010). The concept of functional displacement happens when a new form of media caters to the same gratifications as an older medium, but does so more attractively for consumers, whereas media that have different functions and gratifications would not displace others (Elareshi, 2011).

The uses and gratifications perspective provides insight into an explanation for functional displacement effect (Ferguson & Perse, 2000). Regarding the uses and gratifications-perspective, the following definition has been offered:

> "a new medium survives, grows, competes and prospers by providing utility or gratifications to consumers. In doing so, it may have effects on existing media by providing new solutions to old needs or to more contemporary needs" (Dimmick, Chen & Li, 2004, p. 31).

Previous research assumed audiences to be active, intentional and selective in their media use and their choices of media content (Ha & Fang, 2012). Based to the assumption of active audiences, several studies have adopted the theme of functional displacement (Ferguson & Perse, 2000; Kim, 2007) concluded that the notion of "active audience" suggests a ground for the latent of new media to replace old media. If people understand their needs and medium which serve

their specific goals and needs, they will consume the new media at the expense of using other media which have performed similar functions (Atkin et al., 1998; Lin & Jeffres, 1998; Morris & Ogan, 1996). On the other hand, the uses and gratifications theory tends to support the complementary effects of the Internet on traditional media. For example, if users have a news and information needs, they would choose both traditional and new media that serve news and information functions in various ways, which tends to support the complementary effects of the Internet on traditional media (Dutta-Bergman, 2004; Lee & Leung, 2006).

Based on the above discussion, this study applied uses and gratifications theory since it is offers a useful framework to compare people's motives for selecting different media and the different reasons why Saudi students use TV and the Internet, investigating, in particular, whether certain media can serve functional alternative to other media. Using both theories will help to explain the functional differences between those media and the relative preference of one media over the other. It will also inform in exploring factors that may underpin media choices and selections.

Likewise, since factors such as social and culture of audiences may affect their media uses, needs, and gratifications, using this theory will provide a more comprehensive explanation of media behaviour between Arab and West region. Moreover, this study aligning the both theories displacement and uses and gratifications to will help to understand motivations for using certain media and how shift in patterns of media use depend on individual needs and motivations. Although, both theories have different assumptions, they address the issue of how audiences are active and selective, making different decisions about the consumption of media content. When a new medium serving the same functions and the same gratifications of an old media, users will select the media which fulfil their goals and then the functional displacement

will occur. For example, if the Internet provides a viable means for satisfying an entertainment motive, television might be displaced.

4.4.2 Criticisms of Uses and Gratifications

Uses and gratifications theory has been criticized in several ways for its initial assumptions as well as the methodology of the early studies that investigated it. First, the model was criticized for being too individualistic in that it focuses on audience consumption, which makes it difficult to explain or predict beyond the individuals in a particular study or to consider media use in the larger societal context (Ruggiero, 2000). In addition, uses and gratification theorists argue that the model is more concerned with what people want from and choose to do with their use of a particular media, not the effects of the media. Audience members are not passive nor are they manipulated by the media. Audience members use media to generate desired effects (Baran & Davis, 1995, p. 219).

The second criticisms relate to certain methodological issues, particularly those which rely on self-reported typologies and attitude variables rather than observable audience behaviour, are suspect and assumed that such measures could provide accurate data about media use. In many of the early studies have used only multiple-choice questionnaires and measured through qualitative analysis. The most significant methodological problem is that some studies employed motivation questionnaires developed for uses and gratifications research on television. As a result the findings of these studies show contradictory results. For example, the Ferguson and Perse study (2000) found that entertainment was the most salient motivation, whereas the Perse and Ferguson study (2000) revealed that learning was the most important motivation for using the Web (Lee,2004).

The biggest issue for the uses and gratifications Theory is some scholars considered it to be an "approach," not a theory. In other words, it lacked a relevant theoretical foundation for its conclusions. Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch (1973) reported that uses and gratifications "barely advanced beyond a sort of charting and profiling activity" (p. 514). However, the present study drawn from uses and gratifications as a theory since it is permit to investigate media use via a single or multiple sets of needs, motives, content, and gratifications within a particular or cross-cultural context. Studying how and why Saudi students use media, through uses and gratifications offer clues to our understanding about exactly what is there uses reasons and how they relate to the use of specific media, such as television versus radio versus newspaper versus the Internet.

In terms of criticizing the applying of the uses and gratification in Internet studies Vermaas et al (2004) noted that uses and gratification may offer a useful description of Internet use by understanding that there are underlying needs that motivate Internet usage. However, information about what the needs are that the Internet can gratify, does not fully explain what people will actually do on the Internet. Moreover, behaviour does not fully explain underlying needs. Despite the growth of studies that have been applied uses and gratifications approach to the Internet, there is still no clarity as to what uses users have for the Internet and what goals they seek to gratify when go online (Seungwhan, 2004: 18-19).

The current study uses these concepts of motives or needs in order to understand why and how different users become more or less actively involved with particular media. This study expects to find students use particular media such as television and the Internet for cognitive needs, including seeking information, knowledge and understanding, social needs, including interacting with family and friends, and entertainment needs, including relaxing, and escaping.

4.5 Domestication of Technology Theory

The emergence of the domestication notion represented a shift way from models which assumed the adoption of new innovations to rational, linear, monocausal and technologically determined. Rather, it presented a theoretical framework and research approach, which considered the complexity of everyday life and technology's place within its dynamic, rituals, rules, routines and patterns (Silverstone et al. 1992). The theory was initially developed to help understand the adoption and use of new media technologies by households (Silverstone et al. 1992). One aspect of the current study is to understand how television and the Internet use fits into family life of Saudi young adult and how the Internet in turn has slotted in. Thus, this study drawn from domestication theory to understand the use of the Internet alongside with other media in the domestic setting.

Domestication of technology describes and analyse the processes of technology's acceptance, rejection and use. From this prospective, the present study drawn from domestication of technology theory alongside with displacement and uses and gratification theory. It could be expected that the arrival of new technology such as the Internet in the households might displace other media objects already present in the households. The Internet can be seen as another media in the households that might play role in displacing or being displaced by other media. The Internet arrivals in the households with new functions and once users discover these functions which may gratify their goals and needs the displacement hypothesis may occur.

4.5.1 Domestication of Technology

Domestication, in the traditional sense, refers to the taming of a wild animal from that perspective, the domestication of technology refers to the process where users bring an artifact

from the public environments to the private and tame, gain control, shape or ascribe meaning to the artifact in users' lives (Haddon, 2006). Domestication, essentially, is about giving technology a place in everyday life. The concept captures the practical, temporal, spatial place, but most importantly, it underlines how this is mixed with the cultural as an expression of lifestyles and values (Hynes & Richardson, 2009).

The approach of domestication of technology was originally developed in order to shed light onto the processes of consumption of home technologies, such as the telephone, the television, the VCR or the home computer (Silverstone et al., 1992; Silverstone, 1994; Silverstone and Haddon, 1996). The Domestication of Technology Theory started to capture the attention of social scientists who are interested in social consequences of technology. This theory is mainly developed and accepted in European countries in general and Britain in particular, and explained how products are introduced into the home setting and how their use and meaning evolves over time. It is a tool to allow the scholars to trace the process of cultural integration of artifacts as they move from the outside world into the 'moral economy' of the home (Silverstone et al., 1992). One consequence of this is that patterns of use change as families' transition from one life-cycle stage to the other.

The domestication approach established by Roger Silverstone and colleagues during the 1980s, then at Brunel University at UK, introduced the concept of domestication to explain the general and symbolic consumption trend in modern society. The domestication approach is based on the social shaping of technology and studies how technological artifacts are incorporated into the everyday routines of the home (Silverstone & Hirsch 1992). This is a confrontation that does not always end well. Domestication of technologies is not necessary to happen in everyday routines and sometimes the process is never complete. Also, despite of those technologies

appear domesticated might one day encounter rejection from the household members (Hack, 2007).

In the mid-1990s, further research emerged about domestication of new technologies. For instance, (Haddon & Silverstone, 1993, 1995, 1996) enabled further exploration of how this approach might be applied and led to incremental development around its key themes. The concept of domestication subsequently was a framework that was employed in further studies of cable TV for Telewest and of Internet consumption. It formed a background to policy-related documents (Haddon & Silverstone, 1995) and discussions of issues such as ICTs and social exclusion (Silverstone, 1994a; Haddon, 2000).

Gender was the significant factors in most of the domestication technology. A large and growing body of qualitative and quantitative literature has investigated the media in the home and often framed around how it has become domesticated by different gender (Habib & Cornford, 2000; Bray, 2007; Bruschke, 2012; Na, 2013). The central concern addressed by these studies has been how this particular relationship between gender and technology arises in a social context, especially in the domestic sphere, that gender relations and the structure of power in the domestic context are central to shaping family use of new technology, constructing females and males different experiences of technology use, and influencing their ideas of its meanings, values, and specific uses. Gender has always been an important factor in the adoption and use of household technologies (Kennedy, 2011). In particular, gender division of household labour has been seen that it is play a key role on how males and females differing experiences of domestic technologies. For example, females' domestic responsibilities compose a major barrier to their access to the home computer as a part of their domestic chores (Kennedy, 2011).

4.5.2 The Domestication Process

Silverstone, Hirsch & Morley (1992) delineated the five phases or dimensions of the domestication process: imagination, appropriation, objectification, incorporation, and conversion. The first phase called imagination which refers to the way technologies is designed and is given an image by the users as it develops into consumer society. Appropriation is the process of possession or acquires of the product or object. It is at this stage that objects acquire a meaning and become authentic. In other words, how the device will be used and consequently buying it: objectification focusing on the object and its display in the geography of the home (Silverstone et al., 1992; Omari & Ribak, 2008). For instance, after purchasing a technology, users decides what role the technology should play in their life and where it is placed and displayed within the household (Lee et al, 2009).

Incorporation refers to the process during which artifacts are use temporally incorporated into daily life, both formally in form of schedules and rules and informally in form of routines and habits. Technologies are selected with specific features in mind and should serve in the way users intend. However, in some cases, some technologies do not comply with buyers' intentions, and do not fit into the routines of buyers' everyday lives (Lee et al, 2009). The phase conversion referring to the process at which the product reaches a 'taken-for-granted' status to become a part of the user's life as it is given a function that may be different from those that were intended by the designers or marketers of the artefact or even from those that the buyer had in mind when acquiring it. For example, many home computers brought for educational purposes have become game machines (Habib, 2005).

The model of domestication of technology was originally developed in order to shed light onto the processes of consumption of home technologies, such as the telephone, the television,

the VCR or the home computer (Silverstone et al., 1992; Silverstone, 1994; Silverstone and Haddon, 1996; Lie and Sorensen, 1996). However, previous domestication studies have draws attention to how the Internet is (or is not) appropriated, objectified, incorporated and converted into daily life, within and outside the home. Ward (2005) argues that "The introduction of new media forms such as the Internet – rather than emerging and functioning in isolation – are constructed within an existing media and domestic context" (2005: 107). Ward finds that Internet use is shaped almost entirely by the existing habits and interests of a household. Bakardjieva (2005) provided an in-depth look at the domestication of cyberspace by nonprofessional Canadian users and explored how networked computers are integrated into the physical space of the household. Bakardjieva found that the location of the home computer reveals a lot about the family and how its members relate to this technology.

The domestication model created by Silverstone et al. (1992) (later reworked by Silverstone & Haddon 1996 and Silverstone 2006) has informed some of the existing research regarding households and the Internet. For example, Lally (2002) research concerning computers in the home also examined how computers are transformed from anonymous objects into artifacts that play crucial role in household in order to explore how people respond to a culture which is powerfully entwined with ICTs and defined by home computer use and Internet access. Also, Hynes (2005) employs the Silverstone model of domestication (1989, 1992) as a structural and systematic framework to achieve an empirical understanding of domestication from the viewpoint of the domestic user of the Internet.

In the present study the domestication framework will help to examine the processes that take place when the Internet interacts with the everyday patterns of the household. Also, the domestication process is essentially about exploring how television and the Internet fit into the

routines and practices of the everyday life of the Saudi student and begs the question, "What social factors shaped their media use?"

Based on the previous discussions the domestication approach has roots in cultural studies of media use, but is informed by science and technology studies, gender studies of household technology, sociology of everyday life, consumption studies and innovation studies, and has been most widely used in studying the mass adoption of computers, Internet and mobile phones. Furthermore, domestication studies are generally done using qualitative methods, such as long interviews and ethnography to explore the emerging meanings of technologies, and the changing routines, and conflicts that would not normally be accessible to quantitative methods.

Since gender differences are also seen as manifest through media use behaviour, the present study concerns about how media finding a place within the domestic sphere, a process that can be identified as one of domestication, and how do male and female attitudes find an expression around this media.

4.5.3 Criticisms of Domestication of Technology Theory

Although domestication of technology approach provides one with holistic approach to understating adoption, it has been critiqued. Katz & Aakhus (2002) argued that domestication of technology theory is not really a theory because of its overall narrowed scope. Instead, it is just a perspective or a viewpoint in explaining how technology integrated in family life.

Most of the domestication of technology criticisms was addressed to the domestication processes. Feenberg (1999) stated that the elements of domestication process are limited and conservative, referring to household, adoption and habituation rather than resistance and active rejection or re-appropriation. The domestication processes comprises the concept of linearity that has similarities with diffusion approach to innovations. However, this process has it is own value

in analysis of the processes of technology's acceptance, rejection and use. On the other hand, the domestication processes have been criticized for not being a fixed or linear process. It does not necessarily follow each other and the process is not always successful and completed since it can stop when the user loses interest in the technology. For example, it is possible for the users to acquire the new media and give it room and space in the household, but this does not necessarily mean that the user will integrate in the home (Hynes & Rommes, 2006). However, Silverstone *et al*. (1989) have separated the processes in order make sense of the processes experienced by individuals and households. Therefore, the present study describes the four processes of domestication in a fractured sense. Hence, Saudi students may experience their media consumption through the phases of domestication without necessarily doing so respectively.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has focused on the main theoretical approach of relevance to the study. It is reviews adoption of innovation, displacement, uses and gratification, and domestication of technology. The Diffusion of Innovation theory was reviewed in this chapter because part of the current study is to examine the spread in penetration of the Internet among Saudi young people, and to understand the way the Internet and TV are used. Diffusion of Innovations theory provides tools, both quantitative and qualitative, for assessing the likely rate of diffusion of a technology, and additionally, identifies several factors that facilitate or hinder technology adoption and implementation. These factors include characteristics of the technology, characteristics of adopters, and the means by which adopters learn about and are persuaded to adopt the technology (Rogers 1983). The body of diffusion of innovation research indicated that usually, when new products or ideas come about, they are only adopted by a small group of people initially; later, many innovations spread and it will be widely adopted by a majority quite rapidly.

Therefore, it was entirely relevant to applied diffusion innovation in this study to understand the penetration of the Internet among Saudi young people.

This chapter has also examined the displacement theory and its main assumption of the concern about the impact of the emergence of a new medium on the use of another traditional medium. In this context, it has focused on two different perspectives: time displacement and functional displacement. The present study drawn from this theory since the core objective of current study is to examine whether the use of new medium such as the Internet has produced changes in use of existing medium and how it is related to the functional and technical properties of each. Also, reviewing displacement theory was based on research that was conducted in the Western context because there is a lack of Arab research on displacement theory. This study assumes that Saudi young people how spent a greater amount of time on the Internet will watch less television. However, in the case of people spent time on the Internet for particular function then we might recognize functional displacement. Hence it is necessary to study audience motives taking into the account uses and gratifications.

This chapter also discussed merger of the uses and gratification theory and the displacement theory. Since part of the current study examined the reasons for consuming one medium over another uses and gratification was an expectancy theory which fits well with the displacement theory. What uses and gratification does, is provide a general comprehensive view and information of the psychological motives to consume specific media, and patterns of media use to gratify needs and goals. These patterns of media use depend on individual needs and motivations which have featured within displacement theory in regard to the notion of functional displacement. Further, this study expects to find out that the arrival of new technology such as the Internet in the households might displace other media objects already present in the

households. This in turn led to understand the media consumption within the domestic sphere. Thus, it was entirely relevant that the present study draw from domestication of technology.

The study has drawn also from the domestication of technology theory because it is provides a description of how media technologies pervade the domestic space, where they are tamed and adequate into the ecology of people's daily lives. The study integrated the domestication theory with displacement and uses and gratification theory in order to understand and analyse the introduction of new media in the households with new functions which may gratify user's goals and needs might then become their preferred medium and pose threat on existing medium in the form of displacement effect. Given the significance of gender in Saudi Arabia gender differences are also seen as manifest through media use behavior, this study concerns about how media fitting within the domestic environment, and how do male and female attitudes find an expression around this media.

The next chapter deals with the methodology element of the study. It is explains the procedure of data collection from Saudi university students in order to answer study questions.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the research methodology for this study. It was designed to reveal the patterns of media usage, and the relationships that exist between the use of the Internet and that of television (henceforth TV), with reference to the use of TV and the Internet in social contexts. As mentioned in Chapter 3, there is a dearth of earlier work from the Arab world combining quantitative and qualitative methods. Previous studies of Arab media audiences in the Arab world were quantitative (Sakr, 2007), relying mainly upon self-completion questionnaire surveys and respondents giving self-reports or verbal reports about their media use behaviour. Furthermore, adopting a quantitative method on its own cannot reveal a wealth of detailed information and deep insight into how young people use media in their daily lives. This research is based on both quantitative (questionnaire surveys and time diaries) and qualitative (focus groups) techniques. The reasons of using the three methods are to triangulating the findings and to obtain richness of thought from young people about how they use media. Questionnaire can find the way Saudi young people use the media, while focus group allow them to talk in more open-ending way. The researcher can't look at the relationships between variable of the focus group without the questionnaire method. Further, this study examines whether time spent on the Internet come at the expense of other daily activities which is an important part of demonstrating displacement effect. Therefore, using time diary method is a more precise way in looking of frequency of sequences of media behaviour.

However, given the absence of use of qualitative methods in prior research, the present study underwent two stages; the first qualitative stage was used in order to inform the development of the questionnaire and generate qualitative data on Internet/TV use by young Saudi people. The

second stage was a quantitative stage, in which the survey and time diary methods were used. Using the time diary method to measure media use in the Arab world is not common, and no reference is made to it in earlier studies conducted in Saudi Arabia. As such, the use of time diaries represents a new research method within the Saudi context. With this in mind, this study features a time diary survey which was applied to examine how both the young and more educated people in Saudi Arabia utilize their time on the Internet, as well as their television watching habits and their engagement in various other activities. This chapter discusses the methodology and procedure that were used in conducting this research.

5.2 Research Design

The present study aimed to investigate Saudi university students' use of the Internet, applying mixed method techniques. These techniques were used in the context of a mixed method research approach, where both quantitative and qualitative techniques are combined to give a better understanding of the data collected from a large population. This data related to the use of TV and the Internet by Saudi university students, their reasons and attitudes, and particularly the relationships between using TV and the Internet. Therefore, this study collected data using the focus group discussion, survey, and time diary methods.

Since this study drawn from adoption of innovation, displacement, uses and gratification, and domestication of technology theory the methodology design in order to achieve an exploration of the data in the light of these theories. For example, one of the things that this study examines is whether new forms of delivery of contents on the Internet are taking over people's traditional viewing patterns so the researcher needs to know something about the functions of this different kind of content which underpin the motives of using different kind of content.

Therefore, this study review theory about these things and also it built them into the measure of methodology.

5.2.1 Focus Groups Discussion

Kreuger defines a focus group as a 'carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions in a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment' (1998a, p.18). This research used the focus group method because it involved interviews and organized discussion with a selected group of individuals, to gain information about their use of Internet and the ways in which individuals are influenced by the new media. Walden (2006) comments that focus groups can provide the opportunity to investigate answers, clarify responses and ask follow-up questions. However, there are several limitations to using a focus group. First, because focus groups involve such a small number of participants, it is often difficult to generalize findings to the larger population. Secondly, as with other qualitative methods, the chances of introducing bias and subjectivity into the interpretation of the data are high. Because of this, it is not appropriate to treat the findings from focus group discussions as though they were findings derived from quantitative research (Khan et al., 1991).

5.2.1.1 Rationale of Using the Focus Groups

The main purpose of the focus group here was to enhance data on the language young Saudis use when talking about their media use, and to help design the questions to be used in surveys. Furthermore, this method can provide richer insights than survey research alone can provide.

Some studies which employed both quantitative and qualitative methodology used the questionnaire method before conducting the focus groups, because focus groups can reveal a wealth of detailed information and deep insight about the questionnaire. For instance, Gharieb (2007) stated that 'the focus group is used to complement the findings of the questionnaire

survey' (p.74). As well as this, Oshan (2007) explains that 'it was decided to hold the focus group to investigate more about some conflicting results from the questionnaires' (p.126). In contrast, in this study the aim of using the focus groups first was to help with the design of the questionnaire.

It was decided that the use of focus groups as the first step in a series of qualitative and quantitative stages would be helpful in gathering data before developing the survey questionnaire to see what topics relating to television and Internet use were salient to students, and how students interpreted questions. In addition, the focus group approach helped identify the language used by respondents to describe their media use behaviour and to explore important aspects that could then be added in the questionnaire.

5.2.2 Survey Method

A questionnaire is a data collection instrument used in the survey method. Questionnaires are beneficial and valuable tools when seeking information about what people think, and their beliefs or their explanations for their attitudes and individual receptions (Coolican, 1995). They are one of the measurement devices frequently used by researchers who need reliable quantitative data about audiences on a large scale in a systematic way (Gunter, 2000). Fink (2003) defined the questionnaire as a strategy for gathering information from or about people to 'describe, compare, or explain their knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour' (p. 20).

5.2.2.1 Rationale for Employing the Survey Method

The overall aim of employing the survey in the current study was to obtain data from a large population of Saudi university students about their nature of media use. It was expected that this method would enable the researcher to establish relationships between key Internet-related

variables and Internet user characteristics, and to make generalizations from the survey sample that would be applicable to the wider population. It was decided a quantitative survey would be used to facilitate the systematic analysis of reported media use behaviour – therefore allowing for a higher level of analytical accuracy about the subject matter being investigated.

Moreover, questionnaires were used in the study because this would provide anonymity to respondents and given the breadth of issues explored, the respondents could complete them at their own pace (Sukamolson, 2005). In addition, a broad understanding of the issues across a wider audience would emerge. Furthermore, given that questions are standardised across respondents, it would provide a comparable basis for analysis (Wang 1999; Chowdhury, 2004).

Advantages of using a questionnaire are – especially in a Saudi context (Oshan, 2007; Gharieb, 2007; Al-Gahtani, 2004) – the anonymity of responses in a society where respondents might be anxious about giving attributed answers to certain kinds of questions; a means of obtaining standardized responses enabling comparisons to be made between sub-groups, males and females in particular; yielding data that can be used for multivariate modeling of media behaviour; and an absence of bias as the researcher could not influence the respondents' answers. This approach gave respondents the opportunity to express their opinions more freely (Al-Gahtani, 2004). Moreover, the researcher used self-administrated questionnaires since this is the cheapest instrument for collecting data from large numbers of population and the quickest method to administrate.

In spite of the advantages and the strengths of the survey as methodological tool, there are some drawbacks to using the survey method. Hansen et al. (1998: 233) pointed out that "it cannot go deeply into responses given by respondents and it assumes the answers given are, more or less, truthful. In contrast, in-depth interviewing can often pick up on contradictions and

play around with responses". Furthermore, surveys that rely on self administrated questionnaires usually have a low response rate. Response rates depend on various factors, including the subject matter, length of the questionnaire, presentation of the questionnaire, difficulty level of the questions, respondent's interest in participating in the survey, all of which may lead to low response rates and non-responsive bias in the collection of data.

5.2.3 Time Diary Method

Time diaries are charts that subjects or interviewers complete in order to detail every activity done in a certain period of time along with information about each activity such as starting and stopping time, and location (Harding, 1997). The time diary method has been used to study user behaviour regarding new media such as the Internet. The aim of diary research is to obtain data that is close to how people perceive their behaviour.

Data from time diary studies have been used to advance a wide range of social science research, including trends and gender differentials in housework (Paolisso & Hames (2010), trends in TV viewing, Internet use, and specific types of leisure activities (Robinson and Godbey 1999). In time diaries, the most commonly used recall period is the previous 24 hours. More distant recall periods are also possible, such as the previous week or month, although they are used much less often than the 24-hour recall. Although the diary method offers many benefits, it has some limitations. First, this method often requires detailed training sessions to ensure that participants fully understand the protocol (Reis & Gable 2000). Second, diary studies must achieve a sufficient level of participant commitment and dedication in order to obtain reliable and valid data.

5.2.3.1 Rationale for Employing the Time Diary Method

The present study employed the time diary method to examine whether Internet use has transformed the way people spend time on other daily activities. In other words, does time spent on the Internet come at the expense of other daily activities? If so, which activities are most impacted on by this expanding technology? Ishii (2004) employed the time diary method to measure Internet use in Japan. The author argued that time diaries have various advantages. They make it possible to obtain a more reliable figure for Internet use time without relying on the respondents' estimates, undertake analyses according to the place and time possible, and allow patterns of multiple information activities taken at the same time to be recorded. However, the use of time diaries represents a new research method within the Saudi environment, as earlier studies in Saudi Arabia do not refer to the use of this method.

The researcher employed a 24-hour diary method, during which the respondents were asked to record the amount of time spent on the Internet, in order to understand how young Saudi people spend their time on the Internet, their television watching habits, and their engagement in various other activities.

Time diaries can provide an important way of tracking all of the changes that the Internet has brought about, and time diaries have been widely acknowledged as the most reliable data collection method for media (Robinson and Godbey, 1997).

5.3 Study Location and Target Population

The study location was in Saudi Arabia, more specifically Jeddah. There were many reasons for this choice. First, Jeddah is considered as the second largest city in Saudi Arabia after the capital city, Riyadh. Second, most important universities are located in Jeddah city although there are

other important universities in other cities in the kingdom, it is difficult to cover other cities comprehensively because of the size of the country.

The subjects of the study were undergraduate students living in Saudi Arabia. The reason for using this group was that previous studies have shown that young adults and teenagers are those in Saudi Arabia most influenced by new media such the Internet (Sait al el 2007; Mohammed, 2011). The sample population was selected from two mixed institutions in Saudi Arabia, one public and one private. A further reason for this choice was the convenience of collecting large quantities data from academic populations in Saudi Arabia. It is more difficult to sample non-academic populations where the awareness of the importance of research is low.

The choice of two Saudi Universities was made for various reasons:

- Studying university students' use of the Internet is very important in understanding and predicting the future of national Internet use, since university students are the primary Internet users in Saudi Arabia and in the rest of the world (Odell et al, 2000, Jones & Madden, 2002).

- The two universities are among the earliest and the most respected establishments in Saudi Arabia, with both also being well known in the Gulf region, and the students from both institutions possess different knowledge, experience, and backgrounds.

- The selection of the institutions, faculties and departments for this study was made based on the researcher's familiarity with these disciplines, and their convenience with regard to the ease of access to the study population selected. In addition, the researcher had worked in one of the institutions, thereby establishing a friendly relationship with some members of the private college. Thus she was able to access the necessary assistance for conducting the study.

5.4 Sampling and Sample Size

The researcher was naturally not able to survey the whole population. Hinton (1995) indicates that because the researcher cannot study the whole population he or she should select a sample that is a subset of a population.

5.4.1 Focus Groups Sample

The present study conducted eight focus groups to cover all faculties, and the groups were composed of an equal proportion of males and females: two male groups and two female groups in each institution with mixed disciplines, with each focus group comprising six people. The number of participants usually depends on the objectives of the research (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). For example, 'smaller groups (4-6 people) are preferable when the participants have a great deal to share about the topic or have had intense or lengthy experiences with the topic of discussion' (Kreuger, 1998b, p.94). Regarding the "ideal number" of focus groups to conduct, Peek and Fothergill (2007) mentioned that "the number of focus groups conducted should actually reflect the research plan, including which sub-groups have been targeted".

The students called upon for this study had a lot of knowledge to share when discussing Internet use. Their experience was wide, and they expressed a willingness to share information with other participants. Therefore, it seemed wise to recruit small groups so each student had a chance to contribute. The eight groups selected from the lists of names and emails from students who were volunteered to participate in the focus group discussions, with these lists being provided by lecturers in different departments. It was not difficult to recruit participants and a number of participants were interested in participating in the discussions since the use of focus groups is a new research method in the Saudi context. Also, when students found out that the

subject of the discussion was the Internet they showed their willingness to participate in the interviews.

5.4.2 Survey Sample

The sampled community comprised 600 undergraduate students from two mixed institutions, one public and one private. The male and female students were selected from 27 departments, with an average of 300 students sampled in total from each university. According to Wimmer and Dominick, "multivariate studies require larger samples than to do univariate studies because they involve analyzing response data." Wimmer and Dominick highlighted recommended samples for multivariate studies as follows: 50= very poor; 100= poor; 200= fair; 300= good; 500= very good; 1000= excellent.

This research used the stratified sampling method; this was preferred because it assures the ability to represent the overall population. In order to make the sample more representative of the population, the population was divided into 'strata of non-overlapping, homogeneous groups' (Hunt & Lyrrell, 2004).

Participants were selected from the faculties which are shared between male and female students attending separate sections of the University. Since students were stratified by discipline the student populations from each institution were divided into six groups of strata. A stratified sampling frame was used as a means of obtaining a large number of student respondents, thereby permitting more precise estimates of their media use. At this stage, the researcher referred to the official records at the two universities to find out the number of students in each discipline.

To illustrate the sampling process, for example in the Female section of the public University's Faculty of Art the total number of students was 2000. This number was divided by the total number of university students, 14,010, to calculate its percentage contribution to the

total university population. In this case, it represented 14.2% of all students at the university. This percentage was set as the quota for recruitment from this faculty, by multiplying it by the target sample figure of 600 respondents. In this case, this figure came to 86 students. This process was repeated across all faculties.

Table 5.1: Sample size in public university

	Faculty of ….	Number of students		Student sample	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1-	Art	1000	2000	43	86
2-	Science	500	500	21	21
3-	Economics	2000	1000	86	43
	Total	3500	3500	150	150

Table 5.2: Sample size in private university

	Faculty of ….	Number of students		Student sample	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1-	Art	260	200	37	33
2-	Science	200	200	28	33
3-	Economics	200	500	85	84
	Total	1060	900	150	150

5.4.3 Time Diary Sample

After distributing the questionnaires, the researcher distributed 200 diaries to the questionnaire sample students in both universities who were willing to fill in the diary. However, before distributing the diary to the whole population, the researcher conducted a pilot study by

distributing a 24-hour diary to the focus group participants, to ensure that the students understood how to fill it in.

5.5 Data Collection

5.5.1 Focus Groups

5.5.1.1 Designing Questions for the Focus Groups

To obtain useful data from the focus group, the researcher used different types of questions. First, the researcher started discussions by asking questions to introduce the topic under investigation. These questions acted as icebreakers between the researcher and participants. Usually they were general questions such as: "do you watch television? Do you use the Internet?" Other types of questions used in the focus group were key questions which were the main research questions and sub questions. Key questions were very important because most of the detailed answers were gained from them. Key questions were divided into three groups: questions about the nature of Internet use and television viewing, questions about the relationship between Internet and TV use, and questions focusing on Internet and television use in the family context.

5.5.1.2 Conducting Focus Groups

The focus group interviews were completed in the period 1st of December 2010 - 13th January 2011 with undergraduate students from two mixed institutions in Saudi Arabia, one public and one private. The researcher conducted eight focus groups to cover all faculties, and the groups consisted of an equal proportion of males and females: two male groups and two female groups in each institution with mixed disciplines, with each focus group comprising six people studying different disciplines in order to increase challenges in the discussions between the students with their distinct knowledge and experience.

Permission to carry out these interviews was granted by King Abdulaziz University authorities after some routine procedures which took more time than anticipated. They referred the researcher to the Student Relations Office to arrange a place to conduct these interviews. The amount of time and effort it took to plan and organize the meeting was significant, in line with Gibbs' (1997) observation that for focus group interviews in particular, more than any other type of interview, planning and getting interviewees into groups can be difficult and requires a lot of time.

Table 5.3: Sampling, date, and duration of the focus groups

Sampling Unit	Gender	Date and time	Venue	Participants	Duration
Public University	Females	1 Dec 2010 10:00 am	On the female campus	06	01:15
Public University	Females	6 Dec 2010 09:30 am	On the female campus	06	01:20
Public University	Males	6 Dec 2010 11:00 am	On the male campus	06	01:20
Public University	Males	12 Dec 2010 10:00 am	On the male campus	06	01:30
Private University	Females	25 Dec 2010 09:30 am	On the female campus	06	01:26
Private University	Females	25 Dec 2010 09:00 am	On the female campus	06	01:30
Private University	Males	10 Jan 2011 12:15 pm	On the male campus	06	01:25
Private University	Males	11 Jan 2011 7:00 pm	In the researcher's house	06	01:30

5.5.1.3 Arrangement, Implementation, and Moderator

In order to conduct the focus groups the interview schedule was arranged and disseminated via email a week before the meeting. The focus group discussion technique was applied in this study for both Saudi universities. This technique was used because it seemed to be an appropriate methodological technique to enrich the researcher's knowledge of the Internet and TV use among students.

Due to the cultural lifestyle in the Arabian Peninsula, Saudi universities have to be divided into two separate sections or campuses (female student campus and male student campus), and some university campuses are located in different parts of the city. Consequently, separate focus groups were held for each campus, one for female students and another for male students. Moreover, since Saudi regulations do not allow female individuals to enter or access the male campus without the presence of a Mahram (a close male relative) in the public institution, the focus group discussions for male students were conducted by me with my husband present.

The researcher played the role of moderator in each of the eight focus groups of this study by guiding the discussion from topic to topic, probing and encouraging discussion, and ensuring that all participants had the opportunity to contribute their views. It proved helpful to have my husband as an assistant in the male interviews; I was able to ask questions and keep participants focused on the discussion while my husband took detailed notes, observed, and offered refreshments. It was difficult to conduct the last interview with male students in the private institution since we could not arrange a suitable time for all students during college hours. Therefore, I arranged to conduct it at my home in the evening.

The average length of each focus group interview was 60-75 minutes. For cultural reasons, permission to tape record the interviews for transcription purposes was requested before

the start of the interview. All interviews were recorded on a digital recording device after obtaining permission from the students.

The procedure followed when conducting the focus group discussions included welcoming the students with a short introduction to provide some guidelines and explain the purpose of the discussion, followed by a definition of key terms. When the target questions about the topic were asked, a strategy was formed to listen and use prop questions to classify the main themes from the contributors' statements, as well as to ensure that all participants had a chance to express their points of view.

5.5.2 Survey

5.5.2.1 Designing the survey

The design of the questionnaire was based partly on the data collected from the focus group interviews, and was used to collect vital information pertaining to the effect of Saudi university students' usage of the Internet, their usage of traditional means of communication, and the satisfaction derived from the usage of media within the sample of the Saudi community. In order to collect the data needed for the study, the researcher employed one questionnaire that included closed-ended questions. Regarding the language used in the questionnaire, it was first formulated in English under the guidance of the researcher's supervisor and, since Arabic is the first language of Saudi Arabians, was then translated into Arabic.

5.5.2.2 Questionnaire Content and Structure:

The questionnaire used for this stud comprised closed-ended questions to accommodate various user responses. The instruments of the questionnaire designed to capture data on a wide range of

issues regarding students' use of the Internet and television. The questionnaire divided into eight main sections:

1- Television Use

This section consisted of six questions designed to provide introductory data about television viewing among students. The questions contained in this section sought to investigate whether students watch television; where they watch TV; how often they watch it; with whom they watch it; what type of programmes they watch; and their attitudes towards watching television.

2- Internet Use

This section of the questionnaire included five questions designed to explore students' use of the Internet. This section was designed to measure many aspects of Internet use. At the start, respondents were asked about their use and non-use of the Internet, how often they use the Internet; their Internet access location(s); how they started using the Internet; and how long they had been using it. Respondents were also asked to indicate their most frequent online activity Internet.

3- Barriers to Internet Use

This section of the questionnaire was designed to provide information about barriers to Internet usage among students. The variables investigated by this section were Internet connection; cost of accessing the Internet; privacy and security of using the Internet; available time to use the Internet; family restrictions; Internet censorship; lack of language; and lack of training.

4- Motives for Using the Internet

The questions in this section sought to examine the reasons why students might choose to use the Internet and what gratifications can be obtained from Internet use. The variables investigated by this section were: information seeking, social relationships, social interactions, entertainment, and

escape. The information gathered under this section helped in identifying factors that motivate audiences to use the Internet.

5- The Importance of Different Media

Data gathered under this section was useful in measuring the importance of different media such as the Internet, TV, radio, books, magazines, and newspapers for different applications. In particular, it aimed to determine the importance of television and the Internet for different applications compared to other forms of mass communication. The variables investigated by this section were source of general, source of entertainment, source of study related activities, and social life.

6- Attitudes towards the Internet

Attitudes towards the Internet were measured by using a five–point scale. The questions contained positive and negative statements. Over the past decade, researchers have developed various scales to measure students' attitudes to the Internet. Therefore a review of computer- and Internet-related attitude scales was carried out in order to determine the most appropriate attitude scale to adopt for the current study. The Internet attitude scale created by Tsai et al. (2001) was selected as the most appropriate for this study. This scale includes a total of fifteen items which were slightly modified to suit the current study, presented using a four-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly agree’, ‘agree’, and ‘disagree’ to ‘strongly disagree. Statements in this scale were divided into four subscales: 1) perceived usefulness, to measure the respondent's positive perceptions about the Internet's impact on individuals; 2) affection, to assess the respondent's feelings and anxiety levels while using the Internet; 3) perceived potential negative aspects of the Internet, to measure the respondent's negative perceptions about the Internet's impact on

individuals; 4) perceived quality of the Internet, to measure the respondent's perceptions about the Internet's quality.

7- Perceived Impact of Internet Use on Other Activities

The section of the survey covered respondents' perceptions of and views on the impact of the Internet on the undertaking of other activities. It consisted of fifteen items designed to give broad information about whether Internet use has affected other activities such as watching television, reading newspapers, listening to the radio, reading magazines, performing the daily prayer, socializing with family and friends, studying, playing sports, communicating with family and friends, and communicating with relatives.

5.5.2.3 Translation

Since the study was conducted in Saudi Arabia, the original questionnaire and diary tools were drafted in English and translated into Arabic before the pilot study was carried out. Every effort was made to construct an Arabic version that faithfully represented the English version. Experts in both languages in Saudi Arabia were consulted to offer their feedback on the Arabic version of both instruments. As a result their comments and recommendations were implemented where appropriate.

5.5.3 The questionnaire pilot study

The pilot study is one of the most important ways in which the researcher tests the extent to which the instruments used are appropriate to the data-gathering process. Oppenheim (1992) emphasized that it is essential to ensure this by 'piloting' each question and question sequence. Cohen et al (2000) pointed out that the researcher should pilot the questionnaire using a group of respondents who are drawn from the same potential population as the main study but who will

not receive the final refined version. The aim behind this procedure is to avoid repetition, since replying twice to the same questions may affect the respondents' views.

To check the pilot questionnaire, the researcher chose a convenience sample from one of the lectures given during the summer courses at the public and private Universities from which the eventual main sample was drawn. Twenty students were sampled from each university for this purpose. As these students were enrolled in the summer courses and would graduate by the end of this course, they were not able to receive the final questionnaire. There are no specific number requirements for the sample size of a pilot study. However, Verma and Mallick (1999:120) suggested that an instrument should be piloted with "a group similar to the sample for which it is destined. This need not be large: a dozen or 20 are usually adequate*"*. The pilot study was undertaken by 10 female and 10 male students from each University.

The study's questionnaire was pilot tested twice. First, the questionnaires were distributed to 40 students in both Universities in the last week of August 2011. The second pilot study took place in the first week of September 2011. The questionnaires were distributed to another 20 volunteer students at both institutions.

5.5.3.1 First Pilot Study

The researcher distributed the questionnaires to the students in their break time at the university and asked them to fill it out in the researcher's presence. The questionnaire was administered to small groups of students. The pilot samples also provided a page which was designed for writing students' remarks and had some questions regarding their feedback. The researcher asked the students to:

- Identify any question or sentence which was not clear or not understood.
- Identify ambiguities and difficult questions

- Record this information, as well as any suggestions they might have.
- Note important questions they felt had not been included in the questionnaire.
- Note whether each question offered an adequate range of responses.
- Point out the extent of linguistic clarity.
- Note the topics that need to be changed or adjusted.
- Present suggestions for adding or removing any topics.
- Record the time taken to complete the questionnaire and decide whether it was reasonable.
- Note any ethical issues relating to the content and the language of the topics involved.

The completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher for further examination. The remarks and suggestions presented by the pilot students were closely studied by the researcher and amendments to the questionnaire made as necessary. The researcher discussed with the pilot sample any problems they had experienced while filling the questionnaire. The pilot study contributed to the refinement of some questions, and led to deleting some or developing new ones (see section 5.5.3.5 for details). It was also useful to identify the time required to answer the questionnaire.

5.5.3.2 Second Pilot Study

In order to make sure that the questionnaire was clear and suitable; a second pilot was conducted once the modifications and corrections suggested in first study had been incorporated. In the first week of September 2011, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to 20 further students from the same population as the first pilot study. Following the same procedure as in the first pilot study, the students were provided with a page on which they could write their remarks and suggestions.

5.5.3.3 Analysis and Results of the Pilot Questionnaire

As mentioned in the previous section, the researcher distributed the first questionnaire in the last week of August 2011 to 10 female and 10 male students at public and private universities. Questionnaires were handed out during their break time and students were asked them to fill them out in the researcher's presence. However, the distribution of the study questionnaire in the male campus had to be coordinated through a male third party, due to cultural restrictions. Therefore, the researcher's husband took over the task of distributing the questionnaire to male students. He distributed the survey to 10 male students at both universities.

All the pilot samples received a covering letter explaining the nature and objectives of the research. Also, the students were asked to sign a consent form, since clear evidence must be obtained that the participant has given informed consent to take part in the pilot study.

The completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher on the female campus and by the researcher's husband on the male campus.

After collecting the questionnaires completed by the pilot sample, the researcher immediately wrote down the comments made by the students.

5.5.3.5 Modifications and Changes to the Questionnaire

After collecting the questionnaires, the researcher discovered problems related to some of the questions. The latter were found to generate confusion, requiring the researcher to modify, reduce or expand choices, provide explanations before some questions and add questions in order to provide some missing information related to the key questions. The testing of the questionnaire revealed that further elaboration was required for a certain questions to make the instrument more clear and understandable. The pilot test also indicated that the reasonable amount of time needed to complete the questionnaire was around 20 to 25 minutes. The feedback

and suggestions provided by the pilot sample resulted in some changes to the questionnaire. Changes and modifications resulting from the pilot study are detailed below.

- Question 9: some students mentioned that they couldn't find the option of accessing the Internet using an IPad. They suggested adding it to the list. Therefore, the researcher added it to the other Internet access locations Internet.
- Question 12, which asked about online activities, respondents reported confusion about what these activities were, as they were used to referring to Internet activities by their English names and did not recognize some of the Arabic translations, such as keeping a blog and going to a chat room. For this reason, it was decided that, English terminology should be added beside the translated Arabic expressions.
- The responses revealed problems with one of the table items in question 13. As highlighted by the students, the item "I have difficulty accessing the Internet" was potentially confusing because they didn't know what sort of difficulty the question referred to. In order to solve this problem the statement was changed to "I have difficulty accessing the Internet because of technical problems". Students also mentioned that parental restriction is one of the important obstacles to using the Internet. The researcher therefore added this issue to the questionnaire.
- Question 14: students reported that this question was potentially confusing because it was a double barrelled question. The first part of the question was therefore deleted.
- Question 20 asked students if their Internet use had changed the extent to which they engaged in other activities. One student reported a missing activity. This activity was performing his daily prayers, which had been affected since he started using the Internet. This item was therefore added to the list of activities.

- Question 26 asked students in which faculty they were studying. Pilot survey results showed respondents suggested a wider range of different subject. Although some students were in the same college or department they were studying different specialties. This question was subsequently changed to provide was subsequently changed, asking students to give only their main college', making it easier for students to answer and for the researcher to analyse findings.

5.5.3.6 Analysing the Second Pilot Study Questionnaire

The second pilot study questionnaire was distributed by the researcher, who again provided a page on which students could write their remarks and suggestions. The students were asked to indicate whether any expressions were obscure, ambiguous or difficult to understand, and to make any other remarks they considered appropriate. The researcher collected the responses in person. The returns showed that all pilot samples were happy with the questionnaire and found no ambiguity in any of its expressions, only few mistakes, which the researcher modified later.

5.5.4 Administrating the Survey Instruments

Distribution of the questionnaire started on the 5th of October and this process took 3 weeks. Upon arrival in Saudi Arabia, letters were obtained from the vice Chancellor for Higher Education in both Universities, addressed to the respective directors of the male and female campuses. The letters identified the researcher and her study, and asked the administration for co-operation in this study. This procedure is common in Saudi Arabia and such letters are normally required by government institutions.

Because of the researcher's previous experience as a University Lecturer she had personal contacts in each institution. This gave the researcher the opportunity to make contact

with some lecturer friends in the two universities to prepare classes for questionnaire distribution. Questionnaires were handed out to the sample during the last 20 minutes of the lecture. Students were asked to fill in the questionnaires and return them to the researcher when finished. All respondents had enough time to complete the questionnaire and they were allowed to ask questions or mention any of the survey questions that seemed to be ambiguous. Some students asked the researcher about certain points or questions. For example, some students asked whether they could use a pencil to complete the questionnaire.

In the case of the male campus, it was not possible, for cultural reasons, for the questionnaire to be distributed by the researcher in person. Thus, the researcher's husband and brother took over the task of distributing the questionnaire to male students in both universities after they had been given instructions on how to distribute and collect the questionnaires.

5.5.4.1 Response Rate

A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed in the male and female campuses of the public and private universities. Although this is made clear in the table below, the actual distribution was of 600 questionnaires divided equally between two universities. Within each university equal quotas of female and male respondents were set, 545 of which were usable returns. This means there was a response rate of 90%, as described in Table 5.4. The number of questionnaires distributed on the male campus generated a relatively low response rate compare to the female campus due to cultural restrictions that restrict female researchers from accessing the male campus. Therefore, distribution of the study questionnaire had to be coordinated through a male third party.

Table 5.4: Overall response rate of survey

Source	Total distributed	Total responses	Response rate
Female campus in public university	150	146	97%
Male campus in public university	150	132	88%
Female campus in private university	150	138	92%
Male campus in private university	150	129	86%
Total	600	545	90%

5.5.4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Table 5.5 summarises the demographic attributes of the main survey sample. This table presents the participants' personal details, such as gender, age, and study field, which are reported in the sub-sections below [see Table 5.5]. Respondents were recruited from two universities. There was a fairly even gender distribution, and most respondents were aged 18 to 25 years old. The majority of the students were in year four, and the highest percentage of students attended the Economics and Administration faculty. Most of the students had a monthly income of more than 15,000 SR, a high income.

Table 5.5: Survey Sample Composition

	Frequency	**Percent**
Gender		
Male	261	47.9
Female	284	52.1
Total	**545**	**100%**
Age		
18-25	504	92.5
26-30	32	5.9
30+	9	1.7
Total	**545**	**100%**
Education		
Public University	280	51.4
Private University	265	48.6

Total	**545**	**100%**
University year		
1st	110	20.2
2nd	142	26.1
3rd	140	25.7
4th	153	28.1
Total	**545**	**100%**
Faculty		
Economics & Administration	303	55.6
Arts & Humanities	177	32.5
Science	65	11.9
Total	**545**	**100%**
Family monthly income		
2,000-5,000 SR	114	20.9
5,001-10,000 SR	99	18.2
10,001-15,000 SR	136	25.0
More than15,000 SR	196	36.0
Total	**545**	**100%**

* Note: The UK Pound (£) is roughly six time the value of Saudi Riyals (SR)

5.5.5 Designing the Time Diary

A time diary was designed to measure the way participants spent their time during one 24 hour period. The day was broken down into 30-minute time segments. As in Ishii's study (2004), the respondents were requested to fill out the time diary for the previous day's activities as follows: (1) Inactivity (sleeping, staying at home); (2) General activities (eating, commuting, working, studying, leisure/playing, etc.); (3) Free time activities (watching TV, reading, relaxing, entertainment, listening to music on the Internet, watching movies on the Internet, etc.). This design of the time diary aimed to help the students recall their activities easily, since diaries are a new research method within the Saudi environment. However, the disadvantage of this method is that it relies on the student's memories.

5.5.5.1 Diary Pilot Study

The aim of doing a diary pilot study is to identify any problems or disadvantages that may arise with this instrument and set of procedures, and to make sure that the diary achieves the intended

purpose. The diary pilot took place in the last week of August 2011, in a face-to-face meeting with 20 students who were enrolled on the summer courses in both universities. A convenience sample of 5 male and 5 female students from each institution were selected to fill out the diary. The researcher met these students during their break time and asked them to keep the diary and record their activities for 24 hours. The researcher explained to them how to fill out the diary and provided them with a page to record their feedback. On this page students were asked to:

- Record if there any activities in which they engaged that were not listed.
- Indicate whether any expressions were obscure, ambiguous or difficult to understand.
- Indicate whether the wording and layout of the diary were confusing.
- Indicate whether or not the instructions explaining how to fill in the diary were clear.
- Record any other remarks they considered appropriate.

The intention behind the diary pilot study was that it might help to remove activities which contained overlapping or repeated information, and identify whether additional ones were needed. Therefore, the researcher arranged another meeting with the students to collect the diary and talk to individuals to discuss with them their experience of filling out the diary.

5.5.5.2 Analysis and Results of the Pilot Time Diary

The researcher met the students after four days to collect the diary and discuss with them their experience of filling it in. Students mentioned that using a diary was a new experience for them. Thus, clear instructions on how to fill it in were needed. However, they stated that the explanations provided with the diary were clear and easy to understand.

The returned diaries were then examined and the main remarks and suggestions presented by the students were studied by the researcher. A few amendments were made to the diary, as follows:

- The results echoed those of the questionnaire pilot in that respondents reported confusion about what the different activities were. They did not recognize some the Arabic translations such as keeping a blog and going to a chat room. English terminology was added alongside the translated Arabic expressions.
- The pilot sample reported some activities in which they engage that were not listed such as chatting with their friends, using their mobile phone and visiting their university web site. The researcher therefore added these to the activities list.
- The students suggested changing the layout of the diary in order to make it more user-friendly. Based on these suggestions, the researcher modified the design and the layout of the diary tables from portrait to landscape so the students could use the diary more easily.
- Regarding the personal information questions the participants mentioned that they belonged to more different disciplines than were listed. Thus, the researcher added more faculties to this section.

5.5.6 Administrating the Time Diary Instruments

After distributing the questionnaires the researcher distributed 200 diaries to the questionnaire sample students in both universities who were willing to participate in this part of the project. Because the researcher aimed to report the time that students spent on each of the activities for each day of the week, including the weekend, the researcher randomly divided the respondents into seven groups corresponding to the seven days of the week. Therefore, the first group of subjects received their survey on Saturday (in Saudi Arabia the week start on Saturday); the second group received theirs on Sunday, and so on until the last day of the week (i.e., Friday).

The researcher asked the students to keep the diary for 24 hours and record their activities. The students were provided with the researcher's email to contact her once they had

completed the diary and arrange a meeting to collect the diaries. As with the questionnaires, the researcher sought the help of her husband and brother to distribute the diaries on the male campus and collect them from the students.142 useable diaries were returned as described in the below table.

Table 5.6: Overall response rate for time diary method

Source	Distributed diaries	Returned diaries	Response rate
Female campus in public university	50	40	80%
Male campus in public university	50	33	66%
Female campus in private university	50	41	82%
Male campus in private university	50	28	56%
Total	200	142	71%

Those respondents who had not returned their diary by the end of the week following the distribution of the diaries were followed up. The follow-up was by email; those respondents were sent an message thanking them for agreeing to complete the diary and reminding them to please return it. In addition to the follow-up by email the researcher visited both universities several times and reminded the students to return the diary.

The number of diaries distributed on the male campus generated a relatively low response since in the male section it was not possible for the researcher to follow-up the students by visiting the university due to cultural restrictions. Also, the researcher's husband and brother who helped in distributing the instruments did not have enough time to visit the universities and follow up with the male students. Moreover, there was lack of co-operation from some departments on the male campus regarding arrangements for a follow-up with the students to return the diaries.

5.6 Analysis of the Data

The following sections will provide the reader with the statistical techniques which were applied to analyse the data and justify each test. Moreover, data obtained from the survey were analysed using SPSS for Windows. Before the data were entered into SPSS format, the responses were coded.

5.6.1 Focus Group Discussion Data

Following each interview, the recordings were transcribed word for word from the audio tape. The interviews were transcribed twice. Transcribing the data was the first step in qualitative analysis; however, because the original transcripts were in Arabic translating them into English required careful effort. The transcription of focus group discussions had many advantages. Firstly, it enabled the researcher to gain feedback early on in the study process. Secondly, it helped her moderate the next group more effectively.

Although NVIVO software was originally to be used for the qualitative interview analysis of the focus groups, I manually transcribed, translated, analysed and selected the quotes as they appear in the thesis. The annual NVIVO training sessions - organized by the university of Leicester - took place when I was still away doing fieldwork, and by the time the following year's sessions came around I had already started manually transcribing and analysing data generated by the focus group interviews.

The process of data analysis begins during the data collection, by facilitating the discussion and generating rich data from the interview, complementing them with observational notes and typing the recorded information. This stage was followed by familiarisation with the data, which was achieved by listening to tapes, reading the transcripts in their entirety several

times, and reading the observational notes taken during the interviews and the summary notes written immediately after each interview. The aim of this was to become immersed in the details and get a sense of the interview as a whole before breaking it down into parts. During this process a number of major themes begin to emerge. The next stage involved identifying a thematic framework, by writing memos in the margin of the text in the form of short phrases, ideas or concepts arising from the texts and beginning to develop categories. At this stage descriptive statements were formed and an analysis was carried out on the data under the questioning route. The third stage, indexing, consisted of sifting the data, highlighting and sorting out quotes and making comparisons both within and between cases. The fourth stage involved lifting the quotes from their original context and re-arranging them under the appropriate newly-developed thematic content.

5.6.2 Survey Data

Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to quantitatively analyze the data, using Version 18. The data analyses involved the following:

1- Measures of central tendency-frequency distribution and percentages were used to answer some of the research goals, such as the nature of television and the Internet use.

2- Chi–square was run to test the differences between nominal data and some variables of the study; more specifically, between male and female participants.

3- Factor analysis was run as this technique is applied for data reduction purposes: to get a small set of variables from a large set of variables that explain the important dimensions of variability, and to create indexes with variables that measure similar things (Pallant, 2010).

4- Spearman's rho was used to assess the direction and the strength relationship between the dependent and independent variables of the survey data.

5.6.3 Time Diary Data

1- Independent-sample t-tests were used to compare the mean score of two variables for two different groups of subjects.
2- Levene's test for equality of variances was used to evaluate whether there were homogenous variances in the groups.
3- Pearson correlation coefficients were used to measure the association between variables.
4- Multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate the prediction of value of a variable from the known value of two or more variables.

5.7 Ethical Issues

The researcher was aware of the potential ethical issues that could arise relating to the different aspects of the research, such as the methods used to obtain data, and of the sensitivity of issues relating to students in Saudi Arabia:

- The researcher does not at any point reveal the name of the two institutions, since some of the findings could be sensitive.
- Issues related to religion and culture were taken into account. For example, for religious and cultural reasons the researcher encountered difficulty when conducting focus group interviews with males without the presence of a 'Mahram' (a close male relative). However, the researcher overcame this problem with her husband's presence.
- The research was carried out with sensitivity and respect for the students' values. Thus, participating in these methods was be voluntary.

- The researcher dealt with the information provided by students and treated it carefully. As the study is deals with confidential data, it was necessary to conceal participants' identities when reporting the results.
- Cultural issues prevalent in Saudi Arabia were considered, and before conducting the focus groups the researcher asked the participants for their permission to record the discussion.
- A cover letter was sent out along with the questionnaire, to reassure the respondents that the information that they relayed would not be used for personal reasons, and would solely be used for the conduct of the research.

5.8 Barriers to the Research

The researcher confronted various kinds of constraints in the design and methodology of the study.

- In Saudi Arabia it is common practice to gain central management's approval to conduct research studies in almost all government institutions. Researchers normally need to provide an official letter from their sponsor in order to gain approval to carry out research in these institutions.
- Another obstacle the researcher encountered is that the distribution of the study questionnaire on the male campus needed to be coordinated through a male third party, due to cultural restrictions which could make the distribution process difficult. Thus, the researcher requested assistance from one of her colleagues on the male campus, and from her male family members.
- Although using a mixed method technique could provide a better understanding of the research problem, the process proved time consuming because of its sequential nature. In

addition, the cost of carrying out two field trips was quite high, given the fact that the research sponsor funded only one field trip.

5.9 Summary

This chapter has outlined and described the primary data collection methods employed in this study: focus group interviews, time diaries, and questionnaire survey of Saudi students, aimed at providing their patterns of use of the Internet and mass communication, particularly television. It began with a discussion of the research questions. The focus group method was used as the first step in a series of qualitative and quantitative stages to help develop the survey questionnaire. The survey was chosen to collect standardized data from a large number of participants. This chapter also discussed the target population and the sample size which consisted of respondents from two Saudi universities. A major barrier encountered in this study was the cultural restrictions in accessing the male students' campus and conducting the focus groups with male participants.

CHAPTER SIX

TELEVISION AND THE INTERNET PATTERNS OF USE

6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to present the findings of the focus group interviews, questionnaire survey and diary survey conducted with Saudi students. The reason for undertaking these analyses is to gain understanding of how students use television and the Internet. This chapter discusses the frequency of use, time of use, types of TV programme, and types of online activity. In addition, for complementarity reasons such as seeking elaboration and enhancement, a comprehensive view of the findings of the qualitative and quantitative analyses will be integrated in this chapter. The discussions in this chapter are compared and discussed with past studies that were conducted in two different cultural settings (the Arab world and Western world). This chapter mainly examines the following questions:

RQ1.1.Does the amount of the Internet use by young highly educated Saudis displaces their television viewing?

RQ1.2. Does the type of Internet use influence television viewing?

RQ1.3. Does gender affects the relationship between Internet use and television viewing?

6.2 Frequency of Using Television and the Internet

Although some previous studies have demonstrated that young adults are more likely to watch TV (Stanojević, 2012), Nielsen's data (2012) reported that the rate of television viewing among young people continued to decline through the end of last year. The amount of time spent watching television among young people aged from 12 to 34 was slightly lower in 2011 than it was 2010, according to Nielsen's data. On the other hand, young adults in the Arab region spend

a large proportion of their daily time watching television, particularly satellite television channels. Al-Shaqsi (2000) reported that young adults, particularly viewers of satellite channels, watch TV for four hours or more.

To understand the nature of television viewing habits among young Saudi adults in the current study, it was necessary to explore how often they watch television. The majority of the students who participated in this study reported watching television [see Table 6.1]. Around three quarters of respondents claimed to watch TV 4-5 times a week or more. Watching television on a weekly basis was not common and a small percentage of participants indicated that they watch television less frequently than once a week. Just one male student and no females reported watching no TV at all. There were no significant gender differences in general TV viewing frequency claims. Males (89.7%) were more likely than females (73.2%) to claim to watch television 4-5 times a week or more. In the time diary survey data, television viewing was recorded as the second highest average activity for both genders (males = 106.7 min, females = 150.0 min). In addition, this finding is similar to the data of the focus group where both male and female participants noted that they watch television.

A chi-square test was carried out between the independent variable (gender) and the frequency of watching television. The value of Pearson chi-square = 3.307 at degree of freedom (df) = 4 and $p = 0.508 > 0.05$. The test shows no statistically significant differences and the two variables' differences are due to chance. Moreover, a chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between university and the frequency of TV viewing ($X2 (4) = 1.800$, $p > 0.05$). This means that both male and female students from public and private universities watch television.

Table 6.1: Frequency of Watching TV Using a Traditional TV Set

	Frequency	Percent
4-5 times a week or more		
Males	190	89.7%
Females	208	73.2%
All	398	73.0%
Twice a week		
Males	36	13.8%
Females	47	16.5%
All	83	15.2%
Once a week		
Males	15	5.7%
Females	10	3.5%
All	25	4.6%
Less often		
Males	19	7.3%
Females	19	6.7%
All	38	7.0%
Never		
Males	1	0.4%
Females	0	0.0%
All	1	0.2%

The focus group interviews also indicated that watching TV is structured by participants' daily schedules. Some participants explained that watching television is associated with their regular chores. The outlines of viewing television are recurring and repeated, and structured through temporal shapes, like day-to-day tasks, key events and schedules.

Previous studies of media consumption have brought attention to the way in which television is integrated into the domestic flow of everyday life. Silverstone (1994) identified television as being a key instrument in the timing of everyday life. Further, Silverstone et al. (1992) argued, "Television provides a framework both for the household's involvement in the sequencing of public time…and for the sustaining of domestic routines through the broadcast

schedules" (1992: 24). The data reveals that participants' patterns of watching television are linked to specific characteristics that structure their lives, performing as a type of timetable. Factors such as the time they start watching and the fixed broadcast schedule give a structure to their lives and mean that watching television is a daily routine.

> *"Usually I watch television after 6pm, after I finish my university homework."* (HU student-group 2)

> *"I watch the television between 7–10pm, since at this time the family members gather to watch television."* (A student-group 1)

> "*I watch television between 11–12pm, dropping off to sleep when I watch programmes."* (T student-group 7)

It appears that there are distinctions between three periods of television viewing among students. The first period is in the early evening, between 6pm and 7pm, after a day of studying. This is the time when they have often finished their homework and are able to sit in front of the television. The second period is mid-evening viewing. This period is common among participants and often runs through dinner with family and lasts until 10pm when the family gathers in the evening and watches television. The third period is late-evening viewing. This type of viewing takes place when participants finish their daily tasks and lasts until 11pm or 11.30pm. In this period, students tend to watch television to relax and to help them sleep. Church (2010) noted that "patterns of television use were still quite traditionally attached to evening viewing and network programming schedules" (p. 276). Comments such as this signify that the evening schedule, particularly when family members gather, is the most significant space in relation to television in certain students' everyday lives. Moreover, in the focus group interviews, both male and female participants described their daily routine during Ramadan and how their television

viewing habits change during Ramadan. During this period they prioritise television over other activities, such as social activities, and organise their time around their favourite programmes at that time.

In respect of the Internet, the survey results show that both males and females use it (100% of males and 100% of females). All male and female students had Internet access at home (100% of males and 100% of females) [see Table 6.2]. The majority of the students who participated in this study reportedly use the Internet 4-5 times a week or more (85% for males and 81.7% for females). Using the Internet on a weekly basis is not common. A small group of students use the Internet twice a week or less often. This finding is inconsistent with Al-Gahtani (2004), who found that only 13.7% of Saudi students use the Internet daily. He attributed the low frequency of daily use of the Internet to the limited use of the Internet at university campuses and to the expense of accessing the Internet at home.

A chi-square test was carried out between gender and the frequency of using the Internet. The test shows no statistically significant differences ($X2\ (3) = 3.105$, $p > 0.05$), which means that the differences in results are due to chance. A further chi-square test was carried out between the university at which students were registered and their claimed frequency of use of the Internet. The test showed significant differences between public university students and private university students on their frequency of use of the Internet ($X2\ (2) = 24.741$, $p < 0.05$). This means that students from private universities are more likely to use the Internet than students from public universities. A possible explanation for these differences is that Saudi students in private universities generally have a higher income compared to students in public universities, which means that they are able to own a computer or to have an Internet connection. Dwivedi

(2005) confirmed that the economic status of individuals influences their ability to own and then use technology.

The qualitative data demonstrated that Saudi young people are using the Internet everyday and several times a day. They described how they cannot imagine their lives without using the Internet and they used metaphors, such as 'bored', 'frustrated', and 'depressed', to express their perspectives on life without the Internet and how they become very irritable when they stay away from the Internet.

> *" I use the Internet several 5 to 6 times a day. If the Internet was not available due to a technical problem, I would be frustrated and get angry, as I do rely on it heavily."* (MS student-group 8)

> "*I will feel bored and depressed if I lose connection of network for even a single day. I have become quite dependent on the Internet. Thus I cannot live without Internet."* (MA student-group 8),

Unlike television, where viewing is structured by participants' schedules, the data suggests that Internet use does not adhere to a specific time, as it can be used at any time and in any place. Participants reported that there is no specific time for using the Internet; it depends on what they want to do online. It seems that the Internet diminishes the importance of timeframes generally accepted as appropriate for carrying out a given activity. It also eliminates the stress of everyday rhythms, giving flexibility. Participants also have the chance to alter their temporal perceptions by virtue of having access at any time.

> "*I use the Internet many times during the day. For example, I use it in the morning if I want to check my email and I use it after coming back from the university if I want to search information related to my studies."* (M student-group 7)

In addition, the focus group analyses show that the time of using the Internet changes during particular weekends and holidays. The period of time assigned to the Internet is not a homogenous one, as it is correlated with participants' daily agenda. Internet use may be shaped

by temporal structures during special occasions, such as weekend and holiday periods, because of the intensive consumption of the Internet.

> *"I am always busy during the week days and my time is limited. Thus, I don't use the Internet as much as during the weekend. During the weekend, I dedicate my time to online entertainment."* (N student-group 5)

> *"During the holiday period, I feel that I am addicted to the Internet, because I use it continuously, except when taking showers, going to the bathroom, and going to get food."* (N student-group 1)

> *"Compared to the weekdays, I spend significant time online on the weekend. I do all my entertainment activities on the weekend, particularly the Internet."* (T student-group 7)

It appears that there are different reasons as to why Internet use increases during weekends or holidays. First, the availability of free time during weekends and holidays is one of the factors that may increase the time spent on the Internet; as a result, participants engage more with the Internet. Second, participants consider holidays and weekends to be leisure time; as such, there must be time allocated to using the Internet.

The current discussion of temporal patterns on the Internet takes into consideration previous work that identifies why students use the Internet more during the weekend and holiday periods. For example, Bu Azza (2001) argued that students allocate more time for the Internet during the weekend, compared to on weekdays. However, Bu Azza did not give any explanation for the increase in Internet consumption during the weekend.

In addition, the diary survey also confirmed that young Saudi people spent more time on Internet activities during the weekend. The data showed that the Internet activities that have the highest mean during the weekend are social networking online (120.96 min), followed by watching movies online (118.06 min). This finding indicates that respondents spend more time in

general activities, such as studying or watching TV during the weekdays, while they spend more time on Internet activities, such as browsing the Internet or using social networks, during the weekend. Furthermore, there are gender differences related to the amount of time students spend on activities by day. Male students are more likely to spend time on Internet-based activities during the weekend (680.00 min), whereas female students spend more time on general activities such as studying or watching TV during the weekdays (737.14 min).

Table 6.2: Frequency of Internet Use

	Frequency	Percent
4-5 times a week or more		
Males	222	85.0
Females	232	81.7
All	454	83.3
Twice a week		
Males	27	10.3
Females	33	11.6
All	60	11.0
Once a week		
Males	5	1.9
Females	11	3.9
All	16	2.9
Less often		
Males	7	2.7
Females	8	2.8
All	15	2.3
Never		
Males	0	0.0
Females	0	0.0
All	0	0.0

6.3 Locations for Watching Television and Accessing the Internet

Past research has found that while the majority of TV viewing among young people may take place at home, that is not always the case. For example, Al-Ahmary (2009) found that although young Saudi adults mostly watch TV at home, they frequently watch it at their friends' homes, particularly males. In the current study, participants were asked to indicate how often they watch TV in different locations: at their own home, at a relative's home, at a friend's home, or somewhere else. Table 6.3 shows that home is the place where students watch TV most. Only 2.9% of the students said they never watch television at home. Watching television at a relative's home on an occasional basis was reported by 58% of the participants. On the other hand, there was a large proportion (55.8%) that never watch television at a friend's house.

When students were asked if they watch television somewhere else, 52 students reported that they occasionally watch TV in a café, while a very small number of the participants considered the café as a place where they watch television virtually every day. However, although the time diary survey reported that the time spent watching television is conducted mostly at home, gender differences appeared in relation to watching TV at home. Female students are more likely to spend time watching television at home (105.70 min) than male students (70.7 min).

Table 6.3: Location for Watching Television

	Locations	Never	Occasionally	Once a week	Several times a week	Every day
1-	At my own home	(16) 2.9%	(87) 16%	(29) 5.3%	(143) 26.2%	(270) 49.5%
2-	At a relative's home	(162) 29.7%	(318) 58.3%	(38) 7.0%	(23) 4.2%	(4) 0.7%
3-	At a friend's home	(304) 55.8%	(195) 35.8%	(19) 3.5%	(22) 4.0%	(5) 0.9%
4-	Somewhere else: Café	(0) 0.0%	(24) 4.4%	(7) 1.3%	(13) 2.4%	(8) 1.5%

Respondents were asked about their Internet use and place of access. These five-point scale questions were reduced to three – never, occasionally and at least once a week grouped as occasionally – while several times a week and virtually every day were grouped as every day (see Table 6.4). It can be seen in Table 6.4 that home was the modal place of Internet access for female respondents. The vast majority of the participants claimed to access the Internet virtually every day from their home (87% of males and 92.7% of females). Both genders said they accessed the Internet every day using their mobile phone (61.7% of males and 60.3% of females).

The data shows that female students occasionally access the Internet from their relatives' homes more than male students, and that roughly half of male and female students occasionally access the Internet from a friend's house. Gender also plays a significant role in determining Internet café use. Although large numbers of male respondents indicated that they access the Internet from home (87%), roughly half of males use an Internet café, whereas a high percentage of the female students never use an Internet café [see Table 6.4].

This finding is in contrast with research in other parts of the world (Sairosse and Mutula, 2004; Adomi, 2007), which might reflect the cultural differences in freedom of movement of men and women. Also, Table 6.4 reveals that accessing the Internet from the university campus is infrequent. Male and female students occasionally use the Internet from the university campus (46.3% of males and 45.1% of females). The results also indicate that nearly half of both gender participants never use their iPad to access the Internet.

Table 6.4: Places of Internet Access

	Locations	Everyday		Occasionally		Never	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1-	At home	87.0%	92.7%	9.6%	6.7%	3.4%	7.0%
2-	At a relative's home	15.7%	10.2%	47.8%	60.0%	36.4%	29.6%
3-	At a friend's home	13.0%	6.0%	51.3%	42.2%	35.6%	51.5%
4-	At university campus	20.3%	19.1%	46.3%	45.1%	33.3%	35.9%
5-	At an Internet café	33.3%	11.0%	47.1%	11.9%	19.5%	87.0%
6-	Using my mobile phone	61.7%	60.3%	23.8%	31.0%	14.6%	8.8%
7-	Using my iPad	30.7%	30.6%	24.9%	13.4%	44.4%	56.0%
8-	Other, please state.....	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Moreover, the time diary survey also shows that Internet-based activities are conducted mostly at home. The time spent on information seeking has a higher mean score for males (70.1 min) than females (52.5 min). However, male students spend more time playing games online at a friend's house (56.0) while females spend more time playing games online at home (1.5 min). These gender differences in conducting activities by location may be due to females' freedom of movement being very limited in Saudi Arabia. They are not supposed to leave their houses without the permission of their parents. This, and restrictions on freedom of movement, have been described by Saudi literature. For example, Al-Mohamed (2010) emphasised that "Saudi women still need a *mahram* (a close male relative such as a father, son or uncle) to accompany them even to the supermarket".

6.4 Types of TV Programme Watched and Online Activities

In the current study, it was important to explore what types of television programme young Saudi people watch in order to understand their TV consumption patterns. A list of 19 different types of TV programme was given to respondents and they were asked to indicate their frequency of watching each type. A five-point scale reduced to three points was used here – never, occasionally and at least once a week grouped as occasionally – while several times a week and virtually every day were grouped as every day (see Table 6.5).

It is clear from Table 6.5 that students frequently watch news and soap operas more often than other programmes. Music videos, music programmes and comedy shows also appeal to most students more than many other programme. These results resonate with the focus group interviews where participants considered television as an important source of news and entertainment. A large proportion of the surveyed students claimed occasionally to watch religious, health and sports programmes. They also sometimes watched reality, scientific, documentary and crime programmes. These results support prior research findings in earlier studies in the Arab world (Moawad, and Muhammed, 1998; Al-Asfar, 2000), which found that Arab people prefer to watch news and music programmes the most. The majority of students do not watch cookery, political, shopping, education or beauty programmes.

Table 6.5: Frequency of Watching Different Types of TV Programme

	Sort of programme	Every day	Occasionally	Never
1-	Religious	12.5%	73.2%	14.3%
2-	Comedy	63.9%	30.7%	5.5%
3-	Soap opera	68.2%	22.7%	9.0%

4-	News	78.7%	16.5%	4.8%
5-	Talk show	10.3%	46.6%	43.5%
6-	Documentary	13.4%	46.6%	40.0%
7-	Sports	22.8	55.6%	21.7%
8-	Political	12.1%	31.0%	56.9%
9-	Health	12.5%	61.1%	26.4%
10-	Beauty	13.9%	40.9%	45.1%
11-	Game show	8.5%	40.6	51.0%
12-	Music programme	65.9%	23.7%	10.5%
13-	Music video	64.2%	22.0%	13.8%
14-	Education	5.8%	46.3%	47.9%
15-	Scientific	8.8%	49.0%	41.3%
16-	Shopping	6.6%	36.7%	56.7%
17-	Crime	16.7%	44.4%	38.9%
18-	Reality	16.4%	54.3%	29.4%
19-	Cookery	6.4%	27.5%	66.1%

The focus group analysis suggests that TV is still the primary source of news for participants. However, this was the case mainly for male participants who turn to television as their main source of news. The gender gap in news consumption is highly relevant in light of current discussions on news consumption as a motive for watching TV.

The interviews demonstrate gender differences in news consumption on TV. Some male participants stated more frequently that watching news on TV is a regular feature of their day and a part of the framework of their everyday activities. In contrast, female participants mentioned that they watch news on TV less frequently. Female participants gave three possible reasons as to

why they watch news less frequently: their preferences, time constraints and news content. Some female students prefer soft news, entertainment and information that relates to their daily needs and problems, rather than more political content. Moreover, females are often too busy with household tasks; therefore, they are less likely to be able to give their undivided attention to the news or to keep up with the news.

> *"TV is an important source of news, but I hardly watch news programmes. After finishing my household chores I prefer to watch soap operas or comedy shows."* (L student-group 6)

> *"I think, nowadays, I have less time to watch news on TV because I am busy with my children. Also, most news on TV is about conflicts and violence. Thus, I prefer to watch news about celebrities or fashion."* (N student-group 5)

Previous studies on news consumption argued that there is a strong male preference for 'factual' programmes, such as the news (Morley, 1986; Benesch, 2012). Although these studies were conducted in different cultures to that of the present study, they identified gender differences in news consumption, due to males and females having different preferences.

Moreover, whilst TV is mainly used as a source of news among Saudi students, the survey data found that participants use the Internet for entertainment, communication and study activities. In relation to online activities, participants were asked to indicate their most frequent online activities. Twenty-six different online activities were subjected to a principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS. Prior to performing the PCA, the suitability of data was assessed. PCA revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (Table 6.6). Varimax rotation was then performed to aid in the interpretation of these three components. The rotated solution (Table 6.6) revealed the presence of a simple arrangement, with components showing a number of strong loadings. The factor analysis produced six factors. However, one

item was omitted from factor five. The item 'Seeking information linked to personal offline hobbies/interests' was omitted because its loading value was just .322.

The first factor had an eigenvalue of 5.553 and explained 21.357 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of five items related to searching news. The second factor had an eigenvalue of 2.428 and explained 9.338 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of seven items related to entertainment activities. The third factor had an eigenvalue of 1.749 and explained 6.727 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of four items related to communication activities. The fourth factor had an eigenvalue of 1.660 and explained 6.383 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of three items to represent e-commerce activities. The fifth factor had an eigenvalue of 1.323 and explained 5.088 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of four items related to searching for information. The sixth factor had an eigenvalue of 1.113 and explained 4.281 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of three items that represented searching for information related to studies. Table 6.6 shows the rotated matrix for these factors and the value of each item, loaded and sorted by size. The internal consistency of the items loading on each factor was further tested using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the six activities' factors was tested using Cronbach's Alpha.

The reliability coefficient for the first factor, searching news, was .81; for the second factor, entertainment, it was .85; for the third factor, communication, it was .83; for the fourth factor, e-commerce activities, it was .80; for the fifth factor, searching for information, it was .84; and for the sixth factor, searching for information related to studies, it was .82.

Table 6.6: Factor Analysis of Internet-related Activities

Factors	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Searching news						
Seeking local news	.892	.077	.070	.057	-.005	.030
Seeking national news	.835	.068	.020	.054	.073	.136
Seeking international news	.819	.044	.125	.145	.058	.017
Checking weather reports	.492	.309	-.016	.137	.316	.153
Seeking information on sport	.439	.097	.050	-.247	.070	-.164
Entertainment						
Seeking celebrity gossip	.022	.735	-.007	-.038	.082	.111
Seeking information about TV programmes	.219	.733	.078	-.025	.126	-.015
Watching TV programmes	.088	.642	.171	.184	-.030	.084
Watching movies	.103	.612	.173	.086	-.334	.156
Playing online games	-.061	.505	.369	.066	.038	-.106
Watching music programmes and videos	.049	.471	.196	.129	-323	.157
Listening to radio broadcasts	.017	.442	.171	.349	.071	-.138
Communication						
Spending time on social networks such as Facebook and Twitter	.156	.091	.733	-.017	.050	.072
Going on chatrooms	-.139	.301	.604	010	.111	-.080
Keeping a blog	.124	.101	.552	.180	-.180	.297
Sending and receiving emails	.134	.109	.552	.362	.064	-.053
E-commerce activities						
Online shopping	.040	.226	.096	.756	.013	.077
Online banking	.253	.000	.114	.698	.145	-.004
Booking travel or holidays	.119	-.042	.429	.676	.222	.000

Searching for information						
Seeking information related to children	.032	-.019	.095	-.050	.752	.177
Seeking travel information	.101	.071	.113	.133	.585	.355
Seeking financial information	.370	.088	.030	.274	.538	.056
Seeking information related to health	.040	.268	-.003	.165	.503	.273
Searching for information related to studies						
Seeking information linked to studies	.100	-.064	.118	.048	.131	.761
Visiting university websites	.020	.143	-.049	-.007	.185	.729
Seeking information linked to personal offline	.066	.285	.320	-.172	.113	.322

6.4.1 Searching for News

The results show that participants occasionally use the Internet to search for news. Students pay more attention to international news than to local and national news. Roughly half of the students reported that they sometimes use the Internet to search for international news, and 43.1% of the students use the Internet to search for local news. More than one third of participants occasionally use it for seeking national news [see Table 6.7]. Obijiofor and Hanusch (2010) pointed out that the choice of the Internet as the main source of general news and foreign news emphasises the importance of the Internet as a news delivery channel, regardless of the news genre. On the other hand, more than half of the students noted that they never use the Internet to search for sports-related information or check news related to the weather.

6.4.2 Entertainment

It emerged that the majority of students use the Internet for entertainment purposes. 73.4% of the students reported that they use the Internet to watch music programmes and videos, while a high

percentage never listen to radio broadcasts on the Internet [see Table 6.7]. This finding is consistent with previous studies' results in Saudi Arabia. For example, Alenizi (2003) stressed that entertainment is one of the motives for Internet use. Also, Alharthi et al. (2004) argued that one of the uses of the Internet in Saudi Arabia is for entertainment, as 37.4% of Saudi people occasionally use the Internet to play online games and watch movies. However, more than 70% of the students indicated that they never use the Internet to search for celebrity gossip or information about TV programmes, watch TV programmes or play online games.

6.4.3 Communication

Ackermann and Hartman (2000) argued that "Communication is the most popular use of the Internet" (Ackermann and Hartman, 2000, p. 33). The results reveal that participants frequently use the Internet for communication activities. A large proportion of the students (81.5%) use the Internet to spend time on social network sites such as Facebook and Twitter, and over one half of the students use the Internet for sending and receiving emails. In spite of the high percentage of participants using the Internet for social networking, the majority of young students never use the Internet for keeping a blog and nearly half never go on chatrooms [see Table 6.7]. This finding was supported by Simsim (2010), who found that users frequently use the Internet for chatting and entertainment purposes.

6.4.4 Commercial Activities

Table 6.7 presents the frequency of using the Internet for e-commerce activities, which means buying and selling products or services over the Internet. The results indicate that more than half of the students never use the Internet for online shopping and online banking, and less than half of participants use the Internet for booking travel or holidays.

6.4.5 Searching for Information

This activity comprises searching for different information, such as that related to health, finance and children. The results reveal that a large number of the students never use the Internet for seeking information related to finance, followed by 55% who never seek information related to children. However, nearly half of the students noted that they occasionally use the Internet to seek information about health or to search for information related to travel.

6.4.6 Searching for Information Related to Studies

The results in Table 6.7 show that the students most frequently use the Internet to seek information linked to their studies. Browne, Freeman and Williamson (2000) argued that college students are increasingly taking advantage of the Internet to complete their schoolwork. In the Arab context, Ayyad (2010) found that the most important three reasons for Emirates students to use the Internet are to entertain themselves, to search for information related to their studies and to communicate. In the present study, half of the participants use the Internet every day to search for information related to their studies. Also, 50% of the participants occasionally go online to visit university websites, whereas 42.9% use the Internet every day to visit university websites.

Table 6.7: Activities for Which the Internet is Used

Online activities	**Never**	**At least once a week**	**Virtually every day**
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Searching for news			
Seeking local news	68.2%	10.6%	21.1%
Seeking national news	73.2%	9.5%	17.3%
Seeking international news	54.5%	7.2%	18.3%

Checking weather reports	87.0%	5.9%	7.2%
Seeking information on sport	77.6%	5.0%	17.5%
Entertainment			
Seeking celebrity gossip	75.2%	10.3%	14.5%
Seeking information about TV programmes	78.9%	10.3%	10.8%
Watching TV programmes	73.0%	9.0%	18.0%
Watching movies	50.1%	12.5%	73.4%
Playing online games	73.2%	7.9%	18.9%
Watching music programmes and videos	46.8%	11.9%	41.3%
Listening to radio broadcasts	89.5%	3.5%	7.0%
Communication			
Spending time on social network sites such as Facebook and Twitter	6.3%	12.3%	81.5%
Going on chatrooms	72.5%	4.2%	23.3%
Keeping a blog	85.8%	5.0%	9.9%
Sending and receiving emails	33.0%	11.4%	55.6%
E-commerce activities			
Online shopping	86.5%	5.7%	7.9%
Online banking	81.9%	8.4%	9.7%
Booking travel or holidays	81.3%	6.4%	12.3%
Searching for information			
Seeking information related to children	86.6%	6.8%	6.6%
Seeking travel information	76.2%	7.9%	16.0%
Seeking financial information	89.9%	5.9%	4.3%
Seeking information related to	68.1%	15.8%	16.1%

health			
Searching for information related to studies			
Seeking information linked to studies	34.8%	14.9%	50.3%
Visiting university websites	37.8%	19.3%	42.9%

On the other hand, the time diary analysis found gender differences in relation to time spent on Internet activities. The highest mean for Saudi males was for social networking online (113.1 min, SD = 35.7), followed by information seeking online (108.2 min, SD = 20.7). For females there was a different pattern. Information seeking online had the highest mean (64.8 min, SD = 38.1), followed by using Messenger online (48.9 min, SD = 44.4), and then social networking online (48.1 min, SD = 69.7). The lowest mean for males was for watching TV online (0.0 min), while for females the lowest mean was for playing games online (1.5 min, SD = 13.3). This means that male students are more likely to spend their time using social networks than female students, which may reflect the cultural limitations or privacy and security issues related to females using social networks in Saudi Arabia. According to the third Arab Social Media Report (2012), Arab women's use of social media remains low compared to that of men. Also, Mourtada et al. (2011) argued that "the prevailing gap in Arab women's usage of social media compared to men and to the global average is primarily a result of perceived societal and cultural constraints Arab women continue to face in real life".

Table 6.8: Time Spent on Different Activities

	Mean	Mean	
		Sex	
		M	F
Inactivity			
Sleeping	390.21	365.4	408.9
Time spent at home	11.40	0.5	19.6
Total	*401.61*	*365.9*	*428.5*
General activities			
Eating	94.85	95.9	94.1
Commuting	16.47	1.5	27.8
Working	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying	155.49	160.3	151.9
Sport/leisure	6.76	11.8	3.0
Housework	33.59	3.0	56.7
Shopping	9.0845	0.0	15.9
Praying	94.22	87.0	99.6
Watching TV	131.40	106.7	150.0
Reading	14.36	1.5	24.1
Visiting friends at their house	13.52	19.7	8.9
Visiting relatives at their house	1.47	0.0	2.6
Total	*571.21*	*483.4*	*634.4*
Internet-based activities			
Listening to music online	37.18	47.2	29.6
Watching movies online	38.45	57.5	24.1

Playing games online	42.25	96.4	1.5
Chatting online	27.25	24.6	29.6
Browsing the Internet	33.38	17.7	45.2
Using Messenger online	44.15	37.9	48.9
Using email	39.08	33.0	43.7
Online banking	12.25	11.8	12.6
Writing/visiting a blog	15.21	31.0	3.3
Information seeking online	83.45	108.2	64.8
Listening to the radio online	5.70	8.4	3.7
Watching TV online	12.67	0.0	22.2
Social networking online	76.05	113.1	48.1
Total	*467.07*	*586.7*	*377.0*

6.5 Experience of Internet Use

Internet experience, or the number of years using the Internet, can to some extent affect online behaviours. Hamid (2008, p. 197) argued that "when users gain more experience using the Internet they tend to learn the usefulness as well as the disadvantages of the technology". The qualitative analysis demonstrates that the use of the Internet is a natural extension of the introduction of computers into the lives of the participants. Its presence is driven by a combination of the introduction of computing in the home, regular use in education, the availability of wireless broadband across the household and increasing use across many devices (desktop computers, laptops and smartphones).

> " *I remember that I started accessing the Internet after the entry of the computer to our house where we were using it to do our school home work and to play games. Afterwards, we started to access the Internet."* (F student-group 5)

Moreover, the quantitative analysis shows that the median length of time students have been using the Internet is longer than four years, since the majority have been using it for more than four years. More than one third of the students indicated that they have been using the Internet for between three and four years, whilst the minority has been using it for a shorter period – between one and two years or for less than one year [see Table 6.9].

Analysis reveals that students' gender is not associated with the length of time they have used the Internet. To investigate this, a chi-square test was used. Table 6.9 shows the Pearson chi-square results and indicates that male and female students are not significantly different in terms of the length of time they use the Internet (x^2 (3) = 1.804, p >0.05). This indicates that both males and females have the same experience in the use of the Internet. However, students at private universities are found to be significantly different from students at public universities in their experience of using the Internet (x^2 (3) = 18.288, p <0.05). Students from private institutions have a long experience of using the Internet compared with their counterparts in public institutions. This difference might be due to private university students being more likely to use the Internet than public university students.

Table 6.9: Length of Time Students Have Been Using the Internet

How long have you been using the Internet?	Male		Female	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Less than one year	3	1.1%	2	0.7%
Between one and two years	14	5.4%	16	5.6%
Between three and four years	41	15.7%	56	19.7%
More than four years	203	77.8%	210	73.9%
Not at all	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Total	**261**	**100.0%**	**284**	**100.0%**

6.6 Motives for Watching Television and Using the Internet

Early research indicated that young people watch TV for different reasons. For example, Rubin (1981) stated that the five primary television-viewing motivations were: passing time, information, entertainment, social interaction and companionship. In this study, the qualitative data shows that young Saudi people mainly watch television for relaxation and companionship. In addition, in the qualitative analysis participants reported that the role of TV as an important source of news is one of the key reasons for watching TV. Studies of young people's interest in the news (Elareshi, 2011; Sopher, 2010) show that young people are still seen as an important audience for news media, since they turn to news media for further information and for keeping up with the television news generally. As Gunter notes, "the consumption of news has long been identified as one of the primary motivations for watching TV" (2010:88). Also, Rizkallah (2006) highlighted that information was a strong motivation for Arab people to watch television. According to the interviews, a crucial reason for watching the news on TV is to keep in touch with world events; this is the primary reason for watching TV for many participants. Participants frequently invoked the phrase "what is going on around the world" to describe how TV can be considered as providing a global perspective. They report that one of the crucial aspects of TV is making the world accessible and bringing the world into their homes.

> *"If I do not watch the news on TV for one day, I feel that I don't know what is going on around the world. News is one of the important things that TV offers to us. It is hard to imagine not watching news on TV everyday."* (S student-group 2)

> *"I am an avid news watcher. The first thing I do in the morning is watch the news while I am having my breakfast. I switch on the TV so I can see what is happening in my country and the world."* (T student-group 8)

The interview data suggests that TV remains the number one source of news for participants. Watching news is a daily practice that often coincides with other daily activities, such as housework or waking up in the morning. This implies that TV is still the primary source of news for participants and the news function of TV might be one of the participants' motives for watching TV.

Moreover, participants reported that they watch TV primarily to fulfil companionship and relaxation needs. Gauntlett and Hill (1999) focused on the complex relationship between television and people's lives today. The authors noted that television viewing is an important means of relaxation. The data showed that participants watch television to relax and escape the stress of everyday life, since TV offers a huge number of programmes that can entertain people. Watching television often means that Saudi students relax and it allows them the right to do nothing. Participants mostly watch TV in their free time, which they define as the time they can fill with entertainment activities such as TV. Because watching television is a relaxing activity requiring low levels of concentration, some participants reported that they tend to watch TV when they are alone or bored. Moreover, the data demonstrate that companionship is another motive for watching TV. Saudi students attribute the importance of television as a source of companionship to its ability to alleviate boredom and its ease of use. The companionship TV offers, based on the interviews, is a substitute for isolation or loneliness. The students relate how they watch TV to establish a feeling of social intercourse or human presence in the home.

> *"Sometimes when I am alone at home I turn on the television as it gives me the sense that there is someone with me at home so I don't feel lonely."* (FA student-group 5)

> *"Watching television is what I do only when I have spare time or when I am extremely bored or I just have nothing to do."* (F student-group 5)

> *"For me TV is an important source of relaxation after a hard day of study because it is simple and convenient. All I have to do is to press a button and sink comfortably into a chair."* (S student-group 8)

On the other hand, Okinda (2007) argued that motives or motivations refer to the gratifications that audiences seek from a particular medium. Angleman (2000) acknowledged that the Internet has generated new gratifications and motivations among individuals, such as keeping informed or social interaction. This section considers the research questions of the study in relation to participants' motives for using the Internet. Participants were asked how often they use the media for that particular purpose. A factor analysis of the Internet motive statements was conducted in order to identify common themes of motives for using the Internet. All 11 items were factored by principal components analysis with varimax rotation. The factor analysis procedure revealed two factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. The first and largest factor had an eigenvalue of 4.496 and accounted for 32.1% of the variance after rotation. Total variance explained by all seven factors was 57.45%.

The first factor contained six items with loadings of at least .40, combining motivation items primarily relating to 'online companionship'. This factor had an eigenvalue of 4.496 and explained 32.139 of the total variance after rotation. It contained six items related to the motivations for developing and maintaining a social interaction and entertainment. The second factor was characterised as 'utility information seeking', which reflects the reason for fulfilling functions of surveillance, guidance and efficiency. This factor had an eigenvalue of 1.824 and explained 25.312 of the total variance after rotation. It contained five items related to the motivations for 'surveillance information seeking'. The reliability of the two 'attitude' sub-scales was tested, using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability coefficient for the first factor 'online companionship' was 0.839, and for the second factor 'utility information seeking' it was .786.

However, removing the item 'to escape my daily problems' resulted in an increase in Cronbach's Alpha from .786 to .808, which is high, suggesting that the items are reliable.

Table 6.10: Rotated Matrix Component Analysis and Internet Motives

Factors	Component	
Online Companionship	1	2
To keep in touch with existing friends	.863	.184
To maintain old relationships	.828	.227
To maintain physically distant relationships	.809	.154
To communicate with my relatives	.804	.109
Because everyone I know does	.583	.048
To entertain myself	.482	.237
Utility Information Seeking		
To stay informed about a range of topics	.163	.816
To seek information about my interests	-.003	.791
To increase my knowledge and refine my skills	.101	.770
To keep up with the most important things that happen in the world	.341	.714
To escape daily problems	.279	.459

6.6.1 Online Companionship

The items under this factor express the opinion that the Internet is a tool for maintaining relationships with people. The results in Table 6.11 show that using the Internet to maintain distant relationships is a significant motive for students to use the Internet. The majority of the students frequently use the Internet to maintain physically distant relationships. It seems that entertainment is a frequent motive for using the Internet. More than one third of the students reported that they often use the Internet to entertain themselves. Also, roughly one third often use

the Internet to keep in touch with existing friends and to maintain old relationships, while some students occasionally use the Internet to communicate with their relatives [see Table 6.11].

6.6.2 Utility Information Seeking

This factor deals with information provided by the Internet. The most important motivations for Internet use are searching for information and improving knowledge and skills. The majority of students indicated that the Internet is frequently used to seek information about their interests, and to increase knowledge and refine skills. On the other hand, nearly half of the participants reported that they frequently use the Internet for other motives, such as staying informed about a range of topics; keeping up with the most important things that happen in the world are other purposes for which they occasionally use the Internet. Similarly, Papacharissi and Rubin (2000) identified five primary motives for using the Internet, namely interpersonal utility, passing time, information seeking, convenience and entertainment. The most salient use of the Internet was seeking information. Also, Taiea (2000) found that 91.5% of Arab students use the Internet for seeking information.

Table 6.11: Students' Motives for Using the Internet

I use the Internet...	**Never**	**Sometimes**	**All the time**
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Online Companionship			
To keep in touch with existing friends	14.1%	22.9%	62.9%
To maintain old relationships	19.1%	25.3%	55.6%
To maintain physically distant relationships	18.3%	20.6%	61.1%
To communicate with my relatives	20.9%	31.7%	47.4%
Because everyone I know does	48.1%	17.4%	34.5%

To entertain myself	13.7%	27.9%	58.3%
Utility Information Seeking			
To stay informed about a range of topics	20.6%	30.3%	49.2%
To seek information about my interests	12.8%	22.0%	65.2%
To increase my knowledge and refine my skills	15.6%	28.6%	55.8%
To keep up with the most important things that happen in the world	23.1%	29.4%	47.6%
To escape daily problems	56.0%	23.3%	20.8%

6.7 Attitudes Towards Television and the Internet

This section examines students' attitudes toward television and the Internet and how young people perceive the use of TV and the Internet. In the quantitative analysis students' attitudes towards television were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 5 = 'strongly agree'. Factor analysis was then used to identify whether responses for the 15 individual attitude statements could be grouped into conceptually meaningful factors, while Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were computed to test the reliability of each of the sub-scales so produced. Initially, more than one extraction and rotation method was applied, including principle axis factoring, and principle component analysis with varimax rotation. The latter exercise produced four uncorrelated factors, each of which was named logically according to the statements with the highest factor loading.

The factoring criteria were: (1) a factor eigenvalue > 1; (2) a minimum primary loading > .40 on a factor; (3) each factor has a loading > .40; (4) any item that has loaded negatively with other items in a factor or has a loading <. 40 is omitted; and (5) any factor with an internal consistency reliability <. 40 is discarded. Principle component analysis with varimax rotation suggested four uncorrelated factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, with the scree plot

suggesting a levelling out after the fourth factor. These four factors accounted for a total of 48.3% of variance in the data. Items loading on each factor were assessed, and an overarching theme identified to give a title for each factor. The factors, including items loading on those factors and the value of each item from the rotated component matrix, are presented in Table 6.12.

The factor analysis produced four factors, each of which had an eigenvalue larger than 1. The first set of items intended to measure attitudes towards television were factor analysed. Table 6.12 presents the seven factors and the loading of items in each factor. The factor analysis yielded four significant factors: television dependency, quality-dependent viewing, connectivity and information seeking, and passive television watching.

The first factor had an eigenvalue of 3.282 and explained 21.878 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of seven items: “Without TV I would feel depressed and sad”, “I could not live without TV”, “I often rearrange events in my life so that I can watch my favourite TV programmes”, “I often talk with my friends about my favourite TV programmes”, “If I am alone at home I switch on the TV because television can be a substitute friend”, “Having TV on gives the household a sense of togetherness”, and “I frequently switch on the TV as background noise when I get up or arrive home”.

The second factor had an eigenvalue of 1.585 and explained 10.544 of the total variance. This factor loaded four items relating to why students watch television: “I tend to switch on the TV only when I know there is something I really want to watch”, “One of the most important reasons why I watch TV is to keep up with the latest events in the news”, “The value of the programmes encourages me to watch television”, and “I usually watch TV at home when someone else has switched it on”.

The third factor of television as a source of news had an eigenvalue of 1.312 and explained 8.748 of the total variance. This factor loaded two items reflecting students' views about television as a source of news: "Television makes me feel connected to the outside world" and "The television is a credible source of news".

Factor four had an eigenvalue of 1.067 and explained 7.112 of the total variance. This factor contained two items related to students' negative views about television: "I find that TV has very little to offer that I like" and "I do not often get to choose what to watch on TV". Table 6.12 shows initial statistics for 15 items on the attitude scale including: factors, eigenvalue, percentage of total variance and total variance and the rotated matrix for these factors and the value of each item, loaded and sorted by size.

The internal consistency of the items loading on each factor was further tested using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the five attitude sub-scales was tested, using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability coefficient for the first factor, perceptions towards television, was .71; for the second factor, reasons for watching television, it was .75; for the third factor, TV as a source of news, it was .75; and for the fourth factor, negative attitudes towards TV, it was .70, which is quite high, suggesting that the items are reliable. An Alpha of 0.7 is normally considered to indicate a reliable set of items (de Vaus, 2002).

Table 6.12: Factor Analysis of TV-related Attitudes

Factors	Component			
Television Dependency	1	2	3	4
Without TV I would feel depressed and sad.	.792	.035	-.009	.047
I could not live without TV.	.773	-.022	-.001	-.054
I often rearrange events in my life so that I can watch	.642	-.024	.304	-.048

my favourite TV programmes.				
I often talk with my friends about my favourite TV programmes.	.617	.034	.201	-.023
If I am alone at home I switch on the TV because television can be a substitute friend.	.578	.064	.178	-.154
Having TV on gives the household a sense of togetherness.	.539	.118	.158	.139
I frequently switch on the TV as background noise when I get up or arrive home.	.469	-.183	-.382	.172
Quality-Dependent Viewing				
I tend to switch on the TV only when I know there is something I really want to watch.	-.112	.646	-.256	-.222
One of the most important reasons why I watch TV is to keep up with the latest events in the news.	.045	.587	.280	-.009
The value of the programmes encourages me to watch television.	.080	.503	.138	.103
I usually watch TV at home when someone else has switched it on.	.040	.495	.023	.442
Connectivity and Information Seeking				
Television makes me feel connected to the outside world.	.222	.134	.702	-.076
The television is a credible source of news.	.233	.017	.664	.071
Passive Television Watching				
I find that TV has very little to offer that I like.	-.122	-.224	.082	.721
I do not often get to choose what to watch on TV.	.070	.336	-.171	.634

6.7.1 Television Dependency

Table 6.13 illustrates the students' views towards television. Participants generally hold positive attitudes towards television and exhibit close relationships with it. The majority of the students agree that television offers a number of social aspects, such as generating a sense of togetherness and providing topics for conversation. Students believe that television can be a substitute friend. It serves to remind them of their feelings of loneliness. In addition, TV is a frequent talking point with friends. Participants agreed that TV programmes are a topic of conversation with their friends.

On the other hand, nearly half of the participants agreed that they frequently use the TV as background noise when they get up or arrive home. These results are consistent with those who agree that people watch television for companionship (Al-Shaqsi, 2000; Östlund, 2006). Here, the findings could be explained by the focus group discussion about watching television as background noise and how watching television accompanies other activities. The qualitative data also demonstrates that television can retract from the forefront of users' concentration to background noise and vice versa. The metaphor of 'background noise' is an expression used by both male and female students to describe the role of television in the household. It seems that television can be a valuable source of companionship when participants use it to accomplish their everyday tasks, and when it is used as background noise, as an environmental resource.

Participants' responses reveal that television provides them with companionship, which is one of the enjoyable factors of television viewing. Some participants talked about how they do not watch television and are not interested in it; television does not serve a useful purpose, but acts as a colourful and noisy background. Thus, television is an accompaniment during the pursuance of other activities. Participants focus on other daily tasks, such as household chores,

while the television becomes background noise. They turn on the television not for the purpose of watching it, but to provide a stable flow of sound or moving images on the screen, which creates a visibly busy atmosphere.

> *"I will miss only the television sound, because usually I do not watch it. I think television is friendly background noise. The television goes on when I am ironing, folding laundry, cleaning the house, or making food for my family."* (M student-group 2)

> *"I usually pay full attention to watching television, but on some occasions, when I am busy or have to do another tasks I do not. Sometimes, I sit on the sofa with my laptop, do my work, and listen to the television in the background."* (F student-group 5)

In addition, when the students discussed whether they would feel depressed or sad without TV, 43% disagreed. In respect of whether students could not live without television, 40% disagreed, while roughly one quarter reported neither result. The focus group discussion also revealed that television is important in young Saudi people's lives, and their daily lives would be more difficult without television programmes. Participants used certain types of words, such as 'hooked on', 'frozen' and 'addicted', to describe how often they watch television, suggesting that the time they spend watching television depends on whether they are 'hooked on' a certain programme, so that special programmes might motivate them to watch television. In addition, certain phrases, such as 'bored', 'depressed', 'upset' and 'sad', were used in the interviews to describe what the participants' response would be to not having access to television.

> *"I watch TV everyday and I can't live without watching television. I feel sad and upset without TV viewing."* (A student-group 5)

Furthermore, the survey results show that over one third of the participants disagreed that they rearrange events in their life to watch TV programmes, while 26.1% presented no opinion.

These findings are confirmed by the qualitative data where participants noted that they do not rearrange events or ignore other engagements in order to stay in and watch television.

The interview data presents two major reasons for this. First, some television programmes are repeated on different channels, so participants can watch the programme later, on other channels. Second, most television programmes can be viewed on the Internet. In addition, showbox and video-on-demand devices offer a level of control and convenience, giving viewers the power to choose what they want to watch and when, by recording the ongoing programme, rewinding and playing it again. They can use these services at a time of their choice, without the restrictions of fixed broadcasting time schedules.

> *"Most of the programmes and soap operas are offered again on other channels. Therefore, I don't need to re-arrange events in my life so that I can stay in and watch television programmes."* (A student-group 1)

> *"I stopped planning my life around the television schedule. For the shows I do want to watch, I watch them on demand, via video on demand. There's no need to wait for television networks to air the shows I want to watch."* (T student-group 8)

This might indicate that television consumption patterns are now temporally attached to the Internet. Church (2010) also argued that "older patterns of television consumption, based on network programming, work concurrently with the temporal shifting made possible by view-on-demand Internet media" (p. 276).

6.7.2 Quality-Dependent Viewing

This factor presents findings concerning the reasons why students watch TV. As Jones (1995) stated, there are various reasons why people watch television, and the reasons vary for each individual. Similarly, Nangong (2011) found that Chinese audiences watch television to keep up

with the world and to feed their need for more information. It can be inferred from Table 6.13 that the quality of TV programmes, and keeping in touch with the outside world, are salient reasons for watching television.

The majority of the students agreed with the view that the value of the programmes encouraged them to watch television. In addition, a high percentage of the participants reportedly watched television to keep up with the latest events in the news. This result confirms the findings in the previous section that the students frequently watch news programmes. On the other hand, over one third of the respondents tend to switch on the TV only when they know there is something they really want to watch. Likewise, 44.5% of students disagreed that they usually watch TV at home when someone else has switched it on.

6.7.3 Connectivity and Information Seeking

This factor reflects students' views about television as a source of news. Table 6.13 shows that credibility and keeping connected with the world are linked to considering television as a source of news. Fischoff (1996) argued that if television is considered the most popular source of news, it might be expected that TV news sources are seen by people as more credible than other news sources. In the present study, more than half of the students consider TV as a credible source of news, while roughly one in four showed neither of these responses. Also, a high percentage of participants agreed that television makes them feel connected to the outside world. On the other hand, 44.8% of the participants disagreed that they do not often get to choose what to watch on TV [see Table 6.13]. These findings affirm the focus group discussion on how the participants consider television as a global perspective and a credible source of news.

Furthermore, participants in the focus group interviews described the credibility of TV as a source of news as a factor that provokes their attention towards television as a source of news.

The issue of TV news credibility has emerged in antecedent research on media audiences in the Arab context. However, as yet, the findings have been both contradictory and complex. Al-Gahtani (2004) examined young Saudi adults' use of satellite TV in Saudi Arabia. The focus group discussion demonstrated that young people in Saudi Arabia do not always perceive pan-Arab satellite TV, such as Al-Jazeera, as a credible source of news. Although these channels report the news quickly and have live coverage of events, they exaggerate news reports and present inaccurate information. However, in Johnson and Fahmy's (2008) study, Al-Jazeera viewers rated the network as highly credible on all measures.

The interview data indicates that source expertise, objectivity and audiovisual quality may influence credibility perceptions of TV news. When participants discuss source expertise, they refer to skill and ability in news reporting, with an emphasis on the immediacy of the action, such as coverage of important local political events. Ibelema and Powell (2001) cited expertise and trustworthiness as the most important elements of credibility. The students stated that they perceive TV as a credible source of news, because of the objectivity of TV news, for instance in separating fact from opinion.

The focus group participants stated that they perceive the news to be fair, accurate and factual. They stated that they perceive TV as a more credible source than other news sources, due to the audio-visual quality of TV, meaning the provision of news through sound and images. Therefore, the credibility of TV may refer to the notion that 'seeing is believing'. tudents' perceptions of news credibility are influenced by the audio-visual characteristics of TV. The participants judge the credibility of news based on visually creative footage with high-quality sound, use of animation and graphics, attractive presentation of the news, and the appearance of

the events on TV. In other words, credibility can rest on the mere act of seeing the media content, as it results in a belief in the truth of that content

> *"TV always has the skill and the ability to provide news and its instantaneous presentation of news on different events, regular updates on news, as well as efficient reporting has a significant effect on the credibility."* (F student-group 7)

> *"I believe that TV is an important source of news. Watching news on TV with voice and images gives you that kind of credibility and gives people evidence of the validity of the news."* (S student-group 8)

6.7.4 Passive Television Watching

This factor illustrates how viewers reported being passive, simply watching what is on. It also identifies individuals who are not the primary TV watchers, but just happen to be in the same room as the TV set when it is switched on. An approximately equal proportion of respondents agreed and disagreed that they were not able to select the programmes that met their interests and satisfied them. Thus, they find TV offers very little of what they like, whereas 29.0% showed neither result. In addition, a higher proportion of participants disagreed that they do not often get to choose what to watch on TV.

Table 6.13: Attitudes Towards Television

Statement	Agree	Neither	Disagree
Television Dependency			
Without TV I would feel depressed and sad.	33.2%	23.9%	43.0%
I could not live without TV.	38.2%	21.5%	40.4%
I often rearrange events in my life so that I can watch my favourite TV programmes.	34.1%	26.1%	39.8%
I often talk with my friends about my favourite TV	49.3%	26.4%	24.2%

programmes.			
If I am alone at home I switch on the TV because television can be a substitute friend.	62.4%	16.7%	20.9%
Having TV on gives the household a sense of togetherness.	61.1%	21.5%	17.5%
I frequently switch on the TV as background noise when I get up or arrive home.	48.3%	15.6%	36.1%
Quality-Dependent Viewing			
I tend to switch on the TV only when I know there is something I really want to watch.	38.2%	13.0%	48.8%
One of the most important reasons why I watch TV is to keep up with the latest events in the news.	62.2%	19.8%	18.0%
The value of the programmes encourages me to watch television.	81.1%	13.9%	4.0%
I usually watch TV at home when someone else has switched it on.	33.7%	21.8%	44.5%
Connectivity and Information Seeking			
Television makes me feel connected to the outside world.	71.4%	18.3%	10.2%
The television is a credible source of news.	56.7%	23.9%	19.5%
Passive Television Watching			
I find that TV has very little to offer that I like.	35.8%	29.0%	35.2%
I do not often get to choose what to watch on TV.	28.9%	26.2%	44.8%

This section is also concerned with the research question relating to students' attitudes to Internet use. It describes participants' views in relation to the perceived usefulness of, and affection for, using the Internet based on the calculation of a four-point Likert scale score, as was done in the case of attitudes towards television. There were both negative and positive statements in the Likert scale. There were 15 items in this scale: seven positively worded and eight negatively worded. The percentages of agreement represented a combination of 'agree' and 'strongly agree'

responses and ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ responses. To clarify the structure of students’ Internet attitudes, principle component analysis was utilised as the extraction method, with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation. An item would be retained if the factor loading of the item was larger than 0.4 in the relevant scale and smaller than 0.4 in the non-relevant scale. The results of factor analyses reveal that students’ responses in the Internet Attitudes Survey (IAS) are grouped into four factors: perceived usefulness of the Internet, Internet affection, negative attitudes, and perceived service quality of the Internet.

The first factor was clearly the most important and accounted for 21.27% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 3.631. This factor included items describing the perception that students have in terms of how the Internet is useful and helps them in their lives, and was called ‘perceived usefulness of the Internet’. This factor was defined by the following items: “The Internet broadens my knowledge”, “The Internet helps me acquire the various kinds of information (news, education, health, etc.) I need”, “The Internet allows me to do more interesting and imaginative work”, “Using the Internet is a very important aspect of being a student”, “The best thing is that, with the Internet, you know everything that is happening around the world by the touch of a button”, and “The Internet is a convenient tool of communication because it can be used quickly, efficiently and at any time of the day”.

The second factor accounted for 12.39% of the variance and had an eigenvalue of 1.859. This factor included items describing feelings and anxiety about using the Internet, and was called ‘Internet affection’. This factor consisted of four items: “The Internet negatively affects my social relationships with my friends”, “My lack of knowledge and skills make it difficult to use the Internet”, “Using the Internet is a waste of time”, and “The Internet negatively affects my relationship with family members (spouse, children, parents)”.

The third factor, which was composed of three items, accounted for 11.05% of the variance and had an eigenvalue of 1.658. This factor was labelled 'potential negative aspects of the Internet'. This factor was defined by the following items: "Using the Internet for a long time negatively affects my sleep", "The Internet can be a bad thing because it has pornographic material and a lot of violence", and "The Internet negatively affects activities related to my studies".

The fourth factor accounted for 8.97% of the variance and had an eigenvalue of 1.462. This factor consisted of two items referring to credibility of the Internet and Internet connection, and was therefore called 'perceived service quality of the Internet'. The two items with the highest loadings on this factor were: "The Internet is not a reliable source of news" and "I feel frustrated by the slow connection of the Internet" [see Table 6.14].

The internal consistency of the items loading on each factor was further tested using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the four attitude sub-scales was tested, using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability coefficient for the first factor, 'perception of the usefulness of the Internet', was .70; for the second factor, 'Internet affection', it was .75; for the third factor, 'potential negative aspects of the Internet', it was .75; and for the fourth factor, 'perceived service quality of the Internet', it was .72.

Table 6.14: Factor Analysis of Internet Attitudes

Factors				**Component**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Perceived usefulness of the Internet				
The Internet broadens my knowledge.	.831	.138	-.097	-054
The Internet helps me acquire the various kinds of information (news, education, health, etc.) I need.	.804	-.053	-.017	.063

The Internet allows me to do more interesting and imaginative work.	.697	.214	-.220	-.207
Using the Internet is a very important aspect of being a student.	.674	-.104	.168	.171
The best thing is that, with the Internet, you know everything that is happening around the world by the touch of a button.	.659	-.166	.184	.081
The Internet is a convenient tool of communication because it can be used quickly, efficiently and at any time of the day.	.640	-.164	.184	.081
Internet affection				
The Internet negatively affects my social relationships with my friends.	-.127	.698	.250	.207
My lack of knowledge and skills make it difficult to use the Internet.	-.046	.636	-.033	.127
Using the Internet is a waste of time.	-.180	.566	.470	-.225
The Internet negatively affects my relationship with family members (spouse, children, parents).	.056	.560	.093	.247
Potential negative aspects of the Internet				
Using the Internet for a long time negatively affects my sleep.	.088	.214	.772	-.053
The Internet can be a bad thing because it has pornographic material and a lot of violence.	.085	.058	.722	.258
The Internet negatively affects activities related to my studies.	.019	.331	.520	.039
Perceived service quality of the Internet				
The Internet is not a reliable source of	.018	.205	-.063	.711

news.				
I feel frustrated by the slow connection of the Internet.	.043	.013	.334	.496

6.7.5 Perceived Usefulness of the Internet

As explained in Chapter 2, since most young people have considerable experience of using the Internet, it was interesting to explore their perceptions and attitudes toward it (Tsai and Lin, 2004). Over the past few years, researchers have investigated people's perceptions or attitudes regarding computers (Dumdell and Haag, 2002; Tsai, 2004). Rahee and Kim (2004) identified four different aspects of attitudes toward the Internet: perceived benefit, perceived negative effect, alienation from the Internet and perceived credibility.

Table 6.15 shows that most scores represent positive agreement (strongly agree and agree), suggesting that students have positive perceptions about the usefulness of the Internet. There was a strong agreement that using the Internet is a very important aspect of being a student. More than three quarters strongly agreed that the Internet is an important tool for academic purposes. There was strong agreement, at 67.3%, that the Internet helps the participants to obtain what they need from various kinds of information. There was an equal proportion who strongly agreed – roughly half of the students – that the Internet broadens students' knowledge and allows them to do more interesting and imaginative work. Also, with the Internet, more than half of the participants know everything that is happening around the world by the touch of a button.

6.7.6 Internet Affection

This factor measured participants' feelings and anxiety when using the Internet and the potential impact of the Internet on relationships with others. Kiesler et al. (2001) argued that the positive

or negative effect of the Internet on social involvement depends on the type of activities that people do online and what they give up to spend time online. However, in the Saudi context, Sait et al. (2007) expressed that the impact of Internet use on Saudi society is likely to be negligible, given the cohesive family structures.

The results in Table 6.15 show that using the Internet has been perceived to have a negative effect on more than half of the respondents' relationships with their family members. The students strongly agreed that the Internet negatively affects their relationships with family members (spouse, children, and parents). However, using the Internet does not negatively affect respondents' social relationship with friends. A large percentage of the students disagreed that the Internet negatively affects their social relationships with friends. Roughly half of the students strongly disagreed that their lack of knowledge and skills make it difficult to use the Internet, and they disagreed that using the Internet is a waste of time, whereas nearly one third showed neither result [see Table 6.15].

6.7.7 Potential Negative Aspects of the Internet

The majority of the students agreed that using the Internet for a long time negatively affects their sleep, whereas a small percentage showed neither result. A large proportion of the respondents (68.4%) agreed that the Internet is a bad thing because it contains pornography and violence. Roughly three quarters of respondents agreed that the Internet can be a bad thing because it has pornographic material and a lot of violence. Furthermore, using the Internet negatively affects activities related to their studies. Approximately half of the students agreed that the Internet negatively affects activities related to their studies [see Table 6.15].

6.7.8 Perceived Service Quality of the Internet

More than half of the students said they get irritated if the Internet connection goes slower. More than half of the participants agreed that they feel frustrated by the slow connection of the Internet. Also, the Internet was considered an unreliable source of news among some students. A large number of participants agreed that the Internet is not a reliable source of news, while more than a quarter showed neither result.

Table 6.15: Attitudes Towards the Internet

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
Perceived usefulness of the Internet					
The Internet broadens my knowledge.	57.2	35.8	5.7	0.9	0.4
The Internet helps me acquire the various kinds of information (news, education, health, etc.) I need.	67.3	28.4	3.3	0.6	0.4
The Internet allows me to do more interesting and imaginative work.	57.2	33.9	7.2	0.4	1.3
Using the Internet is a very important aspect of being a student.	74.5	21.5	3.3	0.4	0.4
The best thing is that, with the Internet, you know everything that is happening around the world by the touch of a button.	59.3	29.0	9.4	2.2	0.2
The Internet is a convenient tool of communication because it can be used quickly, efficiently and at any time of the day.	64.6	26.6	4.8	2.8	1.3
Internet affection					
The Internet negatively affects my social	6.2	12.8	19.8	38.3	22.8

relationships with my friends.					
My lack of knowledge and skills make it difficult to use the Internet.	12.1	15.0	19.8	29.4	23.7
Using the Internet is a waste of time.	7.5	12.7	28.3	29.4	22.2
The Internet negatively affects my relationship with family members (spouse, children, parents).	31.6	27.7	13.9	13.6	13.2
Potential negative aspects of the Internet					
Using the Internet for a long time negatively affects my sleep.	32.5	35.0	13.4	11.2	7.9
The Internet can be a bad thing because it has pornographic material and a lot of violence.	36.3	32.1	15.2	7.7	8.6
The Internet negatively affects activities related to my studies.	11.2	18.9	14.9	27.7	27.3
Perceived service quality of the Internet					
The Internet is not a reliable source of news.	17.1	25.7	39.4	11.9	5.9
I feel frustrated by the slow connection of the Internet.	31.2	27.5	15.8	17.2	8.3

6.8 Barriers to Television and Internet Use

This section examines how participants described the ways in which their patterns of TV viewing and Internet use are restricted or shaped by factors. It further explores differences in the ways that TV and Internet use are perceived as being restricted, and examines how the nature of these restrictions relates to the gender of the participants.

In the qualitative analysis, a number of participants described how the transition from school to university had been a time when their everyday structures and television consumption

patterns changed considerably. Both male and female participants described changes in their TV habits because of their studies. Starting university was described as a major source of disruption to respondents' patterns of television viewing. Participants looked back to the start of their studies when they were still at school, for instance, suggesting a clear difference in the amount of time they watched television then and now.

Compared to female participants, male participants are more likely to restrict their television viewing due to studying at university, and the busy schedules and night lectures that are part of that. This difference may be attributed to the fact that Saudi universities do not offer night lectures for female students. Male students suggest that their viewing habits are restricted by necessity on account of their more hectic schedules which take them away from prime-time TV viewing, particularly on weekdays.

Participants also reported that their television viewing declines when major changes occur (such as studying for exams). The exam period, perhaps unsurprisingly, places more pressure on students to study rather than to watch TV. The data suggested that this decline in TV viewing during the exam period is explained by two different aspects: time constraints and parental regulation. Participants noted that during the exam period, they usually have limited time and devote most of it to studying for exams and, therefore, television becomes less important to them.

> *"When I started my study at university and moved from a lower to a higher level in the university, I became busier with the activities related to my studies, and this led to a decline in the time devoted to watching TV."* (B student-group 1)

> *"I have a busy and intensive schedule at the university all day. Sometimes we finish lectures at 8 pm in the evening. Thus, usually I watch television in the evening after I finish my lectures."* (M student-group 8)

On the other hand, the survey method also examined the restrictions of Internet use. A five-point Likert scale was used to assess students' opinions about the barriers to Internet use. The response options were 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'neither', 'agree' and 'strongly agree'. The 11 original items on this scale were subjected to a principal components analysis, which yielded two factors, each with an eigenvalue larger than 1. Table 6.16 shows that the two factors together accounted for 45.38% of variance in response, the largest individual share of variance being for Internet service provider (ISP) problems (33.63%).

Table 6.16 presents the two factors and the loading of items in each factor. The items intended to measure the barriers to Internet use were factor analysed. Two eigenvalues emerged greater than 1, and the scree plot suggested levelling after the two factors. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 3.631 and explained 33.013 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of eight items related to Internet anxiety. The second factor had an eigenvalue of 1.410 and explained 12.819 of the total variance after rotation. This factor consisted of three items related to Internet service provider (ISP) problems.

The internal consistency of the items loading on each factor was further tested using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the two barriers' factors was tested, using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability coefficient for the first factor related to Internet anxiety was 79, and for the Internet service provider factor it was .78.

Table 6.16: Factor Analysis of Barriers to Internet Use

Factors	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Component	
Internet anxiety	3.631	33.013	33.013	1	2
I find using the Internet difficult because I don't always know what to do.				.774	-.229
Using the Internet makes me feel anxious.				.750	-.219
The lack of training makes it difficult to use the Internet.				.710	-.196
My Internet use is restricted because most websites use English rather than Arabic.				.644	-276
I have difficulty accessing the Internet at home because my use of it is restricted by other members of my family.				.643	-.122
I have a lack of free time to use the Internet.				.610	-.111
I have privacy and security concerns about using the Internet.				.463	.260
I have difficulty accessing the Internet because we don't have a broadband Internet connection.				.441	.138
Internet service provider (ISP) problems	1.410	12.819	45.832		
My Internet connection is very slow.				.307	.671
Internet access is expensive.				.378	.671
My Internet is restricted by my Internet service provider blocking and filtering my software use.				.337	.408

Oshan (2007) classified barriers to Internet use into two types: technological and socio-cultural barriers. Based on Oshan's classification, the current study concerns 'Internet anxiety' and 'Internet service provider (ISP) problems'. Table 7.17 summarises the findings of the barriers to Internet use.

6.8.1 Internet Anxiety

This factor presents findings concerning the fear or apprehension participants experience when using the Internet. As Thatcher et al. (2007) stated, Internet anxiety is a feeling or emotion raised by the use of technologies such as the Internet. Also, Thatcher et al. (2007) highlighted that:

> "Many Internet users remain uncomfortable using Internet applications and instead use traditional methods to accomplish tasks that could be performed over the Internet." (Thatcher et al., 2007:353)

The respondents were asked about their feelings when they use the Internet and how those feelings can be obstacles to Internet use. From Table 6.17, it can be seen that privacy and security are the most important barriers to Internet use. Oshan (2007) highlighted that Saudi students have concerns about their security online due to their perception that they might be at risk from strangers, particularly on chat rooms. Participants had concerns regarding Internet privacy and security, with 60.2% agreeing (a combination of strongly agree and agree) that they have privacy and security concerns about using the Internet. In contrast, a large percentage of the students do not have difficulties when accessing the Internet because of family restrictions.

More participants disagreed that Internet use is difficult because they do not always know what to do. This was shown as 67.7%, taking into account the few students who showed neither response [see Table 6.17]. It seems that the majority of the students have a broadband Internet connection, therefore they do not face any difficulty using the Internet. Furthermore, language is not an obstacle to using the Internet for many students. More than half of the students strongly disagreed that their Internet use is restricted because most websites use English rather than Arabic, while less than a quarter showed neither response. Lack of training in the use of the Internet is not an obstacle to using the Internet, since a large percentage of the students disagreed

that lack of training makes it difficult to use the Internet. In addition, students disagreed that time limitation and difficulty in scheduling enough Internet time is one of the barriers to accessing the Internet.

6.8.2 Internet Service Provider (ISP) Problems

This factor represents opinions about Internet connection, cost and filtering of the Internet. Table 6.17 illustrates that slow Internet connectivity was reported as a problem by the majority of students. Oshan (2007) emphasised that slow Internet connection in Saudi Arabia has been seen as the main problem facing users. In the present study a noticeably high proportion of respondents agreed (a combination of strongly agree and agree) that their Internet connection is very slow, while censorship was cited by a large number of students as one of the problems of using the Internet. More than six out of ten (62%) agreed that the Internet is restricted by blocking and filtering software used by their Internet service provider. Also, more participants complained about Internet access being expensive. Half of the students agreed that Internet access is expensive, whereas nearly one quarter showed neither result.

On the other hand, the focus group discussion suggested that institutions of offline societies, such as universities, impose technical restrictions on Internet use among Saudi students. Universities employ these technical restrictions to block certain content and impose time limits for students' use of the Internet. The discussions demonstrated that university libraries impose diverse Internet usage policies on students, which produce three types of restriction on accessing the Internet: time limits, slow connections and filtering the content. Some participants stated that the library confined their actions to whatever they could do within the 30 minutes allotted daily by management for individual users. Moreover, students mentioned the slow speed of the Internet as another issue associated with accessing it from the library. The

slow connectivity reduces students' opportunities to get information related to studying online. Also, they are not allowed to access many websites. Hence, the authorities in the university are charged with determining what resources a user is permitted to access.

> *"Sometimes I use the library at the university to go online although there are restrictions on the use in terms of time and websites. For example, students cannot use the internet for more than 30 minutes and cannot visit movie or music websites."* (H student-group 5)

> "*My online actions are limited by the slow speed of the internet at home and university. Thus I always face problems downloading some content or uploading images. I am not able to do many online activities at university because of they block many websites and because of the slow connection of the internet."* (L student-group 6)

Table 6.17: Barriers to Internet Use

Issues	Agree	Neither	Disagree
Internet anxiety			
I find using the Internet difficult because I don't always know what to do.	18.7%	13.6%	67.7%
Using the Internet makes me feel anxious.	12.3%	12.8%	74.8%
The lack of training makes it difficult to use the Internet.	29.0%	14.5%	56.5%
My Internet use is restricted because most websites use English rather than Arabic.	21.1%	20.0%	58.9%
I have difficulty accessing the Internet at home because my use of it is restricted by other members of my family.	14.5%	9.9%	75.6%
I have a lack of free time to use the Internet.	25.9%	20.4%	53.7%
I have privacy and security concerns about using the Internet.	60.2%	16.0%	23.9%
I have difficulty accessing the Internet because we don't have a broadband Internet connection.	23.3%	16.7%	60.0%
Internet service provider (ISP) problems			

My Internet connection is very slow.	78.9%	5.5%	15.6%
Internet access is expensive.	51.1%	22.0%	27.6%
My Internet is restricted by my Internet service provider blocking and filtering my software use.	62.4%	17.6%	20.0%

6.9 Discussion

This chapter has discussed the general patterns of Internet use and television viewing, including the frequency of use, time of use, types of TV programme, and types of online activity. This chapter has addressed and answered the research questions 'What are the nature and trends among Saudi university students when watching television and using the Internet?' and 'What are the motives underpinning their use of the Internet?'

The study found that both male and female students use TV and the Internet, and that home is the most common place to access both media. However, male students are more likely to access the Internet from an Internet café than female students. Previous studies in the Arab region (Zakaria et al., 2003; Al-Saggaf, 2004; Al-Saggaf and Williamson, 2004; Khudair, 2005; Oshan and O'Brien, 2005) indicated that females' Internet access from home is more common in the Middle East, predominantly in the Gulf States. However, the findings of the current study do not support all research in other parts of the world. For example, Adomi (2007) and Christos (2011) found that both males and females accessed the Internet from cybercafés. A possible explanation for this might be the fact that women in Saudi Arabia are segregated from men for religious and cultural purposes. Traditionally, women are not expected to participate in open public spheres and therefore cannot access cybercafés. Moreover, temporal patterns of television viewing also occur clearly during events in the holy month of Ramadan when young Saudi people watch more TV. Similarly to television, Internet use is shaped by temporal structures

during special occasions, such as weekends and holiday periods, because of the intensive Internet consumption during these periods.

In terms of the purposes of using media, a key reason for watching TV frequently among young Saudis is its role as an important source of news, while the use of the Internet by young Saudi people is mainly for communication purposes, in particular for using social networks. Moreover, the Internet is frequently used for academic purposes, including searching for information related to studies and visiting university websites. The value of the Internet for educational purposes is further supported by Muniandy (2010), who confirmed that students use the Internet to seek information, especially in relation to academic material.

Nevertheless, the majority of the participants have used the Internet for more than four years. The data revealed that both males and females have the same experience of using the Internet. However, students from private institutions have longer periods of experience of using the Internet compared with their counterparts in public institutions. There are two reasons that may explain this. Firstly, students at private universities normally come from high-income families where they have the ability to buy many computers and pay the cost of Internet access. Secondly, private university students are more fluent in the English language, which is considered to be important for Internet use among young people.

The chapter has also looked at the motives students give for their television viewing and Internet use. Although young Saudi people mainly watch TV for relaxation purposes and use the Internet for information seeking, they use both media for companionship.

There are indications about TV viewing and positive attitudes toward television. The results indicate that perceptions of credibility have been found in the present study as a major factor influencing the watching of news on television. Hence, students tend to watch TV because

of the credibility of television as a source of news. Moreover, although TV and the Internet are deemed to be credible media platforms, distinctions have been made that may affect students' credibility assessments of both media platforms. Credibility judgments of TV are influenced by source expertise, objectivity and audio-visual quality, while credibility judgments of the Internet depend on technological and structural features. These findings are inconsistent with Mehrabi et al. (2009), who found that credibility judgments of TV are influenced by the same factors, such as trustworthiness, clarity of message and accuracy. Also, credibility of using television to get news was rated higher in comparison with the Internet.

On the other hand, young Saudis have positive perceptions about the usefulness of the Internet. Ramayah et al. (2005) suggested that if the user does not find the Internet to be useful than they will most likely give up using it. In the present study, Saudi students believe that the Internet is an important tool for academic purposes, and that it helps to gain various kinds of information. Additionally, the Internet broadens the students' knowledge and connects them with the outside world.

In regard to barriers to television and Internet use, the results find that university schedules and study responsibilities are major obstacles to watching television. However, Saudi males are more likely to restrict their television viewing due to the busy schedules of studying at university. Furthermore, the present study reveals that privacy and security, connectivity, filtering and cost are the factors that influence efficient use of the Internet. Privacy concerns pose a barrier to Internet use. Other common obstacles relate to the slow speed of Internet connection and the high cost of using the Internet. Also, Internet censorship in Saudi Arabia is cited as a problem by Saudi students. This finding is in line with studies conducted previously in the Saudi context that reported concerns with privacy and connectivity (Alshawi and Al-Wabil, 2008; Al-

Wehaibi et al., 2008; Al-Dubayan, 2005; Al-Fulih, 2002; Al-Kahtani, 2006; Al-Khabra, 2003). These studies indicated that the main obstacles preventing them from using the Internet more are connectivity issues, such as slow and dropped connections, followed by privacy concerns when disclosing information. Although the present study suggests similar findings to previous studies in the Saudi context, privacy and security keep Saudi students from using the Internet the most, reflecting the mature culture of conservative Saudi society, which is concerned about privacy in all fields.

In order to explore the relationships that exist between the use of the Internet and television among young well-educated Saudis, the next chapter will: (1) examine the relationships between reported frequencies of watching TV and using the Internet, (2) investigate the relationship between students' attitudes to the Internet and motives for using the Internet, (3) look at how the reported importance of different media correlate with use of TV and use of the Internet, and (4) discuss the correlations between perceived impact of the Internet on other activities and reported frequency of use of the Internet, reported frequency of use of the Internet to watch TV and reported traditional TV viewing.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE USE OF THE INTERNET AND TELEVISION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to results concerning relationships between reported use of television and the Internet. It explores the effect that the Internet use may place television viewing among Saudi young people. More specifically, the chapter examines the following questions:

RQ2.1. Does the greater use of the Internet in general result in less use of television?

RQ2.2. How often do young Saudis go online to watch live streamed television programmes?

RQ2.3. How often do young Saudis go online to watch catch-up television services?

RQ2.4.Does the relationships that exist between the use of the Internet and television differ between females and males?

The initial aim of the data analyses here was to examine the possibility of one medium (television) being reportedly displaced by another medium (the Internet). Previous research has shown that when a new medium for information or entertainment enters a person's environment, it can sometimes displace the time they have devoted to other activities. The entry of the Internet into people's lives has meant that their use of media in the offline world has been displaced (see Robinson and Godbey, 1999; Kestnbaum et al., 2002; Robinson et al., 2001). These studies showed that the Internet offers a diverse landscape of applications that can be put to many and purposes and has changed the way people are informed, entertained and communicate with each other in their everyday lives. Where the Internet has emerged as an important aspect of an individual's daily schedule then it is interesting to see where and to what extent regular Internet users have made adjustments to other activities in their daily routines. It is against this background that the findings reported in the current chapter are framed. An analysis is presented

of the way better educated, young people in Saudi Arabia use the Internet and how this has impacted, if at all, on their use of television and their engagement in a range of other activities.

Although previous studies of displacement effect such as (Lee and Kuo, 2002; Kraut, Kiesler, Boneva, & Shklovski 2006; Lee, 2008) have also applied self-administered questionnaire to examine the displacement effect of the Internet. In this chapter, the analysis reported is based on data obtained from surveys, time-use diaries and focus groups.

This chapter Also examines how the reported importance of different media each correlate with use of TV and use of the Internet, and discuss the correlations between perceived impact of the Internet on other activities and reported frequency of use of the Internet, reported frequency of use of the Internet to watch TV and reported traditional TV viewing.

7.2 Relationship between Internet Attitudes, Television Watching and Internet Use

Correlations between Internet use attitude factors and the frequency of using the Internet showed a significant (positive) association between greater Internet use and higher scores for the 'perceived the usefulness of the Internet' factor (Spearman = .119, $p<.001$). Ramayah et al. (2005) argue that "perceived usefulness is very important in influencing technology usage". However, there was a significant (negative) association between Internet use and scores on the 'Internet affection' factor (Spearman = -.148, $p<.001$). Dutton & Shepherd (2006) noted that experience in using the Internet might lead to positive attitude. The result of this study signified that Saudi students with positive attitudes about the usefulness of the Internet tool were also likely to use the Internet. For instance, the more respondents said they used the Internet, the more they also reported the Internet as a useful tool. Noticeably, there were negative correlations between Internet use and scores on the 'Internet affection' factor. This means that there is

apparent evidence shown so far that greater attitudes of Internet affection was correlated with less use of the Internet.

The focus group data also describe the relationship between Saudi student's perception towards the usefulness of the Internet and their intention to the Internet use particularly in relation to study related activity. The focus group discussion demonstrated that Saudi student' intentions to use the Internet for academic purposes might be based on the perceived ease of use of the Internet. Students use language such as "easy" and "facilitate" to describe their perceptions of how the Internet smoothers the progress of online activities and related study. Factors relating to the ease of use and the ease with which information can be found online appear to influence participants' use of the Internet.

"Since I started using the Internet for my study I have noticed that I can finish my home work in no time and this has improved my academic performance. It is easy and comfortable to find answers on the Internet. It offers many search engines and databases that make study easy". (F: student- group 5)

"The Internet is an important tool for activities related study. It facilitates finding the information online in seconds. Last month we were asked to do a project and I relied entirely on the Internet to do this project. I was awarded an A". (MS student- group 6)

"I always use the Internet for study-related activities. With access to the Internet I no longer need to go to library I can read books online or even buy them online. It is really easy to search for information, read books and submit assignments. I can also use it to keep in touch with lecturers". (Z student- group 7).

The interviews suggested that the perceived usefulness of the Internet is linked to the tendency of participants to believe that using the Internet for academic purposes will facilitate an improvement in their academic performance. The students stated that completing tasks and activities online enables them to complete their work faster and to increase their productivity. Bidin et al. (2011) reached similar conclusions, finding that perceived usefulness was often explained in terms of as whether or not Internet use for academic purposes would lead to the

improvement of curriculum-related outcomes, stating that "perceived usefulness of the Internet was found to be the strongest predictor of intention to use the Internet for academic purposes" (Bidin et al., 2011: 24).

Table 7.1: Internet Attitudes, Television Watching and Internet Use

Spearman's rho	Internet use attitude factor			
	1: Perceived the usefulness of the Internet	**2: Internet affection**	**3: Potential negative aspects of the Internet**	**4: Perceived service quality of the Internet**
Frequency of watching TV	.073	-.038	-.005	-.016
Frequency of using the Internet	.119**	-.148**	-.034	-.006
Frequency of using the Internet to watch TV	.049	.033	-.030	-.004

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

7.3 Relationship between TV Attitudes and Watching Television, and Internet use

Following the identification of these four viewing attitude factors of Television Dependency, Quality-Dependent Viewing, Connectivity and Information Seeking and Passive Television Watching, further analysis sought to identify relationships between items loading on these four factors, and television watching and Internet use behaviours. This assessment help to explore which specific factor is affect the frequency of television viewing and the frequency of using the Internet.

Item scores for those items contributing to each factor were combined, providing an overall score for each individual for each of the four factors; Television Dependency (7 items, minimum score = 7, maximum score = 35), Quality-Dependent Viewing (4 items, minimum score = 4, maximum score = 20), Connectivity and Information Seeking (2 items, minimum

score = 2, maximum score = 10), and Passive Television Watching (3 items, minimum score = 3, maximum score = 15). Correlation analyses are summarised in Table 7.5.

Table 7.2: TV Viewing Attitude Factors, TV Watching and Internet Use

Spearman's rho	Television viewing attitude factor			
	Television Dependency	**Quality-Dependent Viewing**	**Connectivity and Information Seeking**	**Passive Television Watching**
Frequency of watching TV	.343**	.040	.100*	-.139**
Frequency of using the Internet	-.070	0.77	-.062	.083
Frequency of using the Internet to watch TV	.179**	-.026	.010	.017

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Analyses revealed that the television viewing attitude factor with the greatest association to higher scores on frequency of TV viewing was Television Dependency (Spearman = .343**), whereas lower scores on frequency of TV watching was associated with the factor passive television watching (Spearman = -.193**). However, there is a small association between frequency of using the Internet to watch TV online and Television Dependency (Spearman = .179**). This means that the more respondents claimed to believe that TV is a passive media the more that they also reportedly watch television less. Furthermore, there was no evidence that respondents' attitudes towards television affect their Internet use, even though they indicated dependency on TV extends beyond watching TV on a traditional TV set to watching it on the Internet.

7.4 The Importance of Different Media for Different Applications

The survey examined the importance of the Internet for different applications compared to the other forms of mass communication. Students were asked to rate the importance of different media to them as sources of general information, sources of entertainment, sources of study-related information, and in terms of its relevance to their social life on a four point scales: very important, important, not important, not important at all. These four points scales were collapsed into two: very important and important were grouped as important; while not important and not important at all were grouped as not important. It worth to note, that Likert scales are usually 5-point scales, whereas the present research use a 4-point scale. The reasons behind this because leaving out 'neither important nor not important' means that the respondents cannot 'avoid' the question, and must provide a rating of importance one way or the other. Dawes (2001) pointed out that:

> "Using a mid-point could reduce the proportion of positive and negative responses that might be obtained if it were omitted" (Dawes, 2001, p: 2).

7.4.1 Importance of Different Media as Sources of General Information

The majority of participants considered the Internet as an important source of general information compared to other means of mass communication. Table 7.3 shows that the majority of both male and female students reported that the Internet was an important source of general information, followed by a high percentage of students indicated that television was an important source of general information. Also, books and newspapers were considered by a large number of students as an important source of information [see Table 7.3].Approximately half of the participants indicated that radio is an important source of information. On the other hand, there is an equal large proportion of the students reported that magazines are not an important source of

general information (63.6 percent male and 63.4 percent). This finding result is supported by Liang (2007) 71.9 percent of the interviewees believed that the Internet was an important information source

Chi-square analysis was run to determine the significance of the relationship between the importance of different media as sources of general information and gender. The results indicated there were no significant relationships between gender and the importance of the Internet, books, magazines, TV, and radio as source of general information. However, the results revealed that there was significant association between gender and the importance of the newspapers as source of general information (x^2 (3) = 18.273, p <0.05). This finding indicated that both male and female students consider the Internet as an important source of general information comparing with other media. However, female students are more likely to perceive that newspapers are an important source of information than male students. This difference might indicate that Saudi female students read newspaper to seek information more than male students.

Table 7.3: Importance of Different Media as Sources of General Information

	Important		**Not important**	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1- Internet	96.5%	98.6%	3.5%	1.5%
2- Books	72.4%	81.7%	27.6%	18.3%
3- Newspapers	61.7%	68.3%	38.3%	31.6%
4- Magazines	39.5%	36.6%	63.6%	63.4%
5- TV	82.3%	84.5%	17.6%	15.5%
6- Radio	52.8%	53.5%	47.1%	46.5%

7.4.2 Importance of Different Media as Sources of Entertainment

Table 7.4 illustrates that the Internet and television were common sources of entertainment compared with other media. High percentages of the participants believe that the Internet and TV were important sources of entertainment. Half of the male respondents (50.1 percent) and more than half of females (58.1 percent) mentioned that magazine is an important source of entertainment. Roughly half of the participants reported that the radio is an important source of entertainment. On the other hand, roughly half of both genders noted that books and newspapers were not important sources of entertainment. More than half of males and females indicated that newspapers were not important sources of entertainment. Chi-Square analyses, however, indicated no significant relationship between gender and the importance of the Internet, books, newspapers, magazines, TV, and radio as sources of entertainment.

Table 7.4: Importance of Different Media as Sources of Entertainment

		Important		Not important	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1-	Internet	91.5%	92.6%	8.4%	7.4%
2-	Books	46.8%	48.9%	53.2%	51.1%
3-	Newspapers	44.8%	43.7%	55.2%	56.3%
4-	Magazines	50.1%	58.1%	49.8%	41.9%
5-	TV	84.3%	91.5%	15.7%	8.4%
6-	Radio	49.8%	48.3%	50.2%	51.8%

7.4.3 Importance of Different Media as Sources of Study-Related Information

Table 7.5 shows the importance of different media for academic purposes. Approximately all of the students perceived the Internet as an important source of study-related information, followed

by the books. Radio ranked lowest in terms of its importance as a source of information related study, followed by magazines, newspapers and television, respectively. Large percentages of the students reported that books are not important source of study-related information. Both gender indicated that magazines are not important source of information related study (72.0 percent for males and 79.6 percent for females). Almost three quarters of the students reported that newspapers are not important source for their studies [see Table 7.5]. More than half of the participants said that television is not important source of study-related information. Chi-square analysis was run to find out if there were significant differences between males and females on this variable. The results indicated there were no significant relationships between gender and the importance of the Internet, books, magazines, newspapers, TV, and radio as source of study-related information.

Table 7.5: Importance of Different Media as Sources of Study-Related Information

		Important		Not important	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1-	Internet	98.4%	99.6%	1.5%	0.4%
2-	Books	91.2%	91.9%	8.8%	8.1%
3-	Newspapers	31.4%	33.4%	68.6%	66.5%
4-	Magazines	28.0%	20.4%	72.0%	79.6%
5-	TV	42.9%	35.5%	57.1%	64.5%
6-	Radio	19.2%	18.7%	80.9%	81.3%

7.4.4 Importance of Different Media in terms of Their Relevance to Social Life

It can be see clearly in Table 7.6 that the Internet emerged as the most important medium in relation to social life. The majority of the students indicated that the Internet is important in terms of its relevance to social life. Similarly, TV was considered by a high proportion of

respondents to be important with regard to social life. Roughly half of the female students reported that books play an important role in relation to social life while male students noted that books are not important.

Magazines, radio, and newspapers were least often endorsed in this context. Equal proportions of the male and female students expressed the view that magazines are not important in terms of their relevance to social life. Also, it seems that radio regarded by both genders as unimportant to social life. Moreover, half of the participants indicated that newspapers is not important media in relation to social life [see Table 7.6]. A Chi-Square indicated no significant relationship between gender and the importance of the Internet, newspapers, magazines, TV, and radio in terms of its relevance to social life. However, the results revealed that there was significant association between gender and the importance of books in terms of its relevance to to social life ($x^2(3) = 61.946$, $p < 0.05$). This difference might mean that female students are more likely to read books than male students.

Table 7.6: Importance of Different Media in terms of Relevance to Social Life

		Important		Not important	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1-	Internet	88.5%	92.2%	11.5%	7.8%
2-	Books	22.2%	52.1%	77.8%	47.8%
3-	Newspapers	47.9%	48.9%	52.1%	51.1%
4-	Magazines	30.6%	30.3%	69.3%	69.7%
5-	TV	96.0%	71.7%	31.0%	28.8%
6-	Radio	33.7%	33.1%	66.3%	66.9%

7.5 Relationship between the Importance of Media and Frequency of Watching TV/Using the Internet/using the Internet to Watch TV.

This part of the analysis presents the correlation relationships (Spearman's *rho* tests) between the importance of different media and the claimed consumption of television and the Internet.

7.5.1 The Importance of Media as Sources of Entertainment

Table 7.7 shows correlations between the importance of media (by type) as a source of entertainment and frequency of watching TV/using the Internet/using the Internet to watch TV. This is suggests that the frequency of using the Internet is only related to the importance of the Internet for entertainment (r =.102*) where Saudi young people frequently use the Internet because it is an important source of entertainment. However, watching TV either via a traditional set, or via the Internet, is more related to the importance of other types of media for entertainment. The analyses Also revealed a significant correlation between importance of TV as a source of entertainment and the frequency of watching TV (r =.316**), and there is a stronger association between the importance of the Internet as a source of entertainment and frequency of watching TV via the Internet than simply using the Internet (r =.146**). This implied that the frequency of using the Internet and the frequency of using the Internet to watch TV among students due to their perception of the importance of the the Internet for entertainment. Further, although the importance of the Internet as a source of entertainment reduce the frequency of watching TV set among Saudi young people, the importance of the Internet as a source of entertainment shift their viewing to watch TV online .

Table 7.7: The Importance of Media as Sources of Entertainment and Frequency of Watching TV/Using the Internet.

	Importance of media for entertainment					
	Internet	**Books**	**Newspapers**	**Magazines**	**TV**	**Radio**
Frequency of watching TV	-.112**	-.030**	.149**	.095*	.316**	.069
Frequency of using the internet	.102*	.017	.012	.042	-.017	-.006
Frequency of using the internet to watch TV	.146**	-.015	.084*	.116**	.106*	.070

*=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<.001.

However, the qualitative analysis demonstrated that the both TV and the Internet provide an entertainment function young Saudi perceive the Internet as an important source of entertainment because it offered enormous range of leisure activities involving video and audio streaming and downloading service which rendering the Internet a more important source of entertainment.

> *"In the past television was able to meet the entertainment needs of the people, but nowadays the Internet fuses all these traditional forms of entertainment media such as television"* (M student-group 5)

> *"The Internet is an important source of entertainment. Now I can use the Internet to watch my favourite soap opera which I used to watch it on TV set".* (T student-group 7)

The entertainment function which was provided by TV is now available online. The presence of the Internet has change participants viewing habits of TV for entertainment purposes. They watch TV online for entertainment needs.

7.5.2 The Importance of Media as Sources of General Information

Table 7.8 shows correlations between the importance of media (by type) as a source of general information and frequency of watching TV/using the Internet/using the Internet to watch TV. The frequency of using the Internet was not related to the importance of the Internet for general

information, wheras watching TV either via a traditional TV set, or via the Internet is more related to the importance of other types of media for general information. The analyses revealed a significant correlation between the importance of TV as a source of general information and the frequency of watching TV (r =.357**). This finding indicated that when students perceive television as an important source of information support, there is a corresponding increase in TV viewing. As mentioned earlier, Saudi students reported that TV remains the number one source of news and this might be one of the motives of watching TV among participants.

Table 7.8: The importance of Media as Sources of General Information and Frequency of Watching TV/Using the Internet/Using the Internet to Watch TV.

	Importance of media for general information					
	Internet	**Books**	**Newspapers**	**Magazines**	**TV**	**Radio**
Frequency of watching TV	.103	-.085*	-.112**	.172**	.357**	.047
Frequency of using the internet	.083	-.068	-.007	-.005	-.010	-.041
Frequency of using the internet to watch TV	.065*	-.107*	.086*	.171**	.194**	.092*

*=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<.001.

7.5.3 The Importance of Media as Sources of Study-Related Information

Table 7.9 shows correlations between the importance of media (by type) as a source of study-related information and frequency of watching TV/using the Internet/using the Internet to watch TV. The frequencies of using Internet were related to the importance of the Internet for study-related information (r =.72**), wheras there was no association between the importance of the TV as a sources of study-related information and the frequency of watching television and the frequency of using the Internet to watch TV. These findings indicate that Saudi students who reported that the Internet is an important source of study-related information are frequency use

the Internet. This could mean that Saudi students' choice of different media would depend on their evaluation of the importance of specific media for satisfying existing demands.

7.9: The Importance of Media as Source of Study-Related Information and Frequency of Watching TV/Using the Internet/Using the Internet to Watch TV.

	Importance of media for study- related information					
	Internet	**Books**	**Newspapers**	**Magazines**	**TV**	**Radio**
Frequency of watching TV	.008	-.035	.080	.005	-.119**	-.065
Frequency of using the internet	.028	.072**	.101*	.17*	-.212*	-.123*
Frequency of using the internet to watch TV	.024	-.002	-.026	-.004	-.034	-.033

*=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<.001.

7.5.4 The Importance of Media to Social Life

Table 7.10 presents the correlations between the importance of media (by type) in terms of its relevance to social life and frequency of watching TV/using the Internet/using the Internet to watch TV. Suggests frequency of using the Internet is only related to the importance of the Internet in terms of its relevance to social life (r =.202*), whereas watching TV either via a traditional TV set, or via the Internet, is more related to importance of other types of media in terms of its relevance to social life. In addition, the analyses revealed a significant correlation between Importance of TV in terms of its relevance to social life and the frequency of watching TV (r =.227**), and there is a stronger association between the importance of the Internet in terms of its relevance to social life and frequency of watching TV via the Internet than simply using the Internet (r =.114**). These results meant that.the importance of the Internet for social life were associated with increases in the frequency of using the Internet and using the Internet to watch TV among Saudi young people.

7.10: The Importance of Media to Social Life and Frequency of Watching TV/Using the Internet/Using the Internet to Watch TV.

	Importance of media in terms of its relevance to social life					
	Internet	**Books**	**Newspapers**	**Magazines**	**TV**	**Radio**
Frequency of watching TV	-.091*	.003	.134**	.100	.227**	.024
Frequency of using the internet	.202**	.007	.005	.048	.018	-.075
Frequency of using the internet to watch TV	.114**	.031	.090*	.184**	.173**	.055

*=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<.001.

7.6 Perceived Impact of Using the Internet on other Activities

The objective of this section is to measure the effect of time students spent on the Internet on time devoted to other activities. Kiesler et al. (2002) highlighted that with the rapidly evolving use of the Internet in most aspects of our daily life we should identify its social impact and the behaviours leading to this impact. These findings report respondents' opinions about how the use of one medium may have affected their use of another medium Students were asked to indicate the effect of time spent on the Internet on time devoted to other activities on a five scales: decreased a lot, decreased somewhat, remained the same, increased somewhat, and increased a lot. These scales were minimized into three: remained the same, decreased a lot, decreased somewhat were grouped as decreased; while increased somewhat and increased a lot were grouped as increased.

The results in Table 7.11 show that communicating with parents, reading newspapers, and reading magazines were the activities that decreased for most people due to the use of the Internet. A large percentage of participants reported that the Internet had affected the time devoted to watching television. They reported that their Internet use reduced their TV viewing. Engaging in listening to radio and reading books were also affected by using the Internet. The

majority of the students expressed that the time of listening to radio decreased and the time of reading books had decreased because of the Internet use. Frequency of Internet use was negatively associated with the low frequency with which respondents communicate with brothers and sisters and interact with family members. Large number of the students indicated that the Internet use has decreased the time allocated to communicate with brothers and sisters and the time allocated to interact with family members. Also, roughly half of the respondents noted that the time of playing sports has decreased since they started using the Internet while less than half reported that it remained the same [see Table 7.11].

The influence of Internet use was not the same for all activities, there are some activities that are not affected by using the Internet. The majority of the students indicated that their performance of the daily prayers was not affected by their use of the Internet. More than three quarters of the students reported that performance of the daily prayer remained the same as before they began to use the Internet. Further, there was no significant change in the time spent socializing with friends. More than half of the participants noted that the activities of socializing with friends remained the same while roughly quarter reported that socializing with friends has decreased because of using the Internet. Although some respondents did say that they socialization patterns had changed approximately half of the students reported that communicating with colleagues and or classmates, communicating with friends, and Communicating with other relatives remained the same since they started the Internet [see Table 7.11]. In addition, half of the students stated that the time spend on studying has remained the same since using the Internet whereas less than half reported that the time spend on studying has decreased. This indicates that there was socially significant impact of the use of the Internet among Saudi students on family communication. This confirmed by Al-Oweidy (2003) who

found that the time Saudi young people spend on using the Internet affect their relationship with their family.

A Chi-Square analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between gender and the impact of the Internet on other activities showing a statistically significant relationship between gender and the impact of the Internet on watching television (χ^2 (4) = 13.527, p <0.05). This suggests that male and female students were different in their perceptions of the impact of the Internet on TV viewing. Male students concluded that Internet use reduced their viewing of TV more than did female students. Further tests showed statistically significant differences between the impact of the Internet on interact with family members and gender (χ^2 (4) = 70.187, p <0.05), and between the effect of using the Internet on engaging with playing sports and gender (χ^2 (4) = 13.661, p <0.05). Furthermore, the results indicated a significant relationship between gender and the impact of the Internet use on reading magazines (χ^2 (4) = 16.304, p <0.05), and between the effect of Internet use on communicating with parents and gender (χ^2 (4) = 72.127, p <0.05). This indicated that the impact of the Internet on social life, playing sports, and reading magazines were different between males and females. More male student's postings mentioned that the Internet had affected their social life. While more females students postings mentioned that the Internet had affect their engaging with playing sports, and on reading magazines. It seems possible that these results are a reflection of the traditional strict nature of Saudi culture where females are expected to stay at home more than males.

Table 7.11: Perceived Impact of Using the Internet on Other Activities

Activities	Decreased	Remained the same	Increase
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Watching television	73.7%	21.1%	5.2%
Reading newspapers	75.6%	21.5%	3.0%
Listening to radio	67.7%	26.6%	5.7%
Reading books.	68.1%	22.8%	9.2%
Reading magazines	76.8%	20.2%	2.9%
Performs the daily prayers	20.5%	73.0%	6.5%
Interact with family members	61.2%	27.2%	11.4%
Socializing with friends	24.8%	54.7%	20.5%
The time spend on studying	42.9%	50.1%	7.0%
Playing sports	52.3%	41.7%	6.0%
Communicating with colleagues and/or classmates	27.6%	52.7%	19.8%
Communicating with friends	22.4%	51.7%	25.8%
Communicating with parents	78.6%	12.5%	9.0%
Communicating with brothers and sisters.	64.9%	20.9%	14.2%

On the other hand, the diary survey examines the time Saudi students spent on Internet activities and on general activities. The Pearson correlations between average time spent on *internet activities* and individual *general* (or offline) activities are shown in Table 7.12. The following items had the largest negative correlations with average time on *internet activities*: housework (-.68), commuting (-.64), visiting friends at their house (-.61), studying (-.48), and reading (-.43). For each of these general activities, more time spent on them was associated with *less* time on

average spent on the Internet. Interestingly, there were no significant *positive* correlations between average Internet time and the individual general activities. In other words, there was no general activity for which more time spent on the Internet was associated with more average time on other activity. This finding indicates that students who spend more time on the Internet they are less likely doing housework, commuting, studying, visiting friends, and reading.

Table 7.12: Correlations between Average Times Spent on Internet and Other Activities.

	Average time spent on *internet activities*
Eating	-.10
Commuting	-.64**
Working	-
Studying	-.48**
Sport/leisure	.25**
Housework	-.68**
Shopping	-.38**
Praying	.11
Watching TV	-.28**
Reading	-.43**
Visiting friends at their house	-.61**
Visiting relatives at their house	.11

*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

7.7 Relationship between Perceived Impact of the Internet on other Media Use and Frequency of Watching TV, Using the Internet, and Watching TV via the Internet

It has been reported previously that those people who are using the Internet should be more likely to spend less time on television (Kaynay & Yelsma, 2000; Nie & Hillygus 2002; Kraut et al., 2004). The current study attempted to examine this correlation. In so doing, reported using the Internet was correlated with decline in television viewing. Significant correlations emerged using the Pearson *r* correlation test.

The relationship between perceived impact of the Internet on other media use and frequency of watching TV, using the Internet, and watching TV via the Internet was measured by correlation analysis using Spearman's rho (*r*s). Since starting to use the Internet, 36.5% of respondents report that their television watching has decreased a lot. Analyses revealed a significant correlation between respondents perceived decrease in TV watching since using the Internet and frequency of TV watching (Spearman's = .257**), suggesting lower frequency of TV watching was associated with a perceived decrease in TV watching.

Concerning the relationship between times spent watching TV and time spent on individual Internet activities, it was interesting to see that the amount of Internet use was on browsing the Internet does not affect their time of watching television while negatively associated with chatting or playing online games on the internet. The time diary data also indicated that as more time was spent on chatting on the Internet, playing online games, or watching movies online, less time was spent watching TV. Pearson correlations were used to assess any associations between average time spent on watching TV and average time spent on individual Internet activities. Findings are presented in Table 7.13. The Pearson correlations indicated a large positive relationship time reportedly spent watching TV and time reportedly spent browsing the internet (.63) or listening to music online (.21). There were also large negative correlations were seen between time spent watching TV and chatting on the Internet (-.57), or playing online games (-.44).

These findings indicated that the time students reported spending browsing the Internet did not apparently affect the time they reportedly devoted to watching television. However, the time students said they spent on chatting on the Internet, playing online games, watching movies online, and chatting online were linked to less time spent watching TV. Kraut at el. (2006)

confirmed that using the internet for entertainment would lead to declines in television viewing. This finding was also confirmed by focus group discussions and survey results which indicate that students perceive the Internet as an important source of entertainment. Furthermore, blogging activities and TV viewing were negatively correlated. This signifies that the more time students spent blogging the less time they spent watching TV. This finding in consistent with Masana & Ayako (2008) who found that young people who blog online are increasingly watching television, and they watch television while interacting with other people through blogs. However, there are positive correlations between other online activities and watching TV. Browsing the Internet, watching online TV, listening to music and radio on the Internet were positively correlated with time reportedly spent watching TV set which indicates that the more students browsed the Internet, watched online TV, or listened to online music and radio, the more they also watched television.

Table 7.13: Correlations between Average Time Spent Watching TV and On Different Internet Activities.

	Average time spent watching TV
Music	.21*
Movies	-.25**
Games	-.44**
Chatting	-.57**
Browsing	.63**
Messenger	-.01
Email	.09
Online banking	-.08
Blogging	-.36**
Information seeking	-.10
Radio online	.21*
TV online	.39**
Social networking	-.14

*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Additionally, the dairy data provided some insights into relationships between different activities in terms of the amounts of time allocated to them by the research participants. To find out whether this was true, multivariate statistical tests were run to find out which offline and online activities would emerge as the most powerful predictors of television watching.

A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to identify whether the time spent watching TV could be accounted for by time spent on individual general and Internet activities. Time spent watching TV was the dependent variable, and the individual general and internet activities were entered into the regression model as simultaneous predictors. Time spent working was not included in the model, since no respondents reported engaging in this activity. Furthermore, time spent eating was excluded since it was redundant, in that it was a combination of two or more of the other variables in the model (i.e., multicollinear).

The regression model was statistically significant and accounted for 99.7% of the variance, $F(22,119) = 2001.313$, $p < .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .997$. The regression coefficients are shown in Table 7.10. Most of the activities contributed unique variance to the model prediction of watching TV, with the exception of praying, online gaming, browsing the internet, and listening to the radio online.

The results indicated that time spent on other activities accounted for 97.6% - 100% of the variance in 'time spent watching TV' (depending on whether the results for 'all participants', 'males' or 'females' were examined). Thus, essentially all of the variance in time spent watching TV was predictable from the other activities. In other words, the 'general' and 'internet' activities included in the time diary were effectively the only variables which affected time spent watching TV. For general activities, time spent on commuting, studying, sport, house work, shopping, reading, visiting friends, and visiting relatives have decreased time spent on TV

viewing. For internet- based activities, time spent on music, movies, chatting, Messenger, email, online banking, blogging, information seeking, TV online, and social network decreased time spent on TV viewing. However, this result is contradicted with previous studies (Mutz, Robert, & van Vuuren, 1993; Comstock & Scharrer, 1999) which argue that television viewing affected time allocation for movie, radio, and reading.

Table 7.14: Predictors of Average Time Spent Watching TV (All Participants).

	B	*SE*	*t*	*P*
Constant	365.40	27.90	13.098	<.001***
Commuting	2.94	.16	18.309	<.001***
Studying	-.82	.05	-15.391	<.001***
Sport/leisure	-.50	.05	-10.764	<.001***
Housework	-.41	.10	-4.048	<.001***
Shopping	.29	.07	4.193	<.001***
Praying	.00	.04	.000	1.00
Reading	-.82	.07	-11.154	<.001***
Visiting friends at their house	19.38	1.12	17.247	<.001***
Visiting relatives at their house	19.38	1.13	17.217	<.001***
Music (internet)	-.36	.07	-5.004	<.001***
Movies (internet)	-5.05	.24	-21.099	<.001***
Games (internet)	.00	.03	.000	1.00
Chatting (internet)	-1.00	.06	-17.881	<.001***
Browsing (internet)	-.15	.11	-1.371	.173
Messenger (internet)	-5.19	.22	-23.796	<.001***
Email (internet)	7.78	.28	28.071	<.001***
Online banking (internet)	.93	.14	6.791	<.001***
Blogging (internet)	-1.85	.09	-20.080	<.001***
Information seeking (internet)	-.95	.08	-11.866	<.001***
Radio online (internet)	.49	.33	1.457	.148
TV online (internet)	-8.24	.40	-20.512	<.001***
Social networking (internet)	-.75	.08	-9.159	<.001***

Note. Overall Regression Model: $F(22,119) = 2001.313$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .999$, Adj. $R^2 = .997$. The following activities were excluded: working (no variance), eating (multicollinearity).

However, the diary data found gender differences in relation to which offline and online activities would emerge as the most powerful predictors of television watching. The results indicated that time spent on other activities accounted for 97.6% - 100% of the variance in time spent watching TV by male students. All of the variance in time spent watching TV was predictable from commuting, sport/leisure, house work, chatting online, and browsing the internet. In other words, the more time male students spent on commuting, sport/leisure, house work, chatting online, and browsing the Internet the less time they spent watching television.

Table 7.15: Predictors of TV Watching (Male Participants)

	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Constant	142.75	4.99	28.605	<.001***
Commuting	-.31	.11	-2.908	.005**
Sport/leisure	-.23	.05	-4.527	<.001***
Housework	.87	.42	2.069	.044*
Praying	.00	.07	.000	1.00
Reading	.00	.17	.000	1.00
Games (Internet)	.00	.05	.000	1.00
Chatting (Internet)	-.82	.12	-6.916	<.001***
Browsing (Internet)	.32	.15	2.097	.041*
Messenger (Internet)	-.11	.10	-1.135	.262
Social networking (Internet)	-.15	.09	-1.708	.094

Note. Overall Regression Model: $F(10,50) = 243.315$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .980$, Adj. $R^2 = .976$. The following activities were excluded due to multicollinearity: eating, studying, visiting friends, listening to music (internet), watching movies (internet), email (internet), online banking (internet), writing/reading blog (internet), information seeking (internet), listening to radio (internet). Working was excluded due to lack of variance.

For females, the model accounted for 97.7% of the total variance in time spent watching TV, $F(10,50) = 232.305$, $p < .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .977$. The coefficients are shown in Table 7.16. Some activities were excluded from the regression model due to problems with multicollinearity such as eating, studying, and housework. The results indicated that time spent on other activities

accounted for 97.7% - 100% of the variance in time spent watching TV by female students. All of the variance in time spent watching TV was predictable from visiting friends at their house, and visiting relatives at their house. In other words, the more time female students spent on visiting friends at their house, and visiting relatives at their house the less time they spent watching television.

Overall, the big predictors of TV viewing for males were time spent commuting, playing sport, chatting on the Internet and to a minor degree browsing on the Internet. Commuting, sport and chatting online were all negative related to TV viewing and this might indicate that the more time males spent on these activities, the less time they spent on TV. Among female students there were no Internet variables predicted TV viewing at all. The only significant predictors were the amount of time spent visiting friends and relatives at their houses. In other word, the time Saudi females spent on Internet activities does not decreased the time they spent on watching TV, while time they spent visiting friends and relatives decreased their TV viewing. The finding of the current study is not surprising because, in Saudi Arabia culture, females are more likely than males involves in social activities, so allocate time for these activities reduced time they spent on watching TV.

Table 7.16: Predictors of TV Watching (Female Participants)

	B	*SE*	*t*	*P*
Constant	285.00	4.99	28.506	.252
Commuting	-.04	.10	-1.123	.94
Sport/leisure	.00	.05	.000	1.00
Praying	.00	.07	.000	1.00
Reading	.00	.08	.000	1.00
Visiting friends at their house	-.23	.05	-6.815	<.001***

Visiting relatives at their house	-.22	.012	-4.243	<.001***
Music (Internet)	-1.08	.07	-1.122	.252
Games (Internet)	1.83	.17	-1.607	.091
Chatting (Internet)	-1.00	.15	-1.135	.262
Browsing (Internet)	-.39	.04	-1.708	.094
Messenger (Internet)	-1.50	.05	-1.135	.262
Online banking (Internet)	-.89	.10	-1.608	.092
Blogging (Internet)	-.80	.08	-1.135	.222
Information seeking (Internet)	-.10	.13	-1.701	.090
Radio online (Internet)	-7.15	.05	-1.111	.255
Social networking (Internet)	-.10	.06	-1.680	.089

Note. Overall Regression Model: $F(16,64) = 232.305$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 980$, Adj. $R^2 = .977$. The following activities were excluded due to multicollinearity: eating, studying, housework, shopping, watching movies online (internet), email (internet), watching TV online (internet). Working was excluded due to lack of variance.

7.8 Using the Internet to Watch TV

This section considers the research questions of the study in relation to participants' use of the Internet to watch television, including the reasons for watching TV online. Zmikly (2007) argues that "television is finding new ways to combat the Internet's success or else become a part of it". Participants in the present research were asked to indicate how often they use the Internet to watch TV". Table 7.17 illustrates the frequently use of the Internet to watch television among students. More than one third of the students use the Internet to watch television occasionally. Also, twenty percent of the students indicated that they frequently use the Internet to watch television while minority of the participants uses it most of the time.

When students were asked why they watched TV online, four reasons were given. It seems that the most significant reasons for watching TV on the Internet were personal convenience and to avoid advertising. Another reason for using the Internet to watch TV was the fact that with Internet TV they can catch up with missing programmes. Nearly half of the students reported that they watched television on the Internet to catch up with missing programmes. In addition, over

one third of the students reported that watching TV over the Internet also brings the opportunity to watch any sort of programming participants' desire, whenever they desire.

Previous literature about uses and gratifications theory argued that the Internet has complementary effects on traditional media (Dutta-Bergman, 2004; Lee & Leung, 2006) which mean that the Internet has complementary functions for the traditional media and traditional media will still exist to complement the Internet in serving some same functions (see Chapter four). A major motivation for watching TV online among participants is to catch up on missed episodes of TV shows. The focus group discussion also demonstrated that participants reportedly watched TV online for two reasons; for the ability to view their favourite shows at any time and for personal convenience. Further, using the Internet to watch TV allows them to escape the broadcast schedule. They can watch TV at any time via the internet, which is convenient when programmes are broadcast at inconvenient times on TV. Moreover, participants find it is very convenient to watch TV online, as they can access numerous channels all over the world using any searching engine, allowing them to locate and watch their favourites programmes in seconds.

> "*When I missed an episode of my favourite show on TV I turn to the Internet to watch it. The best things of the Internet is that I can watch TV programme or show whenever they want, and find any programme by searching it in Google" "* (A student- group 7)

Further, Chi-Square analyses were run to determine the relationship between gender and the reasons of watching television on the Internet. Chi-square results indicate that there were significant relationship between gender and watching television online because of the ability of watching the favourite programmes at any time ($x^2(1) = 14.743$, $p < 0.05$), between gender and personal convenience ($x^2(1) = 12.820$, $p < 0.05$), and gender and to avoid the commercial interruptions ($x^2(1) = 14.690$, $p < 0.05$), with more female students watch TV online because of

the ability of watching the favourite programmes at any time and for personal convenience. These findings probably due to that Saudi female are less likely than males to have more time to media use. However, there was no significant relationship between gender and watching television on the Internet to catch up with missing programmes ($x^2(1) = 0.561$, $p > 0.05$). This means that both gender watch online TV in order to catch up with missing programmes.

Table 7.17: Using the Internet to Watch TV

	Freq.	Percent
1- Frequently	110	20.2%
2- Most of the time	74	13.6%
3- Sometimes	189	34.7%
4- Rarely	130	23.9%
5- Never (if never skip the next question)	42	7.7%
Total	**545**	**100%**

7.8.1 Relationship between Using the Internet to watch TV and General Internet Use and Traditional Set TV Viewing

To shed more light on patterns of viewing and online behaviour we need to see the relationship between using the Internet to watch TV and general Internet use and traditional set TV viewing. Suni (2007) noted that television began to take on new mobile and Internet forms and this is the process of the presence of one medium in another.

Correlation analyses using Spearman's rho identified a small but significant correlation between the frequency of watching broadcast television and the frequency of using the Internet to watch television both overall (r_s=.177, p<.001), and for both males (r_s=.230, p<.001) and females (r_s=.128, p<.05). However, no significant correlation was found between the frequency of overall Internet use and the frequency of using the Internet to watch television among all participants (r_s=.051, p=.237), as well as for males only (r_s=.105, p=.090) and for females only

(r_s=.000, p=.987). The current findings suggest that traditional television watching via a TV set is associated with watching television via the Internet, whereas using the Internet is not associated with watching television via the Internet. Although these correlations are only small, this association is shown to be slightly greater for males than for females. It seems that when it comes to watching TV programmes, the first choice for Saudi students is not the Internet. It might that they are using online video to fill in the gaps. They will watch this content online when it is not convenient or feasible to watch on traditional TV.

7.9 Discussion

This chapter has examined data on relationships between reported consumption of television and the Internet use. The results in this chapter showed that the Internet and TV share some of the same functions such as the provision of news and entertainment, but the Internet can cater for these functions in a more appealing fashion which may pose a threat to the importance of TV. Kraut *et al.* (2006) argued that the Internet may displace television as a source of both entertainment and news, since it is offering a wide range of content and material. Both media have been considered as providing a global perspective.

Although the findings revealed no relationship between Internet use attitude factors and frequency of watching TV, they showed significant (positive) associations between greater reported Internet use and higher scores for the perceived usefulness of the Internet.

Overall, the results generally signified that the more Saudi students perceived the usefulness of the Internet the more they use the Internet. In other words, they frequently use the Internet because they perceive the Internet as useful tool. For instance, both qualitative and quantitative data found that the more Saudi students reported they used the Internet because it is a useful tool for education activities. This indicates that perceived ease of use and perceived

usefulness of the Internet influence Saudi students' intention to use the Internet for academic purposes. However, there were negative correlations between Internet use and the Internet affection' factor. This means that there is apparent evidence shown that Saudi young adults who perceived the Internet affection are less likely to use the Internet.

Moreover, further analyses were computed to explore the relationships between TV Attitudes and Watching Television, and the Internet. Different correlations coefficients (Spearman's *rho*) emerged both within and between attitudes towards TV and frequency of watching television. The findings indicated that Saudi students who depended on television were more likely to watch TV on a traditional TV set and TV online whereas Saudi students who believe that TV is a passive medium were less likely to watch traditional TV and online TV. This may indicate that because Saudi young people exhibit a dependency on TV they extend beyond watching TV on a traditional TV set to watching it on the Internet.

Further analyses examined the importance of the Internet for different applications compared to the other forms of mass communication in order to give a clear explanation of Internet use among students in terms of how Saudi students considered the Internet to be important source of entertainment, source study-related information, and important or social life. The findings indicated that both male and female students considered the Internet as an important source of general information as compared to other media. However, female students were more likely to perceive that newspapers are an important source of information than male students. This difference might indicate that Saudi female students read newspaper to seek information more than male students. Moreover, Saudi students perceived the Internet as an important source of study-related information which confirms that Saudi young people use the Internet because it is useful tool for education purposes. The findings also indicate that Saudi males and females

consider the Internet and television were important sources of entertainment and for social life compared with other media.

This chapter has also examined the relationship between the importance of different media for different applications. Correlations between the importance of the Internet and frequency of watching TV/using the Internet/using the Internet to watch TV revealed that Saudi young people who frequency use the Internet for entertainment purposes were less likely to watch TV indicating that the Internet has deceloped into a medium that has surpassed TV for the purpose of entertainment. Furthermore, the study revealed a significant correlation between Importance of TV in terms of its relevance to social life and the frequency of watching TV. This indicates that young Saudi who perceive the importance television for social life are more likely to watch TV. Nevertheless, the importance of the Internet as social meduim were associated with increases in the frequency of watching TV online. In other word, Saudi young people who use the Internet as social medium were less likely to watch TV on traditional set and more likely to watch TV online. This means that the trend of media use among Saudi young people does appear to be moving towards less TV viewing and more TV online because of using the Internet for social purposes. This might indicate that when Saudi young people use the Internet for social purposes such as chatting with friends, the less likely to watch TV set and prefer to watch it online.

However, the data pointed out that television was the preferred form of media for obtaining information, suggesting that Saudi students who use TV for general information were more likely to watch television both on traditional TV set and online. This indicates that the information function of TV remains prominent and unchallenged, and the Internet has not overtaken TV with regard to other functions.

In addition, in relation research question 'has an increase in the use of the Internet resulted in a reduction in users' involvement in other activities?' the study explored the relationship between the perceived impact of the Internet on the use of other media and frequency of watching TV, using the Internet and watching TV via the Internet. Consistent with previous studies (Kaynay & Yelsma, 2000; Nie & Hillygus, 2002; Pronovost; 2002) on the impact of the Internet on different activities, the present study found that using the Internet decreases the amount of time that students spend reading magazines and watching television. In addition, the time diary data revealed that Saudi young people who spent time on Internet activities spent less time doing housework, commuting, studying, visiting friends and reading. Moreover, the correlation between the perceived decrease in TV viewing and frequency of watching television suggesting lower frequency of TV watching was associated with a perceived decrease in TV watching. This indicates that students who spend less time watching television believe that their TV viewing has decreased due to their Internet use.

On the other hand, the diary data found gender differences in relation to which offline and online activities would emerge as the most powerful predictors of television watching. The more time Saudi male students spent on commuting, sport/leisure, house work, chatting online, and browsing the Internet the less time they spent watching television while the more time female students spent on visiting friends at their house, and visiting relatives at their house the less time they spent watching television. This means that Saudi females' media use is more likely than males to be affected by engaging in social commitments.

In respect to examining how often young Saudis go online to watch live streamed TV programmes, the data shows that both males and females are using the Internet to watch TV programmed. Saudi students were quite evenly split between personal conveniences and

avoiding the commercial interruptions as major reasons of watching TV online. In contrast, Liang (2007) identified two different reasons for watching TV online. Firstly, it is an alternative choice when there is no TV set or when their family members choose other programs. Secondly, some programs are not accessible through TV but are indeed accessible through the Internet. Moreover, gender differences become apparent when students using the Internet to watch TV. According to Nielson study (2009) women are twice as likely as men to tune into network television on the Web. In the current study Saudi female students are more likely than males to watch TV online because of the ability of watching their favourite programmes at any time and for personal convenience. A possible explanation for this finding is that the gender role of Saudi females in the household might make their TV viewing unscheduled (Al-Heizan, 2010). Therefore, they tend to watch TV online because of the ability of watching the favourite programmes.

The next chapter summarises and discusses the main findings of the study in the context of wider research literature and addresses the extent to which the main study questions have been efficiently answered. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are also discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE USE OF TV AND THE INTERNET IN THE SOCIAL CONTEXT

8.1 Introduction

This chapter examines how television and the Internet fit into the family life of Saudi young people. One of the questions of particular interest in this study pertains to understanding how students consume television and the Internet in the social context. This chapter presents data from the focus groups, questionnaire survey and time diary to explore the role of the family in shaping or determining TV viewing habits and Internet use. Further, given the culture of Saudi society in respect of gender which is a significant factor that determines the media use within the households, this has also been examined in this chapter.

More specifically, the aim of this chapter is to investigate the following questions:

RQ3.1. How is Internet and television use shaped by family restrictions?

RQ3.2. How does online behaviour fit into the social lives of Saudi young people?

RQ3.3. What kinds of family restrictions do Saudi young people face regarding television and Internet use?

RQ3.4. Do family restrictions differ between females and males?

8.2 Television Use in the Family Life of Saudi Young People

To grasp the social context of television viewing, the respondents of both the survey and focus group were asked whether they usually watched TV at home in the company of their parents, siblings or friends. As discussed in Chapter Six the home is commonly the place where students watch TV the most. Focus group interviews revealed that these Saudi students carried out most

of their TV viewing in common house space such as the living room or family rooms. They were more likely to pair TV viewing with social interaction than with any other activity and use television as a means of joining in conversations with their family and friends. The qualitative data suggests that television offers opportunities for social interaction between family members and friends, suggesting that television offers a number of social aspects such as generating a sense of togetherness, providing topics for conversations and facilitating interaction. Television viewing with others may provide an immediate opportunity to engage in conversation.

The research revealed that participants used television as point of contact between them and their family members, drawing them together for discussions, negotiations and analysis of practical programmes. Television supports two forms of social interaction: first, when participants are chatting with their family during the process of watching television programmes and second, when participants talk or discuss with their friends what they have seen on TV or which programmes they are going to watch. Participants stated that the enjoyment of a television programmes was tinged with the anticipation of discussing it with friends later. Interesting and exciting programmes were the main factor that drove those participants to talk about TV with their friends.

> *"Usually I watch TV at home but sometimes I watch it at my friend's house. Watching TV with my family creates interaction between the family members. Also it leads to discussion about different topics."* (MA student – group 4)

> *"I use the Internet to communicate with my friends online. It is an amazing tool that creates mutual interaction between people whereas the TV doesn't provide this functionality. People just set in the front of TV and receive contents."* (D student – group 5)

Watching TV with friends for events such football games can create a positive social atmosphere through dialogue and discussions with friends, particularly in the break time. These

discussions are often in the form of an analysis of the game being watched. Sports broadcasts were the most often mentioned regular television events that male participants reported as a good opportunities to watch TV with friends. In the football games sessions, watching television with friends takes the form of questions about players and their histories, requests for explanations of the state of play and having others repeat bits they didn't catch.

> *"I really enjoy watching football matches on television with my friends. One of my friends is an expert in football and he has a lot of information about teams and players which we discuss while we are watching the game on TV. Between the two halves we usually analyse the play which took place in the first half."* (M student- group 6)

The way that participants talked about TV with family and friends was consistent with earlier research by Ducheneaut at el. (2008) who argued that television may support forms of social interaction such as chatting with family during watching television programmes or talking with friends about TV programmes. Moreover, as I described in the previous section, the television viewing patterns are often shaped by the time of family gatherings during particular events such as Ramadan. The data indicates that watching television in Ramadan occurs most often in a social context. Hence, TV viewing is more likely to be a family affair rather than solitary activity.

> *"Watching TV is my favourite thing to do in Ramadan and because I am on holiday during this month so I devote my time to watching the special TV programmes with my family and friends. Ramadan TV programmes are primarily geared towards a family audience."* (M student- group 5)

Watching TV may be considered as a topic of conversation and can be used as a catalyst for discussion of different issues and to gain closer contact within the family members during the process of watching television. The rationale behind this is probably that certain types of

programmes can provide a reference point for a family to use in discussing different topics with each other. Furthermore, with respect of facilitating interaction of TV viewing it appears that traditional co-watching is still a familiar practice because families watch TV collectively as their regular chores and for watching particular TV programmes distribute time accordingly. The interviews recommend moving beyond their limits regarding modern co-watching which highlights that sharing and interaction is a general practice.

> *"Usually every Thursday my family gathers in the evening to watch television, share jokes and for general chatting about a variety of different things. Most of the time the television stimulates conversation regarding the programme or programmes we are watching.*" (F student – group 7)

Participants reported that although nowadays there are several television sets in the households, co-viewing within the family is still common. They prefer to watch TV with their family or friends because co-viewing helps to alleviate boredom and provides a distraction during commercial breaks and slow segments of the programme. Participants noted that they seldom surf channels during the commercial breaks. Instead they would indulge in small chat, continue discussions about the programme or even comment on the commercials themselves.

> *"I like to watch TV with family every evening when we gather for dinner. We often discuss some questions in our life during television advertising. Sometimes we discuss the TV programme that we are watching. I feel it is very warm when I stay with family."* (M student-group 6)

> *"I prefer watching TV with my family. When I watch movies and shows with my family I can have some discussions about what's going on in the movies and shows and we chat together."* (F student-group 5)

It seems that television is important for maintaining and developing existing relationships with family and friends since it is frequently a talking point with their family and friends. The data shows that television maintains participants' family relationships since it role for gathering

families together and drawing families closer. Participants described how television functions within the family as a shared activity that helps to maintain and strengthen relationships with other family members. This may indicate that TV viewing acts as a shared activity that helps to maintain and strengthen relationships with other family members.

> *"If I watched a very interesting TV programme I talk with my friends at university about it and I encourage them to watch it."* (D student-group 1)

> *"If I have watched an exciting movie, the next day I will talk to my friends about it."* (A student-group 2)

> *"I was chatting with my friend on Facebook about the Arabic version of 'The Biggest Loser'. I told her I don't miss it as I find the programme to be really interesting."* (B student-group 1)

Although previous 'ethnographic' studies about using television in the households conducted on families from different cultures to those included in the present study, they similarly identified the social activity which is derived from watching television in the household (Langan, 1997; Cesar, Chorianopoulos, & Jensen, 2008; Adriaens et al., 2011). For example, Gauntlett & Hill (1999) previously argued that being able to talk about TV programmes is the thing that respondents will most miss about television since it gives people something to talk about with friends and family. It creates conversations about different topics established by television.

However, talking about the influence of television on existing relationships associated with gender differences and the social role of television was discussed in the interviews. Some participants reported that they only talk about TV with friends because their parents watch programmes and series' that they do not. Male students are less communicative about television

within their familial context than are female students. Male students are more likely to consume television as a social medium than female students, particularly with friends. They tend to watch sport programmes with their friends and discuss what they are watching.

> *"I prefer to talk about TV programmes with my friends who share the same interests as me. There are some programmes that my parents don't think are interesting programmes like music show or football matches. Thus, I don't talk with them about it."* (M students – group 6)

Additionally, the diary survey found gender differences in relation to watching TV at home. Although time spent watching television was conducted mostly at home, gender differences appeared in relation to watching TV at home. Female students were more likely to spend time watching television at home (105.70 min) than were male students (70.7 min). This can be explained by the fact that young Saudi females watch television frequently at home because they are spending more time at home than Saudi males. Studies of the TV viewing habits of young Saudi people have showed that the nature of Saudi society might impose on Saudi females to spend long time at home. Therefore, they tend to use more TV and the Internet in the households than Saudi males (Shareify, 2007; Al-Heizan, 2010).

8.3 The Internet Use in the social lives of Saudi young people

In order to distinguish between television and the Internet as social activities it is necessary also to discuss the role of the Internet in users' social lives. Although TV sets are often in the central locations in the household and invites participants and their family members to watch it together, the data obtained in this research suggested that the Internet activities can be grouped into two main types. Firstly, solitary activities that do not involve direct contact with other people, e.g. browsing the Web and news reading. The Internet is less likely to be a group activity since it is

often located in private space and it is hard to share a screen or co-browse. Hence, the Internet may be considered as a solitary activity. Secondly, social activities that involve direct contact with other people, e.g., the use of email, messengers and chat rooms.

The interviews showed that the Internet brings new forms of communication between people through different methods. Saudi young people consider the Internet as a potent communication tool since it creates social activities from different dimensions. The Internet facilitates users keeping connected with other people which means that young people are always accessible at all times, no matter where they are located. Moreover, online communication can be more effective for discussing a wide variety of topics and self-disclosing intimate information than offline discussions.

> *"I watch television with my family in the living room, but when I use the Internet I always use it alone." (*AM student- group 4)

> *"Watching television is an activity that I do with my family. Browsing the Internet is difficult to be a group activity. Therefore, usually I go online using my own laptop in my bedroom." (*L student- group 6)

> *"I use the Internet to chat with my friend practically every day through messengers. Online communication helps me to contact my friends immediately. The Internet allowed me to be in touch with friends and relatives through emails and we share content." (*M student- group 6)

Furthermore, previous studies suggested that the most frequent use of the Internet is for communication purposes and that computer-mediated communication facilitates not only the maintenance of social ties but also the formation of new relationships among people (McKenna, Green & Gleason, 2002; Parks & Floyd, 1996). The current study attempted to assess whether the Internet has a positive or negative impact on the social life of Saudi young adults.

Students were asked in the survey whether the Internet decreased or increased their social relationships with each other. The data showed that there was no significant change in the time spent socialising with friends. Although some survey respondents did say that their socialising patterns had changed more than half of the participants noted that the activities of socialising with friends (54.7%) and communicating with colleagues and/or classmates (52.7%) remained the same. The majority of respondents, however, reported that communicating with parents (78.6%) and communicating with brothers and sisters has decreased because of Internet use. Further, roughly a quarter (24.8%) reported that socialising with friends had decreased since they started using the Internet.

The focus group analysis revealed that although TV can be utilised to maintain existing social relationships, the Internet provides the function of expanding participants' social networks. Participants reported that using the Internet can help in enhancing and expanding social circles by providing opportunities to meet new people online and to connect and share information with anyone around the world. The data also suggest that communication with others to keep up and establish social relationships are significant functions of the Internet since it provides new channels for people to communicate with each other.

Although the present discussion identified two positive effects on social relationships, earlier studies about the impact of the online communication found a wide range of positive outcome variables. For example, Kiesler et al (2001) stated that the use of the Internet for communication purposes was associated with mainly positive outcomes over a range of social involvement and psychological well-being in local and distant social circles including face-to-face communication, community involvement, trust in people, positive effects and, unsurprisingly, computer skills.

A number of participants stated that social networks make staying in touch with friends much more convenient. Hence, their motivation has increased for retaining relationships through communication on social networks such as Facebook. It seems that using online social networks can have a positive potential impact on people's social lives. The data demonstrates that using social network sites such as Facebook to communicate with others was common among participants. The interviews revealed that Saudi young people not only acquired new friends and extended relationships with friends through the Internet but also that their use of online social networking allowed them to reconnect with old friends. It seems that social networking as a communication tool provides a new way to find old friends and allows users to reconnect with people that they have met in an offline environment.

> *"The Internet allows me to communicate with my friends much more easily. Also, it allows me to reconnect with others that I have not seen or heard from in decades. For example, I use social networking sites such as Facebook. Being online and using social networks such as Facebook allows me keep in touch with my friends. I've already had more contact with people I haven't spoken to since school that at any other time in the last four years."* (HU student- group 2)

It appears that there are two main features of social networks as a potent communication tool, the first being the convenient communication of social networks to stay in touch with friends and family. Social networking provides participants with the convenience of communicating with each other online through private messages, instant messages and public posts, all from just one website. Secondly, social networking sites such as Facebook provides an efficient way to communicate with friends. The capacity to stay connected with friends was one of the most attractive features to using the social networking sites. This analysis is similar to a study conducted by Urista et al. (2009) who found that young people use Faceebook to fulfil

their needs and wants included: efficient communication, convenient communication, curiosity about others, popularity and relationship formation and reinforcement.

The discussion about the importance of using the Internet for social relationships raised the question as to whether the social relationships mediated by the Internet reflect or are continuous with the relationships people have offline. Two models have emerged from the data to explain participants' social online behaviour. Firstly, Internet use to expand the social networks of individuals who have a strong social life and the Internet is used as another scene to interact with other people. Secondly, individuals who lack social ties and have unsatisfactory relationships will turn to the Internet and interact with people online to compensate for their lack of social interaction.

> *"I have a lot of friends in my life and the number increases every year. Moreover, using social networks on the Internet also extends this number of friends, especially people from other countries."* (B student- group 3)

> *"The Internet and particularly Facebook has enabled me to build a large circle of friends among people of diverse cultures, religions and professions all over the world although I am not normally a very outgoing person."* (D student- group1)

> "*My relationships with others are very limited as I am not such a person who goes out and communicates with others. I always prefer to stay at home and since I started using the Internet the number of friends I have has increased. The Internet was an opportunity to establish new relationships with people."* (A student- group 8)

There is mixed evidence about whether heavier users of online media for social purposes are linked to lack of offline social contact. There is evidence that people who are most socially active online are also very active offline. It was an early notion put about by Kraut and his

colleagues (1998) from very early Internet use research that the heaviest Internet users were the loneliest people in the offline world.

"I am friendlier online than in real life. I believe with using the Internet I can open up more to people online than in other communication modes, as I am not a particularly sociable person." (F student- group 7)

Bessière et al (2008) noted that people who lack social relationship in their real lives may seek new people on the Internet. In the present study a number of young people who spend less time with friends in their offline lives noted that they had turned to the Internet to communicate with others.

Although the Internet can be seen to have a positive impact on relationships excessive Internet use may lead to negative outcomes for the participants such as isolation from others. Al-Qashaan (2010) argued that the individual use of computer and the Internet enhances the desire and inclination for isolation of Arab young people, which reduce the chances of social interaction. In the present study participants suggested that the Internet is predominantly used for interpersonal communication with such applications as email or chats via Messenger. Its intensive use has also been associated with a decline in communication with family members. They reported increased Internet use results in a change in the amount of time spent in conversation with family members or time spent engaged in activities with their family.

> *"Internet use has affected my relationship with my family because I am not spending as much time with my family members as I used to. I cannot take part in some family discussions."* (M student- group 8)

> *"The advent of new technologies has a significant impact on the social life. I noticed that my heavy use of the Internet affected relationships with my family."* (A student- group 8)

As I discussed previously, using the Internet can be a solitary activity which may detract from the time a participants spends interacting with their family, at least on a face-to-face basis,

and could potentially damage interpersonal relationships. The responses of both males and females indicted that Internet use is an activity that consumes time and reduces the amount of time that family and students spend together.

8.4 Regulation and Restrictions on the Use of TV and the Internet among Saudi Young People

This section uses focus group data to address the findings regarding the regulation and restrictions that Saudi students might face when they use TV and the Internet. It is explores what factors restricted or shaped the use of television and the Internet and how the participants responded to these regulations.

Although many previous studies examined the restrictions of media use, most of these studies (Nikken & Jansz, 2003; Livingstone & Helsper, 2008; Lee & Jeon, 2013) have been focused on parental regulations on media use. There have been many debates and much research on parental regulation (or mediation) of children and young people's media use (e.g. Abelman, 1985; Austin, 1993; Lin & Atkin, 1989). It has been pointed out that parents regulate their child's use of media and other activities in a number of ways. The present study explores restrictions of TV and Internet use including domestic responsibilities, parents' regulations and technical restrictions.

Al-Oofy and McDaniel (1992) argued that females used VCRs in a manner that appeared to reinforce traditional gender roles. In terms of the Internet, Alfarm (2002) emphasized that Saudi women use the Internet but compared to men their use remains low because of the nature of Saudi society culture and the limited number of public places that offer Internet service for females. Also, Shahdi (2010) pointed out that the discrepancy between male and female Internet use in the Arab world always lies with the restrictions imposed on Arab females, such as on

using the Internet in public places and with regard to their preoccupation with running the home and carrying out housework. Similarly to these studies, this section discusses restrictions on media consumption within domestic settings and how media use is shaped by gender issues in Saudi Arabia.

8.4.1 Regulation of TV Consumption

Studies of media use in Arab contexts in general and in Saudi contexts in particular have examined what the factors may be that restrict patterns of media use in the domestic place and these studies demonstrated the ways that restrictions on media consumption are influenced by gender.

As the analysis below suggests, gender differences were evident with respect to the responsibilities or activities that shaped participants' TV viewing habits and Internet use. Areas of key interest here are the ways that the authorities of the family appeared to be monitoring/regulating television and Internet use. In the following sections, participants describe the factors that shape or restrict their media use and the negotiation of its use in the face of parental restrictions on media consumption. The section finishes by examining the strategies that participants' describe for dealing with these restrictions.

Factors that regulate Saudi young adults' use of television emerged from the focus group analysis. In these interviews participants described the ways that their TV consumption habits were shaped by their relationships and responsibilities within the home, and in relation to their identities as university students. The regulation of media consumption within domestic settings and the role of family positions and gendering of relationships has been an important focus of inquiry for audience researchers. Participants talked about domestic responsibilities and gender roles in the households as factors that may shape their media use, particularly television

consumption. This discussion extends the line of research that focuses on differences in TV viewing among household members (e.g. Mackay & Ivey, 2004; Morley, 1992; Gray, 1987). These previous studies highlighted that the differences between male and female television viewing are the effects of the particular roles that each gender plays within the household and suggested that women do not have time to watch television as a single activity. This is because they are obliged to accomplish other tasks in the home. It is worth noting that these restrictions were being felt in cultures that are quite different to that of the present study, with female participants in those studies describing the same sorts of restrictions that are presented in this work.

The qualitative data demonstrated that responsibilities relating to family and the role of gender in the domestic sphere are the main factors in shaping TV viewing, and parents' regulation appears clearly only at certain times such as during exams periods. Both male and female participants described how their TV viewing was shaped by family responsibilities. However, gender differences are notable as females' TV viewing is restricted by their roles in the household. Thus, they watch TV less frequently than males.

Only female participants emphasized that their television consumption was shaped by domestic responsibilities. Female students described how they don't truly have time to be a proper 'TV person'. They use the expression "when I am free" to describe the place television fills in their lives because they have other responsibilities. In other words, domestic responsibilities are pressing for female participants. Therefore, their television viewing is limited.

> *"I am not interested in TV because in the morning I am at the university and in the evening I do my homework and look after my kids, so I am busy all day."* (M student-group 2).

"I have no particular time for watching television. If I am busy with my studies or looking after my children I don't watch TV, but when I am free I enjoy watching television for a long time." (N student- group 6)

As discussed in the literature on media use regulations in chapter two, parents have a concern about how young people perceive and use the media. Hence, they impose different regulations on their children's use of media. In the present study the data gleaned from the interviews demonstrates that parental restrictions and control over television viewing behaviour applies only during examination periods. It indicates that parents are focused on scholastic achievement, considering television a distraction during exam periods and this priority may drive many of their decisions about restricting viewing practices. Parents play a key role in shaping how much participants watch television while exams are going on. They apply various practices to limit when participants could watch television or how much viewing was allowed and these constraints were more common during exams.

"*I watch television every day for long hours but during exam periods I don't have free time for watching television and also my mother doesn't allow me to spend my time watching TV during this time, justifying this [restriction by saying] that I have to concentrate on my studies."* (Z student-group 8).

The data suggest that the use of time limits to restrict viewing is particularly prevalent among female students. In addition, what constitutes an appropriate amount of time to spend viewing television is often defined by participants' parents as viewing at a level which does not exceed the time devoted to study. Female participants stated that their parents limited their time in front of the TV on the grounds that watching TV while exams are going on is a waste of time and may affect their academic achievement.

Unlike previous studies, such as Nathanson (2001), Austin et al. (1999), and Nathanson (1999) which adopted a three-dimensional framework of mediation categorized as either co-viewing, restrictive mediation, or active mediation, parents in the current discussion use only one type of strategy to control participants' TV viewing during exam periods. This type of regulation strategy called restrictive mediation (Nathanson, 2001) which concerns exercising control over the amount of time participants spend in front of the television and over the contents they are allowed to view. However, it seems that controlling the contents on TV is not a parental concern according to the present data.

8.4.2 Restrictions of the Internet use among Saudi Young People

The focus group interviews also suggested that there are various restrictions that shape Saudi students' use of the Internet. Participants made reference to values and frameworks set by individuals and the traditional institutions of offline societies such as parents and university. Participants face many of the restrictions when they access the Internet from home and university.

Parental restrictions implied the definition of rules about Internet usage, similar to those described above in relation to television. As with the time limits on television viewing, these rules relate to the amount of time taken up by Internet use by the participants, but also the activities they engage in. Livingstone and Helsper (2008) identified three types of parental regulation of media use: active co-use involves sharing the media experience with children and watching together without critical discussion; interaction restrictions refer to the forbidding of e-mail, chat and instant messaging along with game playing; and technical restrictions are those using filters or monitoring software. However, these restriction strategies are quite distinct from the different strategies parents apply to regulate Internet access in the present analysis. Parents

here simply monitored participants' online practices rather than sharing their Internet use and admonished them about the disadvantages of using the Internet without employing any technological strategy.

Thus, participants identified two strategies by which parents restricted their Internet use. The first strategy is concerned with monitoring and guidance while using the Internet, including evaluative comments. Parental monitoring allowed them to access restricted websites while their parents established a dialogue with them about the risks and the negative aspects of using the Internet. The second strategy involved exercising control over the amount of time spent on the Internet. Parents were active as gatekeepers of Internet use and controlled their time on the Internet, not allowing them to exceed the time limit for accessing the Internet. The differences between these parental regulation strategies and those described in Livingstone and Helsper's (2008) work may be attributed to the differences in culture where the research was carried out where customs and traditions on parents regulation. Also, there were differences in the study samples as Livingstone and Helsper's participants were children and the participants of the present study were adults over 18 where it might be difficult for parents to apply on such age active co-use, interaction restrictions and technical strategies.

> *"I spend around six hours daily online. My mum gets angry if I spend a long time on the Internet, she always restricts my time online. She always sits away but in a position that allows her to monitor and watch what I am doing online and she gives me advice and guidelines about online activities."* (L student - group 6)

Again, there were significant gender differences between male and female participants in respect to how these restrictions were felt. It seems that the type of parental regulation utilized was based partially on gender. Parents apply the strategy of controlling the amount of time spent

using the Internet more with females than males. The majority of male participants reported spending longer hours online than their female counterparts. Gharieb (2007) argues that male students are not as restricted in terms of the number of places where they can connect to the Internet, e. g.; they do not have a problem when going to an Internet cafe. In contrast, female students stated that they are limited in terms of the number of places from which they can surf. This is similar to what female participants in the current research described as their restrictions on Internet use compared to male participants and the reasons for the differences in regulation. This similarity may be due to the fact that both studies were conducted in Saudi Arabia and the participants in both studies were university students.

Females were also more likely to have their Internet access monitored and circumscribed by parents. In explaining these differences, female participants described how parental restrictions of Internet use were drawn from the culture. Their use of the Internet took place primarily within the home since societal norms, enforced by parents, also curbed their Internet usage in the public space, relating to the segregation of genders in Saudi Arabian culture. Those participants stated, for example, that males frequent Internet cafés to access the Internet, due to the permissibility of males visiting and patronising them as they please.

> *"Mainly I access the Internet from home. We cannot access the Internet from cafés as the males do. In our Saudi society the boys have the freedom to use the Internet and do whatever they want to do."* (N student - group 6)

> "*My sister and I are not allowed to use the Internet in cyber cafés. I wish that I could access the Internet from an Internet café but my parents always argue that the Internet cafés in our communities is only for men."* (R student- group 6)

Having discussed the restrictions on television and Internet use it is necessary to describe how participants respond to these strategies of regulation. Participants describe how they resist the parental restrictions on the use of television and the Internet. Also, the gender differences in how they seek to obtain freedom in their use of media.

8.4.2.1 Resisting Media Regulation among Saudi Young People

While parents' strategies for managing participants' use of media have been discussed, participants of the focus group also employ tactics for evading or resisting parents' regulations. According to psychological reactance phenomena, people will respond or react to threats to perceived behavioural freedoms. Yardi & Bruckman (2011) stated that "over-restriction can lead to psychological reactance in which children feel their behaviour is being threatened and respond in the opposite direction or by circumventing the restriction" (p,2). The interviews revealed that, although parents formulated explicit regulations about TV viewing during exam periods, negotiations about watching television were constant in the sense that students' TV consumption was frequently a topic of arguments between the participants and their parents. Participants reported that they continually negotiated with their parents and tried to stretch the time limits or convince them that their viewing would not affect their studies. Similarly, Hagen (2007) found that control or regulation of media use by parents' leads to discussion, negotiations and even conflict between children and their parents.

> *"My mother and father would get angry when they found me watching television for more than three hours during exam days. They said to me it is better to devote your time for study and I reacted to their rules by being disappointed or upset. I always ask them to give me just half an hour more and try and convince them that this will not affect my studying or my achievements."* (L student-group 8)

"*During the exam period I don't have enough time to watch television; all my time is dedicated to study."* (M student - group 8)

The data demonstrated that, similar to television, parents' regulation of Internet use also increased the likelihood of negotiations between participants and their parents using different strategies.

"I can't stay online for a long time because my parents limit my time. My mother gets angry if I use the Internet for a long time. Most of the time I get angry and start a discussion with them about how the Internet is very useful, especially for my studies." (F student - group 5)

"I try not to use the Internet for more than two hours. My mother and father always monitor my use of the Internet and limit my time online, while they don't do the same thing with my brother." (L student - group 5).

"My mother always talks to me about the advantages and disadvantages of using the Internet, which websites are appropriate and which websites are not appropriate, especially while I am browsing the net. She tries to advise me about good behaviour when I am going online. I try to prove to them that I am more of an expert in using the Internet more than they are but my parents believe that using the Internet will affect my heath." (N student - group 6)

It seems that participants' own plans and preferences led to negotiations and attempts to circumvent their parents' rules and regulations. Female participants stated that they had three ways of negotiating with their parents. First, when parents worried that the Internet would distract them from their studies, participants tried to convince their parents that time spent online was not wasted, but that they were using the Internet mainly for study-related activities. The second technique is that participants persuade their parents to believing that they are experts and are highly skilled at using the Internet while their parents expressed concern about physical damage that might be caused by using the Internet for a long time. The third strategy was

participants discussed the advantages of using the Internet with their parents when their parents tried to control their use of the Internet because of its perceived risks.

Within the home it seems that participants were seeking to obtain freedom of use and privacy in use. However, although the survey data shows that a large percentage of both male and female students (75.6%) don't have difficulties when accessing the Internet because of family restrictions, the qualitative data suggest that female participants were more likely to seek to circumvent restrictions since they were more likely to face parental restrictions. Obtaining freedom of use means participants' ability to use the Internet without restrictions or limitations on the time or patterns of usage while privacy in use means the desire to access the Internet with some degree of personal privacy.

Similarly, Livingstone and Bober's (2006) study found that wherever the computer is placed – in a private or public room of the house – children seek to use the Internet in privacy. In the present research, participants indicated that they prefer to access the Internet from their own room for privacy's sake. Moreover, the discussions revealed that the Internet most frequently used by participants was installed in a separate room, most often the bedroom where they could escape from parents' surveillance and use the Internet privately. However, female participants mainly use the Internet in the living room since their parents don't allow them to use the Internet from their bedroom. Therefore, participants attempt to use the Internet in their bedroom to maintain their online privacy from their parents. Students indicated that they had an Internet connection in their bedroom for many reasons. They always waited for the right time when family monitoring would be much less; taking advantage of the freedom to use the Internet so no one can monitor them and see what they are doing online. In addition, accessing the Internet from their bedroom allows them to spend the whole night online.

"Usually I use the Internet at home; my laptop is always on my bed because I feel privacy when I use it in my room." (L student - group 6)

"In my house laptops are not allowed in our bedrooms; it is always in the living room where we all sit and gather and there are specific times allocated for using the Internet use so, for example, we are not allowed to use it late at night. If there are occasions when we were allowed to move the computer to the bedrooms it would have to be in the daytime, not in the evening." (R student - group 6)

"Mostly I use my laptop at home to access the Internet. I access the Internet from my room; that way I can stay up on my laptop all night." (H student - group 5)

The freedom and the privacy of Internet use reported by participants in this study are similar to what previous literature on Saudi Arabia has indicated. For instance, Oshan (2007) argued that some female participants do not have freedom of Internet use at home because of the family social structure. Household rules, normally enforced by parents, controlled female participants' Internet usage. The present study also exposed gender differences in the domestic rules and regulations of Internet use. This similarity between the previous study and the present study may be due to the fact that both studies were conducted in Saudi Arabia and participants in both studies were university students. However, Oshan's (2007) study assembled the focus group with female students only while the present study's focus group comprised both genders, improving the comparison between genders in restrictions on Internet use.

8.5 Discussion

This chapter focused on how television and the Internet fit into the social context of Saudi young people and looked at the impact of using those media on their social lives. This chapter also explored the restrictions and the regulation of using TV and the Internet among Saudi adults.

The findings revealed that the Internet can be used for a two-way flow of information that represents a type of interpersonal communication. With TV, however, there is generally a one-way flow of content and social aspects linked to TV take place offline. Television serves a social purpose which was realised in the context of togetherness and conversations with family and friends. Saxbe et al (2011) confirmed that TV viewing provides a social function and the platform of family togetherness since family television viewing is common in the home in shared or communal spaces such as living rooms and family rooms and it is more likely to attribute family TV viewing with social interaction than with any other activity.

The comparison of the effect of both media on the quality of existing relationships and on close relationships showed that television is important for maintaining and developing existing relationships with family and friends since it is frequently a talking point with their family and friends. On the other hand, the Internet is often used to maintain relationships with friends and expand their social networks. Consistent with this observation, previous studies (Bargh et al. 2002; Bargh & McKenna, 2004) have shown that the Internet helps to maintain close ties with one's family and friends. Also, it enhances the scope of relationships and broadens the space of social engagements. However, Cummings & Kraut (2002) argued that the Internet is less effective than other means of forming and sustaining strong social relationships.

This chapter has given also an account of the ways that patterns of TV viewing and Internet use are restricted or shaped by factors including domestic responsibilities, personal commitments and study activities. TV consumption habits were found to be shaped by relationships and responsibilities within the home and in relation to participants' status as university students.

Internet use was found to be shaped by parental restrictions and technical restrictions. Although parents' regulation on TV viewing appears to occur only at certain times such as

during exams periods, the parents regulation strategies on TV viewing are quite distinct from the strategies parents apply to regulate the Internet use.

Although previous research studies such as Clyne & Jason (2011) suggested that parents use three mediation techniques: restrictive, which involves the parent setting specific viewing times and which programmes are suitable; instructive mediation which requires the parent to explain the motivation of a character, or what character behaviours are acceptable; and social co-viewing when parents use the media with their children, parents in the current discussion control and limit the viewing time of their children. Therefore, they use only the restrictive mediation strategy to control participants' TV viewing during exam periods.

On the other hand, two strategies have been used by parents to restrict the Internet use of the participants which include monitoring and guidance while using the Internet and control over the amount of time spent on the Internet. In contrast, Livingstone and Helsper's (2008) argued that mediation styles on Internet use share some features with those which are used for television viewing, and also revealing some differences that suggest parents are applying existing strategies to meet the new challenge formed by the Internet.

Moreover, significant gender differences were ascertained between male and female participants in respect to parental regulations on both media. Females are more likely than males to face family restrictions on their use of the Internet. Parental regulations for both mediums elicited corresponding resistance in the form of negotiations or conflicts. However, although there are no certain forms of negotiations with parents about restriction on TV consumption, there are many styles of negotiations and resistance about parental mediation on the Internet use such as persuasion and discussions.

The next chapter summarises and discusses the main findings of the study in the context of wider research literature and addresses the extent to which the main study questions have been efficiently answered. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are also discussed.

CHAPTER
NINE DISCUSSION

9.1 Introduction

This study has contributed to current understandings of the nature of the use of the Internet and television among higher educated young people in Saudi Arabia. It has also examined the interaction between Internet use and TV use. The study also gathered pertinent information relating to the notion of how new media, such as certain Internet applications, might replace long-established media resources, such as television. That is, a new medium could displace an older one under certain circumstances relating to ease of use and the relative appeal of different media.

A new media revolution began in Saudi Arabia in 1990, stimulated by the introduction of both satellite television and the Internet (Khamis & Sisler, 2010). The significance of the introduction and the penetration of the Internet in Saudi Arabia stems from the fact that it defies boundaries, traditional cultural factors, and can substitute for the functions of traditional media avenues. Therefore, the Internet is an area of focus in this research since it is a relatively new communications platform, it has spread rapidly, it has been adopted mostly by young people who use it more ardently compared to the rest of the population (Abdulla, 2007, p.50), and it allows the free in-flow and out-flow of information simultaneously across a conservative country that is controlled by religion and traditions. Consequently, the Internet might be perceived as a threat medium compared with other traditional media such as television. Further, it might be considered even more of a threat by the older generations, who are concerned about its negative effects on the young generation who are very enthusiastic in their adoption of new technology.

Furthermore, because this study is concerned principally with trying to understand the impact of the Internet on TV consumption patterns among Saudi students, it was necessary to analyse the relationship between Internet use and TV viewing. This analysis is important in the Saudi context where the media landscape is witnessing a rapid spread in the use of media technology which is manifested primarily in the use of the Internet and digital satellite broadcasting (Al-Qahtani, 2011). The advent of the Internet presumed that television viewing would be increasingly displaced by new media. However, the convergence paradigm that is currently emerging in Saudi contexts suggests that the Internet and television would interact in more complex ways than previously predicted. Therefore, the line between watching TV and being online is beginning to blur.

Moreover, since data have been obtained from young Saudi adults who usually live with their family and are attached to their parents according to culture and Islamic law, it was important to look at the use of television and the Internet within the family context. The family is the most important social institution in Saudi Arabia. The structure of the family in Saudi Arabia is generally compatible with the nation's religion, customs, and culture. Despite rapid modernization, the family is the first and primary source of guidance for young people and is responsible for controlling their everyday behaviour. Nowadays, with the new era of advanced technology in households and its use by Saudi family members, it might be expected that parents' control extends to media use while young people might become more aware of their right to freedom of media technology usage. Such family control over media consumption might operate particularly on Saudi young females, who do not have equal freedom of many activities with young males.

Previous western studies have indicated that parents play a key role in shaping how their children use the media in the household (Barkin et al., 2006), and that they can apply different strategies to control media use. Gender is a crucial factor that determines or affects the level of parental mediation on media use Ultimately, parents tend to use more mediation activities for younger children and girls than for older children or for boys (Weaver & Barbour 1992; Nikken & Jansz, 2006; Mendoza, 2009). This is true of western households as well as of those in the Middle East. However, parents' strategies of media use control in Saudi Arabia might differ from western countries. This is because in Saudi Arabia, media use is already controlled by government regulations.

Interest about media/technology in the home is often framed around how it has become domesticated, and how a technology shapes and becomes a part of one's gender identity. Thus, this study examined the use of television and the Internet among young people in a social context examined from the domestication of communications perspective. In a society such as Saudi Arabia, which is known for gender inequality and heavy restrictions on the activities of women, the Internet might be viewed as a threat in that it may foster the emancipation of Saudi women by offering them the opportunity to have equal rights with males and experience the freedoms they are denied in within their conservative society. The Internet has indeed been perceived as an ethical, religious and cultural threat which might ultimately lead to the fragmentation of social and gender barriers. Therefore, for this study it was necessary to understand the gender differences between young people in their media habits and especially in regard to their use of the Internet.

The current study raised several areas for discussion. This chapter is divided into three parts: (1) a summary and discussion of the main findings of the study, their implications and

contributions in relation to the primary research questions that were addressed and in comparison with the findings of other research; (2) the main limitations of the study; and (3) suggestions for further research and recommendations.

9.2 Summary and Discussion of the Main Findings and Their Implications

The present research was concerned with investigating the way young and well-educated people in Saudi Arabia used the Internet and the ways this related to their use of television and their involvement in other activities. It also examined the constraints placed on the use of these media by family, cultural and religious circumstances that were often manifest most clearly in gender differences in engagement with new and old media.

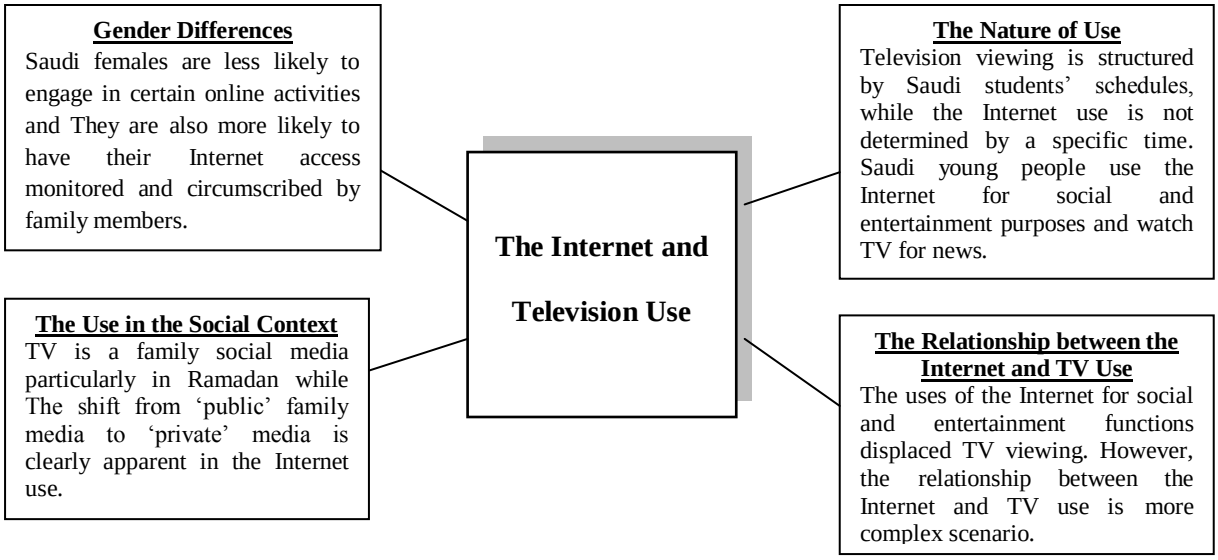
The present study was drawn from the adoption of innovation, displacement, uses and gratification, and the domestication of technology theory where each theory has it is own value in interpreting the findings of this study. In respect of the adoption of innovation theory, this theory seeks to explain at what rate new ideas and technology spreads through cultures. One important feature of this theory is linked to the so-called 'tipping point' of penetration of a technology after which it often will be adopted by a majority quite quickly. However, the rate of adoption of the Internet has been much faster among young Saudi people than in the west. This can be explained by the fact young people in Saudi Arabia is selecting and using the technology rather than developing and using it. Thus, this theory does not work well in this context since it has been largely developed in Western societies which are distinctly different from Saudi context.

This study has also drawn from the uses and gratification model because it is offers a useful framework to understand how people make choices between different types of media. This theory has been criticized largely for being outdates. However, in fact this theory is still being

used quite frequently up to the present day and has been adapted to the analysis of the Internet. Moreover, research in the Middle East continues to use the uses and gratification model in examining the Internet and the traditional media. Further, because of the variety of media platforms and the variety of content this theory helped the researcher to understand how Saudi young people make choices between TV and the Internet. They make choices not between the two mediums but between the content that two medium have to offer. For example, television and the Internet are forms of entertainment media but for different reasons. However, young people access the Internet for certain kind of entertainment that they can't get on television. In this study uses and gratification theory helped to more precisely predict way in which the Saudi young people move between different media platforms and that is one way of explaining why one medium might displace the other. This also important in relation to displacement theory as well because whether one medium might displaces another is driven very much by the particular motives that young people have to find in a certain kinds of content. Young people evaluate which medium is better and then they make their choices. They make an evaluation about particular forms of content and about which medium supply this content.

Furthermore, given the nature of the Saudi context, the domestication of technology theory in this study helped to understand how young Saudi people use technology in the social context. The use of technology is determined not just by the intrinsic nature of the technology but also by the social factors. The Internet and television technologically performs largely the same functions wherever they are used. However, the way they are used can still vary a lot from culture to culture and from family to family. In this study the domestication of technology theory explains how certain social factors in the Saudi context shaped the use of the Internet and TV.

Returning to the research questions posed at the beginning of this study, the next sections summarise and discuss the main findings as presented in the below diagram.



9.2.1 The Nature of the Internet and TV Use

This study investigated the nature of the use of the Internet and of television and it examined different online activities in which young Saudi people reportedly engaged. It also examined the extent to which the Internet has emerged as a source of gratification that used to be satisfied by other media sources, including television. Comparisons were made between genders because this is a key factor that differentiates patterns of domestic appropriation and media use in Saudi Arabia. While both the males and females questioned in this study had access to the Internet and watched television on a regular basis, their patterns of media behaviour were not always the same.

It became apparent the adoption diffusion of the Internet is penetration among young people in Saudi Arabia. Although the Internet and television use seem to occupy a significant proportion in the media usage of youngsters, the findings indicate that there are notable differences in the adoption rates of both types of media.

The data also revealed that young Saudi people use the Internet everyday and several times a day. The Internet dominates young Saudi people's lives to the extent that they cannot imagine their lives without using the Internet. This indicates that despite that Saudi Arabia lagging in its adoption of the Internet and being the last Arab country to provide public Internet access (see Chapter Three), young Saudi people use the Internet heavily and it is considered as an important thing in their lives.

Both males and females have the same experience in the use of the Internet. However, students from private institutions have more experience in using the Internet compared with their counterparts in public institutions. There are two reasons that may explain this difference. First, students in private universities normally come from high-income families and thus have the ability to buy computers and can afford the cost of Internet access. Secondly, private university students have a higher skill in English language, which considered as a major obstacle to Internet use among young people in the Arab world.

The Internet has influenced the dynamics of everyday life, where it "affects and changes time, people's perceptions of time, and the way time is organised" (Lee & Liebenau, 2000, p. 44). Unlike television, where viewing is structured by participants' schedules, Internet use is not determined by a specific time, as it can be used at any time and in any place. Saudi young people have the chance to alter their temporal perceptions by virtue of having access at any time. They use the Internet at any time and usage only depends on what they want to do online. Hence, the Internet allows flexibility of time use. On the other hand, Saudi students' patterns of watching television are linked to specific characteristics that structure their lives and this essentially acts as a timetable. Factors, such as the time they start watching and the fixed broadcast schedule, give a structure to their lives and mean means that watching television becomes a daily routine.

The results indicated that television can vary from being at the forefront of a young Saudi people's concentration to background noise, whereas the Internet tends to command their full attention whenever they use it. This confirms earlier findings from western research (Gauntlett & Hill, 2002; Nie, Hillygus, & Erbring, 2008) that the TV can retreat from the forefront of attention to background activity and often television is on while other activities take place. In contrast, the interactive nature of the Internet means its use is less likely to become a background activity. Television can be a valuable source of companionship when young Saudis use it to accomplish their everyday tasks. Females are more likely to use television as background noise and as an environmental resource than males. They focus on other daily tasks, such as household chores, while the television becomes background noise.

Furthermore, media consumption among young Saudi people changes seasonally during the year. In particular, the temporal pattern of television viewing can change radically during the holy month of Ramadan. During this period young Saudi people assign a certain level of significance to television and schedule their time around it. Television viewing becomes a primary activity during Ramadan when young people give television priority over other activities and alter their daily activities in order to stay in and watch television. Nevertheless, the complementary relationship between the Internet and traditional media also appears during the Ramadan month. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses in this study revealed, for example, that Saudi young people watch television on the Internet to catch up with missed programmes. Previous studies also indicated also that different media sources serve different purposes and therefore complement each other (Dutta-Bergman, 2004a, b, 2006; Nguyen & Western, 2006) rather than competing in pure zero-sum logic. However, the study showed that when it comes to watching TV programmes, the first choice for Saudi students is not the Internet. It might be that

they are using online video to fill in the gaps in their viewing. They will watch content online when it is not convenient or feasible to watch on traditional TV.

Additionally, the way young people use the Internet changes during particular events such as at weekends and holidays. Both quantitative and qualitative findings revealed that Internet use increases during weekends or holidays among Saudi youths because of the availability of free time which they allocated to online activities, particularly using social networks.

Moreover, young Saudi people use the Internet for different applications. Young Saudi adults mainly use the Internet for communication purposes, particularly via social networks such as Facebook or Twitter. The Internet can also be used for social activities that involve direct contact with other people via email, messengers, and chat rooms. These activities are interactive and much different from the largely passive traditional media such as television (Veenhof, 2006). Young Saudi people have different needs and gain gratification from social activity through the Internet. The motives for using the Internet are often to maintain relationships with friends and expand their social networks. Socially, Saudi students have motives for online communication in order to maintain their existing social relationships and use the Internet as another arena to interact with other people. Saudi young who lack social ties have the need of extending and building new social relationships online to compensate for their lack of social interaction. This finding is inconsistent with Lee's (2009) study, who found that young people with poor social relationships tend to have less need for online communication than those who have strong social relationships.

Furthermore, although the history of media in Saudi Arabia discussion in Chapter Three indicated that television provides entertainment that partially compensate for the national

prohibition of cinemas, this study showed that young Saudi people use the Internet for entertainment purposes. Moreover, the Internet is frequently used for academic purposes including searching information relating to particular studies and visiting university websites. In terms of educational purposes, the Internet represents an invaluable and limitless source of information. This has been supported by Muniandy (2010), who confirmed that students use the Internet to seek information, especially in relation to academic materials.

9.2.1.1 Motivation for Internet and TV Use

Traditionally, motivations for media use have been measured using the uses and gratifications model. The results of this study enhance our understanding of the various assumptions of the uses and gratifications model. In western research, motives have been measured within the context of examining how one medium might functionally displace the other. The current research indicated that different aspects of a certain medium, such as the value and the functions it can provide, underpin the importance of that medium in young Saudi people's lives. Displacement will stream from the gratifications that young people seek from television and Internet use. Both media are catering to the same needs and gratifications but with different and better way distinguish them from each other.

Analysis of qualitative and quantitative data on Saudi young people's claimed consumption of the Internet and television suggests that both media have been considered sources of news and as providing a global perspective. However, to a large extent young people prefer TV as a news source and the consumption of news television has been identified as one of the primary motivations for watching television. This finding was congruent with past research (e.g., Gunter, 2010; Sopher, 2010; Elareshi, 2011). Based on the mean scores of gratifications factors, the salient motive for using television appeared to be surveillance (news and

information). The findings confirmed that the need to keep up with the latest news is the strongest uses and gratifications predictor for time spent on television news. This is an indication that uses of traditional media platforms for news consumption provides evidence for the assumption that traditional news media are not losing their lustre among young people in Saudi Arabia. Also, pan-Arab satellite TV emerged as the news platform reportedly most likely to be consumed by Saudi youths. In other words, new TV channels are appealing because of their expanded news provision. The current results added to a growing body of literature on media consumption and were consistent with the findings of numerous previous researches conducted in the Arab region (Bait-Almal, 1992; Abdel-Rahman, 1998; Al-Shaqsi, 2000; Al-Asfar, 2002; Elareshi, 2011).

As highlighted within the literature in Chapter Two, the Internet can offer a set of gratifications that are both shared with and are different from those offered by traditional mass media (Krishnatray, 2009). In this study there were several important motives that university students gave for watching television and accessing the Internet. Relaxation was the most important motive for television viewing while seeking information about their interests and to keep in touch with their friends were a key motivations underpinning Internet use. This highlights the fact that young Saudi people use the Internet and television for different purposes. There is evidence that entertainment use of TV was displaced by Internet use in general.

9.2.1.2 Barriers to Internet and TV Use

This research also examined data on the barriers to Internet and television use. The findings revealed differences in the ways that TV and Internet use are perceived as being restricted. The qualitative analysis indicated that being university schedules and studying responsibilities were major factors that shaped television viewing among Saudi students, where the transition from

school to university was a time when their everyday structures and television consumption patterns changed considerably. Moreover, the exam period means restricted television viewing among Saudi young people. During this period their television viewing declined because of time constraints and parental regulation. However, male participants were more likely to restrict their television viewing due to studying at university, their busy schedules, and evening lectures that are a part of that. This difference reflects the sex segregation in educational settings in Saudi Arabia, where females are not allowed to take evening lectures.

On the other hand, as I discussed in Chapter Three, Saudi users face two main obstacles in Internet usage: technological and cultural barriers. Al-Kahtani et al. (2006) noted that the most significant technological obstacles preventing people from using the Internet more are connectivity issues such as slow and dropped connections. In the present study young Saudi people face different barriers to media consumption. The quantitative analysis indicated that privacy and security, connectivity, filtering, and the coast are the factors that influenced the efficient use of the Internet. Meanwhile, the qualitative data revealed that the institutions of offline societies, such as those at university, impose technical restrictions to block certain content and impose time limits on students' use of the Internet.

The findings demonstrated that university libraries employed diverse Internet usage policies among students, which produced three types of restrictions on accessing the Internet: time limits, slow connections, and content filtering. Moreover, the slow speed of the Internet was another issue associated with accessing the Internet from the library. Slow connectivity reduces students' opportunities to gather information whilst studying. Likewise, they were not allowed to access many websites.

9.2.2 Gender Differences in Media Consumption

Culture and traditions in Saudi society dictate that gender segregation occurs in almost all situations. Therefore, it was necessary in this study to understand how differently males and females use television and the Internet. The study found that there are gender differences associated with media habits among young people, particularly with Internet use.

There are gender differences related to location of Internet access where male students are more likely to access the Internet from Internet cafes than female students. This finding reflects the nature of Arab culture, particularly in Saudi Arabia which imposes restrictions on females, especially in terms of media use. This indication was congruent with past research (e.g., Hamdy, 2002; Albatran, 2003; Aldowedy & Alamry, 2008). Findings reported earlier for Saudi females indicated that Internet cafe visitors are mostly young males. This is attributable to the status of females in Saudi Arabia (Aldowedy & Alamry, 2008). However, male students are also more likely to access the Internet from Internet cafes than female students. Previous studies in the Arab region (Zakaria, et al., 2003; Al-Saggaf, 2004; Al-Saggaf & Williamson, 2004; Oshan & O'Brien, 2005) have indicated that females in the Middle East more commonly access the Internet from their homes, and predominantly in the Gulf States. However, the findings of the current study do not support all research in other parts of the world. For example Adomi (2007) & Christos (2011) found that both males and females accessed the Internet from cyber cafes. A possible explanation for this difference between the West and Saudi society is the fact that women in Saudi Arabia are segregated from men for religious and cultural purposes.

9.2.2.1 Gender and Online Activities, and TV Content

There were gender differences observed in relation to time spent on specific Internet activities. Saudi males spent more time on information seeking, and social networking online, while they spent less time on watching TV online. On the other hand, females spent more time on information seeking online and sending messages online and they spent less time on social networks. This finding indicates that male students were more likely to spend their online time using social networks than were the female students, which may reflect the cultural restrictions that are placed on women in Saudi Arabia and the different ways that online privacy and security issues on using social network affect males and females in the country. These results were in line with findings from previous research in the Arab region, in that there is a digital gender divide in the Arab region related to Internet use, and how women's lack of accessing some Internet activities is caused by many factors such as culture restrictions (Badran, 2010; Al Serkal, 2011). Confirmation of this result is found in the fact that social media campaigns are still being used in Saudi Arabia to call for essential rights, such as the right to drive.

This study also showed distinctive gender differences in respect of reported TV news consumption and news interests. Females were less likely than males to say they watched news on TV. They indicated personal interest in soft news, entertainment, and information that related to their daily needs and problems, rather than in more political content. Moreover, domestic gender roles shaped their TV viewing. Saudi females are often busy with household tasks; therefore, the surveyed women were less likely to be able to give their undivided attention to the news or to keep up with the news. In media studies in Western countries, research on television viewing (Poindexter et al., 2008; Benesch, 2012) has identified similar findings, showing that the female audience consumes less news than men and that this gender gap in news consumption is

mainly related to preferences, socialization, and the time opportunity of women and to news content. This indicates that young Saudi people shared similarities in their television programme preferences and interests with young people from Western countries despite cultural differences.

Even though both males and females reported using television and the Internet, differences emerged in terms of time spent using these media outlets. The time male students spent on chatting online, and browsing the Internet reduced their time watching television, while the time spent female students spent on visiting friends and relatives at their houses reduced their time watching television. The possible explanation for this is that Saudi females engage in the community more than males and the social commitments in Saudi Arabia are seen as an obligation from a cultural point of view, especially among females.

9.2.3 The Relationship between Internet and Television Use

This study investigated whether there is relationship between the attitudes towards the Internet and the use of television and the Internet in order to understand whether the nature and amount of Internet use affects the amount of TV viewing.

As discussed previously in Chapter two, the Internet can cater to a wide range of gratifications, some of which are similar to those offered by traditional mass media, and some of which are different (Krishnatray, 2009). When it comes to entertainment, more young people in Saudi Arabia are turning to the Internet and away from TV but this pattern can depend on the broader nature of their online behaviour. Some previous studies indicated that there is little functional displacement of television by the Internet as a source of entertainment (Kraut et al., 2006; Findahl, 2008). This study, however found that the Internet does compete, at least among young adults at university in Saudi Arabia, with traditional media as a source of entertainment. The Internet can entertain through activities involving video and audio streaming and

downloading activities. Furthermore, the data from the time-use diary indicated that the Internet allowed young Saudis to spend hours watching online videos and playing games in virtual worlds. These Internet-based entertainment activities can impact on the time spent viewing television. In this study, young Saudis who spent more time on the Internet for entertainment purposes spent less time watching television. Based on the time displacement model, it seems that the acceleration of online entertainment consumption time among Saudi youths has resulted in a decline in time devoted to their television viewing. Similar findings were reported in a number of studies from other parts of the world (see e.g., Choi & Haque, 2002; Lee, 2006) which have found that the displacement effects of the Internet on functionally similar traditional media are also particularly evident for entertainment use. The use of the Internet for entertainment is negatively linked to time spent on television.

Furthermore, the results demonstrated the growing importance of the Internet as a social medium. The Internet has evolved into a social technology and the rise of social media has played a big role in making the Internet more popular among Saudi students than ever before. The findings from this study showed that young Saudi people who used the Internet as a social medium were less likely to watch TV programmes on traditional television sets and more likely to watch TV online. As such, this study contradicts previous research (Hasan, 2013) which has concluded that the use of social networking, such as Facebook, among university students does not affect their TV viewing.

It is widely acknowledged that a "time consuming activity is a constraint on any other time consuming activity because of the fixed amount of time in a day" (Liebowitz & Zentner, 2010, p.2). This study also revealed that young people time spent on the Internet for social purposes and that this decreased the time they allocated to television viewing. However, time

spent solely browsing the Internet does not decrease young Saudis' time spent watching television, while spending time chatting or playing online games on the Internet does reduce the time spent on TV viewing. This indicates a unique and specific use for the internet among young Saudis: social and entertainment purposes. This confirms the assumption that electronic media outlets such as the Internet are competing with traditional media in different domains, through activities like online chatting and electronic games.

In respect to whether the greater use of the Internet in general will result in less time spent of other activities, this study explored the relationship between perceived impact of the Internet on other media use and frequency of watching TV, using the Internet, and watching TV via the Internet. The way in which the Internet has become embedded in people's lives has, to some degree, rendered traditional offline media sources purposeless. As such, they have largely been replaced (see Robinson & Godbey, 1999; Kestnbaum et al., 2002; Robinson et al., 2001). This study showed that the increased use of the Internet was linked to reduce reading of magazines, and less time on doing housework, commuting, studying, visiting friends, and reading. This indicates that the Internet adoption represents one aspect of an alignment of Saudis media consumption habits that are not confined to or driven by the Internet.

Moreover, the findings confirmed that young Saudis spent less time watching television as a result of dedicating more time to online activities. Furthermore, the time Saudi students spent on chatting on the Internet, playing online games, or watching movies online were linked to less time spent watching TV. This indicated that not all online activities affected their TV viewing. This finding supports the assumption of time displacement, in which a new medium will cut into time spent on other activities. However, this appears to be conditional on the specific functions served by different media. These findings are consistent with previous studies

that have found that time and functional displacement effects on existing media usage, especially television viewing, stemming from the appearance of newer media (Robinson, 2002; Pronovost, 2002; Nie & Hillygus, 2002; Kayany & Yelsma, 2000; Mannell, Zuzanek & Aronson, 2005; Ha & ling, 2011).

This study has also suggested that most Saudi students frequently access the Internet to watch TV. Young Saudi people who watch TV are more likely to use the Internet to do so. Conversely, young Saudis Saudi young who use the Internet they are less likely to watch television on the Internet. This finding indicates that when it comes to watching TV programmes, the first choice for Saudi students was not the Internet. It might be that they were using online sources to simply fill in the gaps in their viewing.

Accordingly, the Internet appears not simply to displace but also to supplement traditional media. Previous literature on the uses and gratifications theory argued that the Internet has complementary effects on traditional media (see Chapter Four). A major motivation for watching TV online among Saudi young people was reportedly to catch up on missed episodes of TV shows. The two major motivations to watch TV online were being able to view their favourite shows at any time and personal convenience.

These findings indicated that nowadays the combination of the fusion of available channels and digital video recording (thus allowing watching whatever people want, whenever they want) has transformed television into something very much like the Internet. Furthermore, the fusion of online video, including content from most of the television networks, is making the Internet more like television. Young Saudi people are now increasingly watching TV shows online. Watching TV online also seems to have altered Saudi students' viewing habits,

potentially indicating that TV viewing in this cultural context is starting to shift to media streaming services on the Internet.

From that discussion, it can be argued that although the Internet use among (for certain activities such as entertainment) among young Saudi people displaces their television viewing, the Internet also has complementary effects on TV viewing. This means that the relationship between the Internet and television use is more complex in the Saudi context because of the multiple uses of the Internet.

9.2.4 The Internet and TV Use in the Social Context

This study examined the social context in which TV and the Internet use take place and the role particularly of the family. The sample of Saudi young people surveyed here frequently used the Internet for social and communication purposes. It was very clear that distinctions were made between the way in which television and the Internet function as social media in the lives of Saudi young. The Internet can be used for two-way flows of information that represent a type of interpersonal communication. Conversely, while with TV, there is generally a one-way flow of content and social aspects linked to TV take place offline. Based on the domestication process on how use of both media are temporally incorporated into daily life, and the way in which its use fits in the overall structures of the daily routine (see Chapter Four), patterns of television use in the household among Saudi students are still quite traditionally attached to evening viewing. Hong (2009, p.7) pointed out that "television punctuates time and family activity such as mealtime, bedtime, chore time, [and] homework time." In the current study, the evening schedule, particularly when family members gather, is the focal point in relation to television in certain students' everyday lives. The television set is turned on more or less habitually and serves as a time regulator.

A crucial aspect of domestication concerns is where media outlets are placed within the household. Although western studies (Robert, 2000; Livingstone, 2002; Flichy, 2006;) showed that there is a media shift from family television to individualised media lifestyles in bedroom culture, Saudi young television still takes pride of place in the living room, where family watch together. Television has become a central part of social life within the household and it helps provide structure in the everyday lives of young people, and also provided them with a sense of social presence. Television is used to bring families together and as a topic of conversation. Also, it can draw boundaries between people. These differences between the previous studies and the current study might be attributed to the culture of Saudi Arabia where family cohesion is derived from Islamic principle and social norms. Therefore, the Saudi family gathers daily and often this gathering is around the TV. Further, the use of television as a social media occurs clearly during the holy month of Ramadan where young people watch television with their families as part of the modern Ramadan tradition in Saudi Arabia. During this period, the television serves as a method of binding families together, and provides a platform for reunion. Hence, television is important for maintaining and developing existing relationships with family and friends.

Although television sets are often in central locations within households and invite young Saudi people and their families often watch TV together, the Internet is used in more private spaces. The shift from 'public' family media to 'private' media is clearly apparent in Internet use. The young Saudi questioned in this research reportedly accessed the Internet mainly in their bedrooms in order to maintain their online privacy. Hence, Internet use is a solitary activity as it is difficult to share a screen or co-browse with other people. Western research has suggested that Internet use among young people is also becoming more personal and socially exclusive (Bovill & Livingstone, 2001). This indicates that young Saudis are similar western young people in how

their Internet use has become an example of an individualised medium. It also means that the Internet presents a means of avoiding family controls over media use.

This research has indicated that Internet use is moving to young people's bedrooms in Saudi Arabia. Thus, Internet use is more likely to have negative impacts on the social and familial relationships of young Saudi people than television. Although young Saudi people use the Internet to establish and maintain relationship with their friends, their Internet use displaces the time they spend with their family and replaces strong face-to-face ties. These findings confirmed earlier evidence that with online activities there is a shifting balance between communal family life and the private life of young people. Internet use among young people is becoming more individualised and socially exclusive and, as a result, they are spending less time with their family members (Bovill & Livingstone 2001; McGrath, 2012). However, Saudi females mainly use the Internet in their living rooms since their parents do not allow them to use it in their bedrooms.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, due to the religion and culture in Saudi Arabia young people live with their families where parents are responsible for the guidance and control of their behaviour. The current study found that patterns of TV viewing and Internet use in the domestic space among young Saudi people are restricted or shaped by parental regulation. Despite the increased private use of the Internet in young people's bedrooms, parents still control Internet use. This is an indication that parents play a key role in shaping media consumption among Saudi young adults and this may be attributed to Saudi Arabian culture, where young people mostly live under their parents control and guidance.

Parents' regulation strategies on TV viewing within their households are quite distinct compared to those for Internet use. Two strategies have been used by parents to restrict Internet

use, monitoring and guidance while using the Internet and control over the amount of time spent on the Internet. Parental monitoring allows young people to access restricted websites, and at the same time provides an opportunity for parents to establish a dialogue with their children about risks and the negative aspects of using the Internet. Additionally, parents were active as gatekeepers of Internet use and controlled young people's time on the Internet.

Previous studies in the same region have suggested that Saudi women in general suffer gender discrimination (Black, 2008; Al-Mohamed, 2008: 45-51; Alsayyed, 2010; Lobe, 2008). With the introduction of the Internet there has been a great of concern that this medium might empower Saudi women and break customs, traditions, and culture in Saudi society. In this study significant gender differences were ascertained between male and female young people in respect to parental regulations on both media. Females were more likely than males to face family restrictions on their TV viewing and Internet access. Parents regulated the time and space available for using the Internet, so females were less likely to spend long periods watching television and using the Internet. Parental restrictions on location of Internet access among Saudi females stem from a culture where the woman's place is seen as being at home. Female use of the Internet took place primarily within the home, where parents curbed their Internet usage in the public space which indicates how women's freedom of movement is limited and the segregation of genders in Saudi culture.

Parental regulations for both media outlets elicited some resistance in the form of re-negotiated use or internal family conflicts. There are many styles of negotiations about and of resistance to parental mediation of young persons' Internet use, including varying forms of education, persuasion, open discussion, and physical intervention. In terms of family regulations on their use of television, young people continually negotiated with their parents and tried to

stretch the time limits or convince them that their viewing would not affect their studies. Further, similar to television, parents' regulation of Internet use also increased the likelihood of negotiations between Saudi young people and their parents using different strategies. However, Saudi females were more likely to resist restrictions and regulations, particularly in Internet use, since they were more likely to face parental restrictions. Even though Saudi females were less likely to use the Internet in their bedrooms, they attempted to access it from their bedrooms to seek freedom and privacy of usage.

9.3 Contributions of the Research

There are a numbers of contributions of the current study. First of all, this research contributes to the empirical understanding of the legitimacy of traditional theories such as displacement theory. Such theory was developed in the west and has scarcely been applied to Middle East contexts. This research contributes to understand the validity of such theory to explain the modern media setting in Saudi Arabia. It is demonstrated that the displacement theory has a heuristic value in elucidate new media setting in Saudi context which emphasises that these theory can be applied in different cultures.

Also the study contributes to understand whether the evidence of straightforward displacement effect or is it a more complex scenario because the Internet is now used for so many different things. The present study extends previous understandings of the displacement effect by confirming that both displacement and supplementary effects are valid for explaining media substitution phenomena and with media convergence environment television viewing is not completely replaced by the Internet.

Secondly, this research contributes significantly to existing understandings of media behaviour in Saudi Arabia through its use of time diary methods – a methodology that has not

previously been used in this context. Time diary method was used in this research in order to examine the time displacement effect of the Internet use in the Saudi context where organising time is embedded in culture and tradition. Using time diary method alongside the focus group interviews and survey method provides a more fully informed understanding of the true nature of media time allocation among Saudi young people.

Finally, the current study has also considered the nature of media use among young people in the domestic sphere and has drawn attention to the importance of gender differences in the Saudi context. Although Western research indicates that gender differences affect the way men and women use the media in terms of context and activity, this study has provided initial insights into what parallels exist between the use of the Internet and television in Saudi Arabia (where specific restrictions are placed on women) and in the West. The findings of the current study indicate that Saudi males have more opportunities accessing the Internet than the females. Even though that the Internet empowered Saudi women by allowing them to express themselves, communicate with others, campaign and participate in virtual social activities, Saudi women's Internet use is still lagging behind due to gender inequality in Saudi Arabia.

9.4 Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this study should be acknowledged in order to provide a better understanding of the validity and reliability of the findings of this research. Firstly, the sample for the present study comprised of 545 undergraduate students in Saudi universities, particularly in Jeddah city. This sample is only a very small proportion of the entire population of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, research studies with much larger sample sizes would be required to ensure appropriate generalizations of the findings of the study.

The present study has predominantly relied on quantitative methods of data collection and is therefore restrictive. Therefore, more qualitative data collection could be undertaken in future research in order to provide broader, more in-depth perspectives of media behaviour. For instance, future research designs could employ an observation or ethnography methodology to provide a more holistic picture of the given subject.

A further limitation of this study is related to the research sample. One of the main limitations in conducting qualitative research is that the sample, by necessity, is restricted to a manageable size. Whilst there are advantages in conducting such in-depth research with fewer respondents, there is also the possibility that a larger sample would have revealed more widespread findings.

Moreover, with regard to the time diary method, as mentioned in Chapter five, the number of diaries distributed in the male campus generated a relatively low response. This was because it was not possible for the researcher to carry out a follow-up with students by visiting the university due to cultural restrictions prohibiting the researcher from accessing their campus.

In addition, gender segregation prevented the researcher from distributing the surveys and time-diaries in the male campus without the presence of a coordinator through a male third party, and from conducting focus groups with male students without the presence of the researcher's husband. Had the researcher able to distribute and conduct the data collection alone, this may have increased the rate of responses and improved the quality of data.

9.5 Suggestions for Further Research

Given the limitations of this study, further research can be carried out in different ways in relation to patterns of media consumption in Saudi Arabia; in particular whether there are any lessons learned from this study that could be useful to gain a better understanding of the future of

traditional media consumption in the context of emerging new media such as the Internet. The current study has raised a number of questions which offer many opportunities for further research, as follow:

The current study revealed that traditional and new media consumption change in certain events such as Ramadan month. In this way, the study has provided a useful foundation for future work on media use in religious events. Future research might extend the scope to address specific audiences' media uses in different other religious events in Saudi Arabia by examining the influence of content on motivations of media use.

Since the digital divide represents a very important issue for Arab society, further research is needed in order to explore the divide that exists at the general level of the Saudi population, between rural and urban districts, and among women with different levels of education. Longitudinal studies exploring the evolution of digital gender divide patterns and usage would clarify the Saudi picture by examining barriers that might influence women's use of traditional and new media and the effect of Saudi culture on Internet adoption, use, and attitudes.

In addition, further research is needed investigating young people's use of new emerging features of online communication (such as Facebook and Twitter) is needed. Such research should also take into account the distinctive cultural characteristics of Saudi Arabia. The current study showed that the Internet is important for young Saudis in terms of accessing social media (an area where young have become dependent upon). Therefore, additional studies should be conducted in order to develop further understanding of social media behaviour amongst young people.

According to the results from this study, the researcher recommends that Internet providers should improve the Internet infrastructure in order to meet the demand for the use of

Internet services. It was found that there exists some inequality between men and women in their Internet use. As such, it is recommended that policy makers should raise social awareness of the importance of giving Saudi women more roles and more rights in terms of media use. It is thus recommended that policy makers set up more Internet cafés for females in order to increase opportunities for Saudi females to access the Internet. Finally, in order to achieve normative statistical information about media audiences, policy makers need to conduct regular, systematic public opinion surveys and research on Saudi audiences' attitudes towards the Internet and traditional media use in the country. This should be a priority, since it would enable planners to measure the overall impact of media technology and in turn serve the kingdom.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The Questionnaire Form [English Version]

Dear Student

I am a PhD student in Media and Communication department at university of Leicester, and I am working on the following research topic: **The impact of the Internet on Saudi students' use of television**.

This survey forms part of this research. It asks you to provide information about your TV viewing and internet using experiences. Your participation is voluntary. I shall be grateful if you can help me by filling-in this questionnaire. Please note that you do not have to reveal your name or any other personal identification details, and that the data gathered through this questionnaire will be exclusively used for this research.

Please try to answer every question if you can.

Thank you very much for your help

Television use

1- How often do you watch TV?

1- □ 4-5 times a week
2- □ Twice a week
3- □ once a week
4- □ Less often
5- □ Never

2- How often do you watch TV in different locations?

	Location	Never	Occasionally	At least once a week	Several times a week	Virtually every day
1	At my own home					
2	At the home of my relative					

	(but different from where I currently live)					
3	At a friend's home					
4	Somewhere else: …….					

3- With whom do you watch television?

		Never	Occasionally	At least once a week	Several times a week	Virtually every day
1	Alone					
2	With mother present					
3	With father present					
4	with brothers/sisters present					
5	With other relative present					
6	With friends present					
7	With other people present					

4- Please indicate your frequency watch of the following television programmes:

	Sort of programmes	Never	Occasionally	At least once a week	Several times a week	Virtually every day
1	Religious programmes					
2	Comedy shows.					
3	Soap operas					
4	News programmes					
5	Talk shows					
6	Documentary					

	programmes					
7	Sports programmes					
8	Political programmes					
9	Health programmes					
10	Beauty programmes					
11	Game shows					
12	Music programmes					
13	Music video programmes					
14	Education programmes					
15	Scientific programmes					
16	Shopping programmes					
17	Crime programmes					
18	Reality programmes					
19	Cooking programmes					

5- Here is a list of statements people have made about television. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement. Please tick one answer for each statement.

	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1-	I find that TV has very little to offer that I like.					
2-	I frequently switch on the TV as background noise when I get up or arrive home.					
3-	The value of the programmes encourages me to watch television.					
4-	I tend to switch on the TV only when I know there is something I really want to watch.					
5-	One of the most important reasons why I watch TV is to keep up with the latest events in the news.					
6-	Without TV I would feel depressed and sad.					

7-	Having TV on gives the household a sense of togetherness.					
8-	The television is a credible source of news.					
9-	Television makes me feel connected to the outside world.					
10-	I usually watch TV at home when someone else has switched it on.					
11-	I do not often get to choose what to watch on TV.					
12-	I could not live without TV.					
13-	I often re-arrange events in my life so that I can watch my favourite TV programmes.					
14-	I often talk with my friends about my favourite TV programmes.					
15-	If I am alone at home I switch on the TV because television can be a substitute friend.					

Internet Use

General Information about the Internet:

6- Do you use the internet?

1- □ Yes 2- □ No (If no please don't complete the questionnaire)

7- Do you have internet access at home?

1- □ Yes 2- □ No

8- How often do you use the internet?

1- □ 4-5 times a week
2- □ Twice a week
3- □ Once a week
4- □ Less often
5- □ Never

9- How often do you access the internet in the following locations?

	Location	Never	Occasionally	At least once a week	Several times a week	Virtually every day
1	At home					
2	At relative's home.					
3	At a friend's home					
4	At university campus					
5	At internet café.					
6	Using my mobile phone.					
7	Using my I Pad.					
8	Other, please state.....					

10-How did you start using the Internet?

1- □ I started through friend's recommendation.
2- □ I stated through family member's recommendation.
3- □ I started at school.
4- □ I started as a result of things I saw in the media.
5- □ I started due to my own curiosity
6- □ Other, please state.....

Internet use patterns

11- How long have you been using the Internet?

1- □ Less than one year
2- □ Between one and two years
3- □ Between Three and four years
4- □ More than four years
5-□ Not at all

12- Please indicate the frequency with which you use the internet for each of the following online activities.

	Online activities	Never	Occasionally	At least once a week	Several times a week	Virtually every day
1-	Seeking international news.					
2-	Seeking local news.					
3-	Seeking national news.					
4-	To check weather reports.					
5-	Seeking information for sports					
6-	Searching information about TV programmes.					
7-	Searching information for celebrity gossip.					
8-	Searching information for health.					
9-	Seeking information for finance.					
10-	Searching information related children.					
11-	Searching information related to travel.					
12-	Seeking information linked to studies.					
13-	Visiting University website.					
14-	Seeking information linked to personal offline hobbies/interests					
15-	Sending and receiving emails.					
16-	Going on chat rooms					
17-	Spending time on social network sites such as Facebook or Twitter.					

18-	Playing online game.					
19-	Watching TV programmes.					
20-	Online shopping.					
21-	Online banking.					
22-	Listening to radio broadcasts.					
23-	Watching music and videos.					
24-	Watching movies.					
25-	Booking travel or holiday.					
26-	Keeping a blog.					

13-: Please indicate how serious each of the following issues is when you are using the internet.

	issues	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly agree
1-	I have difficulty accessing the Internet because we don't have a broadband internet connection.					
2-	My internet connection is very slow.					
3-	Internet access is expensive					
4-	I have a lack of free time to use the Internet.					
5-	I have privacy and security concerns about using the Internet.					
6-	I have difficulty accessing the internet at home because my use of it is restricted by other members of my family					

7-	I find using the Internet difficult because I don't always know what to do.					
8-	My internet is restricted by blocking and filtering software use by my internet Service Provider.					
9-	My internet use is restricted because most web sites use English rather than Arabic.					
10-	Using the Internet makes me feel anxious.					
11	The lack of training makes it difficult to use the Internet.					

14- Circle how often you use that media for that particular purpose from 1(never) to 5 (all of the time).

	I use the Internet :	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All the time
1-	Because everyone I know does	1	2	3	4	5
2-	To entertain myself.	1	2	3	4	5
3-	To communicate with my relatives	1	2	3	4	5
4-	To keep in touch with existing friends	1	2	3	4	5
5-	To maintain old relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
6-	To maintain physically distance relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
7-	To keep up with the most important things that happen in the world	1	2	3	4	5
8-	To stay informed about a range of topics	1	2	3	4	5
9-	To escape daily problems	1	2	3	4	5
10-	To seek information about my interests	1	2	3	4	5
11-	To increase my knowledge and refine my skills.	1	2	3	4	5

The importance of different media for different applications

15- How important are the following media as sources of general information for you?

		Very important	Important	Not important	Not important at all
1-	Internet	4	3	2	1
2-	Books	4	3	2	1
3-	Newspapers	4	3	2	1
4-	Magazines	4	3	2	1
5-	TV	4	3	2	1
6-	Radio	4	3	2	1

16- How important are the following media as sources of entertainment to you?

		Very important	Important	Not important	Not important at all
1-	Internet	4	3	2	1
2-	Books	4	3	2	1
3-	Newspapers	4	3	2	1
4-	Magazines	4	3	2	1
5-	TV	4	3	2	1
6-	Radio	4	3	2	1

17- How important are the following media as sources of study-related information?

		Very important	Important	Not important	Not important at all
1-	Internet	4	3	2	1
2-	Books	4	3	2	1
3-	Newspapers	4	3	2	1
4-	Magazines	4	3	2	1
5-	TV	4	3	2	1
6-	Radio	4	3	2	1

18- How important are the following media in terms of its relevance to your social life?

		Very important	Important	Not important	Not important at all
1-	Internet	4	3	2	1
2-	Books	4	3	2	1

3-	Newspapers	4	3	2	1
4-	Magazines	4	3	2	1
5-	TV	4	3	2	1
6-	Radio	4	3	2	1

Attitudes towards the Internet

19- Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement. Please tick one answer for each statement.

	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1-	The Internet allows me to do more interesting and imaginative work.					
2-	The Internet broadens my knowledge.					
3-	The Internet helps me acquire various kind of information (news, education, health, etc.) I need.					
4-	Using the Internet is a very important aspect of being a student					
5-	The internet is a convenient tool of communication because it can be done quickly efficiently and at any time of the day.					
6-	My lack of knowledge and skills make it difficult to use the internet.					
7-	The best thing is that with the internet can know everything happening around the world by the touch of finger.					
8-	The internet is not a reliable source of news.					
9-	The internet negatively affects activities related to my study					
10-	The internet negatively affects my relationship with family members (spouse, children, parents)					
11-	The internet negatively affects my social relationships with my friends					
12-	I feel frustrated by the slow connection of the Internet.					

13-	The Internet can be a bad thing because it has pornographic materials and a lot of violence.					
14-	Using the Internet is a waste of time.					
15-	Using the internet for long time negatively affects my sleep.					

Student's use of the Internet and their use of other activities

20- Thinking about your use of the internet, would you say that since you started using it that it has changed the extent to which you engage in other activities? Please indicate, in responding to the items below, whether in each case you spend less time, more time or about the same amount of time doing this since you started using the Internet.

	Statement	Decreased a lot	Decreased somewhat	Remained the same	Increased somewhat	Increased a lot
1-	Watching television					
2-	Reading newspapers					
3-	Listening to radio					
4-	Reading books.					
5-	Reading magazines					
6-	performs the daily prayers					
7-	Interact with family members					
8-	Socializing with friends					
9-	The time spend on studying					
10-	Playing sports					
11-	Communicating with colleagues and/or classmates					
12-	Communicating with friends					
13-	Communicating with parents					
14-	Communicating with brothers and sisters.					
15-	Communicating with other relatives.					

21- How often do you use the internet to watch TV programmes

1- □ Frequently
2- □ Most of the time
3- □ Sometimes
4- □ Rarely
5- □ Never (if never skip the next question)

22- Why do you watch TV online? It is possible to tick more than one answer:

1-□ Because of the ability of watching the favourite programmes at any time.
2- □ Because of the personal convenience.
3- □ To catch up with missing programmes.
4- □ To avoid the commercial interruptions.

Personal Information

Please tick the appropriate answer:

23 -Gender:
1-□ Male
2-□ Female

24 -The age group you belong to:
1-□ 18-25
2-□ 26-30
3-□ Over 30

25-Year level at university:
1-□ First Year
2-□ Second Year
3-□ Third Year
4-□ Fourth year

26-Faculty:
1-□ Art and Humanities
2-□ Science
4-□ Economics and Administration

27-Family monthly income:
1-□ 2000- 5000
2-□ 5001- 10000
3-□ 100001- 15000
4-□ More than 15000

Appendix 2: The Questionnaire Form [Arabic Version]

عزيزي الطالب/عزيزتي الطالبة

إن هذه الاستبانة هي جزء من بحث بعنوان "**تأثير استخدام الانترنت لدى طلبة الجامعات السعودية على استخدامهم للتلفزيون**" للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه. وحيث أن البحث يهدف الى التعرف على تأثير الانترنت على وسائل الإتصال الجماهيري الأخرى ومنها التلفزيون فهو يتطلب جمع البيانات من المستفيدين عن مشاهدتهم للتلفزيون وعن استخدامهم للانترنت. لذا أرجو مساعدتي في مل ء هذه الاستبانة علماً بأن مشاركتكم تطوعية ولا ضرورة لكتابة الاسم حفاظاً على الخصوصية والمعلومات التي ستزودنا بها من خلال هذه الاستبانة سوف تستخدم فقط لأغراض البحث.

شاكرة لكم كريم تعاونكم

مشاهدة التلفزيون

1- كم غالباً ماتشاهد التلفزيون

2- □ 4-5 مرات في الأسبوع

3- □ مرتين في الأسبوع

4- □ مره في الأسبوع

5- □ أقل من ذلك

6- □ ليس على الاطلاق

2- كم غالباً ماتشاهد التلفزيون في الأماكن المختلفة التالية :

	المكان	ليس على الاطلاق	أحياناً	مره واحده في الأسبوع على الأقل	عدة مرات في الأسبوع	يومياً
1-	في المنزل					
2-	في منزل أحد الأقارب					
3-	في منزل أحد الأصدقاء					
4-	في مكان آخر اذكر:					

3- مع من تشاهد التلفزيون

		ليس على الاطلاق	أحياناً	مرة واحدة في الأسبوع على الأقل	عدة مرات في الأسبوع	يومياً
1-	وحيداً					
2-	في وجود الوالده					
3-	في وجود الوالد					
4-	في وجود الأخوة والأخوات					
5-	مع الأقارب					
6-	مع الأصدقاء					
7-	مع أشخاص آخرين					

4- فضلا أشر الى معدل تكرار مشاهدتك للبرامج التلفزيونية التالية:

	نوع البرنامج	ليس على الاطلاق	أحياناً	مرة واحدة في الأسبوع على الأقل	عدة مرات في الأسبوع	يومياً
1-	البرامج الدينية					
2-	البرامج الكوميدية					
3-	المسلسلات					
4-	البرامج الاخبارية					
5-	برامج النقاشات					
6-	البرامج الوثائقية					
7-	البرامج الرياضية					
8-	البرامج السياسية					
9-	البرامج الصحية					
10-	برامج الجمال					
11-	برامج الألعاب					
12-	البرامج الموسيقية					
13-	برامج الفيديو كليب					
14-	البرامج التعليمية					
15-	البرامج العلمية					
16-	برامج التسوق					
17-	برامج الجرائم					
18-	البرامج الواقعية					
19-	برامج الطهي					

5- هذه آراء مجموعة من الأشخاص حول التلفزيون. فضلا أذكر ما اذا كنت موافق أو غير موافق مع كل رأي.

	العبارة	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
1-	وجدت أن التلفزيون يقدم لي القليل مما أحب.					
2-	عندما أستيقظ من النوم أو عندما أعود الى المنزل أقوم دائماً بتشغيل التلفزيون كخلفية صوتية فقط.					
3-	البرامج القيمة تشجعني على مشاهدة التلفزيون.					
4-	أميل الى تشغيل التلفزيون فقط عندما أعرف أن هناك شيئاً أريد مشاهدته.					
5-	أهم أسباب مشاهدتي للتلفزيون هو أن أبقى عل اطلاع دائم على آخر الأحداث في الأخبار.					
6-	في عدم وجود التلفزيون أشعر بالاحباط والحزن.					
7-	وجود التلفزيون يعطي أفراد المنزل الاحساس بالجمعة.					
8-	التلفزيون هو مصدر موثوق للأخبار.					
9-	التلفزيون يجعلني أشعر أني على اتصال دائم بالعالم الخارجي.					
10-	عادة أشاهد التلفزيون عندما يقوم شخص آخر بتشغيله.					
11-	عادة لا أقوم باختيار ما اشاهده في التلفزيون					
12-	لا أستطيع العيش بدون التلفزيون.					
13-	غالباً ما أعيد ترتيب الأحداث في حياتي حتى أستطيع مشاهدة برامجي التلفزيونية المفضلة.					
14-	غالباً ما أتحدث مع أصدقائي عن برامجي التلفزيونية المفضلة.					
15-	عندما أجلس وحيداً في المنزل أفتح التلفزيون لأن التلفزيون يمكن أن يكون صديق بديل.					

استخدام الانترنت

معلومات عامة عن استخدام الانترنت

6- هل تستخدم الانترنت ؟

1- □ نعم (اذا كانت اجابتك بـ لا أرجو عدم اكمال الاستبيان) 2- □ لا

7- هل لديكم خدمة الدخول على الانترنت في المنزل؟

1- □ نعم 2- □ لا

8- كم غالباً ماتستخدم الانترنت؟

1 - □ 4-5 مرات في الأسبوع

2- □ مرتين في الأسبوع

3- □ مره في الأسبوع

4- □ أقل من ذلك

5- □ لا استخدمه تماماً

9- كم غالباً ماتستخدم الانترنت في الأماكن التالية:

	المكان	لعدة على الاطلاق	أحياناً	مره واحدة في الأسبوع على الأقل	عدة مرات في الأسبوع	يومياً
1-	في المنزل					
2-	في منزل أحد الأقارب					
3-	في منزل أحد الأصدقاء					
4-	في الجامعة					
5-	في مقهى الانترنت					
6-	من خلال الهاتف المحمول					
7-	من خلال استخدام i pad					
7-	مكان آخر أذكر :					

10- كيف بدأت تستخدم الانترنت؟

1- □ بدأت استخدم الانترنت من خلال اقتراحات الأصدقاء.

2- □ بدأت استخدم الانترنت من خلال اقتراحات الأقارب.

3- □ بدأت استخدم الانترنت في المدرسة

4- □ بدأت استخدم الانترنت نتيجة لما أشاهده في وسائل الاعلام.

5- □ بدأت استخدم الانترنت نتيجة لفضولي الشخصي.

6- □ آخر. أذكر : .....

أنماط استخدام الانترنت

11- منذ متى وانت تستخدم الانترنت؟

1- □ أقل من سنه.

2- □ مابين سنه الى سنتين.

3- □ مابين ثلاث سنوات الى أربع سنوات.

4- □ أكثر من أربع سنوات.

5- □ ولا واحده مماذكر.

12- أرجو الاشارة الى معدل تكرار استخدامك للانترنت من أجل الأنشطة التالية :

	الأنشطة	ليس على الاطلاق	أحياناً	مره واحده في الأسبوع على الأقل	عدة مرات في الأسبوع	يومياً
1-	البحث عن الأخبار العالمية					
2-	البحث عن الأخبار المحلية					
3-	البحث عن الأخبار الوطنية					
4-	لمعرفة أحوال الطقس					
5-	البحث عن معلومات عن الرياضة					
6-	البحث عن معلومات عن البرامج التلفزيونية					
7-	البحث عن أخبار المشاهير					
8-	البحث عن معلوات عن الصحة					
9-	البحث عن المعلومات الاقتصادية					
10-	البحث عن ملعلومات متعلقة بالأطفال					

11- البحث عن معلومات متعلقة بالسفر						
12- البحث عن معلومات متعلقة بالدراسة						
13- لتصفح موقع الجامعة						
14- البحث عن معلومات شخصة عن الاخرين مثل الهوايات والاهتمامات						
15- ارسال واستقبال البريد الالكتروني						
16- الدخول على غرف المحادثة (chatting room)						
17- قضاء الوقت على الشبكات الاجتماعية						
18- الألعاب الالكترونية						
19- مشاهدة البرامج التلفزيونية						
20- التسوق الالكتروني						
21- الخدمات البنكية						
22- الاستماع الى الراديو						
23- مشاهدة الموسيقى والفيديو						
24- مشاهدة الأفلام						
25- حجز السفر والسياحة						
26- كتابة المدونات(blogging)						

13- أرجو الاشارة إلى أي مدى أنت موافق أو غير موافق مع المشاكل التالية والتي تواجهك عند استخدام الانترنت

	المشكلة	اوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
1-	لدي صعوبة في الدخول على الانترنت لآن ليس لدي انترنت برودباند					
2-	اتصال الانترنت بطيئ جداً					

3- الدخول على الانترنت مكلف مادياً						
4- ليس لدي الوقت الكافي لاستخدام الانترنت						
5- هناك مشاكل تتعلق بالخصوصية والأمن						
6- لدي صعوبة في استخدام الانترنت في المنزل لأن استخدامي مقيد من قبل أحد الوالدين.						
7- أجد صعوبة في استخدام الانترنت لأنني لا أعرف دائماً ماذا أفعل.						
8- لدي صعوبة في استخدام الانترنت بسبب حجب المواقع من قبل مزود خدمة الانترنت.						
9- لدي صعوبة في استخدام الانترنت لأن معظم المواقع تستخدم اللغة الانجليزية وليست العربية						
10- استخدام الإنترنت يجعلني أشعر بالقلق						
11- نقص التدريب يجعل من الصعب استخدام الإنترنت						

14- ارجو اختيار كيف غالباً ماتستخدم الانترنت للأغراض التالية من 1 (ليس على الاطلاق) الى 5 (كل الوقت) :

	استخدم الانترنت	ليس على الاطلاق	نادراً	أحياناً	غالباً	كل الوقت
1-	لأن كل من أعرفهم يستخدمونه					
2-	من أجل التسلية					
3-	من أجل أن اتواصل مع الأقارب					
4-	من أجل أن اكون على اتصال مع الأصدقاء					
5-	من أجل الحفاظ على العلاقات مع الآخرين					
6-	من أجل الحفاظ على العلاقات مع الأصدقاء الذين يعيشون في أماكن بعيدة.					
7-	من أجل أن اكون على اتصال دائم مع مايجري حولي في العالم					

8-	من أجل أن اكون على علم بمختلف المواضيع					
9-	من أجل الهروب من المشاكل اليومية					
10-	من أجل البحث عن معلومات عن اهتماماتي					
11-	من أجل زيادة معلوماتي و صقل مهاراتي					

15- كم هي مهمة بالنسبة لك وسائل الاعلام التالية كمصدر للمعلومات العامة

	وسائل الاعلام	مهمة جداً	مهمة	ليست مهمة	ليست مهمة على الاطلاق
1-	الانترنت	4	3	2	1
2-	الكتب	4	3	2	1
3-	الجرائد	4	3	2	1
4-	المجلات	4	3	2	1
5-	التلفزيون	4	3	2	1
6-	الراديو	4	3	2	1

16- كم هي مهمة بالنسبة لك وسائل الاعلام التالية كمصدر للترفيه

	وسائل الاعلام	مهمة جداً	مهمة	ليست مهمة	ليست مهمة على الاطلاق
1-	الانترنت	4	3	2	1
2-	الكتب	4	3	2	1
3-	الجرائد	4	3	2	1
4-	المجلات	4	3	2	1
5-	التلفزيون	4	3	2	1
6-	الراديو	4	3	2	1

17- كم هي مهمة بالنسبة لك وسائل الاعلام التالية كمصدر للمعلومات المتعلقة بالدراسة

	وسائل الاعلام	مهمة جداً	مهمة	ليست مهمة	ليست مهمة على الاطلاق
1-	الانترنت	4	3	2	1
2-	الكتب	4	3	2	1
3-	الجرائد	4	3	2	1
4-	المجلات	4	3	2	1
5-	التلفزيون	4	3	2	1
6-	الراديو	4	3	2	1

18- كم هي مهمة بالنسبة لك وسائل الاعلام التالية من ناحية علاقته بحياتك الاجتماعية

	وسائل الاعلام	مهمة جداً	مهمة	ليست مهمة	ليست مهمة على الاطلاق
1-	الانترنت	4	3	2	1
2-	الكتب	4	3	2	1
3-	الجرائد	4	3	2	1
4-	المجلات	4	3	2	1
5-	التلفزيون	4	3	2	1
6-	الراديو	4	4	2	1

الاتجاهات نحو الانترنت

19- أرجو الاشارة الى ما إذا كنت موافق أو غير موافق مع العبارات التالية:

	العبارة	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
1-	الانترنت يساعدني في عمل أشياء ابداعية وممتعة					
2-	الانترنت يساعدني على توسيع مداركي					
3-	الانترنت يساعدني في الحصول على مختلف انواع المعلومات (أخبار, تعليم,صحة , الخ)					
4-	استخدام الانترنت جانب مهم جداً كوني طالب					
5-	الانترنت هو أداة اتصال مريحة لأن الاتصال عن طريق الانترنت يتم بسرعة وبكفائة وفي أي وقت خلال اليوم					
6-	قلة معرفتي وخبراتي يجعل استخدام الانترنت صعب					
7-	أفضل شيء في الانترنت هو أنه يجعلني على اطلاع دائم على مايجري حول العالم بلمسة أصبع					
8-	الانترنت ليس مصدر موثوق به للأخبار					
9-	الانترنت يؤثر سلبياً على الأنشطة المتعلقة بالدراسة					
10-	الانترنت يؤثر سلبياً على علاقتي مع أفراد الأسرة (الزوج, الأطفال, الوالدين)					
11-	الانترنت يؤثر سلبياً على علاقتي الاجتماعية مع الأصدقاء					
12-	أشعر بالإحباط بسبب بطء سرعة اتصال الانترنت					
13-	الانترنت قد يكون شيئ سيئ بسبب احتوائه على المواد الاباحية والكثير من العنف					

14-	استخدام الانترنت هو مضيعة للوقت					
15-	استخدام الانترنت لوقت طويل يؤثر سلبياً على نومي					

20- عندما تفكر في استخدامك للانترنت هل تعتقد أنه منذ بداية استخدامك للانترنت حدث تغيير في مشاركتك في الأنشطة الأخرى؟ فضلاً أشر ما اذا كنت منذ بداية استخدامك للانترنت تقضي وقت أقل , وقت أكثر, نفس الوقت في كل نشاط من الأنشطة التالية:

	النشاط	انخفض كثيراً	انخفض بعض الشيء	مستمر كما هو	ارتفع بعض الشيء	ارتفع كثيراً
1-	مشاهدة التلفزيون					
2-	قراءة الجرايد					
3-	الاستماع الى الراديو					
4-	قراءة الكتب					
5-	قراءة المجلات					
6-	أداء الصلاة					
7-	التفاعل مع أفراد الأسرة					
8-	العلاقات الاجتماعية مع الاصدقاء					
9-	الوقت المخصص للدراسة					
10-	ممارسة الرياضة					
11-	التواصل مع الزملاء أو زملاء الدراسة					
12-	التواصل مع الأصدقاء					
13-	التواصل مع الوالدين					
14-	التواصل مع الأخوة والأخوات					
15-	التواصل مع الأقارب					

21- كم غالباً ماتستخدم الانترنت لمشاهدة البرامج التلفزيونية

1 - □ كثيراً

2- □ أغلب الوقت

3- □ أحياناً

4- □ نادراً

5- □ ليس على الاطلاق (إذا كانت الاجابة بـ لا فضلاً تخطى السؤال التالي)

22- لماذا تشاهد التلفزيون على الانترنت؟ يمكنك اختيار اكثر من اجابة

1- □ بسبب القدرة على مشاهدة برامجي التلفزيونية المفضلة في أي وقت

2- □ بسبب الراحة الشخصية

3- □ من أجل مشاهدة ما فاتني من برامج تلفزيونية

4- □ من أجل تفادي ازعاج الاعلانات التلفزيونية

معلومات شخصية

فضلاً اختار الاجابة المناسبة

23- الجنس:

1- □ ذكر

2- □ أنثى

24- الفئة العمرية التي تنتمي اليها :

1- □ 18-25

2- □ 26-30

3- □ أكثر من 30

25- السنة الدراسية:

1- □ سنة أولى

2- □ سنة ثانية

3- □ سنة ثالثة

4- □ سنة رابعة

26- التخصص الدراسي:

1- □ الآداب والعلوم الانسانية

2- □ علوم

3- □ ادارة واقتصاد

27- دخل الأسرة الشهري:

1- □ 2000-5000

2- □ 5001- 10000

3- □ 100001- 15000

4- □ أكثر من 15000

Appendix 3: The Time Diary Form [English Version]

Dear Students

I am a PhD student in Media and Communication department at university of Leicester, and I am working on the following research topic: **The impact of the Internet on Saudi students' use of television**.

As part of this research, I would like you to use this diary to record how you spend your time with the Internet over the one day, to help me understand the different ways people use their time. The diary asks you to record your activities for the previous 24 hours.

To ensure that the information is as accurate as possible we would appreciate it if you could fill in the diary on a daily basis. The next pages will provide you with some questions regarding your experience of filling the diary, please write your comments based on those questions.
Once you have finished recording your activities for the whole day week, please contact me to arrange a meeting to return the diary and discuss your feedback.

Many thanks for your help

Khulood Miliany

Personal Information

Please tick the appropriate answer:

1- □ Gender:
2- □ Male
3- □ Female

2- The age group you belong to:

1- □ 18-25
2- □ 26-30
3- □ Over 30

3- Year level at university:

1- □ First year
2- □ Second year

3- □ Third year
4- □ Fourth year
4- Faculty:

1-□ Art and Humanities
2-□ Science
3-□ Economics and Administration

This diary is designed to measure the way you spent your time during one 24 hour period. Your diary is for [……]. The day is broken down into 30-minute time segments. Down the left-hand side of each diary page is a list of activities.

Please indicate whether any of these activities was the primary activity in which you were engaged during each 30-minute time period by placing a tick in the appropriate box. In other words, what would you regard as the main behavior in which you were engaged at that time.

For example, if you were sleeping during the 6.00-6.30am time-slot, place a tick against sleeping for that time. If you were commuting between 8.00-8.30am, put a tick against commuting for that time slot.

Could you also indicate in the case of each activity, regardless of the time when you were doing it, in which location this activity took place? Please put one of the following codes in the location of activities column as follows: 1 – at my own home; 2 – at university; 3 – at a relatives' house; 4 – at a friend's house; 5 – some other fixed location; 6 – while travelling between locations .

Activity	Location of activities	Time											
		6:00 6:30AM	6:30 7:00AM	7:00 7:30AM	7:30 8:00AM	8:00 8:30AM	8:30 9:00AM	9:00 9:30AM	9:30 10:00AM	10:00 10:30AM	10:30 11:00AM	11:00 11:30AM	11:30 12:00PM
Non-Free Time Activities													
01 sleeping													
02 eating													
03 commuting													
04 working													
05 studying													
06sports/ leisure/playing													
07 Housework													
08 Staying at home													
09 Shopping													
10 praying													
Free Time Activities													
01 watching TV													
02 reading													
03 relaxing													
04 entertainment													
05 Listening to music on the internet													
06 watching													

movies on the Internet.													
07 Playing games on the internet													
08 Chatting using Internet													
09 Website browsing on the Internet													
10 Using Messenger on Internet													
11 Using Internet e-mail													
12 online banking													
13 visit/write for blogs													
14 Seeking information online													
15 listen to radio on Internet													
16 watch television on Internet													
17 use social network sites such as facebook.													
18 Visiting friends at their house													
19 Visiting relatives at their house													
20 Chatting with friends using mobile phone													
21 Visiting University Web site online													

Activity	Location of activities	Time											
		12:00	12:30	13:00	13:30	14:00	14:30	15:00	15:30	16:00	16:30	17:00	17:30
		12:30PM	13:00AM	13:30PM	14:00 PM	14:30PM	15:00 PM	15:30PM	16:00PM	16:30PM	17:00PM	17:30PM	18:00PM
Non-Free Time Activities													
01 sleeping													
02 eating													
03 commuting													
04 working													
05 studying													
06sports/ leisure/playing													
07 Housework													
08 Staying at home													
09 Shopping													
10 praying													
Free Time Activities													
01 watching TV													
02 reading													
03 relaxing													
04 entertainment													

05 Listening to music on the internet													
06 watching movies on the Internet.													
07 Playing games on the internet													
08 Chatting using Internet													
09 Website browsing on the Internet													
10 Using Messenger on Internet													
11 Using Internet e-mail													
12 online banking													
13 visit/write for blogs													
14 Seeking information online													
15 listen to radio on Internet													
16 watch television on Internet													
17 use social network sites such as facebook.													
18 Visiting friends at their house													
19 Visiting relatives at their house													
20 Chatting with friends using mobile phone													
21 Visiting University Web site online													

Activity	Location of activities	Time											
		18:00	18:30	19:00	19:30	20:00	20:30	21:00	21:30	22:00	22:30	23:00	23:30
		18:30PM	19:00PM	19:30PM	20:00 PM	20:30PM	21:00 PM	21:30PM	22:00PM	22:30PM	23:00AM	23:30AM	00:00AM
Non-Free Time Activities													
01 sleeping													
02 eating													
03 commuting													
04 working													
05 studying													
06sports/ leisure/playing													
07 Housework													
08 Staying at home													
09 Shopping													
10 praying													
Free Time													

Activities													
01 watching TV													
02 reading													
03 relaxing													
04 entertainment													
05 Listening to music on the internet													
06 watching movies on the Internet.													
07 Playing games on the internet													
08 Chatting using Internet													
09 Website browsing on the Internet													
10 Using Messenger on Internet													
11 Using Internet e-mail													
12 online banking													
13 visit/write for blogs													
14 Seeking information online													
15 listen to radio on Internet													
16 watch television on Internet													
17 use social network sites such as facebook.													
18 Visiting friends at their house													
19 Visiting relatives at their house													
20 Chatting with friends using mobile phone													
21 Visiting University Web site online													

Activity	Location of activities	Time											
		00:00	00:30	1:00	1:30	2:00	2:30	3:00	3:30	4:00	4:30	5:00	5:30
		00:30AM	1:00AM	1:30AM	2:00AM	2:30AM	3:00AM	3:30AM	4:00AM	4:30AM	5:00AM	5:30AM	6:00AM
Non-Free Time Activities													
01 sleeping													
02 eating													
03 commuting													
04 working													
05 studying													
06sports/ leisure/playing													
07 Housework													
08 Staying at home													

09 Shopping													
10 praying													
Free Time Activities													
01 watching TV													
02 reading													
03 relaxing													
04 entertainment													
05 Listening to music on the internet													
06 watching movies on the Internet.													
07 Playing games on the internet													
08 Chatting using Internet													
09 Website browsing on the Internet													
10 Using Messenger on Internet													
11 Using Internet e-mail													
12 online banking													
13 visit/write for blogs													
14 Seeking information online													
15 listen to radio on Internet													
16 watch television on Internet													
17 use social network sites such as facebook.													
18 Visiting friends at their house													
19 Visiting relatives at their house													
20 Chatting with friends using mobile phone													
21 Visiting University Web site online													

Appendix 4: The Time Diary Form [Arabic Version]

عزيزي الطالب/الطالبة

إن هذه المذكرة هي جزء من بحث بعنوان تأثير استخدام الانترنت لدى طلبة الجامعات السعودية على استخدامهم لوسائل الاتصال الجماهيري الأخرى للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه. وكجزء من هذا البحث أرجو استخدام هذه المذكرة لتسجل كيف تقضي وقتك مع الانترنت على مدار يوم كامل حيث هذا سوف يساعدني في معرفة كيف يقضي الطلاب أوقاتهم بطرق مختلفة. لذا أرجو تسجيل الأنشطة المختلفة التي قمت بها خلال الـ 24 ساعة الماضية. علماً بأن مشاركتكم تطوعية ولا ضرورة لكتابة الاسم حفاظاً على الخصوصية والمعلومات التي ستزودنا بها من خلال هذه المذكرة سوف تستخدم فقط لأغراض البحث.

شاكرة لكم كريم تعاونكم

معلومات شخصية

فضلاً اختار الاجابة المناسبة

الجنس:

1- □ ذكر

2- □ أنثى

الفئة العمرية التي تنتمي اليها :

1- □ 18-25

2- □ 26-30

3- □ أكثر من 30

السنة الدراسية:

1- □ سنة أولى

2- □ سنة ثانية

3- □ سنة ثالثة

4- □ سنة رابعة

التخصص الدراسي:

1- □ الآداب والعلوم الانسانية

2- □ علوم

3- □ ادارة واقتصاد

عزيزي الطالب/االطالبة

تم تصميم هذه المذكرة لتقيس الطريقة التي تقضي بها وقتك خلال فترة 24 ساعة. مذكرتك هي ليوم ..... اليوم مقسم إلى عدة أقسام كل قسم 30 دقيقة . على الجانب الأيسر من االمذكرة هناك قائمة بالأنشطة. يرجى توضيح ما إذا كانت أي من هذه الأنشطة هو نشاط أساسي كنت تقوم به خلال كل فترة زمنية لمدة 30 دقيقة عن طريق وضع علامة √ في الخانة المناسبة. بمعنى آخر. ماهو النشاط الذي تعتبره سلوك أساسي كنت تقوم بعمله في ذلك الوقت. على سبيل المثال, إذا كنت نائم خلال الفترة من 6 الى 6.30 ضع علامة √ أمام خانة نائم. وإذا كنت تتنقل خلال الفترة من 8- 8.30 ضع علامة √ أمام خانة تنقل. يمكنك أيضاً الاشارة الى المكان الذي تقوم فيه بهذا النشاط . فضلاً ضع واحدة من الرموز التالية في عمود مكان القيام بالنشاط : 1- في المنزل, 2- في الجامعة , 3- في منزل أحد الأقارب , 4- في منزل أحد الأصدقاء, 5- بعض المواقع الأخرى, 6- خلال التنقل بين الأماكن.

النشاط	أماكـــن الأنشطة	الـزمـــــــن											
		6:00 ص	6:30 ص	7:00ص	7:30ص	8:00 ص	8:30 ص	9:00 ص	9:30 ص	10:00ص	10:30ص	11:00ص	11:30 ص
		6:30 ص	7:00ص	7:30ص	8:00ص	8:30 ص	9:00 ص	9:30 ص	10:00ص	10:30ص	11:00ص	11:30ص	12:00 م
الأنشطة الروتينية اليومية													
1. النوم													
2. الأكل													
3. التنقل													
4. العمل													
5. الدراسة													
6. رياضة / ترفيه													
7. الأعمال المنزلية													
8. الجلوس في المنزل													

9. التسوق													
10. الصلاة													
أنشطة إضافية:													
1. مشاهدة التفزيون													
2. القراءه													
3. الاسترخاء													
4. الترفيه													
5. الاستماع الى الموسيقى على الانترنت													
6. مشاهدة الأفلام على الانترنت.													
7. اللعب على الانترنت.													
8. الدردشة على الانترنت.													
9. تصفح المواقع على الانترنت.													
10. استخدام الماسنجر على الانترنت.													
11. استخدام الايميل على الانترنت.													
12. استخدام الخدمات البنكية على الانترنت.													
13. كتابة المدونات													
14. البحث عن معلومات على الانترنت.													
15. الاستماع إلى الراديو على الانترنت													
16. مشاهدة التلفزيون على الانترنت.													
17. الدخول على الشبكات الاجتماعية على الانترنت مثل الفيس بوك.													
18. زيارة الأصدقاء													
19. زيارة الأقارب.													

20. االمحادثة مع الأصدقاء من خلال الجوال																		
21. تصفح موقع الجامعة على الانترنت																		

النشـــــــاط	أماكـــن الأنشطة	الـزمـــــــن																
		12:00 م	12:30م	1:00م	1:30م	2:00م	2:30م	3:00م	3:30 م	4:00م	4:30م	5:00م	5:30م	12:30 م	1:00م	1:30م	2:00م	2:30م	3:00م	3:30 م	4:00 م	4:30 م	5:00م	5:30م	6:00 م
الأنشطة الروتينية اليومية																									
1. النوم																									
2. الأكل																									
3. التنقل																									
4. العمل																									
5. الدراسة																									
6. رياضة / ترفيه																									
7. الأعمال المنزلية																									
8. الجلوس في المنزل																									
9. التسوق																									
10. الصلاة																									
أنشطة إضافية:																									
1. مشاهدة التلفزيون																									
2. القراءة																									
3. الاسترخاء.																									
4. الترفيه.																									
5. الاستماع إلى الموسيقى على الانترنت.																									
6. مشاهدة الأفلام على الانترنت.																									
7. اللعب على الانترنت.																									

8. الدردشة على الانترنت.																			
9. تصفح المواقع على الانترنت.																			
10. استخدام الماسنجر على الانترنت.																			
11. استخدام الايميل على الانترنت.																			
12. استخدام الخدمات البنكية على الانترنت.																			
13. كتابة المدونات																			
14. البحث عن معلومات على الانترنت.																			
15. الاستماع إلى الراديو على الانترنت																			
16. مشاهدة التلفزيون على الانترنت.																			
17. الدخول على الشبكات الاجتماعية على الانترنت مثل الفيس بوك.																			
18. زيارة الأصدقاء																			
19. زيارة الأقارب.																			
20. االمحادثة مع الأصدقاء من خلال الجوال																			
21. تصفح موقع الجامعة على الانترنت																			

النشـــــــاط	أماكـــن الأنشطة	الـزمـــــــن											
		6:00 م	6:30م	7:00م	7:30م	8:00م	8:30م	9:00م	9:30 م	10:00م	10:30م	11:00م	11:30 م
		6:30 م	7:00م	7:30م	8:00م	8:30م	9:00م	9:30 م	10:00م	10:30م	11:00م	11:30م	12:00ص
النشطة الروتينية اليومية													
1.النوم													
2.الأكل													
3.التنقل													
4.العمل													
5.الدراسة													
6.رياضة / ترفيه													
7.الأعمال المنزلية													
8.الجلوس في المنزل													

9.التسوق													
10.الصلاة													
أنشطة إضافية:													
1.مشاهدة التلفزيون													
2.القراءة													
3 .الاسترخاء.													
4 .الترفيه.													
5 .الاستماع إلى الموسيقى على الانترنت.													
6.مشاهدة الأفلام على الانترنت.													
7 .اللعب على الانترنت.													
8 .الدردشة على الانترنت.													
9.تصفح المواقع على الانترنت.													
10.استخدام الماسنجر على الانترنت.													
11.استخدام الايميل على الانترنت.													
12.استخدام الخدمات البنكية على الانترنت.													
13.كتابة المدونات													
14.البحث عن معلومات على الانترنت.													
15.الاستماع إلى الراديو على الانترنت													
16.مشاهدة التلفزيون على الانترنت.													
17.الدخول على الشبكات الاجتماعية على الانترنت مثل الفيس بوك.													
18.زيارة الأصدقاء													
19.زيارة الأقارب.													

20. المحادثة مع الأصدقاء من خلال الجوال												
21. تصفح موقع الجامعة على الانترنت												

النشـــــــاط	أماكـــن الأنشطة	الـزمـــــــن											
		12:00 ص 1:00 ص	1:00ص 1:30ص	1:30ص 2:00ص	2:00ص 2:30ص	2:30ص 3:00ص	3:00ص 3:30ص	3:30ص 4:00ص	4:00ص 4:30ص	4:30 ص 5:00ص	5:00ص 5:30ص	5:30ص 6:00ص	6:00ص 6:30ص
الأنشطة الروتينية اليومية													
1.النوم													
2.الأكل													
3.التنقل													
4.العمل													
5.الدراسة													
6.رياضة / ترفيه													
7.الأعمال المنزلية													
8.الجلوس في المنزل													
9.التسوق													
10.الصلاة													
أنشطة إضافية:													
1.مشاهدة التلفزيون													
2.القراءة													
3.الاسترخاء.													
4.الترفيه.													
5.الاستماع إلى الموسيقى على الانترنت.													
6.مشاهدة الأفلام على الانترنت.													
7.اللعب على الانترنت.													

8.الدردشة على الانترنت.												
9.تصفح المواقع على الانترنت.												
10.استخدام الماسنجر على الانترنت.												
11.استخدام الايميل على الانترنت.												
12.استخدام الخدمات البنكية على الانترنت.												
13.كتابة المدونات												
14.البحث عن معلومات على الانترنت.												
15.الاستماع إلى الراديو على الانترنت												
16.مشاهدة التلفزيون على الانترنت.												
17.الدخول على الشبكات الاجتماعية على الانترنت مثل الفيس بوك.												
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